CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Review of Literature

2.1 Communication Skills

The importance of communication skills in profession – although with limited coverage of that on professional effectiveness per se - has been a well researched phenomenon. It starts as back as Aristotelian times. One of the earliest models of communication postulated by the great Greek philosopher Aristotle was a simple and symmetrical model that includes five essential elements of communication viz. Speaker, Speech, Audience, Occasion and Effect. In a way, Aristotle was advising speaker to customize communication according to different occasions for different effects in transactions. (Andal, 2005)

2.1.1 Nonverbal Communication

As expected, nonverbal communication is more powerful and primitive than verbal expression. We all learned to read body language before we learned to speak. The use of personal space, physical gestures, posture, facial expressions and eye contact all communicate, either congruently or incongruently, with the spoken message.

If we turn our attention towards a functionality which supposed to be most obviously impacted by the communication skills – Sales & Marketing, while the importance of communication and communication skills is emphasized in most texts on selling, communication in selling has not received much research attention. Although the effect of communication on a multitude of psychological and performance variables has been studied in other disciplines, it has not been extensively examined by sales researchers. A seminal study by Pitt and Ramaseshan (1989) filled this gap. It considers communication in the sales transaction from the perspective of communication skills, and investigates the role of communication skills as an indicator of a salesperson's performance.
Many studies have been conducted on the factors impacting the effectiveness in sales performance. McMurry (1961), in an early paper, was convinced that the effective sales personality was an individual who has a compulsive need to win and hold the affection of others. Additional traits were a high level of energy, abundant self-confidence, a chronic hunger for money, a well-established habit of industry, and a state of mind that regards each objection, resistance, or obstacle as a challenge.

An examination of the differences between perceptions of male and female salespersons by industrial buyers (Swan, Rink, Kiser and Martin, 1984) considered such attributes as "understanding of other people", friendliness, vigor and drive, knowing how to listen, inquisitiveness, confidence, self-reliance, preparation for sales presentations, understanding of buyers' problems, and a personalized presentation for each buyer.

Then there have been classic elucidations of the traits of the successful salesperson (Mayer and Greenberg, 1964) identifying only two attributes: empathy and ego-drive. The researchers also indicate that the strength of the relationship between the major determinants and salespersons' performance was affected by the type of product that the salesperson sells.

Still the most extensive study of the determinants of salesperson performance yet undertaken is a meta-analysis of 116 published and unpublished papers by Churchill, Ford, Hartley and Walker (1985). In terms of the average size of their association with salesperson performance, the determinants were ordered as follows: role variables; skill; motivation; personal factors; aptitude; and, organizational/environmental factors. When ordered according to real variation (i.e. not attributable to sampling error), the determinants were ranked: personal factors; skill, role variables; aptitude; motivation; and organizational/environmental factors.
All said and done, still, by conventional belief, the most enduring trait to search for in potential candidates would probably be the proverbial "gift of the gab". But the phrase could mean many things. It could mean that successful salesperson should have above average communication skills, and be a listener as well as a talker. On the other hand street wisdom may imply that the typical salesperson is overly smooth of tongue or good at mixing deceit with the apt amount of talking Crawford and Lumpkin (1983).

The contradiction is justifiable in the sense that while none of the aforementioned studies has specifically identified communication as a most important variable in the sales transaction, it is continually implied. A number of the major texts on selling devote whole chapters to communication—usually based on a simple model of the communication process, and communication skills (e.g. Young and Mondy, 1978; Pedersen, Wright and Weitz, 1984; Manning and Reece, 1984, Kossen, 1982; Futrell, 1984). While successful selling therefore obviously depends on successful interpersonal communication, in their review of the customer-salesperson dyad in the literature up to 1977, Capon, Holbrook and Hulbert (1977) emphasized that only a small number of studies had focused on sales interactions from a communication perspective. So the audience of the research fraternity is left with the feeling that the link between communication theory and the reality of the sales transaction is not clearly established.

To investigate afresh into it, first let's boil down to specifically defining the sales transaction. The sales transaction involves a "negotiated social process whereby people interact, explore their thoughts and feelings, exchange information, and perhaps evolve to new or novel positions and relationships" (Bonoma, Bagozzi and Zaltman, 1978). A considerable portion of this definition of the sales transaction could almost be summarised by one word—communication.

As Soidow and Thomas (1984) emphasise, "...most of the studies dealing with personal selling have ignored Webster's (1968) admonition that researchers view personal selling
as a dynamic, interactive communication process". The research that has been done has concentrated on communication in selling from the perspective of conversations between salespersons and customers (Willett and Pennington, 1966; the data re-analyzed by Olshavsky, 1973); task and emotional comments in sales conversations; relational communication—that part of a message beyond the actual content which allows communicators to negotiate their relative positions (Soidow and Thomas, 1984); communication style in the salesperson-customer dyad (Williams and Spiro, 1985); and, the characteristics of successful sales encounters (Schuster and Danes, 1986).

Therefore, although not extensively researched, the cardinal role of communication and communication skills in the selling process is clearly indicated. However, the lack of some of these skills, or whether an apprehension of communication by the salesperson will have a negative impact on his or her performance has not been considered.

This takes us to a point in time that we get introduced to another important term. For decades (beginning with the work of Lomas, 1934), oral communication scholars have explored the impact that a person's fear, or anxiety about communication have on that person's communication behavior. It has been consistently observed that there are individuals who are more apprehensive orally than others, and that this apprehension generally has a negative effect on their communication as well as on other important aspects of their lives (McCroskey, 1977).

While synonyms have sometimes been used (most notably "stage fright", "reticence", "shyness"), the term "communication apprehension" is suggested by McCroskey (1970, 1977), as being most appropriate because it more broadly represents the total of the fears and anxieties implied. It can be defined as an individual's level of fear or anxiety with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons (McCroskey, 1977). A more recent paper (Kelly, 1982) argues that reticence, communication apprehension, unwillingness to communicate, and shyness are all part of the same
problem, that they do not denote four discrete problems and that they overlap to a great extent. For purposes of this analysis then, they will be regarded as being synonymous.

The communication apprehensive person will avoid communication much of the time in order to avoid experiencing the fear or anxiety he or she has learned to associate with communication encounters. There are of course differences in degree. Speaker apprehension exists on a continuum, and people cannot simply be categorized as apprehensive or non-apprehensive. All individuals experience some degree of apprehension. There are those who are extremely apprehensive, and who become incapacitated when expected to perform some oral communication task, suffering the inevitable consequences of living in what is essentially a communication society.

Other individuals are so mildly apprehensive as to exhibit no fear at all, in fact they seem to thrive on communication. Most people fall between these two extremes. Following observations were made:

1. People who experience a high level of communication apprehension will withdraw from and seek to avoid communication when possible.

2. As a result of their withdrawal from and avoidance of communication, people who experience a high level of communication apprehension will be perceived less positively than people who experience lower levels of communication apprehension by others in their environment.

3. As a result of their withdrawal and avoidance behaviors, and in conjunction with the negative perceptions fostered by these behaviors, people who experience a high level of communication apprehension will be negatively impacted in terms of their economic, academic, political and social lives.
They opined that it is possible to predict salesperson performance with reasonable accuracy in some categories of selling situations; if you are aware of person's communication apprehension in four contexts - namely group discussions, meetings, interpersonal conversations and public speaking.

The study ended up suggesting the existence of an inverse relationship between the level of communication apprehension and quality of salesperson as judged by performance. Lower communication apprehension is an indicator of better performance. Similar inverse relationships exist in all of the four common communication contexts. The results indicate that it may be possible to predict with reasonable accuracy the sales performance of salespersons on the basis of the model of communication apprehension in certain categories of selling situations. However, caution is advisable. While the predictive ability of the overall model is reasonable, not all the context variables are equally effective—or perhaps, even necessary. It would seem feasible to rely on the interpersonal communication and group discussion contexts only. The minimal and easily obtainable data requirements make the method practicable as an additional sales selection tool, or the analysis of many infrequent decisions such as ad hoc motivation of salespersons and the assignment of specific job responsibilities to salespersons.

Let us take this opportunity in the review to go back to where it all hails from. The professionals working in the industry had their basics for business communication shaped during their stint as students in a b-school or a university teaching department. And the most important impact would have been that of the teachers or trainers grooming them on business communication. So, in a way if the business-communication teachers are the professionals in question here then their professional effectiveness should also be measured in relation to their communication skills.

However, what is relatively unclear is the nature of the effect of service employees' actions, particularly their nonverbal behavior on customers' perceptions of service
employees' characteristics (such as their friendliness, competence, and credibility). This lack of clarity is unfortunate because research in the communication field reveals that the non-verbal components are at least as important (if not more) as the verbal components of interpersonal communication in shaping the outcome of employee–customer interactions (Burgoon et al. 1990).

In fact, nearly half of the variations in response to interpersonal communication can be attributed to nonverbal factors (Mehrabian 1981). It is even suggested that non-verbal communication, the form of communicating thoughts and emotions without using words, accounts for nearly 70 per cent of all communication. Thus it is important to make an enquiry into this research-lead.

Whether in popular or academic & research literature, considerable attention has been paid to the role of non-verbal cues in the formation of initial impressions. Knapp and Hall (1992), for example, suggested a two-category taxonomy of non-verbal cues: physical attractiveness, comprising such static cues as facial appearance, body shape, and grooming; and non-verbal behaviors, comprising such dynamic cues as gestures, eye contact, and smiling. For example, in summarizing research evidence concerning the effectiveness of non-verbal communication, Mehrabian (1969) ranked the importance of communication channels and noted that 'the impact of facial expression is greatest, then the impact of . . . and finally that of words'.

In this context, one of the most famous points-of-view has been 'the dramaturgical perspective'. It is based on the 'behavior as drama' metaphor and has been applied to fields such as charismatic leadership (Gardner & Avolio, 1998) and employee affective delivery (Grandey, 2003). The dramaturgical perspective describes human behaviors as a theatrical performance in which actors strive to 'create and maintain a definition of reality to which other parties will respond' (Grove & Fisk, 1989).
That is, the audience's evaluation of the actor is dependent upon norms, scripts, and the actor's actions. Norms constitute a consensus regarding the scripts that people should or should not use to guide their behaviors (Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988), whereas scripts are coherent sequences of events expected by the individuals who participate in or observe social interactions (Abelson, 1976). People who enter into a given social interaction typically enact a given script that guides their actions, as well as their reactions to others' behaviors. So, the basic tenet of the dramaturgical perspective is that situational cues influence not only an actor’s behavior, but also an audience’s expectation of what an ideal performer should be (Grove & Fisk, 1989).

Gabbott and Hogg (2001) recommend that as nonverbal communication will inevitably take place during a face-to-face service encounter, and can be used by both parties to regulate and manage that encounter. So, the objective for service management is to facilitate that communication. This can be achieved in two main ways. First, through training employees in the use and interpretation of non-verbal cues and Second, by designing the service process and physical surroundings in such a way as to enhance the possibility for the correct encoding and decoding of this type of information.

Parker (2004) talked in his paper more in terms of communication’s role in marketing. He says that at the end of the day, successful marketing is all about persuading and conversing with customers because that’s what translates into business. He further stated that in the marketing communication, words – the vocabulary – matters a lot. Before deciding what to write, it is important to think about the reader, to ensure that there is right tone and structure.

According to him, the best marketing makes the prospect feel that he is interacting with a real person who represents the company rather than a sales person who is trying to push something down his throat. And if that person is missing, the communication doesn't work. Yet he talks about something really unique that "great business writing is also
about finding ways to put more of your own personality into your communication. Flashes of personality are what really engage us. It's where the emotion comes in”. Parker then culminates by stating that whatever psychology underlies communications, the proof of its effectiveness is in the results it achieves. And then he almost professes by adding that even if it won't translate into numbers, but it will translate into confidence, creativity and a willingness to try things out.

It also includes the understanding of how to engage in effective communication exchanges with a variety of audiences in terms of what is said, how it is said, to whom it is said, and why it is said (Hymes, 1964). This marks entry of another term into our communication lexicon which deserves some closer look. Although communicative competence came out of the study of sociolinguistics—that is, how language and culture interact within a society—this term developed a broader usage to include other communication interactions like giving speeches, interacting in a group, negotiating conflict, and engaging in interpersonal communication, to name a few.

Gentry and Kuhnert (2007) in their influential article express that of the many business challenges leaders face, communicating effectively with their employees is one of the most important ones. Effective communication is also the basis for a number of other leadership competencies. Leaders need to understand that they are never ‘not communicating’. As a result, their awareness and use of nonverbal communication may be a key factor in improving their leadership abilities.

It is crucial because most people attend more to nonverbal cues than they do to spoken words. And though it is difficult to fully understand nonverbal communication, yet it is important to keep striving to be better at it because inability to recognize a nonverbal signal or behavior or to give one that is not congruent with the conversation or situation, can have damaging effects on people and pursuits of the organization. So, to recognize the significance of nonverbal communication is not enough, it is equally important to
keep correctly identifying and relaying the correct nonverbal behaviors to fit the situation.

However, you should realize that you must not only give the correct nonverbal signals and behaviors to others but also—and possibly more important—correctly identify and interpret the nonverbal signals others are giving to you. Gentry and Kuhnert in their research found that those leaders who are better able to recognize nonverbal expressions of emotion in facial expressions and tone of voice believe themselves to be better at certain aspects of leadership, particularly in the domain of relationships.

Still, it all boils down to something way beyond the signals, gestures and postures! Finally a leader's nonverbal communication can be of great value only if leaders approach others genuinely and authentically. Because if leaders' main motivation is to seek personal gain then their nonverbal communication is likely to hurt their trustworthiness and credibility in the eyes of their followers! As Einstein stated, "All means prove but a blunt instrument, if they have not behind them a living spirit."

Reddick (2009) says "By correctly reading other people's nonverbal cues, you can discover their underlying meaning. And by understanding what your body is saying, you can become more confident, credible and persuasive."

She further adds that the moment you meet a prospective client, they judge you by what they see and feel. The process takes less than 10 seconds, but the impression is permanent. Whether you make or break a sale can literally depend on the silent signals that you send during this first contact. It is critical for people to understand and use body language.

Dumbrava and Koronka (2009)'s paper related to 'Body language in Business Communication' starts from two premises, namely that business communication is a specific form of human interaction, and 70% of our communication is non-verbal. Therefore, relying on the latest findings in the field, their research dealt with such basic elements of non-verbal communication as the use of interpersonal space and body
language in order to prove their value as social cues, interpretable on the level of the collective unconscious and capable of enhancing or undermining the verbal message.

They eventually put yet another seal on the known truth that non-verbal communication has a much greater impact and higher reliability than the spoken word, due to people’s capacity to interpret symbols and cues recognizable on the level of collective memory. Since our body language reveals our deepest feelings and hidden thoughts to our interlocutors, a major part of our communication is perceived nonverbally. Consequently, as a form of human interaction, business communication largely relies on people’s capacity to handle such social cues as the use of interpersonal space and body language in order to support and enhance what we communicate verbally.

Rane (2010) says that “On scientific analysis, it has been found that the different aspects of communication comprise 55% bodily movements and gestures, 38% vocal tone and only 7% words or verbal communication. It is thus clear that about 93% of communication is nonverbal, as many times, words are inadequate.” He further adds that “This shows that correct use of body language serves as an effective nonverbal communication tool to convince fellow-workers at workplace, as well as family and friends, eventually leading to overall organizational success through self-development. It further leads to personal and professional growth of an employee, ultimately benefitting the organization.”

Hulea (2010) opines that owing to communication, organizations transmit to their customers the proposal that they are capable of meeting one of their needs, of solving a problem or of offering a benefit. According to the paper, Non-verbal and Para-verbal communications usually accompany verbal communication and thus assimilating the forms of communication is, at an organizational level, a complex device that determines the mastering of certain techniques, procedures, and algorithms of encoding and decoding intricate messages transmitted through various channels.
Hulea further makes a case for the importance of holistic communication by saying that the tonality, frequency, and rhythm of speech are, most often, as important as the words. Nonverbal message should be given most attention by the receiver as it is most close to the emitter's reality. So in order to be effective at judging people, it is important to see people's nonverbal cues to decode what lies beneath the verbal message and what is not intended to be transmitted. The author then says tongue-in-cheek that it isn't for nothing that people say that there is a sixth sense that receives the information which is not verbally expressed by the emitter.

Holtzman and Kraft (2011) took up an important research on the skills needed in the 21st century workplace. The purpose of this research was to determine what skills alumni from Richard Stockton College of New Jersey (RSC) and regional employers think are important for the workplace. The results were interesting.

The top 5 skills that alumni identified as very important or important were: Thinking critically/analytically (98%); Locating, Organizing, Evaluating Relevant Information (97%); Interpersonal skills (96%); Time management (96%); and Speaking/oral communications (96%)

On the other hand, the top five skills that employers identified as very important or important were: Interpersonal skills (100%); Time management (100%); Speaking/oral communications (98%); Ethical Understanding (98%); and Adapting to change/being flexible (96%).

Thus, managing time, speaking/oral communications skills, and having strong interpersonal skills were in the top five skills identified by both employers and alumni. In the RSC survey the researchers identified oral communication skills/speaking and written communication skills as two separate skills whereas the AACU (Association of American Colleges and Universities) survey combined the skills as the ability to communicate
orally and in writing. But whatever the case, the study did put a stamp of approval that when it comes to careers, holistic communication skills are the answer to many questions.

This premise led Ruppert and Green (2012) to take up a study in ‘Practicing What We Teach: Credibility and Alignment in the Business Communication Classroom’. Their quest was based on the thought of Williams (2006) who encourages us to view universities as regular organizations and consequently argues that business communication principles are just as applicable to university communication as to communication in the business world. She describes how “campuses are living laboratories where communication is of vital importance and where the principles for effective communication should be understood and practiced,” maintaining that students are “members of an organization”.

When business communication instructors fail to model effective communication behaviors, they undermine their credibility. To be sure, students are likely to criticize any instructor who addresses them condescendingly in a face-to-face meeting, who distributes a poorly written syllabus, or who reads directly from presentation slides in class. Although these instructors may be criticized for their poor communication behaviors, these criticisms do not equate to accusations of disciplinary incompetence. Yet effective business communication instructors should be experts in interpersonal interaction, in strategic message crafting and document design, and in the use of visual aids in presentations. Indeed, most of what business communication instructors do or say in their interactions with their students draws on their disciplinary competence. With communication behaviors being so important to instructor credibility (Cook, 2002), every interaction business communication instructors have with their students presents them with an opportunity to enhance or undermine instructor credibility. In short, business communication instructors are rarely, if ever, off duty.

During the review of literature, I came across a study which really gave very different yet important insights into the role that all types of communication play in the professional
arena. The recent and rapid rise in Internet usage has resulted in companies relying increasingly on the use of artificial rather than human agents to provide information to customers. So, the service encounter takes place with an artificial agent with a two-dimensional face and body.

At this point of time, let's review our own view of communication. Communication is a dynamic, unending, and non-linear process. 'It is a process in which interrelated elements work together to achieve a desired outcome or goal' (Barker 1984). Each one of us today is exposed to innumerable bits of information, ideas, and thoughts which we receive, filter, process, evaluate, and store. This daily stimulus transforms us to some extent on a regular basis. The recipient becomes the communicator and this cycle is repeated over and over again.

Now, in the context of service delivery, this is quite appropriate as 'services are seen as processes cogenerated together with the consumer, and all contact-points between the consumer and the service company are moments-of-truth' (Gronroos 1987). When an employee has an interaction with the customer, every contact point communicates something about the organization and its products. This has both its pros and cons. Yet one thing is for sure that to the firm, a service encounter represents an opportunity to demonstrate quality, to build trust and commitment between the firm and the customer, and to increase customer loyalty through relationship building (Bitner 1995).

This insight that the contact points form and influence the consumer-perceived value of service is an important one for the marketing function. That's why one of the most important terms in management happens to be the 'moments of truth' – more often than not it takes place when the organization interfaces with the customer. At that time, the person who interacts with the customer is ‘the organization’ for him. Jain, Sethi and Mukherji (2009) ventured to study the impact of ‘communication during service encounters’ on customer’s perception of organization image – an important study in its own right.
They argue that communication is an essential part of the service and, consequently, it can create or destroy consumer-perceived value. The employees' display of affective characteristics, such as friendliness, responsiveness, and enthusiasm, positively influence customers' overall evaluation of service consumption experiences and perceptions of service quality. Further, the employees' verbal behavior during an encounter (such as words of greeting and courtesy) affect customer perceptions of employee friendliness and consequently enhance the perceived quality of the service interaction (Elizur 1987).

If you get into the minute details then you would find that the receptionist at the call centre and the service engineer who actually visits the customers are the primary interface between the company and the customer. Now, it is an important fact that customers view a company as a single entity and not as a collection of departments or offices. If a customer calls to make a complaint, the customer service representative represents the whole organization to him. She can help improve the customer's interaction with the company and also the perception. Or for that matter, when the service engineer visits the customer a contact point is established and the verbal and non-verbal communication which unfolds at this contact point influences the consumer-perceived value of the firm.

In some cases, the personality of the engineer can also be a major factor for soothing nerves. In the study by Jain, Sethi and Mukherji, a number of domestic customers reported that they had built up a personal rapport with the engineer and he often went out of the way to find solutions. Some of the respondents mentioned that they were purchasing the annual maintenance contracts of the company only because of the rapport with the service engineer although they were dissatisfied on the responsiveness and assurance parameters.
Thus, this point, and also the whole study of Jain, Sethi and Mukherji reinforces the viewpoint that communication during service encounters definitely creates an impact on customers’ perception of the image of the company. Effective communication right at the onset of the service encounter, which is often a distress call to the call centre or service provider, goes a long way in contributing to the quality of the service and importantly to the satisfaction of the customer.

In their study investigating “the unique predictability of applicant non-verbal cues (physical attractiveness and nonverbal behaviors) on interviewer evaluation, and whether situational variables (i.e., customer-contact requirement and gender-type consistency) moderate the relationships between applicant non-verbal cues and interviewer evaluations”, Tsai, Huang, and Yu (2012) employed this dramaturgical perspective.

If a job interview is viewed as a theatre, the interviewer is likely to play the role of an audience while the applicant may take the role of an actor. Applicants would strive to manage their gestures, facial expressions, clothing, and personal appearance, as well as their spoken words, and these may independently or jointly affect the evaluations made by the interviewer. On the other side, as the role of job applicant is usually well-defined by interview norms, the interviewers would evaluate job applicants based on their understanding of how the role of job candidate should be played.

Such an arrangement, however, may not hold true in the context of job interviews, because applicants’ verbal responses to interview questions are, according to some researchers, one of the most influential factors that affect interviewers’ hiring decisions (e.g., Burnett & Motowidlo, 1998; Hollandsworth, Kazelskis, Stevens, & Dressel, 1979). Yet, although the quality of applicant verbal content may be one of the most important factors influencing selection decisions, Tsai, Huang, and Yu believed that, for two reasons, applicants’ non-verbal cues can predict interviewer evaluations beyond the effects of their verbal content.
First, according to the dramaturgical perspective, an actor’s performance is a compound of his or her appearance, words, and non-verbal behaviours (Gardner, 1992). Each of these elements can influence other people’s perception of the actor. As such, applicants’ physical attractiveness and non-verbal behaviours, as well as their verbal responses, may each explain a unique portion of rating variability in interviewer evaluations.

Second, verbal cues are likely to elicit systematic information processing, whereas non-verbal cues may automatically induce heuristic processing of messages (Burgoon & Hoobler, 2002). Because heuristic information processing requires recipients to exert comparatively little effort in judging message validity, interviewers may use relatively general rules (scripts, schemata) to evaluate applicants (e.g., ‘what is beautiful is good’ effect; Feingold, 1992).

Moreover, while using non-verbal cues to attribute personality characteristics to the applicant, interviewers may use applicant verbal responses to assess the extent to which the applicant possesses job-related knowledge and skills (Conway & Peneno, 1999; Taylor & Small, 2002). For example, physical attractiveness is associated with perceptions of extraversion, dominance, warmth, and intelligence (Albright, Kenny, & Malloy, 1988; Feingold, 1992), whereas the uses of smiles, eye contact, hand gestures, and head movements lead to perceptions such as directness, honesty, consciousness, warmth, and friendliness (Bayes, 1972; DeGroot & Gooty, 2009; Gifford, Ng, & Wilkinson, 1985).

Taken together, the researcher-trio expected that both applicant physical attractiveness and nonverbal behaviours would explain unique variance in interviewer evaluation beyond the effect of applicant verbal content. The results were interesting. Unexpectedly, no significant relationship was found between applicant’s non-verbal behaviors and interviewer evaluations. On the one hand, their results corroborate those uncovered by
Rasmussen (1984), who noted that non-verbal behavior may have little effect on interview ratings when the quality of other information sources (e.g., resume and verbal information) varies widely among the applicants (as in real job-interview contexts). On the other hand, their results differ from those obtained in a recent meta-analysis by Barrick et al. (2009), who found a positive relationship between applicant non-verbal behaviors and interviewer evaluations.

Such a seemingly inconsistent finding may result from different research designs employed in the two studies. So, their results are not necessarily in contradiction with Barrick et al.'s. As Burgoon and Hoobler (2002) noted, non-verbal behaviours may sometimes be used to repeat or accentuate verbal information. Hence, it seems that non-verbal behaviours may serve the primary function of facilitating the flow of verbal information in job interviews. If so, their findings suggest that it is important to control for multiple information sources when examining the effects of non-verbal behaviours in future research.

On the second front, as expected, interviewers placed greater weight on physical attractiveness in forming their evaluations when the job required a relatively high level of interaction with customers. Likewise, the effect of applicant physical attractiveness became stronger when there was a high sex-type consistency perception. In Whetten's (1989) terms, such a study supplements the existing theory by pointing out 'when' or 'for whom' an effect of interest is most likely to be manifested. Their results suggest that job characteristics and demands such as, perceived job sex-type and customer contact requirement may be important situational opportunities and constraints that affect the functional relationships between applicant physical attractiveness and interviewer evaluation. Research on physical attractiveness in the employment interview has come a long way. Further examination of how other situational constraints (e.g., requirements of telecommuting or the status of the job) interact with physical attractiveness to influence interviewer evaluation may be a fruitful avenue in this area.
Subapriya (2009) while studying the importance of nonverbal cues makes a statement that communication skills is the success mantra of an individual in this globalized world, which has branched into a wide variety of divisions and techniques. Yet, in order to make the communication not only denotative but also connotative, and to convey the meaning of a text to the readers and listeners completely, nonverbal cues are indispensable. Both the oral and written styles attain perfection with the usage of non-verbal cues. The verbal sign (language) and the non-verbal cues together in the right proportion pave the way for a meaningful communication.

Non-verbal signal operates at two levels. Non-verbal cues in writing involves the form of stylistic features like headings, titles, subheadings, photographs, captions, figures, graphs and bar charts, etc., whereas oral communication involves non-verbal signals like gestures, postures, facial expressions, pace, intensity, tone of voice and body language. If verbal sign carries the content of the subject, non-verbal sign enhances the emotional meaning. Stereotypes can also be avoided through verbal and non-verbal cues.

When we talk about this, there are two dynamic aspects of social interaction that have a direct bearing upon service delivery; the creation and maintenance of empathy and the management of power and control. Gabbott and Hogg (2001) made an attempt to study the role of nonverbal communication in this context. In this backdrop, it is important to talk about what all roles does nonverbal communication play? According to Richmond and McCroskey (2000) there are six inter-related functions of Nonverbal Communication:

1. To simply repeat or reinforce a verbal message
2. As substitute for a verbal message
3. To accent or emphasize a verbal message
4. To contradict a verbal message
5. To regulate the process of social intercourse
6. To project a subtle indication of emotion
Let's take the empathy first! Argyle (1994) maintains that the nonverbal communication changes with the level of empathy, and vice versa. For instance, interpersonal distance reduces as empathy increases and touching becomes a feature of more empathetic relationship states. Argyle (1994) identifies a number of non-verbal behaviors which he classifies as indicative of affiliation between individuals. They can be grouped into facial expression, (smiling, open eye gesturing, mutual gaze, and expressions of active interest); physical orientation (open postures, nodding of the head, leaning forward, facing the customer, physical proximity), and vocal tone (softer tone of voice, with a higher pitch and an upward pitch contour). Taken together these behaviors communicate an empathetic state that facilitates the development of trust and leads directly to co-operative behavior.

Now, let's take power and control! In order to deliver the service, the provider must exert some control over the process. This can be achieved through regulating the encounters' timeline, through guiding or directing the consumer, or by managing the allocation of tasks within the encounter. Each of these involves both verbal and nonverbal communication. For example, a service provider can signal a customer to wait by not looking up, by facing away from the customer or frowning upon approach. Alternatively, making eye contact, facial expression or beckoning can encourage engagement.

These behaviors can be used throughout the encounter to regulate activity and often to switch between task and non-task elements of the exchange for instance while waiting for sub-processes to be completed. During a professional service encounter, the provider may use NVC to communicate different phases of the exchange, e.g. changing voice tone, leaning forward; reshuffling papers, or looking at a watch indicates that the non-task social interaction has now ceased in favor of 'getting down to business'. These non-verbal behaviors establish the professional's authority to control or regulate the exchange. There are a number of non-verbal techniques to encourage compliance when needed; more
direct or focused gaze, greater proximity, greater facial activity, more smiling, guiding gestures, or the adoption of faster and louder vocal styles (Hall 1963, Paterson 1983).

2.1.2 Verbal Communication:

As early as 1956, it had been reported that leaders at the lower management level (foreman) used nearly half of their daily working hours ‘simply’ talking to others. Mintzberg (1973) reported that communication occupied 78% of the working day. Yukl (2002) argues that research of managerial activities has shown that lower and middle managers are involved in oral communication for anywhere between 27% and 82% of their work time, during which they are busy exchanging information or influencing people.

The importance of the role of communication is evident when leaders carry out activities such as communicating goals to their followers, clarifying standards of fulfillment, giving feedback etc., all of which can be done effectively using (verbal) communication. Interaction and communication seem therefore to be very important tools for leading successfully. Leaders have different means of interaction however, leaders tend to prefer face-to-face interaction and oral communication for receiving and giving the up-to-date information needed to aid effectiveness (Yukl, 2002). Consequently, followers’ perceptions of leaders’ behaviors will be based to an important extent on the personal verbal communication behavior of their leaders.

Communicative behaviours have two main functions for the fulfillment of work demands. To begin with, communicative behaviours convey information that is needed to understand the objective of work tasks, and they include feedback about the state of fulfillment of a task. Furthermore, communication transmits attitudes towards the interaction partner.
Solomon et al. (1985) define the service encounter as a dyadic interaction entirely consisting of a close interpersonal exchange between, for instance, an employee and a customer (Lutz and Kakker 1976, Evans 1963, and Shostack 1977). These primarily social occasions, allow strangers to interact using both task and ceremonial behaviors (Klaus 1985). Service encounters are at the heart of the services marketing debate and their management and evaluation has been a central theme of many a research endeavor. The work of Iacobucci and Ostrom (1995) for example, has served to highlight the importance of personal interaction in determining customer satisfaction, perceived service quality and customer retention.

Brown and Hemdl (1986) discovered that managers deliberately employed superfluous nominalizations and narrative, structures understood as "verbose" and "muddy" and which these managers could have eliminated. Similarly, it was found in other study that automotive field managers persisted in using narrative for their reports despite the company's declared preference for an inductive problem recommendation format. These and other findings suggest the inadequacy of writing rules, forms and formulas that do not account for situational demands communicators face day-to-day. As Janis (1973) writes: "Anyone who is willing to make a comparison cannot fail to be impressed by the disparity between 'rules' that govern the style of business correspondence and the actual on-the-job performance in almost any large company".

Quinn, Hildebrandt, Rogers and Thompson (1991) in their paper on Presentation Communication discuss that Communication is an ancient discipline which has evolved considerably. Throughout this evolutionary process, effectiveness has been a central concern. In the fifth century BC, for instance, Corax, one of the first teachers of human discourse, suggested the need for speakers to "produce an effect in listeners" (Hinks, 1940; Kennedy, 1959).

Henderson (2003) in his study, done specifically in context of healthcare industry, maintained that owing to the complex nature of the organizations in the industry and their need to be real-time in adapting to the changing needs, every change-function has to be
based on shared understanding. This requires a process of information dissemination, consultation, discussion, planning and training even before the execution begins. None of this can be achieved without effective communication. He talks about the various communication technologies that have evolved with the passage of time but maintains that to use them to their full potential, the managers will need to develop new skills related to communication.

In the similar genre, work by Luecke (2003) deliberates on communication as an effective tool for motivating employees involved in change. It is essential in overcoming resistance to change initiatives, for preparing employees for the pluses and minuses of change, and for giving employees a personal stake in the change process. However, it cannot be just paying a lip service to the spirit of the word, it has to be backed by proper rationale and style that suits both the occasion and the result being targeted.

But on such occasions, it is not about just the softer issues but also about the discrete work on leader’s part. His communication includes giving employees feedback and reinforcement to guarantee their motivation to implement and manage change (Peterson & Hicks, 1996). Positive feedback and reinforcement powerfully encourage employee participation and involvement. Without proper feedback, employees make hasty and uninformed decisions regarding their choices, responses and performance, resulting in mistakes that can lead to disastrous results. This can be costly as in such extreme circumstances, there is a lot at stake. And without feedback, employees do not have a sense of navigation about where they are, how they are doing, or whether they are applying new skills and knowledge appropriately.

Pittenger, Miller and Mott (2004) in their work express that in numerous surveys, the employers, graduate students, academicians, and others continue to list oral and written communication among the most critical skills needed by business students today (Hynes & Bhatia, 1996; Maes, Weldy, & Icenogle, 1997; Plutsky, 1996; Wardrope, 2002). They also quote that the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business
Review of Literature

(AACSB) International (2004) continues to recognize the importance of communication skills in its latest standards. Not surprisingly, Wardrope (2002) found that a communication course was required at 76% of the institutions surveyed. So the debate is not about the value of Communication or its impact on effectiveness; but more on extent of it and the interplay of the variables related to it.

While acknowledging the emerging role of Information Technology (IT) in healthcare industry, firstly the researchers Angst, Devaraj and D'Arcy, (2012) reiterate the importance of communication (both verbal and nonverbal) in enhancing the satisfaction level of the customers during the entirety of a hospital stay. They believe that the key is the messages about the quality of care patients receive in the form of overt and discreet communication cues from their doctors, nurses, staff, and others. More importantly, they envisage and envision the role of IT in this process of care. They say that given the value-creation and value-addition IT does for more or less all the domains of the industry, it is important to establish the value that it can create in a communication process in a collaborative work environment through multiple pathways; and test the impact these processes have on important outcomes such as mortality and patient loyalty and ratings.

They found out that as the hospitals are basically the settings for shared cognition that involve the coordination between individuals, artifacts, and the environment. A characteristic of shared cognition settings is that cognitive processes are distributed across the members of a social group. In hospitals, many work activities are distributed across individuals and their environment and carried out jointly by people with their tools. They view IT as a tool that facilitates shared cognition for these collaborative activities by improving communication processes.

This way, these inferences hold important practical implications for health-care management. Investigation of the business value of IT in the health-care industry is sparse and business leaders are increasingly being called upon to demonstrate return on investment. At the same time, there is tremendous pressure from external entities to
implement more IT as a means of improving care and reducing cost. (Angst, Devaraj and D'Arcy, 2012) Their study is a living proof of how communication when backed by the IT infrastructure can create value in the holistic sense for the healthcare industry.

The existing research on listening in the workplace clearly points to the important role of listening in the communication process. Despite the consistently supportive findings concerning the importance of listening in organizational contexts, the role of listening in workplace judgments of the communication competence of co-workers remains unclear (Haas and Arnold, 1995). This is not to claim that listening is believed to be unimportant in the workplace. In fact, a growing body of research suggests that listening ability, or the perception of effective listening, is inextricably linked to effective individual performance in organizations (Brownell, 1990; Cooper & Husband, 1993; Golen, 1990; Lewis & Reinsch, 1988; Smeltzer & Watson, 1984; Seibert, 1990; Sypher, Bostrom, & Seibert, 1987).

Zhao and Alexander (2004) in their study regarding the effectiveness of business communication courses state that the employers require their employees to have good communication skills and expect that college students will possess such skills when they graduate (Cappel, 2002; Epstein, 1999; Stowers & White, 1999; U.S. Department of Labor, 2002) because learning business communication has a direct bearing on various affiliated skills like developing a good foundation of skills in writing reports, solving problems, performing teamwork and oral communication, and using the Internet technologies.

While reviewing the studies and papers on this theme, I personally realized that the scope of communication’s significance and role only goes vertically up in the situations which place unique demands on management posed by the unique responses the situations solicit. For instance, Rousseau & Tijoriwala (1999) in similar backdrop talk about how leaders are advised to provide abundant information to employees about proposed changes and innovation, inform employees about the rationale for change, hold meetings
to address employees’ questions and concerns, and give those who feel the impact of the change opportunities to discuss how change might affect them. These acts are not merely some words on a do-it manual because when they are executed then they unravel into a complex set of pursuits requiring high degree of communication-literacy. They require the optimized and fine balancing of placing the points in front of the people in a way that neither offends them nor scares them into the entry to the world of uncertainty. Thus, leader has to be at his communicating best to get this done.

Khandwalla (2004) studied 73 managers attending training programmes for top and senior level managers at the Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad, and several associates of these managers. The ratings of each participant and his/her associates for the participant’s role effectiveness and competencies were averaged to secure scores for each participant. Correlation analysis was employed to identify relationships between perceived role effectiveness and perceived competencies. In his work, he enlisted ‘Puts across his/her point of view clearly and persuasively’, ‘Is a patient listener and judges only after fully understanding the other person’ and ‘Calmly gives to others a correct picture of his/her thoughts and feelings’ as important competencies; and eventually placed ‘Capacity for clear and persuasive communication’ as one of the core competencies for strategic roles.

On the similar lines, Gillard & Price (2005) came up with a list of ten competencies for effective project managers. They enlist ‘Use of oral communication’ as one of the competencies. They state that the ability to run effective meetings and to make oral presentations are competencies exhibited by managers who communicate effectively. Often they use symbols, verbal communication, nonverbal behavior, and visual aids to make clear and convincing presentations to others (Boyatzis, 1982; Goodings, 1999; Potter, 2001; Zenger & Folkman, 2003; Schettler, 2002)

Whitworth and Riccomini (2005) quote in their study a survey-work at General Electric and Hewlett-Packard in the 1980s when the two companies quantitatively established the correlation between managerial communication effectiveness and employee satisfaction
based on questions in employee attitude surveys that focused on one-to-one communication. The conclusion that came out was that the better the manager's communication, the more satisfied the employees were with all aspects of their work life. It became further evident that the better a manager communicates with his or her employees, the better their job performance.

Yet what was the most interesting component was the new point that Whitworth and Riccomini established! They say that as organizations and communication technologies have evolved, now, many other channels can convey information to employees more quickly and with more detail than the immediate manager. Rather, now the manager's role has shifted from providing information content to providing information context. Unlike most other formal channels, managerial communication can be two-way. Managers can listen to employees' unique information concerns and provide customized responses.

Moshabaky (2006) believes that today, it is a first-grade skill and no manager, of whatever rank, can stay negligent towards it. It can be considered as the main means of all management processes like decision making, knowledge sharing, awareness, motivation, individual and group goals, coordinating actions and measures, mental health and work environment and job satisfaction (Sarmad, 2010). He says that effective communication for managers is important for two reasons, first communication is a process by which managers pursue their main tasks of the planning, organization, leadership and control and second, the communication is an activity that managers will spend most time doing (Stoner, et all, 2010). Studies show that managers share 9% of working days to read, 16 % to write, 30 % to dialogue, 45% to listening.

With this in mind, Mohr and Wolfram (2008) studied the effectiveness of 'verbal consideration'. Although the results of their study weren't as expected yet they inferred that verbal consideration, which is more than just giving information, contains a positive
attitude towards the follower. And thus it could be seen as a kind of reward for high goal fulfillment. They opine that it makes sense to assume that verbal consideration can be the beginning of a self-supporting feedback loop: it helps to reach good goal fulfillment and this, in turn, leads to even more appreciation of the follower by further verbal consideration from the leader.

However, Byron (2008) contends that “the proliferation of email communication has also introduced some challenges not associated with other communication media. Research and theory suggest one likely deleterious effect of email use is harm to workplace relationships.” But even in the seemingly-disconnected medium like e-mails, a part of communication as far-fetched as ‘interpersonal’ has retained its significance.

Yates (2008) in his study related to delivering effective employee-communication starts out by saying that the effective communication is good for business. While it’s a common-sense proposition, the cost of organizational communication programs gives rise to complicated questions. How much difference does effective communication with employees really make for an employer? And, on a practical level, how can a company communicate more effectively with today’s diverse and increasingly complex workforce?

Then Yates goes on to state that Watson Wyatt Worldwide has surveyed more than 750 companies representing more than 12 million employees around the world in an effort to answer those questions with an aim to find evidence of the best practices in organizational communication—those that deliver the highest return. Their 2007/2008 Communication Return on Investment (ROI) Study confirms the findings that communication effectiveness is a leading indicator of financial performance.

In the support of his argument, Yates produces startling facts that companies with superior employee communication provided a 47 percent higher total return to shareholders over five years (2002–2006) compared with those firms at the bottom of the communication effectiveness scale. The study also found that companies that implement
or improve their communication practices by one significant deviation can achieve a 15.7 percent increase in market or shareholder value. So, he says that the bottom line is: improving communication effectiveness can translate into tens or hundreds of millions of dollars in added shareholder value for small and large companies alike.

Tuleja and Greenhalgh (2008) take the matter all the way back to the b-school. In their paper they talk about how in the 1990s, Business schools across the country were challenged to revamp their curricula to meet the changing demands of employers (Bacon & Anderson, 2004; Knight, 1999a, 1999b; Maes, Weldy, & Icenogle, 1997; Wardrope, 2002; Winsor, Curtis, & Stephens 1996). The changing demand was an increased emphasis on leadership and communication skills. He quotes for instance, the business press, most notably The Wall Street Journal, had observed that the most important skill employers seek is oral communication (“How to Get Hired,” 2004; “Playing Well With Others,” 2002; “What’s News,” 1998).

As a result, many reputable B-schools decided to follow the concept of Communication Across the Curriculum (CXC) movement, which emphasizes integration of communication skills within courses across the academic disciplines because it was evident that employers have high expectations that their workers will possess strong communication skills including writing, speaking, and interpersonal skills (Cappel, 2002; Wardrope & Bayless, 1999; Zhao & Alexander, 2004). But their desire for communicative competence doesn’t stop here.

Here, it would be felicitous to recall a study already quoted earlier, that of Keyton, Caputo, Ford, Fu, ,Leibowitz, Liu, Polasik, Ghosh & Wu (2013). In their study, they discuss one absolutely excellent point that buried within rankings and evaluations is an over-generalized view of communication, as large-scale surveys tend to lump all types of communication tasks into one category of oral communication (e.g., Maes, Weldy, & Icenogle,1997).
To determine the verbal communication behaviors that are commonly used, they first clarified the term. According to them, skills are what people perform as behaviors and tasks are what people are paid to do. When a communication skill is enacted at work, it then becomes a work task or activity. Thus, communication behaviors are composed of acts, interacts, and double interacts, or sets of them (Fisher, 1980).

To understand these processes of communication as work, they argue that the focus should be on behaviors or tasks, the smallest unit of communication to complete work. They believe that by focusing on communication behavior rather than attitudes about communication behavior, we can move closer to a descriptive, and potentially predictive, model of workplace communication work behavior, which can be used to develop meaningful skill-oriented training and performance evaluation. Thus, they came up with a nuanced list of 44 communication behaviors:

**Table 2.1: Communication behaviors at the workplace**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Creating relationships</th>
<th>23. Asking questions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Scheduling</td>
<td>24. Getting feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Seeking approval</td>
<td>25. Cooperating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Managing others</td>
<td>26. Thanking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Creating small talk</td>
<td>27. Giving examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Questioning</td>
<td>28. Creating clarity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Accommodating others</td>
<td>31. Agreeing</td>
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<td>10. Supporting others</td>
<td>32. Seeking information</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Briefing others</td>
<td>33. Suggesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Complaining</td>
<td>34. Discussing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Making decisions</td>
<td>35. Giving advice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
15. Greeting others
16. Giving opinions
17. Explaining
18. Planning
19. Listening
20. Addressing others
21. Giving feedback
22. Problem solving
37. Answering questions
38. Telling stories
39. Following directions
40. Showing respect
41. Sharing information
42. Seeking feedback
43. Evaluating information
44. Revealing information

In context of the current research, there is another point-of-view that needs to be addressed. With the advent of business uncertainties in 21st century, numerous structural changes occurring in organizations have resulted flattening of organizational hierarchies stifling the upward mobility of supervisors. Subsequently, there has been a decline in morale and loyalty by those stagnated supervisors. The frustration and anger resulting from this limited mobility may serve as a catalyst for displays of verbal aggression. This fact kindled a need of a research with its base in communication and root in job-satisfaction of such supervisors’ subordinates.

Stouten and De Cremer (2010) conducted a research on the interpersonal effects of emotions by examining whether the facial expression rather than the verbally communicated emotions of others of the emotions anger and happiness affects one’s own decision behavior in social dilemmas.

It has been found out through researches that in the context of social dilemma situations, issues of trust are important, because they promote cooperation (De Cremer, Snyder, & Dewitte, 2001; Parks & Hulbert, 1995) and people’s willingness to trust explanations and promises of other group members (Shapiro, 1991; Tomlinson, Dineen, & Lewicki, 2004). And if people trust the other person, they perceive this person as more honest and are
more likely to take into account the other person's verbal communication (Tomlinson et al., 2004).

Stouten and De Cremer found it congruent because in their study, the experiments showed that if the other person displayed happiness he or she was perceived as honest, trustworthy, and reliable, and cooperation was increased when verbal communication was cooperative rather than self-interested. However, if the other person displayed anger, verbal communication did not influence people's decision behavior. Results also showed interactive effects on people's perceptions of trustworthiness, which partially mediated decision behavior. These findings suggest that emotion displays in conjunction with verbal communication have an important function in organizational settings because they are able to influence social interactions and cooperative behavior.

Madlock and Kennedy-Lightsey (2010) took up the mantle! They examined the association between supervisors' mentoring and verbal aggression and their subordinates' perceived communication satisfaction, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The findings of the sample of working adults who participated in the study supported prior research indicating positive relationships between mentoring behaviors by supervisors and their subordinates' communication satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction, and negative relationships between supervisors' verbal aggression and their subordinates' communication satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction.

In their study, the results of a regression analysis indicated that supervisors' verbal aggression was a greater negative predictor of subordinates' outcomes than was mentoring a positive predictor, supporting the presence of a negativity bias in the supervisor-subordinate relationship. Additionally, path analysis indicated that communication satisfaction fully mediated the relationship between supervisor mentoring
and subordinate organizational commitment, whereas communication satisfaction served as a suppressor between mentoring and subordinate job satisfaction.

Yet another important goal of the study conducted by Madlock and Kennedy-Lightsey was to provide a communication lens through which to examine the existence of a negativity bias within the workplace (Rook, 1984, 1998).

Communication appears to play a critical role in the superior-subordinate relationship and subordinates’ feeling about and toward their job and the workplace. Burgoon and Koper (1984) reporting that less-than-competent communicators often have their behaviors interpreted as hostile. Scholars have conceptualized verbal aggression as communication that attacks another person’s self-concept (Infante, 1987; Infante & Rancer, 1982, 1996; Infante & Wigley, 1986) and is considered to be an expression of hostility because it hurts the person(s) involved. Verbally aggressive messages include character attacks, competence attacks, physical appearance attacks, malediction, teasing, ridicule, threats, swearing, and nonverbal behaviors (Infante, 1987).

Communication factors found to be associated with job satisfaction, include superiors’ display of nonverbal immediacy (Madlock, in press; Richmond & McCroskey, 2000), effect of gender (Madlock, 2008; Serini, Toth, Wright, & Emig, 1997), superiors’ communication styles (Richmond, McCroskey, Davis, & Koontz, 1980), and mentoring (Bahniuk, Dobos, & Hill, 1990; Scandura & Williams, 2004).

Moreover, strong positive relationships have been found between job satisfaction and communication satisfaction (Pettit, Goris, & Vaught, 1997), and favorable employee communication in the workplace has been shown to increase job satisfaction and employee performance (Ainspan & Dell, 2000), resulting in organizational success (Baskin, Aronoff, & Lattimore, 1996).
Given the association between communication satisfaction and job satisfaction, Madlock and Kennedy-Lightsey went on to delve further into it. According to Hecht (1978), communication satisfaction is a socio-emotional feeling derived from positive relational interactions.

Thus, employee communication satisfaction is important because it highlights a key issue for employees who assist in determining organizational effectiveness. Outcomes where employee communication satisfaction is low, include reduced employee commitment, greater absenteeism, increased industrial unrest, higher employee turnover, and reduced productivity (Hargie, Tourish, & Wilson, 2002). At an individual level, poor communication can result in increased uncertainty about situations, the self, others, or relationships, increased occupational stress, and burnout (Ray, 1993).

The findings of their study suggest that the mere act of mentoring is not as vital as is the way supervisors communicatively enact mentoring. Indicative of this claim are findings pertaining to subordinates’ communication satisfaction as a mediating factor. With regard to subordinates’ job satisfaction, mentoring had little influence until communication satisfaction was introduced into the path. Thus, mentors’ ability to stimulate positive relational affect via communication (i.e., communication satisfaction) among their protégés enhances the influence of mentoring on feelings of job satisfaction.

Likewise, communication satisfaction fully mediated the association between mentoring and organizational commitment. That is, when examining the simple correlation between mentoring and organizational commitment, it appears mentoring alone is important for crafting committed employees. However, after including the influence of communication satisfaction into the model, mentoring was no longer directly related to commitment. Therefore, communication satisfaction was found to be a key behavior in mentoring in order to account for subordinates’ organizational commitment. In sum, the act of
Review of Literature

mentoring without attention to the communication that occurs between a supervisor and subordinate is a futile endeavor.

This was evident in other studies as well. As noted by Clampitt and Downs (1993), differing degrees of satisfaction exist and in supervisory communication, subordinates seek openness, listening and attention, and guidance in solving job-related problems. Wheeless, Wheeless, and Riffle (1989) discovered in the health care context that doctors who engaged in responsive communication styles were found to be significant contributors to nurses’ feelings of communication satisfaction.

Overall, communicators who are socially confirming (i.e., empathetic and engage in active listening behaviors), attentive, friendly, and relaxed are perceived as effective and appropriate (Duran & Zakahi, 1987) and are likely to contribute to satisfactory interactions (Spitzberg & Hecht, 1984). Thus, such communicative behaviors should be encouraged among supervisors for use in their mentoring of subordinates.

Alshare, Lane & Miller (2011) say that “Educators feel that communication skills such as proof reading, listening, meeting facilitation skills and interpersonal skills with external customers need more emphasis”.

Verbal communication has of course led the show. Showry & Manasa (2012) say that “Effective communication skills are decisive for professional excellence and can provide brand new direction to one’s career. a professional must sound more impressive and effective, influence others more favorably, and enhance relationships with colleagues, customers and managers alike.”

As Sinha & Buddhodev (2012) say “Good and effective communication is highly essential for managing business relations. No doubt, various business softwares and other popular applications for written communication or for verbal communication can be used, but what is important is talking and listening should take place simultaneously and the listener should understand the message in totality.”
However, the shifting of communication to the electronic medium has been another factor behind increased importance of communication. As Byron (2008) says that "Employees are increasingly likely to use and prefer electronic mail (email) to communicate with coworkers, customers, and other colleagues. The proliferation of email for business communication is likely due to some advantages such as flexibility and asynchrony."

Shekary and Rajabian (2012) in their study of the effect of communication skills of managers on organizational health start out by first defining organizational health as a holistic concept which is a combination of the atmosphere, culture, effectiveness, organizational commitment, attitude and performance of staff. In other words, all these variables are located in the heart of organizational health. Organizational health can also be identified through the talents of its members, realized ideally in congruence of the organizational goals (Kathrine, 2007) and Bacal (2007). A healthy organization is defined as an organization that not only lasts in its environment, but also in a period long enough, has an ability to continuously develop and expand without making compromises (Hoy and Miskel, 2008).

According to Shekary and Rajabian, managers play the most important role in it and they, almost singlehandedly, depend upon communication skills. Harigie & Dickson (2004) call communication skills as those skills that guide interactions between the individuals and relationships between people! It is a basic skill that constitutes a toolkit for managers to work and has a considerable impact on their success and effectiveness (Hellriegel and John, 1996).

Mirkamaly (2011) says that in addition to knowledge and other skills, if managerial educational has adequate training on communication then effectiveness, efficiency and reliability of business organizations will be a lot higher. According to Griffin (1999), communication skills refer to the ability of managers to effectively transfer ideas and information to others and receive ideas and information effectively from others.
The communication skills, specifically the interpersonal ones, are important irrespective of the industries you browse. For instance, modern medicine is always in constant flux, with great technical and pharmaceutical advance, and continuous training and improvement of skills of medical staff. Yet, there is always a component of doctor-patient relationship that is required for permanent improvements of quality of health care.

With intent to delve further into this area, Maciag (2012) took up an ‘Assessment of effectiveness of the interpersonal communication on the doctor-patient level in Poland’. He found that interpersonal communication is at the heart of the matter – simultaneously shaping attitudes and behaviors of health (medical) staff as well as consumers of health services, that is, patients. He says that many misunderstandings and conflicts in interpersonal relations are the result of poor communication.

He ended up finding that the seemingly simple topic of interpersonal communication is a complex process, consisting of many crucial elements shaping behavior and self-esteem. Although verbal communication is important patients assess even the most insignificant non-verbal aspects of communication at the doctor—patient level.

Patients assessed that to what extent the doctor’s answers to their questions about their health situation were detailed and exhaustive, how much they were able to understand the situation the patient was in, how they dealt with their anxiety, insecurity, or loneliness, how their gestures were in congruence with their words and facial expressions, the length of their glance, whether the doctors tried to ‘outshout’ their patients, their smile (and whether it was hiding something), the tone and timber of their voice. Eventually the results showed that one of the biggest problems of Polish doctors is primarily haste and lack of time for patients, which reduces the effectiveness of non-verbal communication.

An important aspect of organizational life is that people often are confronted with situations in which individual and collective interests collide. In such situations it is more
beneficial to follow one’s individual interests instead of being cooperative for the collective. However, if all people decide to serve their self-interest, the collective will be worse off than if all would have cooperated. Komorita & Parks (1994) refer to this situation as a social dilemma.

One way to increase cooperation in social dilemmas is to allow people to communicate with each other. Verbal communication is an efficient way to communicate one’s intentions to others and thus to help coordinate decisions in these highly interdependent situations (Orbell, Van de Kragt, & Dawes, 1988; Komorita & Parks, 1994; Parks, Henager, & Scamahorn, 1996). Interestingly, communication not only involves a direct verbal conversation about one’s intentions and interests, but also comprises more indirect forms such as the expression of emotions (e.g., Ekman, 1997). Hence, one does not only say how one feels, but one can also show one’s feelings.

In their seminal study Mayfield and Mayfield (2012) found out the relationship between leader motivating language and self-efficacy. They found that employee self-efficacy is 34% higher with increased levels of leader motivating language. Their analysis also revealed that employee performance grows by 20% with higher motivating language speech, and that employees with higher levels of self-efficacy will perform 10% better than in those cases when self-efficacy is lessened.

Psenicka, Vendemia & Kos (2013) in their study on effectiveness of peer evaluations of business presentations state that Oral communications has long been recognized as a necessary skill for business graduates. However, recent studies indicate just how valuable these skills are. Maes et al (1997) found oral communication to be the number one skill required of business graduates. Their work emphasized the importance of the areas of following instructions, listening, conversing, and giving feedback. Tanyel, et al (1999), found that employers and academics differed in how they ranked skills needed of business students. However, they both rank oral communications in the top four. Moody,
et al (2002) found that communications, both oral and written, were the most important skills for new business graduates to be effective professionals.

2.1.3 Interpersonal Communication:

When it comes to the jobs at the executive level, Huegli & Tschirgi (1974) as late as then in their study titled ‘An investigation of communication skills application and effectiveness at the entry-job level’ enlist skills like ‘conferencing with boss about work’, ‘listening to boss’s ideas and suggestions’, ‘selling ideas to others face to face’, ‘conferencing with subordinates about their work’, ‘writing reports’, ‘writing proposals’ and ‘conferencing with customers about products’ as the frequently used skills.

In the context of listening, Jablin (1979) noted in his review of supervisory-subordinate communication, most subordinates perceive it is important to have the opportunity to share their concerns and manage their career in their interactions with supervisors.

Researchers like Graen and Scandura (1987) have made significant advances in uncovering variances in leader language and dyadic results. Another promising leader language strategy that has responded to these encouragements for discovery of augmented employee and organizational outcomes is Motivating Language Theory (MLT; Sullivan, 1988). MLT is based on speech act theory (Searle, 1969), where the majority of leader speech is classified and transposed into strategic motivational messages (Sullivan, 1988).

Wayne & Mitchell (1992) say that “The idea that interpersonal communication skills and competencies are crucial for survival in the business world is not new. Numerous studies and articles have been published that attest to the importance of interpersonal communication skills, specifically oral communication competency. As early as 1938, Barnard pointed out that business executives must be able to speak effectively to function successfully.” They further add that the other studies over the years have continued to
cite oral communication as a skill identified by business practitioners as necessary. Research continues to show that a large portion of a manager's workday is dedicated to communication, much of which requires oral competency.

In a world where knowledge is power and the information is the king, inadequate information is the major cause of more than half of all problems with human performance. By improving the quality and timeliness of the information people receive, you can improve performance by as much as 20 to 50% (Boyett & Boyett 1998). This holds even more weight specifically for the industries where the information processing is a major determinant of the workflow. So, in other words, the ability to communicate effectively increases productivity, not only of managers but of organizations as well. In other words, attaining success in today's workplace is closely tied to the ability of employees and managers to communicate effectively with each other and with people outside the organization.

Taking a cue from here, Haas and Arnold (1995) suggest that when considering a communicatively competent manager, a significant interaction effect was observed between gender and position. Specifically, female managers and male subordinates used 'listening' more often in descriptions of a communicatively competent manager than did male managers and female subordinates.

Among these possibilities is that self-efficacy mediates (or partially mediates) the relationship between leader communication and worker performance (Luthans & Youssef, 2004). Self-efficacy, which is defined as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance" (Bandura, 1986) appears to be a potentially significant target for such development (Bandura, 1997; Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Pajares, 2002).

Equally fascinating is the connection of emotional intelligence with communication skills. And who else to speak expertly on it then the man himself! According to Goleman et al (1998) the definition of emotional intelligence is the ability to handle manners so
that they are expressed effectively, enabling individuals to work together smoothly against their general objectives. Self-regard plays an important role in emotional intelligence. Self-regard is individuals’ perception of themselves. Now, with the benefit of knowing the term, it can be inferred with conviction that the self-concept can be an agent and motivates individuals to take on an action. Goleman verifies this inference by stating that those people who see themselves positively tend to engage in communicating with others and doing a better work in connecting with others. People with high self-regard are likely to have good communication, and will probably be successful in anything they decide to do. On the other hand, people with low self-regard are likely to have a hard time in communication with others.

In the researches relating to EQ, it has been proven consistently that the social and emotional skills may be a more accurate predictor of personal and professional success than cognitive knowledge (Covey, 1996; Goleman, 1998), and developing these skills is critical to career success. Thus, there has been an immense interest and incentive to incorporate Emotional Intelligence into the business communication arena. It is believed to be an important step in preparing professionals to function effectively in a global workplace with its complex informal networks, teams, and participatory leadership, where they must constantly learn new skills and adapt quickly to changing technology (Lopes & Salovey, 2004) and where mastery of interpersonal and group skills is needed in order to interact effectively with others (Johnson, 2003; Johnson & Johnson, 2003; Muir & Davis, 2004). Awareness of EI strategies enhances people’s communication behavior individually and in work groups.

Similarly, de Ruyter and Wetzels’s (2000) study focused on call center agents’ active listening skills. In their empirical study, de Ruyter and Wetzels conceptualized three components of an agent’s listening: attentiveness (e.g., “the agent used short, affirmative words and sounds to indicate that (s)he was listening”), perceptiveness (e.g., “the agent continually attempted to understand what was being said,”) and responsiveness (e.g., “the agent used full sentences in his/her answers instead of just saying yes or no.”).
Hersey et al (2001) suggests that there is a direct correlation between communication and effectiveness in some organizations. Gudykunst (2005) expresses that high level of communication effectiveness leads to a high degree of equalities of perceptions between the sender and the receiver. In this perception, he stated that communication effectiveness of the manager's correlates positively with maximizing understanding or minimizing misunderstanding of employees.

Johnson, Pearce, Tuten & Sinclair (2003) in their study state that the Listening Effectiveness is growing in importance as managers recognize the value of strong communication skills in improving the workplace environment. They quote Haas and Arnold (1995) to maintain that listening plays a central role in how coworkers assess one another's communication effectiveness more than any other type of communication. They conclude that proper use of silence in organizations may well serve as a positive factor in improving one's communication. The qualitative evidence in this study suggests that periods of self-imposed silence can be beneficial to listening effectiveness and should be included in the managerial listening training program curriculum. In addition, managers may find their ability to listen enhanced through periods of self-imposed silence practiced apart from training programs. These practices can lead to improved managerial listening effectiveness.


In this context, it became evident that if done properly, managerial communication is as much about listening as it is about talking. It's discovering what questions and concerns employees have and providing responses that put information into proper perspective for the individual or work unit. It's taking big-picture issues and discussing how they affect
the immediate work group and individual employees. It means engaging in a dialogue with employees to make sure that there's common understanding. It's why employees continue to rate their managers as extremely important and credible parts of their complete information mix.

In this context, Denning (2005) argues that innovation requires leadership to move beyond the conventional position-led command-and-control mode of managing, which eventually only maintains the status quo. Rather such situation requires a wide array of communication techniques which would eventually press the right buttons on emotional front. It could be communicating to the organization about the risks in holding on to the status quo or taking an optimistic route and talk about the potential rewards of embracing a radically different future. Communication such as this creates a sense of urgency that motivates individuals to act in accordance with the wishes of the leader and preferences of the organization.

Gilley, Dixon and Gilley (2008) while studying the characteristics of leadership effectiveness in implementing change and driving innovation found that specifically, leaders require the abilities to communicate appropriately and motivate others. Elucidating further on, they talk about specific situations like managing individual resistance through one-on-one communication; an act that has to be backed by the choice of right words and apt approach.

Researches also reveal that one of leader's jobs in such situations – coaching – primarily involves establishing a conducive camaraderie between leaders and their employees, based on two-way communication that is nonjudgmental and free of fear, personal anxiety or professional insecurity (Gilley & Gilley, 2007). This action requires special ability on behalf of leader to assess the person’s maturity level and need of the hour and customize his communication style accordingly. This becomes important because lack of expertise on this part can cost morale on the employee’s part and resource and opportunity on the organization’s part.
Sethi and Seth (2009) assert that communication is an inseparable, indispensable and continuous process just like the life-blood in the human body. As a result, communication effectiveness becomes a very vital factor in determining the efficiency with which an organization performs as a system. This goes well with the fact that the organization in its most puritan form operates by many of Fayol’s principles viz. unity of command, unity of direction, delegation of authority and responsibility, teamwork etc. and each one of them entails a strong support of interpersonal communication.

They remind that good interpersonal communication also renders support to such processes like relationship building, counseling, stress management, selling, conflict management and others. Yet the hindrances to effective interpersonal communication like sentiments, filtering, message crammed with information, defensiveness, cultural difference and argot have to be overcome by simplifying language, controlling sentiments, listening ardently and using feedback. This is a precondition to deploying the interpersonal communication effectively, to enhance the effectiveness of people in the profession.

Raina (2010) in her study claims that managers typically spend between 60 % and 80% of their time communicating thus an inability to communicate effectively and efficiently can jeopardize the business interests. Her study investigated the effectiveness of downward communication as perceived by managers and how it impacted the effectiveness of organization which was evaluated on five parameters namely: planning, organizational structure, organizational culture, communication, and outcome. The results showed that there was a positive correlation between effectiveness of downward communication and the organizational effectiveness.

This further went on to get unraveled into the realization that the organizational culture or the leaders at various hierarchical levels who provided accurate, timely and clear
information and correct feedback to the subordinates improved the performance in terms of planning, structure, and communication. Such firms enjoyed good reputation in the market and the morale of the employees has been high. Thus in every which way perceivable there was an impact of communication skills on the effectiveness; which was pronounced and apparent.

Many of the problems that occur in an organization are caused by the failure of communication. Research suggests that poor quality of communication alone is a major contributor for most business and industrial organizations running at less than 12% efficiency. Thus it is evident that if employees are not given adequate information nor allowed to contribute to the solution of problems, they may revert to being the cause of the problems, resulting in various negative behaviors such as increased absenteeism, lower productivity and grievances (Hubbards 1996, Hargie et al. 1999, Armour 1998).

Ehrenreich (2010) mentions that the domain of international business is a vast one, encompassing different industries, organized in companies of varying sizes and with widely differing organizational structures, located in highly diverse linguacultural regions across the globe, and involving representatives on different hierarchical levels. These are just some of the contextual business-related factors that recent research has shown to shape the individual speakers’ communicative realities (e.g., Fredriksson et al., 2007).

However, the recent research suggests that top management in large MNCs is not sufficiently aware of the existence of language-related problems on the lower hierarchical levels Although English is not officially the corporate language at many places, its status as the de facto lingua franca of international business is undisputed. There seems to be a considerable agreement that English is a “must” for managers and employees in all locations and at practically all levels, all the way from top management down to the most humble levels of hierarchy. English is no longer an asset on CVs (contra Pickkari, 2009) but has turned into a sine qua non, which means that job candidates without English will basically not be hired or for that matter the ones who are not conversant with it would not
be promoted to the higher echelons of the corporate world. The metaphors used by the interviewees in Ehrenreich’s research was not just a tool but that there is no difference between English skills and basic literacy skills such as reading and writing, or general computer skills.

A number of researchers (e.g., Rankin, 1929; Steil, Barker, & Watson, 1983; Weaver, 1972; Wolvin & Coakley, 1992) have reported that individuals in organizations are more frequently involved in listening-related activities than speaking-related activities. They also suggest that this listening is not only for informal connection or formal interaction. It is more intertwined into the way of doing business, the workflow; and thus when anything goes wrong in this communication, some part of the KRA gets influenced, some deliverable somewhere gets affected and some bottom-line gets impacted.

Downing (2011) in his paper in context of the BPO industry discussed the importance of the role of communication in developing trust in the customers. He quoted Higgs (2004), who as part of a larger empirical study, referred to communication processes simply as “interpersonal sensitivity”; who then reported that interpersonal sensitivity was related to agents’ effectiveness. He also aptly mentioned Pontes and O’Brien Kelly’s (2000) empirical study, which viewed communication as more than a one-dimensional construct. In their study, they found that customers were significantly more likely to repurchase the client’s product if the customer had talked to a call center agent who was confident in speaking, spoke in a poised manner, did not interrupt the customer and did not have the pronounced verbalized pauses.

Jorfi, Jorfi, Yaccob and Shah (2011) in their ambitious study probing into the relationships among Strategic Management, Strategic Behaviors, Emotional Intelligence, IT-business Strategic Alignment, Motivation, and Communication Effectiveness in context of Iranian industry state that individuals with high motivation tend to have higher emotional intelligence and this action lead to improve communication effectiveness. And managers and their employees should be taught to identify various communication
indicators others express or else without these social skills, a person can easily misinterpret a look or a statement and react unsuitably or lack sympathy and be comparatively unaware of how their behavior affects others (Goleman, 1995; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso and Sitataneos, 2001). And this all could cost organization a lot.

Bhatt (2011) believes that being able to communicate effectively is not the only facet in learning communication. There is much more to it! He maintains that it is equally important to communicate ethically and empathetically. Communication is not only about doing or acting, but also about thinking and feeling. However, the softer heart-oriented facets of communication are often ignored or overshadowed by the mind-orientation during communication. He further elucidates that the purpose of the communication can be understood as the goal that you want to achieve through communication. This desired goal generally serves the self-interest of the communicator. All the different types of purposes people may have, can be classified into the four broad categories—1) Call to action; 2) Convey; 3) Influencing emotions and thoughts; 4) Personal gratification or relief. And the failure to do so effectively costs effectiveness in more than one aspect.

In the context of the current study, I found a very important paper by Raisiene (2012). He talks in a different lingo, touching upon the different chords related to the communication. He says that the informal communication facilitates solving of problems related to performing tasks in groups, individual approaches to goals of organization and joint assignments. He talks about the role of informal communication in developing tolerance towards difference of opinions and identifying the congruence in values. Specifically in the context of a globalized world, people in the organizations are meant to work in virtual groups on nodes and multiple locations. He establishes the importance of communication via electronic media and technological channels through this backdrop.

Jorfi and Jorfi (2011) in their study on the relationship between communication skills and emotional intelligence states that effective managerial communication can help
employees acquire skills, raise their self-image, and also assist practitioners in earning employee respect. Thamhain (1992) argued that effective communication can add value to organizations.

In his paper ‘Good listening skills make efficient business sense’, Rane (2011) sustains that listening is found to be a vital skill more particularly for the managers in business organizations while obtaining need-based information to perform their jobs successfully. The quality of relationships with others and job effectiveness largely depend on the listening ability of the individual concerned. Lack of listening ability at all the levels in the organizations lead to work-related problems.

He further states that productivity of the workers gets enhanced if they have better listening skills. The workers understand their work-assignments in a better way. A congenial and conducive equation is built up with juniors, colleagues, seniors and customers, ultimately resolving the work-related problems amicably through discussion. Rane (2011) also suggests that it creates team-based environment, encourages exchange of thoughts and promotes better understanding among the groups.

Moreover, he goes on to make an extremely pertinent point regarding the role of listening that customers’ complaints, more particularly in service industry like banking and financial services, may be resolved easily if the executives possess good listening skills. And this is pretty self-evident that with better abilities to receive, decipher, understand, empathize, mirror, probe and resolve, the people at the counters, sales-force and customer support executives can serve the customers not just to their satisfaction but to their delight and hence breeding a level of customer-ambassadorship. And this holds equally strong for the internal customers – employees. Good listening skills have proved to be an important tool for redressing employee grievances. Thus, there has been overwhelming evidence supporting this aspect of communication having tremendous clout when it comes to the effectiveness of HR and marketing professionals.
While reviewing the literature for my research, it was a horizon-expanding feeling, educating experience and a welcome surprise to review a paper by French and Holden (2012). They discussed communication in an entirely new backdrop and paradigm. They talked about the role of communication in increasing the effectiveness of managers in the organization specifically in the context of crisis. This also marks the advent of research on “bad news” emerging across the spectrum of communication. “Bad news” for business appears in many forms—the announcement of layoffs, poor financial outcomes, crises of internal or external origin, and natural disasters, among others.

The particular type of “bad news” is not at issue here but rather the communication practices encompassing the delivery of bad news. Davis (2010) describes how a leadership communication-presence is made manifest. She explains that “leader communication” in this form demands that leaders “show up, giving the straight story, providing context, talking it through, and keeping at it”. This approach aligns strongly with Ulmer and Sellnow’s (2002) call for “optimistic discourse that emphasizes moving beyond the crisis, focusing on strong value positions, responsibility to stakeholders, and growth as a result of the crisis”.

All these authors have moved beyond the “sandwich” prescription for curing the bad news ailment and toward a more positive and engaged leadership communication practice as a core of a positive organizational culture. Thus French and Holden (2012) favor creation of more Positive Organizational Behavior (POB) and creating a positive organizational culture, one where employees and managers are resilient and optimistic, in order to more effectively communicate in crisis.

They believe that POB serves not only as a conceptual frame for the effective communication of bad news but also expands the repertoire of broader communication and organizational practices in a more optimistic, resilient, and potentially successful
approach. By crafting a culture that values positive psychological traits, communicators can contribute to the creation of a new kind of psychological buffer.

Raisiene (2012) claims that the research revealed that the contribution of electronic communication to efficiency of employees' activity and organisation success is diverse. Compared to technology-led communication, the priority should be assigned to direct communication while striving for efficiency in organisation activity. But he also criticizes the lack of ability of e-tools in terms of development of informal contacts among employees and for strengthening of the sense of staff's commitment as well as for making critical decisions in groups.

Thus he confers to the importance of e-communication for effectiveness but raises a caveat that it is important to perceive that electronic medium itself is not able to improve communication. Quality of electronic communication to biggest extent depends on personal motivation of contacting individuals and the real need to apply technologies. So, in a way it can be inferred that for attaining the efficiency in organization's activities, it is necessary to employ all probable gamut of communication channels and also to promote direct informal communication among employees. This will have a better impact on their effectiveness.

Efficient communication among employees is one of the main prerequisites that allow attaining organizational goals. The researches reveal that employees' satisfaction with the quality of internal communication in organization is directly related to positive attitudes towards organization and greater involvement into organizational matters (Kandlousi et al., 2010; Carriere, Bourque, 2009; Holtzhausen, 2002), which eventually leads to the better effectiveness in terms of their work and morale.

The statement that only the quality of formal communication is critical to organizations had been doing rounds in the professional arena for a long time. Yet it has to be critiqued that although the formal communication is obviously relevant since it directly relates with productivity of employees (Litterst, Eyo, 1982), a decrease in coordination costs (Sine et
al., 2006), successful resolution of conflicts, diminishing of negative effect of gossips (Difonzo, Bordia, 2000) and others; it is also necessary to sit up and take notice of the significant role that the informal communication plays in improving the effectiveness of employees' performance results.

Informal communication is like a neuro back-alley in the mind. It works in capacity of a subliminal yet strong work-force that facilitates solving of problems emerging in the process of assignment completion, it as well contributes to depolarization of individual approaches towards organizational goals and joint assignments which is a very important thing to do in context of the contemporary business (Ogaard et al., 2008; Hargie et al., 2002).

Khan & Ahmad (2012) in their study analyzed Leader's Interpersonal skills (Ability to Motivate, Communicate, and Build Team) and its effectiveness at different levels of Management. They believed that although the literature showed that these skills are important to be effective leader but it didn’t show that which skill is more important at different levels of management. The results of this study found that at Top level of management leader’s ability to Build Team is more important as compared to Middle level of management but did not significantly differ as compared to Low level of management. At Middle level, the ability to communicate was not most necessary to be effective and at Low level of management leader’s ability to Motivate is more important as compared to Middle level of management.

Interestingly, their second hypothesis was that the leader having greater Ability to Communicate would be more effective at Middle level of Management as compared to Top and Low levels of Management but the results showed that if the leader improves his Ability to Communicate at Top level of Management than he will be more effective leader than that of Low and Middle levels of Management. Although the result was
statistically proven, yet the fact that the sample was only from the education industry makes the scope look too narrow to be generalized across all the industries.

Bisel and Messersmith (2012) in their unique study of a niche area of interpersonal communication – apologizing – state that scholars working in the domains of interpersonal relationship science have presented complex explanations and models for work settings. Presumably, organizations are not responding to complicated situations most of the time. Organizational life is mundane, not laden with the kind of existential threats that warrant frequent crisis communication responses. Furthermore, managing the image of an organization is also important with internal organizational audiences, as it is not only and always with external audiences (Cheney & Christensen, 2001). So there are multiple possibilities to offend others, intentionally or unintentionally\(^5\). Thus, it stands to reason that crafting effective apologies is an important communication skill needed and used by professionals as they sought to become fore effective.

Shrivastava (2012) discusses that the ability to communicate effectively in modern business environment is the determining factor to the overall success of a professional. It not only determines the efficient functioning, smooth operations, overall success and effectiveness of a business organization, but is also a crucial factor in nurturing the career and ensuring the growth of the professional. Hynes (2005) added new facets stating that effective business communication is the key to planning, leading, organizing and controlling the resources of the organizations to achieve objectives.

Shrivastava also maintains that the interpersonal communication helps in developing and designing a business’s operational structure and its related processes. The entire communication, among the workers and their reliance on managers to communicate their expectations, becomes possible with interpersonal communication. Interpersonal communication also helps in solving many problems within the workplace. Effective communication allows a manager to occupy a leadership position. Persuading, guiding,
motivating, counseling and placing confidence in others are possible only with the help of effective communication skills.

Selvalakshmi’s (2012) paper attempts to understand the essence of ‘Probing skill’ for interpersonal effectiveness. She maintains that today’s managers are faced with the challenge of not only asking the right questions but also putting it in the right manner to get the desired results. She is right in her concept because it is pretty evident and prevalent that although the components such as vocabulary, body language, listening and written language skills have been given their due importance, a key variable which is most often forgotten or neglected is the probing skill.

Her point that “probing is very much a skill because it can be nurtured only when practiced, and cannot be acquired overnight” is pretty aptly resounded by Hebert (2011) when he highlights the essence of probing in his words “Perhaps one of the most important things about asking questions is the impact of NOT asking questions.”. Thus, probing forms an important component of interpersonal communication effectiveness. It has the inherent potential to create connection between the communicator and the audience.

Probing as a skill finds its applicability in all the domains and functionalities. While it promises to be an important tool in influencing and persuading customers in the selling process, it is equally important for the HR’s grievance handling, Production’s capacity utilization or finance’s need identification. There is a thumping need to train managers across all the functionalities in probing skills, which has become more important in today’s competitive scenario.

Moreover, with contemporary business-world plagued by many unnecessary distractions, employees at all levels of management should have the liberty to raise questions that can improve the efficiency of the system. Corporate should make conscious efforts to ensure a healthy work environment which would allow and appreciate valid questions in the
boardrooms. As Simons (2010) of Harvard Business School believes that questions can aid executives to “stay on top of a changing world”.

There was another study which introduces interesting insights into the context of current study. Ismail, Alias and Amir (2012) talked about relationship of communication with a new concept ‘Mentoring’. Mentoring is often viewed as an important training, education, guiding, orienting, navigating and counseling method, to help people unleash their best potentials to meet organizational needs and expectations (Cummings & Worley, 2009; Ismail et al., 2012). In organizations, mentoring programs are often implemented in two major types: formal activity and informal activity. Formal mentoring activity is usually deployed based on structured and coordinated relationships using standard norms, continuously action plans, time frame, and particular objectives. These programs are often backed by HR or by the heads of respective departments; while informal mentoring program is usually done based on specific demands, spontaneous and adhoc. Informal mentoring programs often complement and strengthen formal mentoring programs in order to achieve organizational strategies and goals (Hansford & Ehrich, 2006; Hansford et al., 2003; Ismail et al., 2011, 2012).

The goals of mentoring are to foster growth and development for the mentee (Keller, 2007). These goals are accomplished by the mentors by building trust, providing understanding, and creating relationship reciprocity (Zeldin, Larson, Camino, & O'Connor, 2005). In this manner, communication practices seem to be the process by which positive individual changes occur in organizations.

According to formal and informal mentoring program literature, mentors frequently deal with mentees using two major communication styles: interpersonal communication and communication openness (Ismail et al, 2012; Santos & Reigadas, 2005; Vieno et al., 2007). Their study suggests that the ability of mentors to appropriately practice interpersonal communication and communication openness in mentoring activities will
induce subsequent positive mentee outcomes (e.g., satisfaction, performance, commitment, psychosocial, career, leadership and thus, these positive outcomes may lead to achieved performance at all levels.

While reviewing the literature related to communication skills for this research, I somewhere had a secret desire to go basic-backwards rather than going skill-forward. This got fulfilled with that of Kyriazis, Couchman and Johnson (2012). Their research was trying to find the effect of trust on working relationship between functional managers; specifically in context of the R&D or ‘New Product Development’ space which is an arena demanding a lot of cross-functional interactions. In the process, they came up with many insights on how that all-important trust is causally impacted by effectiveness of communication skills.

They reckon that the NPD process is not a mechanized production line where inputs are received and then automatically transformed into finished products, it relies on human actors interacting successfully with one another So the NPD process has much to gain from a more effective working relationship because of the existence of trust. As Maltz et al. (2001) found that during cross-functional information transfer, the quality of the relationship between sender and receiver has implications for the way information is used for NPD decision making.

The scene has only gotten mistier as an increased use of communication technology has also resulted in working on virtual teams, which can be globally dispersed (Jarvenpaa and Leidner, 1999). Managers are developing new working relationships regularly with very few cues, either interpersonal or organizational, as to the other managers’ capabilities (Meyerson et al., 1996). Unfortunately, such individual-level differences between functional managers have been credited with causing significant problems for the effective integration of functional specialists resulting in ineffective working relationships especially in terms of effective communication.
Kyriazis, Couchman and Johnson believe that such problematic communication often leads to a Pandora’s box of ailments, i.e., critical information not being passed on, distorted in a detrimental fashion or disregarded by the recipient, projects deliberately delayed that can escalate to ‘conflict’, or ‘disharmony’ between marketing and R&D (Souder, 1981, 1988; Shaw and Shaw, 1998). Such research has emphasized the role of formal NPD processes to ensure that communication does flow between functions.

Thus although information transfer is one of the fundamental inputs from other functions, the research trio argues that, as a concept, the information transfer approach does not capture the benefits or role of trust on communication and information transfer within working relationships. What is required is trust earned through communication competence. Trust is a pre-requisite for the transfer of information across functional boundaries and its subsequent use’ (Moenaert and Souder, 1990b).

In their model Kyriazis, Couchman and Johnson use quality of communication as the all-important determinant of relationship effectiveness, and it captures the cross-functional requirement for communication and information transfer necessary in NPD work. Quality of communication is defined in terms of how credible, understandable, relevant, and useful information provided by the counterpart manager was for their own task completion (Moenaert et al., 1992; Xie et al., 2003).

They are of the opinion that greater quality of communication between functional managers will lead to increased cognitive-based trust. Greater quality of communication between functional managers will lead to increased perceived relationship effectiveness. As expected, quality of communication had strong effects on cognitive-based trust and relationship effectiveness for all functional managers as the purpose of cross-functional work is to solve problems with effective information transfer. Moreover, it also facilitates informal cooperation and reduces negotiation costs, making it invaluable to organizations that depend on cross-functional teams, inter-organizational partnerships, temporary work
groups, and other cooperative structures to coordinate work. Mutually trusting partners communicate more openly and solve problems more effectively (Zald, 1972; Anderson and Weitz, 1989). As a result of trusting, there is facilitation of joint action and coordination among interdependent partners and a diminished need for hierarchical or legalistic controls (Granovetter, 1985; Achrol, 1991).

It will be interesting to note that the other skills enumerated by Holtzman et al (2011) were Concepts and new developments in science and technology, Teamwork skills and the ability to collaborate with others in diverse group settings, Critical-thinking and analytical reasoning skills, Global issues and developments and their implications for the future, The ability to locate, organize, and evaluate information from multiple sources; Innovative and creative thinking, The ability to solve complex problems, The ability to work with numbers and understand statistics, An understanding of the role of the native nation in the world, A sense of integrity and ethics and An understanding of cultural values and traditions.

Ohland, Loughry, Woehr, Bullard, Felder Finelli, Layton, Pomeranz and Schmucker (2012) in their mammoth study took up the mantle to develop a web-based instrument that efficiently collects and analyzes self- and peer-evaluation data. Peer evaluations are widely used in management education, where teamwork is frequently required, even though it often creates challenges for students and faculty because the process is often time consuming and frequently does not match well with guidance provided by the literature.

The instrument uses a behaviorally anchored rating scale to measure team-member contributions in areas based on the team effectiveness literature. In their study, Communication skills featured prominently as one of the factors, with its three variations - Communicating ideas clearly and effectively, Facilitating communication in the team and Maturity in communication. This went on to prove the worthiness of not only the verbal communication but also the interpersonal side.
Salomonson, Allwood, Lind and Alm (2013) chose to compare the communication between an artificial agent and customers compared with face-to-face communication between human service providers and customers. Thus they juxtaposed Human-To-Human (H2H) and Human-To-Artificial Embodied Agent (H2AEA) communication and found out that there were seven aspects of difference:

1. Turn management: The AEA has turns that are too long and cannot handle interruptions and overlap. It also does not know how to use pauses.
2. Communicative functions: The AEA cannot handle (perceive, understand, and produce) implicit communicative functions. The AEA can only handle planned communicative functions.
3. Communicative feedback: The AEA cannot handle (perceive, understand, and produce) adequate communicative feedback.
4. Communicative relevance: The AEA has insufficient relevant adaptation of its answers. The AEA will produce the same answer again and again, given particular keywords.
5. Referential cohesion: The AEA cannot handle referential connections going back more than one turn. Even this is misunderstood, because of superficial “keyword” dependence.
6. Change of perspective and the co-construction of information: The AEA cannot change perspective and all co-construction is preplanned, that is, in a sense presupposing pre-established harmony between customer and agent (Rescher, 1991).
7. Amount of information: The AEA provides too much information in large simultaneous chunks rather than in small relevant incremental chunks guided by feedback.

The study suggests that it is too early to replace human agents with AEAs due to the current limitations inherent in AEAs. To conclude, we might once again consider whether or not the introduction of computer-based artifacts as substitutes in many human-to-human settings is really desirable. They end up with a question “Will their more general
introduction mean that there are features of human life that might disappear in the society of the future in the continuous hunt for better and potentially standardized solutions?".

The question isn’t just a question. It is a manifestation of what communication is really about. It is a reminder that communication is much more than about ‘only speaking’. It is an interactive and dynamic activity where there is a continuous need to size-up the situation, read a person, take cues and create the most felicitous communication-mix of verbal, nonverbal and interpersonal components. Then only, it is possible to attain the desired effectiveness.

In an era where a clever option like Downsizing has been evaluated to be a general failure as a cost saving measure, with an average success rate of about 10% in most cases (Cameron, 2002; Cascio, 2000, 2006), management’s most important job to stay out of trouble is to nurture the human capital (Friedman, 2005; Luthans & Youssef, 2004). Fortunately, other better options are worked upon by attempts like contemporary research on leader language. Modern researchers have delved into and created leader-follower speech models which capture the verbal transmission of leader intentions into employee affect and critical outcomes including trust, attendance, performance, motivation, and job satisfaction.

Keyton, Caputo, Ford, Fu, ,Leibowitz, , Liu, Polasik, Ghosh & Wu (2013) in their study build an argument that the shift in blue-collar to white-collar employment, increases in temporary and contingent employment, globalization, and use of technology have put greater emphasis on employees’ “interpersonal skills and the ability to collaborate” in teams (Barley & Kunda, 2001). As a result, communication appears on lists of skills employers seek. Employers expect employees to be effective communicators and rate employees for their communicative performances. Thus employers rank oral communication skills among the top three most valued applied skills; yet employers rate new graduates at all levels as largely deficient.
2.2 Professional Effectiveness:

Drucker (1952), in one of the best and the most radical articles in Harvard Business Review on a Professional's effectiveness, first of all describes characteristics of a professional. 1) **Professional Standards**: It is the essence of "professionality" to apply objective standards of craftsmanship and accomplishment to one's work, rather than business criteria. There is a striving for perfection. 2) **Deeply ingrained working habits**: Their working habits are so deeply ingrained as to have become almost a part of the professional man's personality. He has been trained — and rightly so — to work on his own. Every research man, whether chemist or economist, has it hammered into him that he must personally check all the data he uses. Yet, to call the professional man an "individualist" is misleading; he often works extremely well in a team. But he does not, as a rule, take kindly to modern organization — and especially not to large-scale organization. 3) **Self-contained Logic**: He is eager to be a specialist and to leave all but his specialty to others. But in his own field he is apt to insist on having complete control of the entire job. Finally, the professional man's logic is such that he has difficulty understanding the businessman's reasoning.

He further maintains that although these attitudes come across as problems, but the task is not to change the professional employee's attitudes; indeed, most of whatever changing has to be done will be in traditional business habits and practices. **The real task is to find how to use the professional employee effectively as a professional.** He believes that the most practical approach is to identify the points at which friction is most likely to occur in the relationship between business and its professional employees, and then to try to "lubricate" these friction points so that they will cause less trouble, less loss of efficiency.

These friction points are: 1) The Administrative Process. Professional employees do not fit into the administrative process — and the administrative process does not fit them. In particular, the very concept of "supervision" goes against the grain of professional
employees. 2) Closely tied in with the professional employee's attitude toward the administrative process is his dissatisfaction with the lack of professional recognition. 3) Rotation. It certainly does not give the newcomer a view of the business — at least not a lasting one. It only fills him with impatience to get to the job which he wants to do and for which he, rightly, thinks he has been hired. 4) Personnel administration. The professional employee is singularly unenthusiastic about it; in fact he actively dislikes it.

It is obviously important for the company that its professional people have some understanding of the business and some interest in it. How otherwise would the engineer, biologist, chemist, or economist ever understand why there has to be a deadline, why he has to push this project and drop that, or why his professionally most elegant solutions may not be adapted to the needs of the business? Integration into the business is equally important to the professional man. He considers himself — rightly — as belonging to the management group. Whether he realizes it or not, he has a strong need to feel that he is connected with the business, that he understands it and can contribute to it — in marked contrast, for instance, to the highly skilled artisan whom, in other matters, the professional man closely resembles.

Having said that, one of the most important and most effective contributions to better utilization and greater satisfaction of the professional employee is fairly easy: making sure that professional employees are really used for professional work — The 'economical use of professional'! The saving that can be made by elimination of unnecessary chores can be substantial. To relieve professional people of all merely clerical or routine work is more than good business. It is also the prerequisite for high morale in the professional organization.

Scholefield (1968) states that he shall take to mean 'effective' as “in achieving the aims of the whole organization”! He says that irrespective of what these aims are, or ought to be, what holds true is that without clear aims there can be no criterion for effectiveness.
In his research, when he talks about the effectiveness of the senior executives, he says that they are the ones normally responsible for the whole system or for the major subsystems which make up the enterprise. That’s why, to be effective, the first concern should be to identify the activities that he has to undertake because no one else is in a position to deal with them effectively. And only when he has completed these tasks, should he undertake work that could be done by other people.

He says that these tasks are normally about making decisions relating to major changes in the system, maintaining communications with respect to the formulation and dissemination of company policy and creating and maintaining a ‘climate’ which assists clear and complete communication, generates positive motivation towards company objectives and encourages a forward-looking competitive attitude towards the outside world. While talking about the factors affecting this effectiveness, he claims that there may be three main reasons why an executive fails to be effective: Two of these reasons centre on the motives of the executive: he may find the detailed work more rewarding, or he may seek the security that comes from having everything under control. The third reason arises out of the form of organization we commonly adopt; people involve him in operating questions because of the power he has over the people who are controlling the system. He further maintains that in particular, a formal procedure for long-range planning and an ‘MBO approach’ both seem to offer assistance of the kind that is needed.

Rotondi (1975) studied the interrelation between motivation and the effectiveness of professionals and found that there are a few factors that contribute immensely towards impacting the effectiveness. They are: opportunity for creativity, scope to utilize best skills, empowerment to influence work-decisions and independence in performing work-methods. Especially, with respect to the domain of Research & Development, he states that the effectiveness is highly related to the factors pertaining to the internal motivators. In these terms, this study validated the Herzberg’s theory of motivation which suggested that intrinsic factors are more relevant in motivation.
Roberts and Hanline (1975), in their interesting work ‘Executive Effectiveness – Deciding what to decide’, talk on the theme that an executive usually makes his decisions under the pressure of a time-constraint. And how he allocates time is perhaps the most important decision that he has to make in reference to his effectiveness. And thus it is important for an executive to use around 10% of his time to organize the rest of his decision-making time. The authors suggest that the theories of organization and management deal with the recognition of decision-situations but offer little help to an executive in scheduling decisions. However, using intuition, logic and mathematics, the executive can approximate the gain potential of each decision-situation. This would certainly lead to an enhanced effectiveness.

Storm (1979) in his study on ‘A Developmental Perspective on the Nature of Professionalism and the Effectiveness of Professionals in Complex Organizations’ propagate a developmental model that suggests a multi-dimensional view on professionalism. Professionals are represented by different types of role orientations. It is hypothesized that type of role orientation does interact with organizational characteristics to influence individual effectiveness, while degree of professional role orientation does not.

Conducted from the ‘Training and Development’ standpoint of increasing the professional effectiveness, White (1979) states that eventually it is about the three aspects:

- Identifying what skills and expertise a specific job requires
- Determining personal strengths and weaknesses relative to these requirements
- Identifying the resources and opportunities to increase job-effectiveness
Griggs and Manring (1986) conducted a study on ‘Increasing the effectiveness of the technical professionals’. They found that eventually the effectiveness is impacted the most by four major factors:

- The nature of the work itself
- Organizational processes, including how technical work is allocated and evaluated, and how people work with each other
- Career-development issues
- Traditional practices organizations use to reward the achievements, including both the monetary rewards and the nonmonetary form of recognition

Othman, Abdullah and Ahmad (2008) describe work effectiveness as “how well the employees have accomplished their assigned tasks”. Job performance is divided into two dimensions; task performance and contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). Task performance refers to behaviors that are directly linked with completion of the job. It consists of two types; executing technical processes, and maintaining and servicing technical requirements (Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit, 1997). Contextual performance, on the other hand, refers to interpersonal behaviours or actions that benefit the organisation. It includes activities such as helping and cooperating with others, following organisational rules and procedures, and volunteering to carry out task activities (Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit, 1997).

But what makes their work such a seminal work is that they have made a commendable attempt to search new grounds for factors affecting effectiveness. They found ‘Emotional Intelligence’ and ‘Emotional Labor’ as two of them, specifically at work in service organizations! They nodded to the point that there are at least three types of “labor” to be offered to the organization in exchange for reward: 1) Mental labor – that refers to the cognitive skills and knowledge as well as the expertise of employees. 2) Physical labor – that refers to the physical efforts of employees to achieve organizational goals and 3)
Emotional labor – that refers to the extent to which an employee is required to present an appropriate emotion in order to perform the job in an efficient and effective manner (Wong and Law, 2002).

Mayer and Salovey define Emotional Intelligence as the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. Hochschild has defined EL as “the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display”. She suggests that EL involves the induction or suppression of feeling in order to sustain in others a sense of being cared for in a convivial safe place.

According to Othman, Abdullah and Ahmad, EI is proposed to be the most salient concept in professional service whereas EL is the most important concept in mass service to influence employees’ work effectiveness. Othman, Abdullah and Ahmad (2008) have also come up with the list of professions with varying degree of EL requirement. The occupations high in EL are in the categories of professional technical (e.g. nurses, physicians, therapists, and lawyers), clerical (e.g. cashiers, clerks, bank tellers and bill collectors) and service workers (e.g. protective service workers, personnel service workers, health service workers and waiters).

Dane (2008) discussed the role of experience in ‘Effectiveness’. He from the standpoint of decision making and that too with respect to the profession of law found that the role of experience in increasing effectiveness varies between the static and dynamic decisions. He found that experience can limit the effectiveness in three respects: First, professionals may become ossified with regard to the decisions they make in preparation for the work. Second, professionals may lose touch with opinion-leader mindsets – that is, they become less skilled at understanding how jurors will interpret events in the courtroom. Third, overconfidence may arise via experience. Overconfidence leads to under-preparation,
which further involves decision-making errors concerned not so much with what one should do, but rather with when and to what extent one should do it. Thus, underpreparation is associated with faulty decisions.

On the other hand, experience adds to the ‘Effectiveness’ in three ways: First, professionals are required to adhere to the rules and procedures that govern the process by which a work is done. Some professionals spend a considerable amount of their attention during work focusing on this issue. This type of experience (i.e., adhering to the rules of evidence and procedure) is termed as ‘procedural experience’. Second, while remaining attuned to the rules of evidence and procedure, professionals also make a number of tactical decisions during work. As professionals make these decisions in response to the dynamic conditions of the work, they accrue tactical experience. Third, his data reveal a process by which professionals, over time, become familiar with the techniques, strategies, and positions associated with competitors and opinion-makers within their particular jurisdiction. It is called localized experience!

Dane found that each of the types of experience discussed above relate to a concept that he found to be closely associated with dynamic decision-making effectiveness within his research context – the concept of mindfulness, or “the state of being attentive to and aware of what is taking place in the present” (Brown & Ryan, 2003).

Jamieson, Auron and Shechtman (2010) while studying in the context of OD, introduced a new topic in the effectiveness arena - the topic of use of self in professional effectiveness. Situations involving use of self are continuous in our lives as professionals. The greater our awareness of these situations, the better chance we have to effectively manage ourselves for the benefit of our clients or others. Managing our use of self begins with awareness, requires conscious sensing and interpreting, and takes form as a result of our intentional and unconscious actions.
Eventually, the purpose is to be able to execute a role effectively, for others and the system they’re in, without personal interference (e.g., bias, blindness, avoidance, and agendas) and with enough consciousness to have clear intentionality and choice. Our use of self should always be thought of in a specific context, exercised through some role, in service of something helpful and aligned with one’s personal intentions (i.e., mission, vision, goals, and values).

“Who we are” always goes with us into each of our roles and situations. Our collective knowledge, thoughts, feelings, experiences, and vulnerabilities inform all that we do. Our understanding and beliefs about ourselves are continually evolving based on our independent assessments and what is socially constructed from our interactions with others (Shotter, 1997; Arnd-Caddigan & Pozzuto, 2008).

Jamieson, Auron and Shechtman (2010) talk about three competencies: Seeing, Knowing and Doing! In each competency there are levels of effectiveness that one can progress through. Each competency requires its own focus of attention and specific practice to improve. Below are the three stages that comprise the developmental component in the use of self framework:

1. **Functionality**: It is a stage of knowing “how to do it.” One has learned what to do and how to operate in terms of basic aspects of seeing, knowing, and doing. One must concentrate and pay attention to doing it right, following appropriate steps or running through some criteria to determine use.

2. **Efficacy**: It is a further stage of development marked by increased flow and less concentration. Seeing, knowing, and doing become less challenging. It is marked by higher levels of confidence and agency in execution. We begin to operate from the inside and understand our role in what happens.
3. **Mastery:** It is the highest stage of development and is characterized by fully integrated and seamless work. One’s presence has greater impact. Seeing, knowing, and doing have become simultaneous, back and forth activities with little conscious decision-making.

Bamel, Rangnekar and Rastogi (2011) studied the concept of effectiveness in terms of Indian managers. A salient conclusion reached from the study is that Indian managers perceive effectiveness as a function of productivity, adaptability, quality, and flexibility. The Indian executives perceived productivity as most important constituent of effectiveness, followed by adaptability, quality and flexibility. So it could be generalized that employee productivity must be considered peculiar, and executives must be provided with such resources that enable them to excel their productivity.

In the analysis, they also maintain that the effectiveness of professionals is very important for the success of an organization in the contemporary business arena (Bao 2009). Organizations need effective and competent managers to be able to reach their objectives efficiently and effectively (Boyatzis 1982). In fact, executives employ their competencies and enhance the economic value of raw resources to play a crucial role in the development and the execution of organizational operations and effectiveness of the implemented strategies/policies (Analoui 2007). Organizations need effective and skilled executives to facilitate corporate success in the long run. Moreover, managerial effectiveness is a key component, which enables effectual operation and delivery of complex initiatives (Analoui 1999). In the words of Drucker (1988) an executive is expected to get the right things done and this is simply saying that he is expected to be effective.

A comprehensive review of the literature reveals three important perspectives of managerial effectiveness, 1) conventional perspective, 2) organizational level proficiency based perspective, and 3) individual level competency based perspective. The conventional approach stresses the ability to set and achieve goals (Bartol & Martin...
1991) and explains that it is the managerial effectiveness which is responsible for organizational effectiveness. The organizational level proficiency based theory explains that internal and external factors have a strong influence on the long term future orientation of the organization.

For instance, an organization's mission, vision, and strategic plan formulation play a vital role in achieving future goals. This approach further divulges that any organization incorporates the internal resources (i.e., people, material, money, machinery, know how and the external surroundings as a system to accomplish the tactical intent). The individual competency approach focuses upon the individuals rather than the association of external actors, and puts stress on the enhancement of convenient management skills and tactics (behavior). These skills and tactics can be learned, attained, practiced, and nourished. The individual competency based approach advocates to develop management skills and tactics that can be used across different contexts and situations (Page, et al. 2003).

So when it comes to Emotional Intelligence and effectiveness, studies suggest that in today's corporate world, the issue of emotional intelligence is widely emphasized. Researchers study its effects on employee productivity, commitment, leadership style, organizational success and well being in general. The emotionally intelligent manager promotes qualities that are instrumental in guiding organization to success. Emotional intelligent managers foster self regulation, self awareness, motivation, empathy and social skills and effectively guide employees through the use of these skills. Managers who display these qualities promote working environment in which employees feel comfortable voicing their opinions, thereby promoting an environment that is successful and stable.
They further believe that Emotional Intelligence (EI) is a dynamic force which acts as guide to professional success. It is far more powerful than Intelligence Quotient (IQ). Without exaggerating the role of reason or IQ we should learn to recognize our emotions, understand them, and handle them effectively. It can be distinguished from IQ by its emphasis on personal and social competencies like self awareness, persistence, etc. But it cannot be a replacement for ability, knowledge, or job skills. IQ is still important in workplace success since intelligence is paramount especially in jobs that require technical and conceptual ability.

Many studies have concluded that emotional intelligence plays an important role in performing manager's job. It is assortment of non-cognitive skills, capabilities, and competencies that influence a person's ability to succeed in coping with environment demands and pressures. Successful top managers particularly in multinational corporations developed high levels of emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence will help managers who understand the emotion and abilities of their employees.

Rishipal (2012) made an inquiry into the relationship of Managerial effectiveness with Counterproductive work behavior (CWB). CWB is a set of destructive behaviors executed by the people in organization and such behaviors can harmfully limit the process of progress and development of an origination or its stakeholders. These behaviors include the actions which can cause destruction of mild to very severe nature to the organization or its people. Counterproductive work behaviors are carried out with or without intention to harm or limit the process of achievement of goal of an employee, stakeholder, department or organization itself.

According to Bennett and Robinson (2000) the set of acts which includes the counterproductive work behavior are categorized as: (1) Production deviance, involving behaviors like leaving early, intentionally working slow, or taking long breaks; (2) Property deviance, involving sabotage of equipment, theft of property, and taking
kickbacks; (3) Political deviance, involving showing favoritism, gossiping, or blaming others; and (4) Personal aggression, involving harassment, verbal abuse, and endangerment. Both the nature and frequency of counterproductive work behavior poses a serious threat to organizations and its stakeholders. Counterproductive work behavior has significant financial, social, psychosocial, infrastructural and time related costs for the people working with organizations. Besides this, it has substantial organizational costs associated with high staff turnover, abuse avoidance, and protective behavior, all of which reduces the overall productivity of the organizations.

Rishipal’s study reveals that both the employees’ characteristics of managerial effectiveness and counterproductive work behavior differ among all the three levels of management i.e. junior, middle and senior. There exist a negative relationship between managerial effectiveness and counterproductive work behavior among the groups of senior and middle level managers but there is no relationship (i.e. neither negative nor positive) between the managerial effectiveness and counterproductive work behavior at junior level management.
2.3 Rationale of the Study:

The most striking thing about ‘Effectiveness’ research has been the sparseness of it! Let’s take the ‘Managerial Effectiveness’. From the 1950s through to the late 1980s many attempts were made to link observed managerial behaviors with measures of effectiveness. But most researchers focused their studies on the frequency and duration of activities and produced little information that identified behaviors most closely associated with effective managerial performance (Martinko and Gardner 1985, 1990). For Hales (1986), the major weakness was the fact that the accumulated evidence did not give much of an answer to the question of whether the managerial practice identified was ‘good’ (effective) or ‘bad’ (ineffective).

Since the late 1980s, fewer researchers have conducted the managerial behavior studies to explore the issue of managerial effectiveness (Cammock, Nilakant and Dakin 1995; Noordegraaf and Stewart, 2000). One rare example is that of Borman and Brush (1993) who produced an empirically derived taxonomy of ‘managerial performance requirements’ comprised of 18 behavioral factors/dimensions, but this was based predominantly on the findings of unpublished empirical studies. Thus, as various writers continue to argue, there remains limited understanding and agreement about the behavioral determinants of ‘managerial effectiveness’ (Barker 2000; Braithwaite 2004; Brase 2005; Grey 2002; Higgs 2003). And this point gets further substantiated by the claim of many authors (Bennis and O’Toole 2005; Das 2003; Ghoshal 2005; Hodgkinson 2001; Mintzberg 2004; Rynes, Bartuneck and Daft 2001; van de Ven and Johnson 2006) that the lack of impact that management research has had on practice is because of the lack of attention given to the ‘soft stuff’ of managing.

In the field of ‘leadership effectiveness’ research, Yukl, Gordon and Taber (2002) have created a ‘hierarchical taxonomy of leadership behavior’ based on an integration of half a century of behavior research carried out in North America. In the UK, Alimo-Metcalfe
and Alban-Metcalfe (2001) have produced a ‘new’ model of transformational leadership, and Hamlin (2004) has deduced a public sector-related ‘generic model’ of managerial and leadership effectiveness. Hamlin (2009) subsequently tested his ‘generic model’ using added cases that led to the development of a ‘refined/new’ public and private sector-related ‘generic framework’. Yet, there is a general agreement with Noordegraaf and Stewart (2000) that more researchers are still required to address the sparseness of studies in this substantially neglected area of management research.

Even when there is a question about ‘Executive Effectiveness’, it is tempting to suppose that an answer to this question may be found by analyzing the behavior of a large number of executives and correlating success with different work patterns. However, even assuming that an acceptable method of measuring success can be found, this procedure presents substantial difficulties. The activities of executives can be analyzed with enough accuracy for the purpose of such an enquiry. Carlson (1951), for instance, analyzed the work of nine managing directors; and other investigations have been carried out along similar lines into the activities of managers at various levels.

However, a work-pattern which proves successful in one firm will not necessarily be successful in another. Woodward’s (1958) research indicates some of the difficulties which might be encountered in making such transference. In fact, general statements can only be made about how executives should behave to the extent that general statements can be made about the activities of business enterprises. At first sight, it may seem that there is rather little to be said about an enterprise which is generally applicable. There is enough, however, to enable a simple model to be constructed which depicts in outline the main activities of any enterprise and makes possible hypotheses concerning the activities and relationships that are necessary within such an organization. In so far as the activities of any executive are determined by organizational requirements, this should enable us to draw some general conclusions concerning the concept of executive effectiveness.
When it comes to ‘Work Effectiveness’, there is a gap in the literature with regard to the generic factors to measure job performance (authors and researchers tend to construct factors underlying job performance specifically to tailor with their specific research needs), Welbourne, Johnson and Erez (1998) have taken the initiative to investigate the general factors underlying the job performance dimensions. They utilize two related theories, namely Role Theory and Identity Theory and suggest five dimensions of job performance known as Role-Based Performance Scale (RBPS), which has been refined and tested by the authors. RBPS assesses different facets of job incumbent’s roles, which consist of job, career, innovator, team and organization roles.

So, first of all, from the latter part of the literature review, it is quite evident that there is a clear need for a research related to the term ‘Professional Effectiveness’. From the former half of the literature review, it is evident that the ‘role of communication skills in profession’ is a concrete reality. Yet it leaves us with some relevant questions unanswered. What role does it play? Does that role have similar importance across all industries, functionalities and hierarchy levels? Which type of communication skills makes how significant an impact in which industries, functionalities and hierarchy levels?

These questions called for the intervention of a term ‘Professional Effectiveness’ and the enquiry of the ‘nature and extent’ of its relationship with the ‘Communication Skills’ and its types viz. ‘Verbal Communication’, ‘Nonverbal Communication’ and ‘Interpersonal Communication’; in terms of the industries, functionalities and hierarchy levels.

As the review of literature suggests, not many studies have been conducted in this context. The present study strives for such an intervention and enquiry.
2.4 Objectives of the Study:

The objectives of the study are:

1. To study the impact of 'Communication-Skills' on 'Professional Effectiveness'.

2. To study the impact of various components of Communication-Skills on 'Professional Effectiveness', in terms of different types of industry-sectors.

3. To study the impact of various components of Communication-Skills on 'Professional Effectiveness', in terms of different types of functionalities.

4. To study the impact of various components of Communication-Skills on 'Professional Effectiveness', in terms of different levels of the hierarchy.

5. To come up with a suggestive framework on customization of Communication-Skills for better Professional Effectiveness.