

Organisational communication concepts

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Main manuscript

CONCEPT

Accountability

TEXT

Accountability generally implies an expectation to justify and take responsibility for actions or decisions taken (Oxford Dictionary of English, 2011). In the context of organisations, accountability is an ethical value that centres on organisations being able to account for their actions and decisions (Phillips, 2002). As organisations accumulate substantial power in modern economies, the question of how responsible they are becomes more and more relevant. The Institute of Directors South Africa (IoDSA) states that good/right conduct from organisations should be judged according to the ethical values of accountability, integrity, respect, honesty, responsibility, fairness, transparency and loyalty (IoDSA, 2009). These expectations and ethical values are not only limited to the financial obligations of the organisation, but also include expectations and values regarding the impact organisations have on all their stakeholders (Freeman et al., 2010; Valor, 2005; Waddock, 2004a).

In South Africa, various legislated requirements and voluntary guidelines exist for organisational accountability. The voluntary guidelines inter alia include the King Reports on Corporate Governance (King I, II and III) and the Johannesburg Stock Exchange Socially Responsible Investment Index (JSE SRI) while the legislated requirements include the Companies Act 71 of 2008 and Amendment Act 3 of 2011 (Companies Act 71, 2008; Statucor, 2011) and the Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment Act 53 (2003).

SEE ALSO

Corporate governance; corporate citizenship; black economic empowerment; charitable giving/donations; social development; corporate volunteerism; corporate social responsibility; corporate social investment; sponsorship; triple bottom line

READING

Valor (2005); Waddock (2004a)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment Act 53 (2003); Companies Act 71 (2008); IoDSA (2009); Phillips (2002); Statucor (2011); Steyn & De Beer (2012)

CONCEPT

Activism

TEXT

Activist groups are defined as groups of two or more people that organise themselves around a certain issue and aim to initiate, obstruct or influence action (Den Hond and De Bakker, 2007; Grunig, 1992a; Mintzberg, 1983). Their activities could be classified as sporadic or regular, general or focused on one issue, personally motivated or detached and either formal or informal (Grunig, 1992 a; Mintzberg, 1983).

Based on this, activism can be defined as the initiation, obstruction or influencing of decisions and activities by two or more people who relate in terms of an issue. The ideological foundation of activism comprise of three components – a goal, an identity and an adversary (Kozinets and Handelman, 2004; Touraine, 1981). The goal of an activist group can be social, political or economic (Grunig, 1992a). The identity could constitute of the shared belief of the group (McCarthy and Zald, 1977) or the methods they employ in their efforts – this could range from education, compromise, persuasion, boycotts, strikes, protest action, marches to civil disobedience (Grunig, 1992a; King, 2008b).The adversaries of activist groups are likely to be a certain social order or the state, but seem to be mostly aimed at corporate companies (Buechler, 2000; Klein, Smith and John, 2004; Kozinets and Handelman, 2004).

Activism became prominent in the United States of America during the 1960s and 1970s (Clark, 2000; Heath, 2001). Although, it is the renewed anti-corporate activism of the 1990s and 2000s

that forced organisations to focus on their reputations and their responsibilities towards the broader society (Waddock, 2004b). The ideas of corporate social responsibility and stakeholder relationships underline the importance of communication with stakeholders such as activist groups. Stakeholder literature frames the actions of activist stakeholder groups as a means to give voice to otherwise insignificant secondary stakeholder groups (King, 2008b). Activist groups step forward to represent the opinions and preferences of a society as they pressure organisations to complying with their demands (De Hond and De Bakker, 2007; Klein et al., 2004; Kozinets and Handelman, 2004). Theorists of organisational communication, specifically the excellence theory of communication, state that activist groups cause turbulence in the organisational environment, but add that this turbulence should not be perceived as wholly negative – although it does threaten the organisation, it also creates an opportunity for communication excellence (cf. Grunig, 1992a; Grunig, Grunig and Dozier, 2002).

SEE ALSO

Advocacy; social movements; greening; carbon footprint; minority groups; marginalisation; union communication; public opinion; propaganda; excellence theory

READING

Buechler (2000); Clark (2000); Den Hond and De Bakker (2007); Grunig (1992a); Grunig, Grunig and Dozier (2002); Heath (2001); King (2008b); Kozinets and Handelman (2004); McCarthy and Zald (1977); Mintzberg (1983); Touraine (1981); Waddock (2004b)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Advertising

TEXT

According to Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2009) advertising is a type of marketing communication that encompasses all communication techniques used by marketers to reach their consumers and to deliver messages on products and services. Belch and Belch (2012) sees advertising as any paid form of nonpersonal communication about an organisation, product, service, or idea by an identified sponsor. The main focus of this definition is the fact that the space or time for the advertising message is paid for (with exceptions where space or time is donated by the media for public service announcements). Advertising is seen as the most widely used form of promotion, mainly because of the persuasiveness of messages, usually through mass communication, to try and influence the audience to interpret and respond to the messages and information. The main advantage of the use of advertising is that it can create, build or enhance a unique brand identity for an organisation.

Two main types of advertising are identified, namely: consumer advertising and business and professional markets advertising. Consumer advertising include: national advertising or brand advertising (done by large organisations nationwide); retail/local advertising (merchants to encourage consumers to use a specific shop, service or establishment); primary-demand advertising (used to stimulate demand for the general product class or entire industry); and selective-demand advertising (to create a demand for a specific brand). Business and professional markets advertising include: business-to-business advertising (targeting individuals

who buy or influence the purchase of industrial goods or services); professional or institutional advertising (aim at professional careers like doctors, engineers, professor, etc. to encourage the use of an organisation's product in their business); direct-response advertising (through direct media); non-profit advertising (where space is donated for charities, foundations, associations, hospitals, museums, religious institutions, etc.); public service advertising (communication of messages for a good cause); and trade or business-to-business advertising (to market channel members like wholesalers, distributors and retailers).

In the competitive environment today, more and more emphasis is being placed on the creative strategy for advertising. Creativity in advertising is viewed differently by different people. For example, a study conducted by Hirschman (1989) propounded on the one hand that management view advertisements as promotional tools with the primary purpose to communicate a favourable image to the consumers with the focus to sell and hence view creativity as self-serving; and on the other hand that brand managers view it more risk-averse with a more conservative commercial viewpoint that the creative people who wanted to maximize the impact of messages. Belch and Belch (2012) propose a view of creativity between these two extremes, suggesting that those involved in the development process realise the importance of balancing the perspective that is not creative unless it sells perspective with the novelty/uniqueness and impact position. Moriarty et al (2009) identifies four components of what they refer to as modern advertising, namely: advertising strategy (planning to give direction and focus); the creative idea or concept (to grab attention and drive the entire effort); creative execution (to reflect the highest production values in the details); and media planning and buying (to reach as many people possible through the richness of the media).

SEE ALSO

Marketing communication; integrated marketing communication

READING

Belch and Belch (2012); Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2009)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Jordaan, Ehlers & Grove (2011); Lombard (2010); Mostert (1996); Van der Waldt, De Beer & Du Plessis (2007); Lauer (2013); Lubbe (2004)

CONCEPT

Advocacy

TEXT

Concisely, advocacy refers to the principle wherein one person pleads the cause of another, mostly to ensure justice and humanity (Timberlake, 1922; Mizrahi and Davis, 2008). The Oxford Dictionary of English (2011) defines advocacy as 'public support for or recommendation of a particular cause or policy'.

Advocacy is said to have its inception in ancient Greece and Rome where orators represented citizens in court (Timberlake, 1922). More recently, the rise of advocacy was preceded by the post-World War II economic growth, a freer political climate and the expansion of education during the 1960s (Berry, 1999). Advocacy groups formed in the wake of new political opportunity to question narrow economic goals and other social injustices (Calhoun, 1993; McAdam, 1999; Mueller, Pagé and Keurbis, 2004; Tarrow, 1996).

From an organisational communication vantage point, advocacy carries two distinct meanings; the first centring on the advocacy role of the organisational communication practitioner and the second on the management of advocacy groups as stakeholders of the organisation. The advocacy role of communication practitioners points to their responsibility to advocate for the needs and demands of both the organisation and all its stakeholders instead of focusing only on the organisation and its own benefit (Heath, 2001). This view on communication practitioners as advocates for stakeholder needs, fits in with the mirror function of organisational communication

as defined by Van Riel (1995). The mirror function refers to using information gathered through environmental monitoring in order to serve the needs of both stakeholders and the organisation.

Advocacy groups are, in many instances, stakeholders of corporate organisations because they advocate for a cause that relates to that organisation. Advocacy is found in many forms including advocacy for environmental issues, health and social justice (Berry, 1999; Hessenius, 2007) with some of the areas regularly advocated for including human rights and labour issues (Hertel, 2010; Meuller et al., 2004). Non Governmental Organisations (NPOs) play an important role in advocacy as they often have the ability to mobilise communities to advocate for the sake of those communities' needs. (Pawar & Cox, 2010). Lobbying could also be regarded as a form of advocacy; mostly directed at influencing legislation by advocating a specific point of view to individuals who are government decision-makers (Hessenius, 2007).

SEE ALSO

Activism; social movements; greening; carbon footprint; minority groups; marginalisation; union communication; public opinion; propaganda

READING

Berry (1999); Calhoun (1993); Hertel (2010); Hessenius (2007); McAdam (1999); Pawar and Cox (2010); Tarrow (1996); Timberlake (1922);

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Antecedents to relationships

TEXT

According to Broom, Casey and Richey (1997; 2000), the antecedents of organisational relationships include aspects such as perceptions, motives, needs, cultural norms, expectations and behaviours. These antecedents are the causes of relationships – the sources of change, pressure and tension that result in two parties developing a relationship.

Grunig and Huang (2000) expanded on the above and described the different tensions that could be precursors of stakeholder relationships. The situational antecedents described by them include: when an organisation affects a public; when a public affects an organisation; when an organisation-public coalition affects another organisation; when an organisation-public coalition affects another public; when an organisation affects an organisation-public coalition and when multiple organisations affect multiple publics.

SEE ALSO

Stakeholders; dimensions of stakeholder relationships; interpersonal relationships; relationship marketing; stakeholder claim; primary stakeholders; secondary stakeholders; shareholders; stakeholder analysis/map; stakeholder approach; stakeholder management

READING

Broom; Casey and Ritchey (1997); Broom, Casey and Ritchey (2000); Bruning and Galloway (2003); Grunig (2002); Grunig and Huang (2000); Hon and Grunig (1999); Hung (2005); Jahansoozi (2006)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATION

Slabbert and Barker (2012)

CONCEPT

Approaches to organisational communication structure

TEXT

Organisational communication structure is discussed as a separate concept in this book and as such is defined as the configuration of communication connections between organisational systems, as it explicates the normative behaviour, action enabling, information processing, uncertainty reduction, social support and integration in an organisational context (after Johnson, 1993). It was mentioned that structure research has positioned itself as a central area of research since the inception of the academic enquiry of organisational communication. Due to the fact that it continues to feature centrally in organisational communication research, the approaches to its study has progressed and adjusted as the field developed. These approaches (in keeping with the progress made in the field of communication) vary from functionalistic behaviourist methods, to those with a more interpretivistic or ritualistic slant. Johnson (1993) outlines four dominant approaches that have been taken to the study of organisational communication structure. Concisely discussed, the following traces Johnson's (1993) categorisation chronologically:

- **Formal approaches.** *The earliest approaches to studying organisational communication structure focussed on the formal and perceptible aspects of structure within the organisational context. In so doing, the research was mostly concerned with tracing lines of communication as they flowed through the organogram of structure in the organisation, vertically and horizontally. In general (cf. Dow, 1988; Jablin 1987), at the centre of study*

within this approach was the exploration of configurations resulting from the formal authorisation communications as outlined by the organisational hierarchy and the differentiation of labour – and necessitous communication – into specialised tasks. Presently, researchers concerning themselves with formal organisational communication structure adopt more abstract variables into their research, including formalisation, centralisation, configuration and complexity, inter alia.

- **Network analysis.** *Network analysis progressed from the formal approaches to studying organisational communication structure; however it employs a much more systematic approach in its study, and relies weightily on graphic representations. In this analysis, the most common graphical representations employed represent social units in the organisational context as nodes, or units, and indicate the communicative relationship between them by sets of lines, parading their connections in this way. The network analysis is one of the most universally employed approaches to studying organisational communication structure, but has been criticised for being restricted in its descriptions and behaviourist in its approach.*
- **Communication gradients.** *Gradients have been used in various other fields – such as meteorology and geology – and at first, its fit with organisational communication structure research might seem peculiar, as it seeks to detail the physical locality of communication interactions within an organisation. In practice, however, gradients have been used to good effect to portray the communication intensity and the increase and decrease of communication variables in a physically bounded plane. Insight into the communication configurations that result from spatial and technological contexts can thus be gained through this approach.*

- **Cultural approaches.** *As the understanding relating to the field of organisational communication progressed, an increase in more interpretivistic research methods could be seen, largely due to the surfacing of the notion of socially constructed reality. In the organisational communication sense, it was realised that individuals socially construct the realities of an organisation through communication, and in turn, organisational culture shapes the way that individual members communicate. Simply put, cultural approaches to organisational communication structure research explores the ways in which members of an organisation come to understand their organisation (and their place in it) through a shared consensus of the cultural values, norms, beliefs, language and likewise elements of the organisation.*

SEE ALSO

Networks; Organisational communication structure

READING

Dow (1988); Jablin (1987); Johnson (1993); McPhee (1985; 1988); Pacanowsky and O'Donnell-Trujillo (1982)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Attribution theory

TEXT

Heider (1958) propounds the concept of people as 'naïve scientists', who actively seek to explain the behaviour they observe in others and then make inferences as to the causes of the behaviour observed. The attributions regarding the causes of behaviour then, in turn, give rise to determinants of cognitive and behavioural responses to the individual being observed. From this tenet the attribution theory develops. Under the scholarship of Jones, Kanouse, Kelley, Nisbett, Valins and Weiner (1972) the social psychological attribution theory is proposed, where it is based on the perceptions of locus of causality and stability as dimensions of the attribution of behaviour.

Basically, therefore, the attribution theory centres on explaining how one actor, observing another actor accounts for the behaviour of the observed actor. These attributions are either dispositional or situational – they are either part of the disposition, or character, of the actor, or they are part of the situation that the actor faces; they are external to the actor (Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwick and Mayes, 1979). In the initial psychological classification of the theory, the actors were singularly defined as individuals, whilst an organisational communication interpretation of the theory expanded it to include actor groupings of organisation and stakeholder. The organisational communication attribution theory vantage point sees a stakeholder make inferences of the organisation's 'character', or identity, based on its behaviour and whether this behaviour is dispositional or situational. For instance, in a time of crisis, a

stakeholder might observe negative behaviour from the organisation more negatively if it is considered to be dispositional, yet not so negative if it is situational. To take an example, if an organisation is portrayed negatively in the media, and stakeholders feel that this portrayal is accurate due to the fact that “it is typical of the organisation to behave thusly” (dispositional), then a negative attribution to the organisation is made. Yet, if the attribution is situational; it is accurate, but “the organisation had no choice”, then the negative connotation to the identity of the organisation is lessened or eliminated altogether.

Organisational communication interpretations on the attribution theory followed shortly on the heels of the psychological interpretations, as in the work of Green and Mitchell (1979), Kelley and Michela (1980) and Mitchell, Green and Wood (1981). General themes in these interpretations and their contemporary counterparts focus on aspects of organisational politics; climate; responsibility, management and leadership; crisis communication; motivation and behaviour in the organisational setting (Allen et al., 1979; Ashkanasy, 2002; Bradford and Garrett, 1995; Coombs, 1995, 2006; Jorgensen, 1996; Martinko, Gundlach and Douglas, 2002; Stockmyer, 1996).

SEE ALSO

Crisis Communication; Organisational communication theory; Phenomenology; Herzberg’s job satisfaction motivators and hygiene factors; leadership/management; leadership theories

READING

Allen et al. (1979); Ashkanasy (2002); Bradford and Garrett (1995); Coombs (1995; 2006); Jorgensen (1996); Martinko (1995); Martinko et al. (2002); Stockmyer (1996); Weiner (1974)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Behaviourism

TEXT

The roots of behaviourism is traced as far back as 1674, by theorists such as Cahn and Hanford (1984), reflecting on the notion of empiricism, or observable phenomena. Behaviourism as concept, however, is appropriated from the field of Psychology when it is procured by communication, and although there are numerous applications of behaviourism, the organisational communication interpretation relies heavily on the so-called Skinnerian paradigm – referring to the application of the view taken by Skinner (1971).

Basically put, this view offers op the notion of stimuli being used to elicit a response from an individual by means of conditioning or reinforcing (Pauly, 1977). In a communication context, behaviourism thus takes the transmission view's description of stimulus-response. Essentially herein, communication is defined as the change in attitude and behaviour of a receiver of a communication message, based on the sender's stimulation. In line with its scientific origins, communication from a behaviourist perspective reduces the meaning and experience of human communication to objective and observable dimensions, insofar as only considering the behaviour of an individual in communication exploration, and not the less visible elements like the psyche or the self (Cahn and Hanford, 1984; Taylor, 1997). In this reduction of experience to behaviour, a clear link to the functionalist approach to communication (where it opposes the interpretivistic approach) is seen.

SEE ALSO

Carey's transmission and ritual views of communication; Functionalist approach; Interpretivist approach; Transmission view

READING

Cahn and Hanford (1984); Graham (1983); Skinner (1971; 1972); Watson (2009)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Black Economic Empowerment

TEXT

Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) is a redress programme in South Africa, established by the government, to correct economic inequalities and injustices of the past apartheid regime by means of deliberate action (Babarinde, 2009). The BEE-code was published in the government gazette in February 2007 as the Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment Act 53 (2003).

In order to measure a company's compliance, companies are required to set up a scorecard that rests on the seven pillars of broad-based BEE. The BEE-scorecard is used to rate organisations' performance in ownership, management, employment equity, skills development, affirmative procedures, enterprise development and corporate social investment. When considered from an intergrated perspective, the communication function in South African organisations is affected and in turn affects an organisation's BEE-compliance. With all the pillars of the BEE-scorecard relating to one or more organisational stakeholders, no organistaional communication activity could be planned or executed without considering the requirements of BEE.

SEE ALSO

Accountability; corporate governance; corporate citizenship; charitable giving/donations; social development; corporate volunteerism; corporate social responsibility; corporate social investment; sponsorship; triple bottom line

READING

Babarinde (2009); Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment Act 53 (2003)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment Act 53 (2003); Leonard (2004); Leonard and Grobler (2005)

CONCEPT

Brand attitude

TEXT

According to Ruiz-Molina and Gil-Saura (2008) attitude can be defined as a learned predisposition to react favourably or unfavourably to an object in a consistent manner and that and it consists of three dimensions: affective (emotional); cognitive (knowledge) and connotative (behavioural). If applied to the marketing of brands to consumers, brand attitudes will preside over consumers' behaviour (Honkanen, Olsen and Verplanken, 2005) and customer choices (Dempsey and Mitchell, 2010). The most used theory to study brand attitudes is the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980) which posits that attitude influences behaviour. Hence it is argued that consumers' attitude towards a specific brand will influence their loyalty towards this brand (Woodside and Walser 2007; Bandyopadhyay and Martell 2007).

SEE ALSO

Advertising; brand; brand/branding; brand management; brand personality; brand identity; integrated communication; integrated marketing communication; brand image; brand equity; brand reputation.

READING

Cornelissen and Lock (2000); Duncan (2002); Eagle and Kitchen (2000); Gould (2004); Kitchen (2000); Schultz (1996); Belch and Belch (2012); Ouwersloot and Duncan (2013); Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2012); Kumar and Shah 2004; Kim, Park and Jeong 2004; Lin and Wang 2006; Santouridis and Trivellas, 2010.

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

North & Enslin (2004; 2007); Scheffer & Chrystal (2008); Van Eck, Grobler & Herbst (2004); Shuttleworth (2009); Bosch (2009)

CONCEPT

Brand equity

TEXT

The most outstanding theorist on brand equity was Aaker (1991; 1995) who argued that branding is a central concern of contemporary marketing. He emphasised the need to ensure long-term value for brands after the life cycle of a product run its course through emphasising the notion of brand extension to ensure brand equity. Brand equity, the total value of a brand, represents and is often referred to as goodwill of an organisation. It refers to the intangible value of a brand beyond the value of its physical assets and presents the opportunity to extend and have a differential effect in that the brand sign confers on the products that display it (Aaker and Keller, 1990; Belch and Belch, 2012). According to Kapferer (2003) brand equity is not a result of 'acquired right' or a 'miracle', but of the brand's ability to maintain value over time through loyalty to reduce risks and allow for gains. A key aspect of brand equity is the belief that consistency in all communication messages is needed to accumulate the correct brand-knowledge structure - this refers to the existence of shared common meaning through several ways of communication over time (Keller, 2008). Reference is sometimes made to customer-based brand equity which refers to the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response. Hence a definitely link between brand knowledge and brand value is evident which ultimately leads to brand awareness. Brand awareness is evident at three levels: recall (when you can bring back a brand from memory without any help or stimulation); top-of-mind awareness (when a brand is listed first on a list of all brands by consumers); and recognition (when a consumer identify and remember a brand they saw or heard of).

SEE ALSO

Advertising; brand; brand attitude; brand/branding; brand management; brand personality; brand identity; integrated communication; integrated marketing communication; brand image; brand reputation.

READING

Aaker (2001); Belch and Belch (2004); Duncan (2002); Kapferer (2003); Keller (2001; 1993); Kitchen (2005); Kitchen et al (2004); Kotler (1967); Cornelissen and Lock (2000); Duncan and Moriarty (1999); Eagle and Kitchen (2000); Gould (2004); Kitchen (2011); Belch and Belch (2012); Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2012).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

North & Enslin (2004; 2007); Scheffer & Chrystal (2008); Van Eck, Grobler & Herbst (2004); Shuttleworth (2009); Bosch (2009)

CONCEPT

Brand experience

TEXT

Brand experience is defined as feelings, satisfaction, and consumer opinion after using the products or services of a particular brand (Aaker and Keller, 1990; Belch and Belch, 2012). This brand experience is determined by factors surrounding a product and a brand and is based on allowing the interaction between consumers and the organisation. Based on this, brand experience refers to the capability to verify that a product satisfies the customer's needs and wants, the capability to know the experiences from others costumers and the co-creation of the brand integrity and reputation through the experience from the consumers. This dimension takes into account both the marketing of values and social media marketing as the key elements to enable a new marketing focused on the participation, namely: positive influence from the values-driven marketing; and the ability of social media to create a social experience. It is proposed that participatory marketing should be built above the experience from the consumers and co-creation of the social value, where the consumer is able to check, confirm, validate and get awareness about the social brand reputation.

SEE ALSO

Advertising; brand; brand attitude; brand/branding; brand management; brand personality; brand identity; integrated communication; integrated marketing communication; brand image; brand equity; brand reputation.

READING

Belch and Belch (2012); Duncan (2002); Kapferer (2003); Keller (2001; 1993); Kitchen (2005); Kitchen et al (2004); Kotler (1967); Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2012).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

North & Enslin (2004; 2007); Scheffer & Chrystal (2008); Van Eck, Grobler & Herbst (2004); Shuttleworth (2009); Bosch (2009)

CONCEPT

Brand identity

TEXT

Brand identity is the positioning of the brand above competitors in the minds of consumers (Jara, Skarmeta and Parra, 2013) by organisations through marketing activities. Brand identity is according to Kapferer (2003) the central concept of brand management based on the argument that before knowing how the brand is received, it is important to know what the brand is and how it can be communicated. Brand identity therefore produces the signs that are decoded in the brand image and other sensory effects (Perez and Bairon 2013). Various factors contribute to the development of brand identity, including the following: communication processes; proximity between product characteristics and new concepts; and digital technology. These factors require organisations to differentiate in the emotional field through more creative identities build around these bonds of meaning to establish a relationship between the brand and the consumer based on value, functional, emotional and self-expression benefits (Holt 2004). Among the multitude of signs used to identify a brand, three identities are prevalent: core identity which is the sign used for most immediate identification of products; actual identity which corresponds to the way(s) the core identity is graphically presented or expressed; and augmented identity which is all the other signs that may be given protection as legally recognised brand and complements the actual identity (slogans, labels, mascots, packaging, etc.) (De Lencastre and Corte-Real, 2013). Brand identity is therefore not limited to identify the type of products and industry, or a product/logo or an identity, but what consumers think about the brand and its products.

SEE ALSO

Advertising; brand; brand attitude; brand/branding; brand management; brand personality; brand identity; integrated communication; integrated marketing communication; brand image; brand equity; brand reputation.

READING

Duncan (2002); Kapferer (2003); Keller (2001; 1993); Kitchen (2005); Kitchen et al (2004); Kotler (1967); Belch and Belch (2012); Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2012).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

North & Enslin (2004; 2007); Scheffer & Chrystal (2008); Van Eck, Grobler & Herbst (2004); Shuttleworth (2009); Bosch (2009)

CONCEPT

Brand image

TEXT

Definitions in organisational literature focus more on internal issues related to brand image where it is seen as the total impression an organisation makes in the minds of people. Definitions in the marketing literature stress the external foundation of the image concept held by various stakeholders (where brand image is seen as the construction of public impressions created to appeal to an audience where image can be intentionally manipulated by internal stakeholders for external stakeholders). Dowling (1988) adopted a more complex combined definition, namely that brand image is 'a holistic and vivid impression held by an individual or a particular group towards an organisation and is a result of sense-making by the group and communication by the organisation of a fabricated and projected picture of itself'. According to Kapferer (2003), brand image needed clearer descriptions since the late 1960s due to the strong connection with the transmission of television images which added sounds and movements. Subsequently Kapferer (2003: 86) defined brand image as the synthesis made by the audience of signs conveyed through the brand where the 'image is a decoding, an extraction of meaning, an interpretation of signs'. More recently the brand image acquired a new and more innovative meaning where it is seen as an 'interpretant identifier of the product, whose emphasis is on the brand image concept, i.e. in the associative power it is able to generate' (Perez and Bairon 2013: 574). The connections of meaning relates to characteristics and physical functions of the product as well as the values, ideas, dreams, aspirations and desired satisfaction of consumers.

SEE ALSO

Brand/branding; brand management; brand personality; integrated communication; integrated marketing communication; brand image; brand equity; brand attitude; brand loyalty

READING

Duncan (2002); Kapferer (2003); Keller (2001; 1993); Kitchen (2005); Kotler (1967); Belch and Belch (2012); Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2012).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

North & Enslin (2004; 2007); Scheffer & Chrystal (2008); Van Eck, Grobler & Herbst (2004); Shuttleworth (2009); Bosch (2009)

CONCEPT

Brand loyalty

TEXT

Brand loyalty is usually viewed from three perspectives, namely: behavioural, attitudinal and composite. Researchers who have a behavioural view assume that repeat transactions represent the loyalty of a consumer toward the brand (Ehrenberg et al., 2004) and that it provides a more realistic picture of how well the brand is performing in relation to its competitors (O'Malley, 1998) but has been criticised in that it is unable to distinguish between true loyalty and spurious loyalty. Attitudinal loyalty is often viewed as comprising stated preferences, commitment, or purchase intentions of the consumer, thus emphasizing the psychological element of brand loyalty on consumer declarations rather than on actual purchases which may not be an accurate representation of reality (Mellens et al. 1996; Odin et al. 2001; Bennett and Rundle-Thiele, 2002). The composite approach sees loyalty as biased behavioral purchase practice resulting from a psychological process (Jacoby, 1971) which means that the evaluation of a consumer's loyalty to a particular brand requires simultaneous consideration of attitudes and purchase behavior (Day, 1969; Dick and Basu, 1994) through a more holistic viewpoint (Belch and Belch, 2012).

SEE ALSO

Brand/branding; brand management; brand personality/identity; integrated communication; integrated marketing communication; brand image; brand equity; brand attitude

READING

Duncan (2002); Kapferer (2003); Keller (2001; 1993); Kitchen (2005); Kotler (1967); Belch and Belch (2012); Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2012).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

North and Enslin (2004; 2007); Scheffer and Chrystal (2008); Van Eck, Grobler and Herbst (2004); Shuttleworth (2009); Bosch (2009)

CONCEPT

Brand management

TEXT

Seminal works of Kapferer (2003) proposed a high standing to branding in contemporary marketing and brand management literature. The need to integrate branding activities in a coordinated manner is an acceptable practice today, especially from an integrated communication (IC) and/or integrated marketing communication (IMC) perspective. In spite of the key premise of branding where the application of branding techniques is well established, it is only in recent years that research has been conducted on the potential benefits of applying these techniques through brand management. Hence within and integrated perspective, branding, brands and brand management (which originated from the field of consumer goods), have expanded to be core components of any organisation's goals, objectives, vision, mission and corporate image. Brand management is hence concerned with the management of brands in which marketing communications is managed in an integrated or holistic manner to achieve the strategic objectives and intent of an organisation. Many organisations assign a brand manager to take responsibility for the total brand management which includes planning, budgeting, sales and profit performance, as well as the planning, implementation and control of the integrated communication and/or marketing programme. According to Thellefsen and Sorensen (2013: 479) a brand 'is only a brand if the brand maker has been able to integrate the given brand values in the artefact', which requires mutual consent of the meaning of the brand through negotiation with the brand users to ensure a sense of community and loyalty towards the brand. Depending on the size of the organisation, brand management can take place through a centralised system

(managed within one department) or a decentralised system (separate manufacturing, research and development, sales and marketing departments for various divisions, product lines or businesses where a brand manager can be assigned to take responsibility for the total management of the brand) (Belch and Belch, 2012). The advertising and promotion responsibilities and functions can also be outsourced to an inside or outside agency and/or communication specialists. During the last decade the focus also shifted to the importance to manage the building and maintaining of brand identity and brand equity to ensure organisations keep abreast of new developments.

SEE ALSO

Brand/branding; brand management; brand personality/identity; integrated communication; integrated marketing communication; brand image; brand equity; brand attitude

READING

Duncan (2002); Kapferer (2003); Keller (2001; 1993); Kitchen (2005); Kotler 1967; Moriarty (1996); Belch and Belch (2012); Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2012).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

North and Enslin (2004; 2007); Scheffer and Chrystal (2008); Van Eck, Grobler and Herbst (2004); Shuttleworth (2009); Bosch (2009)

CONCEPT

Brand personality

TEXT

Various authors like Randall (1997), Stead (1984) and Moriarty (1999) argue that brands eventually lead to the development and continuation of relationships with consumers and/or stakeholders through a brand personality. This brand personality is a product of the cohesive and consistent combination of functional and non-functional values and associations which are communicated through a single voice to build this personality and the subsequent relationships that people associate themselves with (Peppers and Rogers, 1999). According to Moriarty et al (2012:207) brand personality refers to the 'idea that a brand takes on familiar human characteristics' including loving, competent, trustworthy or sophisticated to contribute to an affective dimension of a brand. Various forms of brand personality exist to form these brand relationships, with the following seven attributes and qualities the most prominent from the literature: love and passion; self-concept connection; interdependence; commitment; intimacy; partner quality; and nostalgic attachment to a brand (Moriarty, 1999; Gifford, 1997; Randazzo, 1993; Langer, 1997).

SEE ALSO

Brand/branding; brand management; brand personality/identity; integrated communication; integrated marketing communication; brand image; brand equity; brand attitude

READING

Duncan (2002); Kapferer (2003); Kitchen (2005); Kitchen et al (2004); Kotler (1967); Moriarty (1996).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

North and Enslin (2004; 2007); Scheffer and Chrystal (2008); Van Eck, Grobler and Herbst (2004); Shuttleworth (2009); Bosch (2009)

CONCEPT

Brand reputation

TEXT

One of the leading authors in the field of branding, Keller (1993), refers to brand reputation as the perceptions of downstream channel partners and eventual consumers about the brand reflected by brand associations held in memory depending on their overall evaluations of the brand attributes, whether product- or non-product related (Rossiter and Percy, 1987; Kitchen, 2005). Jara, Skarmeta and Parra (2013) also refers to social brand reputation which depends on the commitment in product quality, fidelity between reality, advertising and the value of social actions, as well as the quality of social experience since it is argued that the experience is the brand.

SEE ALSO

Brand/branding; brand management; brand personality; brand identity; integrated communication; integrated marketing communication; brand image; brand equity; brand attitude

READING

Duncan (2002); Kapferer (2003); Keller (2001; 1993); Kitchen (2005); Kitchen et al (2004); Kotler (1967); Moriarty (1996); Belch and Belch (2012); Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2012).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

North and Enslin (2004; 2007); Scheffer and Chrystal (2008); Van Eck, Grobler and Herbst (2004); Shuttleworth (2009); Bosch (2009)

CONCEPT

Brand strategy

TEXT

The widespread application of the Internet and technology, pushed advertising into an interactive communication mode which necessitates the personalisation of messages to meet consumer's needs. In order to do this, an advertising and/or brand strategy is needed which is, according to the Foote, Cone and Belding (FCB) grid/model of Vaughn (1980), determined by 'specifying the consumer's point-of-entry on the LEARN-FEEL-DO continuum and the priority of learn versus feel versus do for making a sale' (Vaughn, 1980: 32), hence this model's quadrants include the informative, affective, habit formation and satisfaction strategies. Recently integrated communication (IC) and/or integrated marketing communication (IMC) have become an integral part of an advertising and/or brand strategy to coordinate all communication actions and to develop and implement a brand strategy with unified messages and coordinated and strategic business processes. In the literature different viewpoints with regard to the strategic integration of IC and IMC exist. IC means the strategic management process of the organisation by controlling or influencing all the sources of brand messages, and that integration and interactivity are driven by information technology and data to create sustainable stakeholder relationships - Belch and Belch (2012) describes this as seamless communication. Authors such as Cornelissen (2005), Duncan (2002) and Kitchen and Schultz (2001) state that IMC is a process of managing all communication sources relating to a certain product or service to favourable influence consumer's buying behaviour towards that product and/or service. One key element of IMC is based on the argument that integration improves media and message delivery

which emphasises the need for cognitive consistency and integration without conflict and that integration should be strategically managed. In contrast, other authors argue for consumer controlled integration and synergy by the organisation, not the marketer, which is reflective in Levy's empirical research in the 1950s which indicated that managers were more focused on individual components of marketing actions, whilst consumer response were based on a more contextual and integrated perception of the product, the brand, and their existing relationship with it (Luck and Moffatt, 2011). Duncan and Moriarty (1998) explain that consumers and other stakeholders automatically integrate brand messages, and marketers have to decide whether to relinquish this integration or manage it strategically. This is emphasized by the words of McKenna (in Ouwersloot and Duncan, 2008:15): 'It is a fundamental shift in the role and purpose of marketing, from manipulation of the customer to genuine customer involvement: from telling and selling to communication and sharing of knowledge'.

SEE ALSO

Advertising; brand; brand attitude; brand/branding; brand management; brand personality; brand identity; integrated communication; integrated marketing communication; brand image; brand equity; brand reputation.

READING

Cornelissen and Lock (2000); Duncan and Moriarty (1998); Eagle and Kitchen (2000); Gould (2004); Kitchen (2000); Schultz (1999); Belch and Belch (2012); Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2012).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

North and Enslin (2004; 2007); Scheffer and Chrystal (2008); Van Eck, Grobler and Herbst (2004); Shuttleworth (2009); Bosch (2009)

CONCEPT

Brand/branding

TEXT

The word 'brand' is derived from the active verb branding, which is again derived from the Teutonic word Brunian (Sharpe, 1979) or brandr (Stobart, 1994) which translates to burn. Hence a brand can be seen as a form of identification given to a particular product just as a burn or fire brand would identify cattle. In the seventies Lamb (1979) described brand as a product with fully developed and complementary added values to distinguish it from a mass of other products; in the eighties Stead (1984) referred to it as a unique blend of appeals which offers a combination of functional and non-functional values and associations used together to build a personality to attract users from whom the brand becomes valued and is reflected in price; and in the nineties Randall (1997) added words such as unique, name, identity, differentiation, quality and guarantee depending on the type or level of the brand. Later Knapp (2000) stated that a brand is both perception and reality and supported Randall's (1997) four key issues in branding: that it is a strategic process involving all parts of the organisation, deliver value, has a continuing relationship with buyers and users and must be continuously adapted. This then lead to the concept of brand personality, brand reputation and brand equity which are described by Peppers and Rogers (1999), Happeneur (2001) and others as a function of the cohesive and consistent combination of functional and non-functional values and associations through communication of one voice to ultimately build a personality. It is these values that are responsible for what is known as brand equity which deals with values and is a

set of assets and liabilities linked to a brand's name and symbol and the consistent communication of these assets (Aaker and Biel, 1993; Feldwick, 1996; Moriarty, 1999).

SEE ALSO

Integrated marketing communication; integrated communication

READING

Feldwick (1996); Moriarty (1999); Randall (1997); Stobart (1994)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

North and Enslin (2004; 2007); Scheffer and Chrystal (2008); Van Eck, Grobler and Herbst (2004); Shuttleworth (2009); Bosch (2009)

CONCEPT

Bureaucracy

TEXT

Bureaucracy as a term permeated into the colloquial lexis of those seeking to speak to (mostly negatively) the features of a large, formal and inflexible organisation. The colloquial use of the term, however, gives a constricted view of the theory and the theorist that brought the term to bear. Bureaucracy, literally translated, means the rule of the office (Mumby, 2013), and the theorist almost singularly credited with its naissance is the German sociologist and philosopher Max Weber. Weber's work, as any cursory literature search will reveal, varies greatly in theme, ranging from Indian religion to German capitalism, although a central intention impels a lot of his work: understanding authority in its various forms.

It is his work around this phenomenon that eventually gives the field of organisational communication the theory of bureaucracy and communication practitioners and layman alike, the image of a 'bureaucratic organisation'. Central to the theory of bureaucracy is six principles of a bureaucratic organisation. Applied to the field of organisational communication, these can be listed and succinctly discussed in the following manner (as from Weber, 1978 and Kalberg, 2005):

- *A principle of official jurisdictional areas is applied in bureaucracy, which is ordered by rules or administrative regulations.*
- *The principle of office hierarchy sees a clearly established structure of super- and subordination, where higher offices supervise lower ones.*

- *Written documentation is the basis of record keeping in these organisations, with subaltern and officials employed for its construction and maintenance.*
- *Thorough training in a field of specialisation stands as principle for those in bureau management.*
- *Full working capacity is expected of officials in bureaucracy, irrespective of the length of his/her working hours in the bureau.*
- *The principle of general rules is adhered to in bureaucracies, where a set of stable and relatively exhaustive rules are stipulated for management of the bureau.*

In general, bureaucracy is democratic in its nature, as it regards everyone equally and impersonally – according to their merits and abilities, rather than their birth or stature. It also maximises efficiency and functioning, due to the rationalisation of decision-making and functioning, which is based on economic, rather than emotional motivation (Aldrich, 2008; Hwang, 1999; Kalberg, 2005; Mumby, 2013). For this reason, theorists such as Mumby (2013) see it as a spur in the development of capitalism.

In all readings of Weber's theory of bureaucracy, it should be understood, however, that Weber did not blindly endorse this form of organisation – especially in terms of the rationalisation and instrumentalism aspects of bureaucracies, Weber was vocal in his opposition (Aldrich, 2008; Clegg, Harris and Höpfl, 2011; Mumby, 2013).

SEE ALSO

Weber's types of authority; Organisational communication structure

READING

Aldrich (2008); Kalberg (2005); Lassman (2006); Mumby (2013); Weber (1978)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Carbon footprint and greening

TEXT

An inevitable part of modern societies is the production of greenhouse gas emissions required to create products and services (Hertwich & Peters, 2009). Because of the uneven distribution of the benefits, goods and services produced in the world, the term 'carbon footprint' has been devised to represent the responsibility and required remedial actions to combat climate change (Wiedmann & Minx, 2008). The term 'carbon footprint' originated from the idea of ecological footprint – that each population imposes some kind of load on nature (Wackernagel & Rees 1996). Berners-Lee (2010) defined carbon simply as different greenhouse gasses and footprint as a metaphor for the total effect something has with 'carbon footprint; then referring to the best estimate we can make of the climate change impact of something. Wiedmann and Minx (2008) proposed the following comprehensive definition: "The carbon footprint is a measure of the exclusive total amount of carbon dioxide emissions that is directly and indirectly caused by an activity or is accumulated over the life stages of a product." The measurement of carbon dioxide emissions can be done in many ways ranging from simple online calculators to complex life cycle assessments (Weidema et al 2008). The activities referred to in the Wiedmann and Minx (2008) definition includes the activities of individuals, entire populations, governments of states, private companies and other industrial activities and products. As part of the bigger notion of corporate accountability, the idea of measuring and minimising the carbon footprint of each organisation has driven corporate companies to re-evaluate their impact on energy and environment (Newell 2008).

Greening refers to the process of making one's space more environmentally friendly. In an organisational context, greening refers to the actions taken to make the materials, supply and innovation chains of organisations more environmentally friendly (Fineman, 2000). The importance of ecological sustainability has become especially important for organisations because it is believed that the industrial activities of big business have caused disturbing damage to the environment (Shrivastava 1995). Greening is usually channelled through the organisation's CSR-activities and ecological sustainability is seen as one of the responsibilities of corporate organisations (Werther and Chandler 2006). As with the social responsibilities of organisations, there is also a tension between business interests and environmental responsibility (Fineman 2000). The tension between profits and responsibility creates the opportunity for organisations to participate in greenwashing. Greenwashing refers to exaggerated or false claims made about how environmentally friendly products are or how green the operations of an organisation are (Smith, 2010). There are different forms of greenwashing and Smith (2010) discusses three of these forms. The first form refers to the provision of false or exaggerated claims of environmental sustainability. The second form of greenwashing is lying about the motivation of product changes – organisations realise that making environmental claims could lead to financial gain and is rather motivated by the financial gain than by the environment. The third distinct form of greenwashing involved implementing required environmental and safety standards but publicising those mandated changes as green behaviour.

SEE ALSO

Accountability, Corporate Citizenship, Corporate Governance

READING

Berners-Lee (2010); Hertwich and Peter (2008), Newell (2008), Wiedmann and Minx (2008), Wackernagel and Rees (1996), Weidema et al (2008); Fineman (2000); Shrivastava (1995); Smith (2010); Werther and Chandler (2006)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Carey's transmission and ritual views of communication

TEXT

The notable Cultural Studies scholar James Carey reflects on the work of Dewey (1916) in a series of essays published in 1989, wherein he explores two contrasting views on communication suffused within the history of Western thought. In truth, many scholars have drawn the line in the sand between contrasting views on communication in much the same way that Carey does, but Carey's dominates literature on this subject as it draws a forthright distinction, untangled from other dominating schools of thought that often complicates the precept of divergent interpretations of the communication phenomenon. The distinction that Carey draws underlies and differentiates various approaches to, and understandings of communication. Carey (1989) terms these disparate views the transmission and ritual views of communication.

Although these views are discussed as two separate concepts in this book, it is appropriate to trace the progress from one to another, and to highlight their basic differences. The transmission view foregoes the ritual view, and it distinguishes itself from it by considering communication as a linear, mechanistic and scientific process that yields predictable outcomes. Individuals that take part in the communication process are seen as passive recipients of the communication message, and are likened to the other elements in the communication process (e.g. the message, the channel, etc.) insofar as seeing them as atomistic and stolid features thereof. Critique against this notion of recipients being inert, generally gave rise to ritualistic views on communication

where recipients are seen as co-creators of meaning. Resultantly, the communication process is not seen as being linear, methodical and ordered, but rather as a dynamic process that unfolds in an unpredicted manner and where meaning is socially created.

As said, the line of distinction drawn in the categorisation supplied by Carey (1989) underlies various other approaches, perspectives or paradigms of communication. Picking low-hanging fruit, the transmission view is linked closely with the functionalist approach, where the ritual view is closely related to the interpretivistic approach.

SEE ALSO

Functionalist approach; Interpretivistic approach; Mechanistic perspective; Ritual view; Transmission view

READING

Carey (1989); Peters (2000)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Change

TEXT

To define the nature of change a range of terms and concepts could be used interchangeably. For example, the original meaning of the old French word changer was to 'bend' or 'turn' like a tree or vine searching for the sun; it can also refer to an action of 'alteration' and 'diversifying', as well as of 'modifying', 'adjusting' and 'varying'; or 'to make different', 'in a different state or form' and 'to become different'. From a theoretical point of view, it is generally agreed that change represents an alternated, modified and adjusted state of being. Although the opposite of change is described as 'immutable', 'uniform' and 'constant' with the most notable that 'nothing is as constant as change' (where organisations are also in a state of flux with changes in structure, re-deployment, return to work redundancy and personal crisis), it becomes more and more important to understand the change management process and tools to successfully lead organisations through transformation (Miller 2003). Authors like Neher (1997) argues that changes in the contemporary world challenge any traditional notions regarding the nature of human organisations such as society, coercing it into continuous change for the soul purpose of survival, hence that change is indeed constant, certain and continuous 'actions of intelligence', with the purpose of adjusting (questioning) and modifying existing notions.

SEE ALSO

Change management; organisational communication.

READING

Miller (2003); Neher (1997)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Change management

TEXT

Although not much contention exists in literature as to the importance of change management in organisational settings, the normative and descriptive properties of the management of organisational change is indeed deliberated significantly. Herein, various models, theories and frameworks are proposed for change management in organisational settings. The initial contemplations regarding change management revolved around Frederick Taylor's (1912) authoritarian style, where the theoretical assertions did not offer or allow for choice and alternative approaches. Burrell (1996) exemplifies this by stating that from these initial contemplations managers and organisational preferences were not only deemed irrelevant, but also illegitimate that "to act in any manner other than what the particular theory lays down is to act against the best interests of the organisation".

Moving forward from this obsolete viewpoint, literature started to focus on the notion of aligning the management style to the change and to the organisation, and therein two schools of thought regarding organisational change management developed. The first school of thought adheres to the philosophy of linear planned change management and mostly includes theories broadly associated with organisational development. Work from this school of thought includes Lewin's (1958) influential three-step process model; later adaptations from it such as Lippitt, Watson and Westley's (1958) seven-phase model and Cummings and Huse's (1989) eight-phase model;

DiMaggio and Powell's (1991) old and new institutional theory or Greenwood and Hinning's (1996) neo-institutional theory and Kettinger and Grover's (1995) assertions towards the theory of business process change management. A seminal source in terms of organisational development in change management is Cummings and Worley's (1975) book Organizational Development and change, of which there has been several revised editions. The second school of thought, which adheres to the philosophy of non-linear less planned change management reacts on critique against organisational development literature, and partly, if not essentially, on aspects raised by Mohrman, Ledford and Mohrman (1990) (see also Worren, Ruddle and Moore [1999]). Work from this school of thought includes Styhre's (2002) adaptation of the complexity theory and Dawson's (1994; 2003) processual perspective or approach.

SEE ALSO

Change; organisational change; organisational management; crisis management

READING

Cummings and Worley (1975); Mohrman, Ledford and Mohrman (1990); Worren, Ruddle and Moore (1999)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Channels of organisational communication

TEXT

At the very onset of germane communication theory, the first concrete model for general communications, that of Shannon and Weaver (1949), already makes mention of the fact that communication is conveyed through some sort of channel. The channel (used interchangeably with medium in this field), as it is understood in the context of organisational communication, is the vehicle by which communication messages are transported between the parties to the communication – in most cases, the organisation and stakeholder. Rensburg (2002) offers a review of the different communication channels specifically suited to organisational communication in the South African context, and categorises these into three groups: internal organisational channels, mass communication channels and private created channels and oramedia. Each one of these is respectively discussed as a concept in this book.

Apart from these classifications, organisational communication channels are divided into two distinct groups: controlled and uncontrolled communication channels. Simply put (after Melewar [2003] and Rensburg [2002]), controlled channels of communication refers to those channels that the organisation regulates absolutely, and which do not offer input or opportunities for manipulation from other sources, such as stakeholders. Uncontrolled channels, conversely, offers communication that the organisation cannot regulate, restrict or command, as stakeholders not primarily responsible for the communication in the organisation are able to shape and administer the communication message through these channels. The management of

uncontrolled communication is becoming an increasingly important field in organisational communication research, with the proliferation of social media platforms.

In terms of research regarding communication channels in the organisational communication context, a large body of literature is dedicated to studying the choice of organisational communication channels by organisations, and managers in particular. The choice of communication channel used in organisational communication is important, as communication transmitted through one channel very rarely produces the same effect on the receiver as the communication transmitted through another, as the receiver associates different values with the different channels of communication that are used (Cutlip, Center, Broom and Du Plessis, 2002; Lengel and Daft, 1988). The concept of organisational communication channel choice unpacks this aspect further.

SEE ALSO

Mass communication channels; private created channels and oramedia; organisational communication channel choice

READING

Cutlip, Center, Broom and Du Plessis (2002); Lengel and Daft (1988); Melewar (2003); Rensburg (2002)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Jordaan (2001)

CONCEPT

Chaos theory

TEXT

Chaos theory emerged from the field of mathematics and the physical sciences and was pioneered by Lorenz (1963), who sees chaos literature as the study of complex, nonlinear and dynamic systems. After its widespread application in these fields, the theory's applicability to social systems was realised and the theory was applied to the social sciences and organisational literature particularly (cf. Butler, 1990; Gregersen and Sailer, 1993; Levy, 1994; Thiétart and Forgues, 1995).

In more theoretically accepted applications to the field of organisational communication, the chaos theory is seen as an extension of the systems theory (Bechtold, 1997; Levy, 1994), in that it sees social systems as continuously transformng and evolutionary. A key attainment of the chaos theory, as related to organisations and organisational communication, is its ability to establish how a simple set of deterministic relational factors can produce a patterned, if unpredicted outcome (Levy, 1994).

In this view, organisations are presented as the nonlinear and dynamic systems that the general (mathematic) chaos theory identifies, and it is proposed that this system is subject to forces of both stability and instability which excels it towards a chaotic state (Thiétart and Forgues, 1995). The chaos theory offers a broad set of theoretical statements or orientations to the behaviour of the system, which emphasizes its lack of predictability and unexpectedness in the interactions

between its components and its evolution through its natural self-organisation (Seeger, 2002; Thiétart and Forgues, 1995). In terms of organisational communication, a prevalent application of the chaos theory is to the field of crisis management.

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; crisis communication; systems theory

READING

Bechtold (1997); Butler (1990); Gregersen and Sailer (1993); Levy (1994); Seeger (2002); Thiétart and Forgues (1995)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

De Wet (2001); Verwey, Crystal and Bloom (2007); Swart (2010)

CONCEPT

Charitable donations

TEXT

Charitable donations are those acts of financial (and other) assistance given to community organisations/non-profit organisations/research programmes/education institutions and many others as a manifestation of corporate social responsibility for which no return on investment in terms of publicity is required (IoDSA, 2009; Skinner, Von Essen, Mersham and Motau, 2010; Trialogue, 2011). Although no publicity is expected in return (as would adversely be the case with a sponsorship) organisations who donate to charitable organisations and causes do so for the advantages that such donations could hold, namely: links established between charitable giving and organisational performance; employee motivation; and customer and investor loyalty (Brammer and Millington, 2008; Splash, 2000).

Another advantage of making charitable donations is tax rebates where in South Africa, Section 18A of the Income Tax Act 28 (1997) stipulates a deduction to the amount of bona fide donations made from a taxable income.

SEE ALSO

Accountability; corporate governance; corporate citizenship; black economic empowerment; charitable giving/donations; social development; corporate volunteerism; corporate social responsibility; corporate social investment; sponsorship; triple bottom line

READING

Brammer and Millington (2008); Splash (2000)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Income Tax Act 28 (1997); IoDSA (2009); Skinner, von Essen, Mersham and Motau (2010);

Triologue (2011)

CONCEPT

Communication direction and flow

TEXT

The study of directions and flow of communication concerns itself with the course that communication takes on in an organisational setting, between sender(s) and eventual or final receiver(s) of messages sent. The course of this message is traced from inception to final absorption as it flows through the organisational structure, which, in turn, speaks to the direction of communication. Wilensky (1967) succinctly amasses the three conditions that influence the flow of communication in an organisational setting to be hierarchy, specialisation and centralisation. These three conditions all attend to the classification or structure of the organisation – a major contributing facet to the study of direction and flow of organisational communication.

An initial seminal author in the study of communication direction and flow is Peter Blau, who addresses communication dissemination in formal organisations (cf. Blau, 1968; Blau, Heydebrand and Stauffer, 1966; Blau and Scott, 1962). It is in formal organisations that communication becomes ordered and systematic, inviting and soliciting a study of this systemisation. However formal organisations be defined, at their core sits a hierarchical nature, which is defined to be a chain of roles, arranged in such a way that the one role is subordinate to the next, and that to the next until a role is reached where no more subordination is maintained (Thompson, 1961). The communication flow between these chains in the hierarchy offers up the direction that communication takes on. Graphically presented as in Figure 1.1, below, the three

predominant directions of communication are outlined to be downward, upward and lateral communication.

>>> Insert Figure 1 here<<<

Figure 1: Flow of communication

Within these directions, the flow of communication can either be classified as formal or informal in themselves, with more formal flow being associated with downward and upward communication and lateral communication most often associated with more informal flow, such as the grapevine (Goldhaber, 1976; Goldhaber, Yates, Porter and Lesniak, 1978).

Seminal works focussing on the direction and flow of communication include a strong theoretical movement in the study communication distortion or failures (O'Reilly and Roberts, 1974; O'Reilly, 1978; Roberts and O'Reilly, 1974; Tourish and Robson, 2006), often putting the focus on upward communication (Roberts and O'Reilly, 1974; Tourish and Robson, 2006). Most of these seminal studies are underlie by Parsons' (1960) application of the general theory of social systems. More recently, the Organizational Communication Division of the International Communication Association developed and implemented measurement systems that offer findings on both the flow and direction of communication (Goldhaber, 1976; 1978; Goldhaber and Krivonos, 1977).

SEE ALSO

Networks; managerial paradigms

READING

Blau (1968); Blau, Heydebrand and Stouffer (1966); Blau and Scott (1962); Goldhaber (1976); Goldhaber and Krivonos (1977); Goldhaber, Yates, Porter and Lesniak (1978); O'Reilly and Roberts (1974); O'Reilly (1978); Roberts and O'Reilly (1974); Thompson (1961); Tourish and Robson (2006); Wilensky (1967)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Van der Ahee (2000)

CONCEPT

Communication Satisfaction

TEXT

Communication satisfaction as a concept can be traced back to the late 1960s to the work of Likert (1967), who reasons communication to be an intervening variable between job satisfaction on the one hand, and the realisation of organisational goals on the other (Battey, 2010; Likert, 1967). However, from its conceptualisation through to the late 1970s, this concept was mostly regarded as being unidimensional – being a general feeling that employees have towards their total communication environment (Downs & Hazen, 1977; Rubin et al., 2004; Zwijze-Koning & De Jong, 2007). Challenging this understanding, the theorists Cal W. Downs and Michael D. Hazen conclude, after an in-depth empirical exploration, that communication satisfaction is rather multidimensional; as individuals are not either satisfied or dissatisfied with communication, but hold different levels of satisfaction. These levels of employee communication satisfaction is gauged by eight dimensions that Downs and Hazen (1977) propose – which also makes the precise measurement and understanding of this concept possible (Downs & Hazen, 1977; Gray & Laidlaw, 2004; Rubin et al., 2004).

Within its multidimensional nature, communication satisfaction is concisely defined as the socioemotional outcome experienced by an employee of an organisation resulting from the interaction that this employee has with the various aspects of communication in an organisation (Battey, 2010; Greeff, 2012; Tsai & Chuang, 2009). The dimensions of organisational communication satisfaction, that this definition eludes to, is summarised and defined as follows (as

from Bartels, Pruyn, De Jong & Joustra, 2007; Downs & Hazen, 1977; Eisenberg & Riley, 2001; Greeff, 2012; Rubin et al., 2004):

- **Communication climate:** *the perceptions that employees hold with regard to the quality of the mutual relations and the communication (events, activities and behaviours) within the internal environment of an organisation which inspires inferences of the predispositions held by the organisation.*
- **Organisational integration:** *According to Greeff (2012), this dimension has a binary directive, where it firstly refers to personal integration into the organisation, and secondly cross-functional integration. In terms of personal integration, it is felt that, in order for employees to be satisfied with internal organisational communication, they should receive communication revolving around their work, and all that goes along with it. Furthermore, integration in the organisation is also needed on cross-sectional level, where all departments, groups and specialisations within organisations should work interactively so as to further organisational goals. Communication mechanisms should be put in place in order to aid this integration.*
- **Media quality:** *Satisfaction with media quality focuses on communication messages as it travels through several channels of internal communication, to reach employees at every level of the organisation. What is especially important to note here is how employees perceive these communication channels, in terms of their helpfulness, clarity, quality and quantity.*
- **Horizontal and informal communication:** *Horizontal and informal communications, in terms of communication satisfaction, refers to the communication between co-workers on the*

same level. In this, this dimension of communication satisfaction looks at how active the grapevine in an organisation is, including the amount and flow of this informal information.

- **Organisational perspective:** *The fifth dimension of communication satisfaction is organisational perspective, which is defined by Downs et al. (2004:115) as the ‘information given out concerning the corporation and its goals and performance. It also encompasses knowledge about external events such as new government policies, which impact on the organisation’. It is made clear that organisations have to communicate its goals to employees, in order to allow them to align themselves to these goals, and their attainment.*
- **Superior and subordinate communication:** *The next two dimensions of communication satisfaction looks at the communication flow between superiors and subordinates. Both these dimensions thus focus on upward and downward communications, on more personal levels (meaning not with the organisation as such, but rather in its personified state). In terms of superior communication, this dimension focuses on the satisfaction of employees with superiors and their communication skills. For employees to be satisfied with their superiors and these superiors’ communications skills, the communication satisfaction dimension states that superiors should truly listen to communication sent upwards from subordinates. It is only once subordinates feel that their communication is heeded in some way that they will be satisfied with the communication.*

In terms of communication with subordinates, this dimension looks into the extent to which subordinates are responsive to communication from superiors, and the extent to which they feel responsible for initiating upward communication. In order for superiors in the organisation to experience communication satisfaction, subordinates should be responsive (albeit not compliant) to downward communication in the first instance, yet, in the second

instance, a culture should be created where subordinates feel responsible and apt to the initiating of upward communication.

- **Personal feedback:** *Very closely related to the two dimensions discussed above, is the last dimension of communication satisfaction: personal feedback. Under this dimension it is noted that subordinates should receive accurate (personalised) information regarding their performance in the organisation, as the perimeters by which they are judged are clear.*

SEE ALSO

Job Satisfaction; Human relations school

READING

Bartels, Pruyn, De Jong and Joustra (2007); Eisenberg and Riley (2001); Downs et al. (2004); Downs and Hazen (1977); Gray and Laidlaw (2004); Rubin et al. (2004); Zwijze-Koning and De Jong (2007)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Le Roux (2011); Meintjes & Steyn (2006); Van der Ahee (2001); Raaff (2014); Woldearegay (2013)

CONCEPT

Community

TEXT

Generally, a community is a group of people that are connected and that share common characteristics and interact with each other in some or other way (Sullivan 2009).

In the traditional sense of the word communities share a geographical location, but this definition is regarded a limiting for two reasons; the first reason being that communities need not share a location, but could be a community based on shared beliefs, culture, histories, classes, languages, experiences, interests (Sullivan 2009). The second reason why physical locality is becoming less and less important for defining communities is the emergence of virtual communities or networks.

Littlejohn and Foss (2009) describe five meanings for the term 'community'. The first meaning of community is people that live together in groups and their geographical location is the main source of their connectedness such as "the Atteridgeville community" and "the Rustenburg community". The second meaning for community shows a shared identity between the people in that community and includes examples like religious groups (the Jewish community) and groups of immigrants to a country (the Chinese community). The third type of community is a group of people who identify with each other because of an interest or activity (the running community). The fourth meaning gets attached to the term 'community' when the reference indicates a positive aim of establishing a feeling of belonging (for example, during a workshop the

facilitator could aim for establishing a 'sense of community' amongst the delegates). Lastly, community could also mean the opposite of individualism or privacy when referring to things like individual vs communal rights and private vs communal ablutions.

In organisational settings, communities and community-issues surface in a number of organisational functions of which the communication function is prominent. Organisational communication includes managing relationships with the local community as a stakeholder group or as a beneficiary of corporate social investment, dealing with activist communities that collect around a cause that related to the organisation and understanding the cultural identities of communities of the cities, regions or countries in which they operate in order to customise all communication activities (Hallahan 2005; Lahdesmaki & Suutari, 2011).

SEE ALSO

Community relationships, development communication, grassroots, nonprofit organisations, participatory development communication, social development, social movements, stakeholders

READING

Hallahan (2005); Littlejohn and Foss (2009); Sullivan (2009); Lahdesmaki and Suutari (2011)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Bosch (2007); Swart (2004); Mphahlele & Maepa (2003); Barker (2001); Myende (2013); Fourie (2011); Thetsane (2010); Rabali (2005); Alberts (2010); Roodt (2008); Ludidi (2008); Loots (2010); Bester (2011)

CONCEPT

Community relationships

TEXT

Flowing from the discussion of the term 'community', the idea of community relationships has developed with the notions of stakeholder relationships, corporate citizenship and sustainability.

In an organisational context, community relationships is the bond between an organisation and the community as a stakeholder group that is affected by the organisation and which in turn affects the organisation. Public Relations researchers Bruning and Ledingham (1999) identified community relationships (together with professional and personal relationships) to be one of the types of relationships that is of importance for organisational functioning. Community relationships are described by them as the support in terms of activities that could improve the social and economic wellbeing of the community as well as support for those activities that the community regard as important (Bruning and Ledingham, 1999). Community relationships are not only the mediation between the organisation and its community, but should form part of the organisational strategy to constantly respond and adapt based on the demands of the organisational environment (Waddock and Boyle 1995). This integration of business and social needs are reiterated by the King Code of Governance for South Africa in which organisational sustainability are equated to organisations being aware of their impact on the communities in which they operate (IoDSA 2009).

Awareness of the needs of the community and good governance are not the only considerations when harbouring relationships with community stakeholders. The advantages of good community practices could be taken advantage of to enhance organisational effectiveness (Burke 1999). Research by Ledingham and Bruning suggests that organisations that are involved in their communities can benefit from this involvement by seeing their community relationships as an 'ear to the ground' that could help the organisations to avert crises, minimise negativity and could also increase loyalty from other stakeholder groups (Bruning & Ledingham, 1999; Ledingham & Bruning 2001).

SEE ALSO

Community, development communication, grassroots, nonprofit organisations, participatory development communication, social development, social movements, stakeholders

READING

Bruning and Ledingham (1999); Burke (1999); IoDSA (2009); Ledingham and Bruning (2001); Waddock and Boyle (1995)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Mphahlele & Maepa (2003); Barker (2001); Myende (2013); Fourie (2011); Thetsane (2010); Loots (2010)

CONCEPT

Conflict

TEXT

Conflict is defined by Plowman, ReVelle, Meirovich, Pien, Stemple, Sheng and Fay (1995) as any circumstance in which two or more parties perceive a divergence of interest. Conflict is hence a situation in which differences in power, aims, values and attitudes lead to disagreement, opposition or animosity between two or more parties and who view the other party as potentially interfering with the realisation of these (Putnam and Poole, 1987). Conflict can be beneficial and a driver of change in an organisation if issues are resolved in a constructive manner. Traditionally, conflict research focused on the evaluation of fully rational negotiators assuming that people face conflicts in personal and working life following a rational decision making process. This approach has dominated conflict research in the 1980s and 1990s and has arguably ignored most emotional-relevant variables because it mainly emphasized the cognitive side (interpersonal, intergroup and interorganisational) and not the emotional side (intrapersonal) of conflict management. These studies viewed conflict as negative, simplistic in its process and structure and noncontextual (Lewicki, Weiss and Lewin, 2002) with the focus on the following: the role of conflict in the credibility and the use of marketing and organisational factors such as centralization and formalization that create conflict (John and Martin, 1984; Kohli and Jaworski, 1990); that the organisation's strategic orientation can affect the level of organisational conflict, conflict resolution mechanisms and interdepartmental relationships and strategy implementations (Ruekert and Walker, 1987); and that interdepartmental conflict is a consequence of the organisational context within which decision making occurs (Barclay, 1991).

The progression in the development of definitions on the concept is evident in the following: Putnam and Poole (1987) and Putnam (1990) define it as the interaction of interdependent people who perceive opposition of goals, aims, and values, and who see the other party as potentially interfering with the realization of these goals; Wall and Blum (1991) who see it as a process in which one party perceives that its interests like needs, ideas, beliefs, values or goals are being opposed or negatively affected by another party who see it as the process resulting from tension between team members due to real or perceived differences; and as the awareness on the part of the parties involved of discrepancies in opinions, incompatible wishes or irreconcilable desires. Literature in the social sciences are filled with in-depth discussion about the dimensionality, complexity, positive and negative consequences, conflict management strategies and contingent nature of research responding to changing assumptions of the concept (Song, Dyer and Thieme, 2006) and that all negotiation and dispute resolution processes have a significant affective component with emotions/feelings in conflict management.

SEE ALSO

Conflict research; conflict strategies; conflict/organisational conflict

READING

Hon and Grunig (1999); Johansen and Nielsen (2011); Miller (2003)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Boweni (2013)

CONCEPT

Conflict management

TEXT

Grunig and Hunt (1984) argue that the two-way symmetrical model of communication implies that the organisation uses research and dialogue to management conflict situations, to create understanding and to build relationships with stakeholders. Hung (2005) argues that dialogue resembles genuine or true two-way symmetrical communication to promote mutually beneficial relationships (Johansen and Nielsen, 2011: 209). Hence it can be argued that successful conflict management strategies require effective conflict resolution strategies through continuous two-way communication. The following conflict resolution strategies are prevalent in the literature: integrative strategies which are symmetrical because both relational parties collectively seek solutions to problems based on mutually beneficial solutions, hence a win-win strategy; disruptive strategies which are asymmetrical because only one party will benefit at the cost of the other party, also referred to as a win-lose, self-gain strategy; and dual concern strategies which focus on balancing organisational and stakeholder interests and range from a mixed-motive to a collaborative approach (Hon and Grunig, 1999).

Besides the different conflict management strategies, conflict can also be managed with a range of management styles. Thomas (1990) defines a conflict management style as a general and consistent orientation toward the other party and conflict issues which are manifested in observable behaviours. In the early 1920s, conflict-handling styles were seen as domination, compromise, integration, avoidance and suppression and reference was also made to a

dichotomy which involves either cooperation or competition. Blake and Mouton (1964) presented the first conceptual scheme to classify conflict styles, namely the five modes of conflict handling: forcing, withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, and problem solving. According to their Managerial Grid, a conflict can be managed in these ways depending on whether the individuals involved, specifically managers, have high or low concern for production and high or low concern for people. Since its introduction, Blake and Mouton's (1964) two-dimensional typology has been reinterpreted as, for example, concerns for work relationship and personal goals (Hall 1969), cooperativeness and assertiveness (Thomas 1990), and other's and own interests and outcomes. Based on empirical evidence (Rahim and Magner, 1986; Rahim and Bonoma's, 1979) the following conceptualisation has been one of the most popular revisions for two main reasons: the reinterpretation of production; and the disputants as concerns for self and others. The first refers to the degree to which a person attempts to satisfy their own concerns, while the second explains the degree to which an individual tries to satisfy the needs or concerns of others. A combination of these dimensions results in five different styles: integrating, obliging, dominating, avoiding, and compromising (Rahim, 1983; Rahim and Bonoma, 1979).

Based on the extensive work of Rahim and his colleagues (Rahim, 1983; Rahim, 1986; Rahim, 1997; Rahim, 2002; Rahim and Bonoma, 1979), these five conflict styles may be conceptualized as follows: integrating style (high concern for self and others) describes parties who employ cooperative behaviours intended to pursue mutually favourable solutions focusing on shared points and goals rather than personal interests and involves working through the conflict with creativity, flexibility, and open communication and information exchange in order to achieve the best (or at least acceptable) solution for all concerned parties; obliging style (low concern for

self and high concern for others) characterized by an incomplete evaluation of alternatives and a one-sided process of giving-in which decrease the decision making quality where an obliging person neglects his or her own concern to satisfy the concern of the other party, characterized by like going along with others, agreeing without critical evaluation, and giving in to others' positions; dominating style (high concern for self and low concern for others) with a win-lose orientation or with forcing behavior to win one's own position which is a confrontative approach that results in one side conceding to other through commonly used tactics like directive communication about the issue, persistent argument for one's own position, and an attempt to take control of the interaction to: avoiding style (low concern for self and others) which describes behavior that serves to minimize addressing the conflict explicitly, either ignoring it or quickly shifting conversation to a different issue and has been associated with withdrawal, buck-passing, or sidestepping situations; and compromising style which is in the middle of the dimension across concern for self and concern for the other and shows modest interest to pursue a mutually acceptable outcome but without making a concerted effort to reach it in order for both parties to have some gains and some losses by allowing give-and-take whereby both parties give up some important needs or goals because they found that some suboptimal outcome must be accepted through tactics such as appealing to fairness, suggestion of a trade-off, maximizing wins and minimizing losses, and offering a quick, short-term solution.

SEE ALSO

Conflict; types of conflict; levels of conflict; conflict models; conflict management; conflict research; conflict strategies; two-way symmetrical communication.

READING

Baron and Parker (2000); Blake and Mouton (1964); Rahim (1986); Miller (2003); Hon and Grunig (1999); Johansen and Nielsen (2011); Miller (2003).

CONCEPT

Conflict research

TEXT

Six major streams in conflict research are evident in the literature: micro-level (psychological factors that affect interpersonal and intrapersonal conflict among individuals); macro-level (sociological factors affecting conflict among and within groups, departments and organisations), economic analysis (individual decision making and complex social behaviour), and the last three, labour relations, bargaining and negotiation and third-party disputes, all relates to studies dealing with the effects of workplace and strategic conflict resolutions (Rahim, Garret and Buntzman, 1992).

SEE ALSO

Conflict management; conflict strategies; conflict/organisational conflict

READING

Rahim, Garret and Buntzman (1992); Putnam and Poole (1987).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Werner (2007); Verwey and du Plooy-Cilliers (2002).

CONCEPT

Conflict strategies

TEXT

More than three decades ago Thomas (1976) indicated that managers devote 20 percent of their time to managing conflict and regarded it as of equal importance to other managerial activities. Recent developments and changes in business practices created more conflict-provoking situations, and although the traditional orientation in the conflict management philosophy was to reduce or avoid conflict in the organisation through conflict resolution and avoidance activities, more recent research recommend that managers proactively look for constructive conflicts, encourage conflicting viewpoints and stimulate deliberations (also referred to as constructive conflict versus functional conflict) to promote active participation of employees. The following present a summary of Miller's (2003) interpretation of the most commonly used conflict strategies:

- *social intervention programmes (representatives of the conflicting groups meet to acknowledge the problem, commit themselves to finding a workable solution, work on the problem, and provide feedback at follow-up meetings until the interaction and relationship has improved);*
- *negotiation (during negotiation, people discuss the conflict with the aim of producing a more satisfactory working arrangement by trying to resolve various differences concerning goals and objectives while giving up less important aspects by approaching the situation from a win-win perspective);*

- *third-party interventions or compromising (a third party, or neutral person, can intervene by assisting the parties to resolve their differences and to ensure that a fair process is followed);*
- *dictation (the strategy of one person dictating a decision is usually used when parties are irrational, overly upset or under great stress, or when they do not have sufficient communication skills to solve the conflict); mediation (when a neutral person facilitates the communication process, people are able not only to listen to each other but also to find their own solutions to the problems); and*
- *arbitration (who listens to both sides of the conflict, discusses possible solutions, and makes a final decision that is binding and is usually used when all other methods have failed).*

SEE ALSO

Conflict; conflict management/conflict management styles.

READING

Miller (2003); Rahim (2002).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Werner (2007); Verwey and du Plooy-Cilliers (2002).

CONCEPT

Consistency theories

TEXT

Littlejohn and Foss (2008: 78) offer a précis of consistency theories within the field of organisational communication, stating that:

{INDENT}One of the largest bodies of work related to attitude, attitude change and persuasion falls under the umbrella of consistency theory. All consistency theories begin with the same premise: people are more comfortable with consistency than inconsistency. Consistency, then, is a primary organizing principle in cognitive processing, and attitude change can result from information that disrupts this balance. {END INDENT}

The overarching tradition of cybernetics is still evident in these consistency theories, as within the lexis of this cybernetics, homeostasis or balance of systems – in this case cognitive systems – underlie the theories that are bracketed under consistency.

The two consistency theories that have the most bearing on organisational communication, is the well-established theory of cognitive dissonance, introduced by Festinger (1957), as well as the lesser expended theory of problematic integration, by Babrow (1992).

Festinger's (1957) theory of cognitive dissonance, develops from the notion that individuals strive towards cognitive consistency, in what they believe and what they do (attitudes and

behaviours). Consistency in the cognitive reasoning of an individual, however, is a complex phenomenon, where consonance is a more accurate description of the process. The theory of cognitive dissonance therefore develops with two basic underlying hypotheses: Firstly, the existence of dissonance will motivate an individual to reduce the dissonance in search of consonance. Secondly, when dissonance is present the individual will, in addition to trying to reduce it, actively avoid situations and information that would likely lead to an increase in the dissonance (Festinger, 1957; Littlejohn and Foss, 2008). Organisational communication is most successful (whatever its ambition) if it inspires less dissonance in its receiver (Buchanan and Huczynski, 1985; Hendry, 1996).

Furthering this underlying notion of consistency in an individual's cognitive processing, Babrow (1992; 2006) develops the theory of problematic integration, which centres on the same fundamental aspects of the cybernetics theory as cognitive dissonance theory does, but now unpacks the need to align expectations with values (Littlejohn and Foss, 2008). In this theory, three basic propositions are offered. Firstly that an individual will feel the need to align his/her expectations with his/her values, secondly that the integration of expectations and evaluations more often than not, is problematic, and lastly that communication sits at the heart of integrating expectations and evaluations (Babrow, 1992; 2006; Ford, Babrow and Stohl, 1996; Littlejohn and Foss, 2008).

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; cybernetics theory

READING

Babrow (1992; 1993; 1998; 2006); Festinger (1957); Littlejohn and Foss (2008)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Contingency theory

TEXT

In the late 1950's and early 1960's the contingency theory approach to the study of organisations developed as a riposte to classical management theory, dominating organisational management literature at the time. The touch point of the rejoinder is the contingency theory's challenge of the notion that there is a 'single best way' in which all organisations can be managed. Rather, this theory posits that the appropriate management of an organisation is dependent on a set of contingency factors, ergo that the situation of the organisation would dictate what could be deemed the most effective management style or approach to be taken in each, respective circumstance (Donaldson, 1995; Tosi and Slocum, 1984; Weill and Olson, 1989).

The contingency factors identified at the onset of the development of this theory is the contingency of the environment, size and strategy (Donaldson, 1995), later elaborated upon to include the contingencies of task uncertainty and of decline. The appropriate management of an organisation would consider what the impact of these contingencies is on the organisation and that organisation's structure (Donaldson, 1995; Tosi and Slocum, 1984). These contingencies and their clout were initially widely accepted, and Tosi and Slocum (1984) attribute this to two reasons. Firstly the logic underlying this theory is very compelling: it makes better sense to argue for an approach allowing for more than just one, single optimal way to manage an

organisation. Secondly, early research (cf. Burns and Stalker, 1961; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967; Thompson, 1967; Woodward, 1965) ostensibly produced convergent results.

According to Weill and Olson (1989) the acceptance of this theory hinges of the acceptance of five assumptions, underlying the contingency theory. Firstly the theory assumes, unequivocally, that the better the 'fit' between the contingency factors and the organisational structure and management, the better the performance of that organisation. Secondly, this performance is (when it is measured empirically) measured against a narrowly defined set of attributes, usually solely focussing financial measures. Thirdly, the theory presupposes rational actors, en masse with the superordinate goals set for organisational effectiveness, just as it in the fourth instance holds forth that an organisation is at equilibrium once it reaches a 'fit' with the contingency factors. Lastly, the theory often makes clear casual inferences, although the methodologies employed in its development do not generally allow for such inferences. In this the theory is seen to reflect a deterministic model.

From these underlying assumptions, and others, critique soon started to arise against the contingency theory, surmised by Schoonhoven (1981) to range from a simple lack of clarity in the theoretical assertions to more nuantic issues such as assumptions disclosed by language usage. Soon, work outlining reactions and criticism against the contingency theory seemed to outweigh reinforcing studies, although more recently variant applications ratifying the theory arise from fields such as marketing and public relations (cf. Cancel, Cameron, Sallot and Mitrook, 1997; Ruekert, Walker and Roering, 1985), whilst others still, offer new theoretical aspects to answer to these criticisms (cf. Schoonhoven, 1981; Tosi and Slocum, 1984).

Research into early seminal works on the contingency theory is simplified by Donaldson (1995), in a thematically ordered anthology of work published in various journals and otherwise academic publications relating to the contingency theory.

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory

READING

Burns and Stalker, 1961; Clegg and Hardy, 1999; Donaldson, 1995; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967; Schoonhoven, 1981; Thompson 1967; Tosi and Slocum; 1984; Weill and Olson; 1989; Woodward; 1965

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Corporate citizenship

TEXT

In terms of corporate governance and accountability/sustainability practices, various terms exist that are used interchangeably by some, but are specifically defined by others. One such term is corporate citizenship which is used by some authors in the same context and with the same meaning as corporate social responsibility, corporate social investment and sustainability practices (cf. Fisher and Lowell, 2006; Googins and Rochlin, 2006; Valor, 2005). Although some are of the opinion that no real difference exist between these specific terms, it is argued that corporate citizenship needs special attention in the discussion on organisations in society because by giving human properties to organisations, concrete meaning is given to the abstract idea of the organisation (Fisher and Lowell, 2006). Concisely, corporate citizenship refers to the view that organisations are citizens (just as individuals are) and good organisations have the same responsibilities as good citizens. Vallentin (2010) underscores this in saying that organisations should not only be viewed as citizens, but are also responsible for begin involved in protecting, facilitating and enabling the rights of other citizens (for example an organisation that provides funding for a school is facilitating the right to education for the community served by that school). The King III report on corporate governance (IoDSA, 2009) defines responsible corporate citizenship as

{INDENT}An ethical relationship of responsibility between the company and the society in which it operates. As responsible corporate citizens of the societies in which they do business, companies have, apart from rights, also legal and moral obligations in respect of their economic,

social and natural environments. As a responsible corporate citizen, the company should protect, enhance and invest in the wellbeing of the economy, society and the natural environment. {END INDENT}

This extended definition is in line with the comment made by Babarinde (2009) that organisations, as corporate citizens, are expected to make substantial, rather than symbolic, contributions to society. Babarinde (2009) specifically refers to South Africa when saying that the social and structural inequalities in the country are daunting and if they are to be overcome, all proverbial hands must be on deck.

SEE ALSO

Accountability; corporate governance; black economic empowerment; charitable giving/donations; social development; corporate volunteerism; corporate social responsibility; corporate social investment; sponsorship; triple bottom line

READING

Babarinde (2009); Epstein and Hanson (2006); Fisher and Lovell (2006); Googins and Rochlin (2006); Valor (2005); Vallintin (2010); Waddel (2000)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Burger (2008; 2009); IoDSA (2009)

CONCEPT

Corporate communication

TEXT

Cornelissen (2005) refers to corporate communication as expressions of concepts and sets of techniques to facilitate understanding and management of communication between the organisation and its stakeholders. Subsequently the core focus of the corporate communication and public relations discipline is to measure, analyse and influence public opinion to contribute at strategic level through stakeholder relationship building (Broom et al, 2000: 5). Hence, various authors argue that the effectiveness of corporate communication is dependable on the communicator's ability to fulfil its role efficiently in building mutually beneficial relationships with strategic stakeholders and participation of these managers in the organisation's strategic planning to manage corporate communication programmes strategically (Grunig and Huang, 2000). Although the terms corporate communication and public relations are often undistinguishable, corporate communication is sometimes regarded as the evolution of public relations or that it includes public relations and is often seen as the preferred term when referring to all internal and external strategic communication practised by the organisation (Cornelissen, 2005: 24). Hence, corporate communication includes a variety of strategic functions which emphasises the need to have a holistic and integrated perspective to include all internal and external strategic communication in support of the brand, namely: research (environmental scanning and evaluative); issues management (directive for external stakeholders and participatory organisational culture); reputation management (to strengthen

relationships and build trust); and knowledge creation and sharing (utilisation of knowledge) (Heath 1997; Dozier and Repper, 1992).

SEE ALSO

Stakeholder relationships; public relations; corporate reputation; corporate identity; corporate image.

READING

Cornelissen (2005); Grunig and Huang (2000); Dozier and Repper (1992).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Steyn (2001); Van Rheede van Oudtshoorn & Van Tonder (2006); Holtzhausen (2007); Le Roux (2010); Le Roux (2011); Slabbert & Barker (2014); Van Staden (2013)

CONCEPT

Corporate governance

TEXT

The idea of organisations in society has been a part of business thinking for some forty years, but where organisations previously enjoyed autonomy various laws were instituted and expectations placed on organisations since the 1970s. It was, however, the last twenty years that announced the most significant changes regarding organisation-society relations. International attention on sustainability and responsibility can be seen in initiatives such as the United Nations Global Compact announced in 1999 and the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development. The 2007/8 global financial meltdown and resulting depression in 2009 renewed the focus on corporate governance in the financial sector and a number of environmental disasters caused by corporate companies (the environmental problems relating to petroleum operations in the Niger Delta and the Gulf oil spill of 2010 comes to mind) heightened sensitivity to the environmental sustainability and responsibility of business.

Sir Adrian Cadbury (of the UK Cadbury report on corporate governance) defines corporate governance as balancing economic and social goals and individual and community goals (IoDSA, 2009). The aim of corporate governance is then to align these goals and interests as closely as possible (ibid.). A similar sentiment is displayed in the second King Report on Corporate Governance when it refers to governance as the realisation that organisations are not separate from society and cannot act independently from society and the environment in which they operate (ibid.). Epstein and Hanson (2006) states: corporate governance is what is expected of

people who populate the corporate world. Internationally, corporate governance is approached differently, for example, the United States decided to legislate governance requirements with the Sarabanes-Oxley Act of 2002 with a 'comply or else' regime while countries such as the United Kingdom and South Africa adopted 'comply or explain' codes of practice (IoDSA, 2009).

SEE ALSO

Accountability; corporate citizenship; black economic empowerment; charitable giving/donations; social development; corporate volunteerism; corporate social responsibility; corporate social investment; sponsorship; triple bottom line

READING

Epstein and Hanson (2006); Fisher and Lovell (2006); Valor (2005)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

IoDSA (2009); Steyn & De Beer (2012)

CONCEPT

Corporate identity

TEXT

Whilst the focus of identity in organisational literature is on the concept organisational identity, in the marketing literature the focus is on corporate identity. Corporate identity refers to three main aspects: what the organisation is or expects to be, what the organisation does or what the organisation represents in society (Melewar, 2003). Various studies emphasise the importance of corporate identity as a potentially more enduring and evocative basis for defining organisations and their relevant business environment to enhance a positive image with stakeholders (Barnett, Jermier and Lafferty, 2006; Hawabhay et al, 2009; Balmer and Van Riel, 1997). In academic literature, the focus is mostly based on the argument that corporate identity represents the essence, the ethos or the personality of the organisation, including its nature to communicate to internal and external audiences (Balmer, 1998). Accordingly, it can be posited that corporate identity goes beyond the internal reality and visual identity defined by the different cultures by shaping the organisation's personality and determining the routines and interrelations that occur between organisational members.

SEE ALSO

Organisational identity; identity; corporate reputation.

READING

Cornelissen (2005); Barnett, Jermier and Lafferty (2006), Hawabhay et al (2009); Balmer and Van Riel (1997); Markwick and Fill (1997); Melewar (2003).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Kloppers (2005); Holtzhausen & Fourie (2013); Cornelissen (2005)

CONCEPT

Corporate image

TEXT

Although a variety of definitions exist, most converge on the notion that corporate image refers to associations and meanings relating to the organisation held in the minds of its stakeholders; thus, there can be no unanimously shared corporate image for any given organisation. While extensive literature has emerged around the image construct, knowledge of how and when consumers' perceptions relating to the image of a given organisation is influenced, some authors argued that individual and organisational-level outcomes remains in its early stages (Brown and Dacin, 1997). Work by Dowling (1988) has shown that consumers may hold a variety of different associations with respect to a focal organisation, or as noted by Brown (2011), progress has been blunted by a number of issues like key conceptual, theoretical and the level of analysis arising from the cross-disciplinary nature of the corporate image construct. It can be posited that corporate image does not refer to a generalised view of the organisation, but rather relates to associations held with respect to a particular referent (for example an image for trustworthiness, quality, innovation, etc.) (Dowling, 1988). In general, corporate image can be seen as the perception of consumers of the overall identity of products and services in conjunction with product quality, corporate social responsibility and the communication of the organisational identity which is a critical predictor of purchase intention in the retailing setting, supporting that the product-related corporate image makes consumers reduce risks of purchase decision.

SEE ALSO

Corporate identity; identity; corporate reputation; organisational image; organisational identity; stakeholders; corporate social responsibility.

READING

Brown and Dacin (1997); Dowling (1988)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Cornelissen (2014)

CONCEPT

Corporate social investment

TEXT

In many instances the terms corporate social investment (CSI) and corporate social responsibility (CSR) are used interchangeably. According to the King III report (IoDSA, 2009), CSI is one of the manifestations of CSR – in a narrow sense referring to the donations and charitable payments and in a broader sense including other non-financial contributions. It could be argued that CSI is the implementation of CSR and it represents a corporate company's interaction with the society in which it operates. In South Africa, CSI is central to the practice of CSR and according to Trialogue (2012), corporate organisations in South Africa invested R6.9 billion in CSI in the 2011/2012 financial year.

SEE ALSO

Accountability; corporate governance; corporate citizenship; black economic empowerment; charitable giving/donations; social development; corporate volunteerism; corporate social responsibility; corporate social investment; sponsorship; triple bottom line

READING

Carrol (2006)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Blumberg (2008); De Jongh (2003); IoDSA (2009); Trialogue (2011); Van Dyk and Fourie (2012a)

CONCEPT

Corporate social responsibility

TEXT

In the last half-century, the concept of corporate social responsibility has developed, debated and reconsidered by researchers and practitioners alike. In the 1950s Howard Bowen defined social responsibility by referring to the obligations of businessmen to pursue those politics, decisions, and lines of action that are desirable to society (Carrol, 2006). Since this first definition and the practice of corporate social investment with the basis of CSR remains much the same (aligning business actions with the needs of society), CSR today, is managed strategically, regulated by legislation and benchmarked by normative codes as part of the broader notion of corporate governance. In the King III report, CSR is defined as the responsibility of the organisations for the impact its decisions and actions have on the society in which it operates. This responsibly is taken up by transparent and ethical behaviour that could include health and welfare contributions, stakeholder relationships, lawful conduct and adherence to international norms (IoDSA, 2009).

SEE ALSO

Accountability; corporate governance; corporate citizenship; black economic empowerment; charitable giving/donations; social development; corporate volunteerism; corporate social responsibility; corporate social investment; sponsorship; triple bottom line

READING

Carrol (2006)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

*De Jongh (2003); IoDSA (2009); Nel (2002); Trialogue (2011); Van Dyk and Fourie (2012);
Xulu and Steyn (2001)*

CONCEPT

Corporate volunteerism

TEXT

Within the corporate accountability sphere, volunteerism usually refers to one of two things: the voluntary self-regulation versus policy and regulation debate; or employee volunteers as part of a corporate social responsibility programme. Differences in voluntary versus legal viewpoints of corporate governance have been clear since the mid-nineties (Utting and Clapp, 2008). At present, different groupings and countries implement different approaches. As indicated before, the United States, for example, decided to legislate governance requirements with the Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002 with a 'comply or else' regime while countries such as the United Kingdom and South Africa adopted 'comply or explain' codes of practice that has a voluntary, non-legislated foundation (IoDSA, 2009). Volunteerism could also refer to employee volunteer programmes that are instituted by organisations as part of their corporate social investment programmes where employees are encouraged to donate money or time to community work (cf. Trialogue, 2011).

SEE ALSO

Accountability; corporate governance; corporate citizenship; black economic empowerment; charitable giving/donations; social development; corporate volunteerism; corporate social responsibility; corporate social investment; sponsorship; triple bottom line

READING

Utting and Clapp (2008)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

IoDSA (2009); Triologue (2011)

CONCEPT

Crisis communication

TEXT

Clawson-Freeo (2001: 1) defines a crisis as follows:

[indent] 'A crisis is any situation that threatens the integrity or reputation of a company, usually brought on by adverse media attention. It can also be a situation, where, in the eyes of the general public, the media, shareholders, stockbrokers and analysts, the company did not react to any of the already mentioned situations in an appropriate manner'.[end indent]

The definition of crisis communication follows on this and is according to Pollard and Hotho (2006: 721) 'often portrayed in negative terms, even in extolling the need for crisis management planning, it is the potentially disastrous nature of such events that is focussed on, rather than the positive outcomes of planning'.

Most definitions of crisis communication in existing literature focuses mainly on the structure or fundamentals of preventing or planning for a crisis through crisis management, including the development of crisis communication manuals, media training and selection of media spokespeople. Lesser attention is given to the actual content of crisis communication, hence media attention is identified in the literature as endemic to most crisis situations (Fearnbanks, 2007; Gonzalez-Herrero, 1994) and many scholars agree that an organisation's response to journalists during a crisis (the content of communications) can have far-reaching effects on its

reputation (Hale, Dulek and Hale, 2005; Kempner, 1995; Mersham and Skinner, 2002). Furthermore, it is clear from the literature that partial research has been conducted on the role that the Internet plays in a crisis, whilst some research have analysed how the use of other online communication tools like interactive chats, real-time video or audio files can be used in crisis communication (González-Herrero and Smith, 2008). Fjeld and Molesworth (2006) argue that a crisis allows a company to communicate directly and rapidly to customers through direct interaction, and that the Internet in particular can contribute to effective crisis communication. It is therefore important that credence be given to communication to all stakeholders before, during and after a crisis – hence Fearnbanks (2007) defines crisis communication as the dialogue between the organisation and its publics prior to, during, and after the negative occurrence through all communication methods.

SEE ALSO

Crisis communication strategies; crisis management

READING

Fearnbanks (2007); Fjeld and Molesworth (2006); Grunig and Grunig (2000); Murphy (1996)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Bloom (2000); MacLiam (2009); MacLiam & Barker (2009); Swart (2010); Slabbert & Barker (2011); Verwey, Crystal & Bloom (2007); Sellnow (2013); Cornelissen (2014); Kunjuma & Terblanche (2013)

CONCEPT

Crisis communication strategies

TEXT

Various crisis communication strategies can be employed by an organisation ranging from those where the organisations is not to blame for the crisis to those if the organisation is to blame for the crisis (Coombs, 2001; Hearit, 2001). In the first case, the following strategies can be applied: denial strategy for false rumours which could include a categorical denial statement without explanation, a denial statement together with evidence that the rumour is unfounded, or, in some cases, the organisation might threaten lawsuits against those spreading the rumour and should only be used if there is no basis for it; suffering/victim strategy which involves the use of messages to elicit public sympathy; and ingratiation strategies where public approval is sought for the organisation through bolstering and transcendence techniques (seeing the context or bigger picture of the crisis), praising others (for example by complimenting the media for their role in the investigations), finding a new story to take to the media or providing instructional/general information for the public on the exact nature of the crisis and how they can protect themselves.

In the second case, the following strategies can be applied: excuse tactics such as scapegoating/localising attention (putting the attention or spotlight to the cause of the problem); making the crisis an industry issue and not one experienced only by the particular organisation; ingratiation strategy of independent third party endorsements and praising others through the use of a solicit comment in support of the organisation's arguments or defence from respected,

independent third parties; justification strategies which seeks to minimise damage associated with the crisis; and mortification strategies when the organisation is perceived to be to blame for the crisis (Fearnbanks, 2007).

SEE ALSO

Crisis communication; crisis management; crisis communication theory

READING

Coombs and Holladay (2001); Coombs (2006); Fearnbanks (2007); Fjeld and Molesworth (2006); Grunig and Grunig (2000); Murphy (1996)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Bloom, Crystal & Verwey (2002); MacLiam & Barker (2009); Sellnow (2013)

CONCEPT

Crisis communication theory

TEXT

Most crisis communication theory builds on Grunig and Grunig's (2000) excellence model grounded in different approaches to public relations practice ranked hierarchically in relation to their potential for excellence of which the two-way symmetrical model has been used successfully by many as a solution to successful crisis communication. Fjeld and Molesworth (2006) indicate that a 'growing scepticism towards the 'idealism' of two-way communication' exists, mainly because of its complexity. Another way of describing a crisis is derived from the Chaos Theory (Murphy, 1996) which suggests that a crisis typically forms a sequence of events which, over time, appear to gather volume and complexity with increasing speed. Because it is dynamic, it resembles that of a chaotic system as it moves through increasingly complex phases towards a disordered state. Accordingly, by encouraging an open flow of information between the organisation and the outside environment, the organisation can stay connected to its simultaneously evolving environment and is better able to handle changes or a crisis. While it is not possible to plan, forecast or control a crisis, it is according to the chaos theory possible to monitor small changes and determine reactions in the short term, and in the longer term, to seek to identify any similarities or irregularities in elements of patterns of change, and determine from these, acceptable courses of action (Edgar and Nisbet, 1996).

In addition it is argued that in the virtual environment, communication is mostly one-to-many and many-to-many and allows for speed, global reach and the covering of crisis in real-time.

This allows organisations to reach customers directly without messages being filtered indicating the significance to manage and control online messages. Authors like Gonzàles-Herrero and Smith (2008) points out that the Internet either acts as a ‘trigger’ caused by rumours, hacking, copy cat web sites, web security breaks and all forms of cyber-terrorism/cybercrooks; or as ‘facilitator’ as an agent that accelerates messages on the crises to provide a new dimension. The knowledge management theory, one of the most prominent theoretical approaches to study online crisis communication response, is one way of facilitating messages during a crisis. Because one of the key discourses of the knowledge management perspective is that embodied, tacit, implicit and narrative knowledge are important phenomena and fundamental to all human knowing (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995; Polanyi, 1958), it is argued that it is an essential part of everyday communication because it allows for the transformation, sharing and processing of knowledge. If applied to online crisis communication response, it is argued that the knowledge management paradigm presents a way to manage and control the messages which are acquired, transferred and assimilated during a crisis.

SEE ALSO

Crisis communication strategies; crisis management

READING

Fearnbanks (2007); Fjeld and Molesworth (2006); Grunig and Grunig (2000); Murphy (1996)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2011); Cilliers (2003); Sellnow (2013)

CONCEPT

Crisis management

TEXT

Fearnbanks (2007) defines crisis management as a process of strategic planning for a crisis or turning point, a process that removes some of the risk and uncertainty from the negative occurrence and thereby allows the organisation to be in greater control of its own destiny. In essence, crisis management provides a business firm with a systematic, orderly response to crisis situations. This response permits the organisation to continue its day-to-day operations while the crisis is being managed. Furthermore, systematic crisis management creates an early detection or warning system. Many crises can be prevented – or at least coped with more effectively – through early detection (Darling, 1994).

According to Gayeski and Majika (1996) much classic crisis management research has been based on a mechanistic view of control. Communicators believed that it was possible to predict how audiences would react to a carefully crafted message (Gayeski and Majika, 1996). This traditional linear cause-effect view is questioned by progressive systems theory which takes into account the dynamic interdependence of factors such as context and the mind in meaning-making (Bruner, 1990; Gergen, 1999). The calculation of probabilities, rather than absolute predictions has become the norm (Gayeski and Majika, 1996). The application of the traditional linear approach to crisis management and crisis communication suggests the following: a linear, mechanistic way where crises were seen as signs of trouble (Keene, 2000) and organisations following this approach seek to control their environment and experience frustration when it

behaves in a way that is incongruent and in conflict with the operation of the organisation; the organisation is viewed as a closed system with information only flowing out of it in a linear, one-way fashion (Grunig et al., 2002) and this asymmetrical or persuasive communications is the key to control or manipulation; traditional organisations are essentially conservative and resist change at all costs where the crisis communicator's role is to defend the status quo; the linear assumption is that there are defined steps or actions the crisis communicator can take to control the situation during a crisis. The traditional view hence focuses on ways to simplify things in an effort to get control (McDaniel, 1997). In contrast progressive, systems approaches to crisis communications are premised on the following assumptions: environments are dynamic and change and uncertainty or crises will come to pass irrespective of organisational efforts to control and direct (Keene, 2000) where crises are viewed as leading to opportunity or beneficial restructuring; the organisation is viewed as a system open to other interpenetrating systems and freely exchanges information with those systems with the emphasis on relationships, two-way communication, inter-connectedness and interdependence while taking into account social, economic and political contexts (Woodward, 2000); crisis communication encourages understanding between the organisation and its publics, is ethical and socially responsible; persuasion and one-way or asymmetrical communication is less desirable (Grunig et al., 2002); the crisis communicator's role is to assist the organisation to co-operate and adjust to the outside environment through negotiation not through linear, controlled steps or force.

SEE ALSO

Crisis communication strategies; crisis management

READING

Coombs and Holladay (2001); Fearnbanks (2007); Fjeld and Molesworth (2006); Grunig et al., (2002)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Holtzhausen (1995); MacLiam & Barker (2009); Sellnow (2013)

CONCEPT

Critical approach

TEXT

*The critical approach in organisational communication is often not given its own full due, as it is unfittingly an ambiguously grouped or equated with approaches such as Interpretivism and Postmodernism. The critical approach to organisational communication, however, is a distinct and eminent field of study, all its own. Although it critiques and contests many modernistic organisational values, and although it does coalesce with interpretivistic views of reality being the product of socially constructed and collective communication practices, critical theorists distinguish themselves through a focus on the **power and control** within the socially, collectively constructed realities of an organisational setting. Simply put, Mumby (1988; 2013) holds forth that 'Critical organizational communication researchers are interested in the ways that communication and power intersect in complex ways'.*

The central supposition that critical theorists work from, is that different social groups within organisational settings have differing amounts of power and control over communication resources. Therefore, a collectively constructed organisational reality would not equally and disinterestedly reflect the views or positions of all organisational members, but rather that of those with the most power or control (Alvesson and Deetz, 2006; Deetz, 1992; Habermas, 1979; Mumby, 1993; Mumby, 2013). As this power is not always exercised coercively, different interest groups in the organisational setting would necessarily vie to shape organisational meanings, and for this reason, the critical theorists argue that one cannot understand organisational

communication and the meaning it creates without understanding the power structures of the organisation (Alvesson and Deetz, 2006; Deetz, 1992; Habermas, 1979; Mumby, 1993; Mumby, 2013).

From this central supposition, key themes and assumptions of the critical approach emerge. As from Mumby (2013) and Alvesson and Deetz (2006), these can be presented, as below in Table 1.

Table 1: Key themes and assumptions of the critical approach

>>> Insert Table 1 here<<<

SEE ALSO

Interpretivism; Postmodernism

READING

Alvesson and Deetz (2006); Deetz (1992); Habermas (1979); Mumby (1993); Mumby (2013)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Jordaan (2006)

CONCEPT

Cultural congruence

TEXT

Cultural congruence has been defined as the distance between the degree of cultural skills provided by the organisation and the employees' perceptions regarding how well their cultural needs are met (Costantino, Magady, and Primavera, 2009). It hence refers to the distance between the offer cultural competence (OCC) and employees' cultural needs (ECN), which may offer the potential to assist organisations who may be dealing with cultural differences. Because organisations sometimes need to face dilemmas with workers with different cultural backgrounds (Gamio and Sneed, 1992), it is important to understand these workers' culture-specific needs (Costantino et al, 2009). For example, managers should have the ability to work with culturally diverse employees, to use skills differentially as needed with culturally diverse employees and to have cultural-specific expertise. Hwang (2006) introduced the cultural congruent theory to assist organisations to realise whether they are culturally competent where cultural conflict could be minimised which may in turn assist to increase the level of employee satisfaction. Cultural congruence can also assist to improve the internal marketing and employee satisfaction relationship. Managers can develop targeted training and communication for foreign workers, so that they could communicate confidently with all employees. Cultural congruence not only increases the similarities between exchange partners, but may also serve to reduce the communication barriers and misunderstandings in an organisational context (Zeybeka, Brienb, and Griffith, 2003).

SEE ALSO

Culture; organisational culture; cultural values.

READING

Costantino, Magady, and Primavera (2009); Hofstede and Hofstede (2002; 2005); Huang and Rundle-Thiele (2014)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Liu (2013); Baldwin (2013); Scollon (2011)

CONCEPT

Cultural diversity

TEXT

Cultural diversity, the differences in race, sex, language, ethnicity, values systems, religion, and local practices, is important to business management, policy makers and international organisations (Constantino, Magady and Primavera, 2009; Cameron and Quinn, 2005; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005; Pasa, 2000). The last few decades witnessed the development of cross-cultural management, which focuses on cultural differences and their effect on organisational and managerial decision making. Cross-cultural management is not only a question of techniques, it also involves human and ethical considerations as part of management (Melé 2012). Beyond cultural diversity, management is about people and therefore entails ethical dimension and ethical challenges for various reasons. One reason is that there are differences on moral perceptions and moral judgments among cultures, and consequently a tension appears between moral universalism (universal ethical principles or standards) and moral cultural relativism (local or cultural ethical norms as the exclusive source for ethical standards) (Donaldson, 1996; Jhingran, 2001; Frederick, 2002).

SEE ALSO

Organisational culture; culture; cultural congruence.

READING

Melé (2012); Constantino, Magady and Primavera (2009); Cameron and Quinn (2005); Hofstede and Hofstede (2005)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Liu (2013); Baldwin (2013); Scollon (2011); Maude (2013); Schutte (2013)

CONCEPT

Cultural values

TEXT

The most commonly used definition of values is that it refers to shared goals, beliefs, ideals and purposes and that values often evoke inner convictions among members of a specific group, but in order to maintain a set of values, the group needs to establish norms that shape and influence behaviours, attitudes and activities of its members, whether positive or negative (Hofstede, 1980; Williams, 2002; Zeybeka, Brienb and Griffith, 2003; Constantino et al, 2009). The main researchers in the field of cultural dimensions are Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) who identified the following cultural values applicable to the organisation as indicated in Table ...:

Table 2: Cultural values

>>> Insert Table 2 here<<<<

Triandis (1995) distinguishes between societal and individual-level individualism and collectivism by introducing separate terms of idiocentrism and allocentrism to capture the essence of the individual and collectivist values and individual level and amongst different cultural value dimensions. Various other studies have been conducted on cultures and cultural values in organisations, but other focus areas ranging from cultural diversity, leadership effectiveness, cultural constraints in the organisation, power distance and uncertainty dimensions of culture, to name a few, are also prevalent in the literature (Hofstede, Pederson and Hofstede, 2002; Blanton and Barbuto, 2005; Purriot and Simmers, 2006).

SEE ALSO

Cultural diversity; cultural congruence; organisational culture.

READING

Hofstede, Pederson and Hofstede (2002); Triandis (1995);; Hofstede and Hofstede (2005)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Liu (2013); Baldwin (2013); Scollon (2011); Schutte (2013)

CONCEPT

Culture

TEXT

Definitions and descriptions of the concept 'culture' seem to take their cue from the definition provided by E. B. Tylor, the British anthropologist who is credited with introducing the concept into the language of the new social sciences in his work, Primitive Culture in the late 19th century where he defined culture as 'that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, laws, customs, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society'. This is in line with the traditional definition of culture as a system of shared values distinctive to members of different societies as posited by Hofstede (1980) in his early works. The content of this definition seems to cover almost all aspects of corporate culture because culture is integrally linked to communication processes, structures and means (Triandis, 1995). Culture hence refers to a set of languages, resources, economies, religions, educations, social structures, and so forth that are based on specific norms or values where cultural differences play a crucial role in identity-formation (Deetz, 1994). In an organisational setting, a cultural adaptation would mean appreciating and supporting heterogeneity, understanding how identities are formed through the encoding and decoding of meaning, and recognizing in policy and practice that there cannot be normative perceptions of identity if human capital is to flourish. Cote (1996) argues that these identity patterns raise awareness to a culture identity framework where the term 'identity' in the cultural context includes a social identity (a person's designation in a social structure), personal identity (individual aspects roots in interactions) and ego identity (sense of continuity that connects to the personality). Hence, according to Mizzi and Rocco

(2013: 367), identity can be connected to culture where identity-formation can be viewed from an individual and collective perspective.

SEE ALSO

Cultural diversity; elements of organisational culture; identity; types of culture; culture in the organisation.

READING

Deetz 1994; Triandis (1995); Livingstone, Allen and Reiner (2001); Ruddock (2001); Dominick (2009); Grunig et al. (2002); Hofstede et al. (2002); Littlejohn and Foss (2005); Zamanou and Glaser (1994)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2014); Bechan and Visser (2005); Werner (2007)

CONCEPT

Cyber identity

TEXT

According to Rimskii (2011: 79-80), the interpretation of identity most appropriate for the analysis of identity in cyber networks on the Internet, is that it is:

[begin indent] 'the state of the individual's consciousness in which, on the basis of the aggregate set of personal characteristics, one knows oneself, one recognizes the stability of one's own personality, and one determines oneself from the surrounding reality, and one determines one's membership in a particular social group and, conversely, acknowledges the impossibility of belonging to other social groups'. [end indent]

Cyber identity hence encompasses different characteristics which are constructed collaboratively by and reflective of the peer groups in an organisation, or in the cyber world refers to the cyber organisational society. These characteristics of cyber identity include the following:

- individuals are consciously able to construct the online presentation of the self;*
- a cyber identity can either conform to or is rejected by the cyber network members;*
- individuals internalise elements acquired from the cyber network in their cyber identity based on the attitudes, perceptions, stereotypes, judgements, opinions, assessments, priorities, tastes, ways of life and characteristics of the group;*
- cyber identity is created through procedures to share and create information and knowledge;*

- *cyber identity is created based on the content of information – verbal, literary and textual constructs - through intertext, visual signs, sound, images, verbal descriptions, audio and video images which influence the consciousness of users;*
- *cyber identity is influenced by anonymity through the use of nicknames, only revealing selected information, nonverbal elements, etc.;*
- *cyber identity can be misrepresented through distortion of the meaning of messages and manipulation of information;*
- *individuals can try out and play with different identities which is not possible in the real life; cyber identities presented in cyber networks have no restrictions through morality;*
- *it is easier to create a cyber identity based on the provisional features of the cyber network to allow individuals access based on the created identity which do not need a copy of a real identity document;*
- *it can be multiple and fragmented or fluid and flexible; and*
- *individuals have the freedom to create multiple cyber identities (with some social restrictions) which can be used simultaneously and be experimented with (Marwick, 2005; Shapiro, 2010; Rimskii, 2011).*

Two main types of identity are prominent in the current literature, namely personal identity (which is the personal characteristics and meanings that an individual associates with him-/herself as an individual and with his/her social groups) and social identity (which aligns the social categorisation of individuals into a group) (Fearon, 1999; Moeng, 2009; Puusa and Tolvanen, 2006).

SEE ALSO

Cyber organisational societies; cyberspace

READING

Shapiro (2010); Rinskii (2011); Sedereviciute and Valentini (2011).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2014).

CONCEPT

Cyber organisational societies

TEXT

Various analogies have been used in the literature to compare cyber organisational societies with the real world based on different philosophical viewpoints. These include the viewpoint of Gibson (1984) that cyberspace refers to an 'alternative' world which would develop through globalisation and integration of computer mediated communications; Bishop's (2001:1290) viewpoint that it can be seen as the disembodiment of the subject in cyberspace through Froy's perspective of 'overthrowing the organic body', Benedikt's 'foreseeing humans ridding themselves of the ballast of materiality', Gibson's definition of cybernaut's ability to transcend their bodies 'online ... inside the system' and 'when consciousness becomes divided like beads of mercury arcing over an endless beach'. Subsequently the definition of social aggregation proposed by Kee, Sparks, Struppa and Mannucci (2013:36), which also links to the definition of cyber identity, is adapted to define cyber organisational societies: 'the organisation of individuals and interpersonally bonded clusters of individuals, a community of individuals and culturally distinct subgroups, or a collection of human nodes and different united social entities that co-exist within a system' to work together collectively, where these societies entails a structure of process affiliation, impression formation and interpersonal attraction to induce and promote cyber relationships and group cohesion through mutual dependence.

SEE ALSO

Cyberspace; cyber identity

READING

Kee, Sparks, Struppa and Mannucci (2013); Bishop (2001).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2014).

CONCEPT

Cybernetics theory

TEXT

The word cybernetics is derived from the Greek word kubernetes, which means 'governing' or 'steering' (Hecker and Wetchler, 2003). It is no surprise, therefore, that cybernetics was initially used in the mechanistic and automotive fields. In the field of organisational communication, cybernetics was, at the onset, used to describe Wiener (1948)'s theory of communication and control which sees humans attempt to control disorganisation in systems (entropy in this theory's lexis) through feedback.

Porocan, Mulej and Kajzer (2005), however, warn that the cybernetics theory should not be reduced to an understanding of feedback loops or modelling alone, but that the six tenants of this theory should be considered, which are by names complexity; openness; dynamism; output production of input; supported flows of feedback loops as well as modelled selected viewpoints (either mentally, explicitly or implicitly). The association of this theory to the general systems theory is evident in these tenants, and is described by the proponent of the general systems theory himself, Von Bertalanffy (1972).

A major influence that this theory has on the field of organisational communication, is the kindling of various other theories, written in the cybernetics tradition, and based on its tenants. After Littlejohn and Foss (2008), Figure 2 below depicts the theories prompted by the cybernetics theory and its tradition, showing the two distinct groups identified therein.

>>> Insert Figure 2 here<<<

Figure 2: Theories prompted by the Cybernetics theory

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; information-integration theories; consistency theories; systems theory

READING

Littlejohn and Foss (2008); Porocan, Mulej and Kajzer (2005); Von Bertalanffy (1972); Wiener (1948)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Davis (2012); Verwey and Davies (2011)

CONCEPT

Cyberspace

TEXT

Cyberspace, which is defined by Shapiro (2010) as the 'intangible, metaphorical 'space' that networked computers construct through and for electronic communication', began as an innocuous technology diversion, an unintended space, limitless, consensual hallucination experienced daily by billions of users. Turkle (1995) states that cyberspace allows 'people to become masters of self-presentation and self-creation. There is an unparalleled opportunity to play with one's identity and to try out new ones. Introna and Brigham (2007) argues that technology and cyberspace dissolves boundaries of self and place, and state the following: 'What better way to express post-modern irony, ambiguity, fragmentation, plurality and globalization than through a virtual world, where anyone from anywhere can be anything – an "anything" that can be vaporized into nothing at the decree of its owner ...'. This in essence indicates the inevitability of cyberspace as part of our daily lives. Cyberspace (the technological component) can be contextualised in terms of two other domains - physical space (the universe) and mental space (the human component). In these domains, there are interaction between the mental (culture, knowledge, etc.) and physical space (the pictures in your head of the physical surroundings), which today also interacts with the new domain, cyberspace (the notional space where electronic activities take place).

Cyberspace is the machine's world mental space which is a separate domain interacting with other domains or like Bell (2001) states: 'cyberspace is lived culture, made from people,

machines and stories in everyday life'. Although the Internet is not cyberspace, it is part of the matrix on which cyberspace is built. For example, Pearson (1999: 415) states: 'in enabling a bypass for physical space-based systems and processes, the Internet encourages the complete decomposition and re-assembly of physical world systems'. Because cyberspace is culturally shaped and contributes to the meanings ascribed in culture, it is on the one hand a commercial space (multidimensional and non-dimensional where information exchange and sharing takes place, databases are established and networked or hypertextual links are established between people and their needs); and on the other hand a private space, a new kind of social setting, a place for people driven by community concerns or hominoids, replicants, prosthetics – a place where artificial life, simulations and all kinds of virtualities might emerge, whether business, idle gossip, spiritual exploration, psychological support, or any other discourse which addresses human interests or needs (Venkatesh, 1998).

SEE ALSO

Web based communication

READING

Bell (2001); Introna and Brigham (2007); Turkle (1995); Venkatesh (1998)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2006a); Barker (2008); De Beer (2012); Gilbert (2001); Olivier (2012); Barker (2014)

CONCEPT

Database management

TEXT

A database refers to a list of stakeholders and/or potential stakeholders in a collection of records interrelated in multiple ways from which consumer related information can be obtained in a variety of ways to use in market segmentation and targeting (Kehinde, 2011:70). Database management use the results of database mining to perform the following functions: improve the selection of market segments; provide and transfer information needed to facilitate repeat purchases; helps with the cross-selling of other products and services to the same consumers on the database; provides a means to monitor changes in consumer behaviour and to identify new markets; and helps in customer relationship management to identify which consumers strives to turn to advocate and to partner.

SEE ALSO

Knowledge management; knowledge creation and sharing; database mining.

READING

Cornelissen and Lock (2000); Duncan (2002); Kliatchko (2005)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Database mining

TEXT

Database mining is a research technique which utilises existing data to find commonality of relationships in the data and the results are used in database management. According to Jermol, Lavrac and Urbancic (2003), knowledge can be created through knowledge of experts (in decision support) and from data (through data mining). In decision support, people who are faced with difficult decisions can use a wide selection of decision analysis and software tools (such as decision support systems, expert systems and databases) to evaluate and select management scenarios and project investments. In data mining previously undetected patterns and relationships in data can be detected through databases, pattern recognition, statistics, visualisation, etc. and be applied in marketing, direct mail, customer acquisition, fraud detection, network management and scheduling.

SEE ALSO

Knowledge management; knowledge creation and sharing; database management.

READING

Cornelissen and Lock (2000); Duncan (2002); Kliatchko (2005)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Decision making

TEXT

Decision making describes the act of seeking and interpreting information based on perceptions to arrive at a conclusion that is based on strategic issues. Hence, to solve a decision making problem, it often requires the use of several expert opinions which offer different points of view over multiple criteria, including technical, economic, administrative, etc. in the organisation (Tapia-Rosero, Bronselaer and Trè, 2014). This refers to group decision making and most approaches in the literature assume the existence of alternative and use pairwise comparisons assuming that all experts contribute to some extent to the final decision (Khorshid, 2010; Lu, Lan and Wang, 2006; Xu, 2013). The three main types of decision making in the organisation are indicated in Table 3 (Miller, 2012).

Table 3: Types of decision making in the organisation

>>> Insert Table 3 here<<<<

SEE ALSO

Decision making styles; decision making models.

READING

Lu, Lan and Wang (2006); Xu (2013).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Werner (2007); Reyneke (2013)

CONCEPT

Decision making models

TEXT

In order to assist with decision making in the organisation, three complementary perspectives on decision making models are proposed in the literature: a sequential view which explains the structure of decision making processes (this theory considers that rational people when facing a set of alternatives and outcomes will start by defining a utility function and then decide which choice to make); a dynamic view which assumes that often problems have a dynamic nature which prevents a sequential approach and that instead of defining the structure of decisions, try to understand how they are made (decision making is seen as dependent on time pressure, uncertainty, unclear goals, life and economic threats and other external conditions); and the continuous view where it is seen as a collection of activities affected by almost invisible individual and collaborative functions (it regards humans as information-processing machines where events ignite cognitive activities followed by physical actions to originate new events) (Antunes, Zurita, Baloian and Sapateiro, 2013). Although various decision making models exist, the following six are the most notable (Miller 2003; Burrell, 1996; Carson, 2005; O-Fallon and Butterfield, 2005).

Table 4: Decision making models

>>> Insert Table 4 here<<<<

It is clear that viewpoints on decision making have moved a long way from the rational models of decision making proposed by the classical theorists to the focus today on decision making as a matter of satisficing, intuition or advantageous collectives of problems and solutions.

SEE ALSO

Decision making; decision making styles.

READING

Miller (2012); Darling (1994); Latham (1991).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Decision making styles

TEXT

The following decision making styles can be implemented during the decision making process (Miller 2003):

Table 5: Decision making styles

>>> Insert Table 5 here<<<

SEE ALSO

Decision making; decision making models

READING

Miller (2003; 2012); Antunes, Zurita, Baloian and Sapateiro (2013).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Werner (2007)

CONCEPT

Development communication

TEXT

Development communication, communication for development, communication for social change and even development support communication are all terms that indicate communication within the sphere of social development. The centrality of communication to social development philosophy has long been known (Balit 1988; Servaes, 2008) and Paulo Freire (1970) cemented the importance of dialogue as a necessity for liberation. In addition to the importance of communication in society it is also of importance for the epistemology and practicalities of social development (Huesca, 2001).

The Communication for Social Change Consortium (CFSC) encapsulates the different levels in which communication is part of social development when they define communication for social change as ‘a process to public and private dialogue through which people themselves define who they are, what they need and how they will work together to get what they want and need in order to improve their lives and their communities’ (CFSC, 2006). Jan Servaes has written extensively on development communication and states that development communication is in essence a social process for knowledge sharing and reaching of consensus about development actions that takes the interests, needs and capacities of all concerned parties into account (Servaes 2002).

From an organisational communication perspective, development communication does not necessarily refer to communicating development messages, but to all organisational communication that forms part of a larger social development goal such as stakeholder relationships and internal communication within the sustainability or social investment departments of organisations, communication in social development NPOs, marketing and public relations with social development aims and community relations.

SEE ALSO

Community, community relationships, grassroots, nonprofit organisations, participatory development communication, social development, social movements, stakeholders

READING

Balit (1988); Huesca (2001); Servaes (2002); Servaes (2008)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Burger (1999); Barker (2001); Nulens (2003); Swart (2004); Ingle (2008); Naidoo (2010)

CONCEPT

Digital divide

TEXT

In an era characterised by the global expansion of mass media and electronic information superhighways that span the globe, the 'digital divide' refers not only to the gap that exists between the wealthy and underprivileged or those who have access to and use of information and communications technology (ICT) (the 'have' and the 'have not's'), but also to the digital and ICT gap that exists between third world countries and the developed world (also referred to as the international digital divide between countries; or the domestic digital divide within countries) (Zhao, Collier and Deng, 2014). The term was first coined in the middle of the 1990s (Van Dijk, 2006) and a considerable amount of research has been published since then. Initially it referred to the inequality of technological opportunities in terms of this gap, and later on to the digital inequality in the information society. Gradually it has been understood as the gap between individuals, households, businesses and geographical areas at different socio-economic levels, including both opportunities to access and use information and communication technology where two major divides became prevalent: access divide and use divide (Ghobadi and Ghobadi, 2013).

During the development of the concept, various attempts have been made to indicate the components of the digital divide, of which the most notable are the following: the disparity of internet access between industrialised and developing nations; the social divide which refers to the gap between the rich and poor in a nation; the democratic divide between those who do and

do not use digital resources; an access divide (including motivational, mental, material, skills and usage access) (Norris, 2001; Van Dijk, 2006). Digital divide literature also attempted to understand both the digital divide outcomes (which contribute to several inequalities such as immaterial, material, social and educational types of inequality) and digital divide antecedents (factors that shape the digital divide) (Van Dijk, 2006). Macdonald and Clayton (2013) also distinguish between digital inclusion (which provides people with wider choice and empowerment around the main areas of their lives) and digital exclusion (which refers to a lack of access to and use of information and communications technology (ICT) where ICT refers to a range of technologies). Terms such as 'global information highway', 'information revolution' and 'information economy' are commonly used to illustrate the profound role of information in modern societies and organisations. In spite of ongoing attempts to bridge the digital divide (for example through tele-centres, digital villages and mobile training centres), various factors still contribute to the digital divide, the most notable of these being expensive telephone and Internet services, Internet inaccessibility (especially in rural areas), poverty and illiteracy.

SEE ALSO

Technology; globalisation.

READING

Kotler and Armstrong (2010); Van Dijk (2006)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2001); Forrester & Matusitz (2010); Osborn (2010); Reece & Glen (2009)

CONCEPT

Direct selling/direct marketing

TEXT

Direct marketing, one of the fastest growing sectors in the world economy, refers to the direct communication of the organisation with consumers to generate a response and/or transaction (Belch and Belch, 2012). It involves various activities ranging from database management, direct selling, telemarketing, direct-response ads through direct mail, the Internet and the different print and broadcasting media. The most important tool of direct marketing today is the use of direct-response advertising where a product is promoted through an advertisement to encourage the consumer to purchase it directly from the manufacturer. This can be done through credit cards, toll-free phone numbers, the Internet, online shops or catalogues, sales forces, telemarketing, letters, flyers, brochures, product sample, etc. – basically anything an organisation can use to distribute information about their products or services to consumers.

SEE ALSO

Integrated marketing communication

READING

Belch and Belch (2012); Luck and Moffatt (2011)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Cilliers (2003); Jordaan & Kourantas (2001); Davis (2012)

CONCEPT

Dual capacity model

TEXT

*Foregoing research regarding managerial choice of communication channels in organisations focused on the factors that affect which communication channels are chosen in organisations, and how effective these choices are likely to be. In this, the factors studied predominantly focused on either the channel's capability of conveying task relevant data, or its capability of relaying symbolic meaning (Miller, 2006; Stikin, Sutcliffe and Barrios-Choplin, 1992). The dual-capacity model of media choice in organisations, however, posits that all organisational communication channels inherently possess the ability to carry two kinds of messages, which influences, or should influence, choices regarding their utilisation. Firstly the channels have a **data-carrying capacity** that relates to the use of channels to convey task-relevant data efficiently and effectively and secondly, channels also have a **symbol-carrying capacity** (Miller, 2006; Stikin et al., 1992) which mainly manifests in two ways. The first way is through the conveyance of core values and assumptions that collectively constitute the organisation's culture and in the second way, the channel can attain the status of a symbol away from the actual message that is being transmitted (Miller, 2006). The specific determinants of organisational communication channel choice, as they relate to the channel's data and symbol carrying capacities, is illustrated below in Figure 3, formulated after Stikin et al. (1992).*

>>> **Insert Figure 3 here**<<<

Figure 3: Determinants of channel choice in the dual capacity model

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication channels; organisational communication channel choice; media richness model

READING

Miller (2006); Sitkin, Sutcliffe and Barrios-Choplin (1992)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

E-business/e-commerce

TEXT

E-business is a term used to describe e-commerce, the servicing of customers, collaborating with business partners and performing transactions electronically within the business. Where e-commerce is the commercial transactions that take place in the business using the Internet, e-business is described as the use of information and Internet technology to achieve effectiveness as well as to create strategic opportunities through the use of information technology to change current market and industry structures (Belch and Belch, 2012). There is also a difference between e-commerce and e-business where e-commerce involves the use of the Internet or any other telecommunications network for the purpose of selling products and/or services online, e-business is a broader concept that refers to the execution of business activities within the business (micro environment) as well as with businesses outside the business (market and macro environment) using the Internet. Micro environment is seen as consisting of smaller environments such as the legal, political, economical, technological, socio-cultural and natural environments, each one with its own dynamics and relationships with society as a system; and the macro environment as the larger or global environment in which the microenvironments function (Keller, 2001; Leonard, 2005; Chaleff, 2009; Emmert and Taher, 1992; Child, 1972).

SEE ALSO

Technology; integrated marketing communication; e-planning

READING

Belch and Belch (2012); Kehinde (2011).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Botha, Bothma and Geldenhuys (2008).

CONCEPT

Elements of organisational culture

TEXT

In order to understand the various elements of organisational culture, communication and interaction is important. Researchers tend to focus on their own selected set of elements, which range from unconscious assumptions (Schein 1991); values, rites and rituals (Deal and Kennedy 1982); behavioural norms; communication efficacy; symbols, language, narration and practices; material artefacts (Peters and Waterman 1982) to stories, ceremonies and organisational language (Jones 2007). Table 6 presents an overview of these concepts in categories that range from accessible and subjective to less observable, deeper levels.

Table 6: Elements of organisational cultural elements and concepts/subcategories

>>> Insert Table 6 here<<<

SEE ALSO

Culture; corporate culture; organisational culture.

READING

Miller (2003); Grunig et al. (2002); Hofstede et al. (2002); Littlejohn and Foss (2005).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Empowerment

TEXT

Empowerment simply means giving more power to person/persons than they had before. Weber (1946) claims that power cannot exist in isolation and is also not inherent in certain individuals implying that power is created in relationships between people. The latter observation about the nature of power further implies that power can change. Page and Czuba (1999) echo Weber's sentiment by claiming that empowerment is based on two assumptions: that power positions can change; and that power can expand because empowerment is usually associated with a distribution of power to subordinates (Wilkinson, 2008). It further assumes a hierarchy where an inferior group is either granted power by a superior person/group or takes power from the superior person/group (Waddock 2008; Churchill and Offermann, 2004).

The idea of empowerment is shared by various disciplines and context including social development, psychology, religion, education, economics and in organisations (Page and Czuba, 1999. For the context of organisational communication, the perspectives on empowerment from social development fields, economic sciences and organisational management are relevant. In an organisational context empowerment relates mainly to the sharing of power in terms of decision-making capacity and sphere of influence (Churchill and Offermann, 2004; Jagd, 2009). Empowerment in organisations could either be focused on an individual (such as an employee being ear-marked and groomed for promotion) or it could be an initiative to allow staff on lower levels of the organisation more decision-making power in general. Other organisations,

empowerment is mainly used to foster productivity and include applications such as increased options in the workplace, creating a sense of ownership and fostering team work.

For organisations in developing countries such as South Africa, the meaning of empowerment within the social development arena is also relevant. In the context of social development, empowerment forms part of the larger goal of bettering people's lives and is associated with participation, increasing resources, creating personal meaning, self-worth, control over the fulfilment of destiny and being connected (Page and Czuba, 1999; World Bank, 2002; Churchill and Offermann, 2004; UNSDN, 2012). When considering issues of internal communication, corporate social investment and community relations, organisational communication specialists help organisations to ensure that their empowerment goals are in line with the development goals of the country.

SEE ALSO

Accountability; corporate governance; corporate citizenship; black economic empowerment; charitable giving/donations; social development; corporate volunteerism; corporate social responsibility; corporate social investment; sponsorship; triple bottom line

READING

Churchill and Offermann (2004), Jagd (2009), Page and Czuba (1999), UNSDN (2012), Waddock (2008), Weber (1946), World Bank (2002)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Oksiutycz (2006); Duncan (2000); Rammusi (2013)

CONCEPT

E-planning

TEXT

E-planning refers to a wide-ranging research agenda which addresses the interaction between information technology and planning. According to Antunes, Zurita, Baloian and Sapateiro (2013: 212) e-planning and refers to 'a complex task involving various types of geographically related data, including physical infrastructure, environment and landscape, land use, human and organizational presence, economic data and crime statistics, to mention a few'. Furthermore e-planning is context dependent (which means that stakeholders are expected to change over a prolonged and exploratory process cycling through various stages), with the aim to evolve to a concrete plan through the combination of various types of information in a coherent but flexible decision making process. E-planning is therefore an important part of marketing and communication plans, actions and strategies.

SEE ALSO

Decision making process; e-commerce; e-business.

READING

Antunes, Zurita, Baloian and Sapateiro (2013)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Ethical behaviour

TEXT

Ethics is, according to De George (2006), generally understood in three ways: ethics as a behavioural guideline, ethics as a research field and ethics as a social movement. Hence, ethical behaviour refers to the first concept and is defined by Lewis (1985) who synthesised a definition of ethical behaviour from a literature study on other's definitions by referring to it as morally right behaviour and truthfulness by following rules, standards, codes or principles. If applied to the organisation, ethical behaviour refers to the behaviour of individuals within the organisational environment or to organisations themselves. Ethical behaviour by individuals includes aspects such as honesty and lawfulness; whilst unethical behaviour includes issues like stealing and acting corruptly. On an organisational level, ethical behaviour will refer to aspects such as paying employees a fair wage and respecting the rights of stakeholders, while unethical behaviour would be practices like using child labour and sweatshops.

SEE ALSO

Organisational ethics; ethical dilemma; morality/moral values; professional standards/bodies/codes

READING

De George (2006); Donaldson and Dunfee (1994); Epstein and Hanson (2006); Fisher and Lovell (2006); Kapstein (2001); O'Fallon and Butterfield (2005)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Chasi (2007); IoDSA (2009); Leonard and Stroh (2000); Chasi and De Wet (2008)

CONCEPT

Ethical dilemma

TEXT

When considering the dictionary definitions of the two words 'ethical' and 'dilemma', it can be argued that ethical dilemma refers to a difficult situation or a difficult choice between two or more alternatives where morally good, correct behaviour is concerned (ODE, 2011). Fisher and Lowell's (2006) definition corresponds with the dictionary definition as they define an ethical dilemma as a personal response to a person or organisation being confronted by two sets of ethical conventions where a choice has to be made.

Because communication science concerns itself with people, and human behaviour is beset with ethical ambiguities (Kelman, 1963), it could be argued that ethical dilemmas will arise in organisational communication. For example, the Institute of Global Ethics is an international body that promotes ethical action in a global business context (IGE, 2013) and publish ethical business dilemmas and how to resolve it in order to give assistance to people who may be confronted with similar ethical dilemmas in an organisational context.

SEE ALSO

Organisational ethics; ethical behaviour; morality/moral values; professional standards/bodies/codes

READING

Fisher and Lovell (2006); IGE (2013); Kelman (1963); O'Fallon and Butterfield (2005)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Leonard & Stroh (2000); Chasi & De Wet (2008)

CONCEPT

Excellence theory

TEXT

*In 1984, the International Association of Business Communicators (IABC) requested proposals that would address the research question How, why and to what extent does communication affect the achievement of organisational objectives? (Grunig, 2008; Grunig, Grunig and Dozier, 2002). A group of public relations researchers including James Grunig, Larissa Grunig and David Dozier proposed to speak to this question, framed within an excellence study, as has extensively been done in general management practice – for example in Peters and Waterman's 1982 study *In search of excellence* (Grunig et al., 2002: 5; Peters and Waterman, 1982).*

Having received the IABC grant, these researchers set out on empirical research, done on the basis of compiling a generic benchmark from which critical success factors of communication could be identified across different types of organisations. Generic benchmarking was used due to the fact that no single organisation could be identified as excellent through and through. The generic benchmarking factors of communication excellence therefore gave a somewhat idealised goal for all organisations to aspire to (Grunig and Grunig, 2011; Grunig, 2008; Grunig et al., 2002; Grunig, 1992 a).

For the generic benchmark, 14 characteristics of communication excellence and three effect outcomes were identified. These characteristics and outcomes are grouped into four thematic

categories, which are summarised in below (after Grunig et al. [2002] and Grunig [1992a]) in Table 7.

Table 7: Groupings of excellence characteristics

>>> **Insert Table 7 here**<<<

Surmising these 17 excellence traits, at the basis thereof, excellent communication is communication seen to be communication that is managed strategically, that reaches set objectives and balances the needs of the organisation with those of its stakeholders. This excellence is reached through the use of both two-way asymmetrical and symmetrical communication (Wood, 2006; Di Norcia and Tigner, 2000).

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; Grunig's models of public relations

READING

Grunig (1992a); Grunig (2008); Grunig et al. (2002); Grunig and Grunig (2011)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

De Beer (2001a; 2001b); Niemann-Struweg, Meintjies and Grobler (2007); Wood (2006)

CONCEPT

Followership

TEXT

Although leadership has been primarily leader-focused (Hollander 1992), more recent research suggests that it should not be separated from followership. For example, Van Vugt, Hogan and Kaiser (2008: 193) argue that 'leadership cannot be studied apart from followership and that an adequate account of the leadership process must consider the psychology of followers ... the goals of leaders and followers do not always converge, a fact that creates a fundamental ambivalence in the relationship between leaders and followers'. In tracing the history, it is clear that employees or subordinates during the 1970s were seen as commodities for the primary goal of profit making where employees as a human resource were treated by leaders as 'I-It' which assumes object-subject, distance and no relationships as opposed to 'I-Though' which suggests presence, relationships, mutuality, openness, humanness which in the case of leadership refer to dialogue between leaders and followers (Friedman, 2002). The 18th century witnessed the move towards the leader-follower relationship as social and economic exploitations and psychological manipulations to the production of material goods and consumption by the followers themselves where scientists had to learn how to make leaders and managers (not followers) more effective which laid the foundations for the theories of leadership per se (Van Vugt et al, 2008). Today there is a general tendency to move away from traditional management approaches to dynamic leadership approaches where followers have more rights and freedom and can refuse to follow leaders who they do not support. According to Chaleff (2009) followers gained ground because of their engagement in organisational and transformational actions and the need for leaders to

form a relationship with these followers. Hence it is argued that leadership and followership functions and roles may be exchanged in different organisational settings and that they should be used complementary, not as two separate competitive concepts (Malakyan, 2014).

SEE ALSO

Lea Leadership studies; leadership theories; leadership styles.

READING

Shapiro (2010); Malakyan (2014).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2014); Puth (2002).

CONCEPT

Functionalist approach

TEXT

The scientific reduction of communication to its rudimentary elements and functions, seen to operate and serve in a specific order to reach a foreseeable outcome, lies at the heart of the functionalist approach (Peters, 2000). It leans on the basic modernistic principles of understanding and describing phenomena – in this case communication – in the most straightforward and unproblematic way (Mumby, 2013). Functionalists isolate the basic functions of the communication process and present them in a mostly linear fashion, postulating that the outcome of the communication process can be traced along a predictable trajectory. Individuals who operate within this communication process are seen to be just as predictable, where only their rationality is estimated into the equation (seated within its scientific nature, and contrariwise to the interpretivistic approach).

In an organisational context, the functionalist approach concerns itself with isolating, in a reductionalistic manner, the elements that constitute the running of the organisation, in order to manipulate them to serve a desired outcome (Neher, 1997). Due to the belief that control over the functions and elements of the communication process produces a controlled effect as outcome, strict control over individuals within the organisation, organisational activities and processes is observed within organisations operating in a functionalistic manner.

SEE ALSO

Critical approach; Interpretivistic approach; Transmission view

READING

Davis (1959); Mendelsohn (1974); Mumby (2013); Neher (1997); Wright (1960)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Van der Walt (2006)

CONCEPT

Fundamental models of communication

TEXT

Researchers working to define communication in almost any form, find a way to – either inductively or deductively – include one or more of the fundamental models of communication, which most markedly refer to Lasswell (1948), Shannon and Weaver (1949) and Schramm's (1954) models of communication. It is perhaps the almost habitual employment of these models that lead to the enervation thereof in organisational communication theory. Furthermore, fundamental models of communication are also often criticised as being outdated – as relying on contexts and elements no longer suited to define and encapsulate communication in all its intricate complexities.

The truth of the matter, however, is that the fundamental models of communication should not be seen outside the historical context from which they emanate – their importance to the field of organisational communication at present not appraised without apperception. Viewed from this vantage point, the fundamental models of communication are still relevant, as in the paraphrased words of Burlison (1992), one cannot study organisational communication or develop theoretical assertions within this field without being informed by some form of systematic conception of what communication is, and how it functions. This is exactly what the fundamental models of communication aspired to offer: models representing processes of communication abstraction from the 'real world, wherein essential features are emphasised through the elimination of unessential details (Johnson and Klare, 1961).

This scientific reduction of communication to its basic elements – which underlies all of the fundamental models – often forms the basis of most criticisms levelled against the use of these modules in contemporary research. It should, however, be understood that these models are developed as paradigm cases, which implies that they are developed as initial delineating instruments focussing only on the common, nonproblematic instances of communication with the expectation that from this initial conceptualisation, revisions and extensions of communication should stem and expand the understanding it instigated (Burlison, 1992; Hardt, 1992).

This is exactly what defines and groups, arguably, the three most notable fundamental models of communication: that of Lasswell (1948), Shannon and Weaver (1949) and Schramm (1954). These models expanded on the assertions of its predecessor, and in so doing forwarded the paradigm case of understanding the incorporeal phenomenon of communication. It is in this view that each one of these three fundamental models of communication is discussed as concept in this book.

SEE ALSO

Laswell's fundamental model of communication; Shannon and Weaver's fundamental model of communication; Schramm's fundamental model of communication

READING

Burlison (1992); Hardt (1992); Johnson and Klare (1961); Lasswell (1948); Schramm (1954); Shannon and Weaver (1949); Wagner (1994)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Globalisation

TEXT

In existing literature, globalization is usually seen as a change in the management orientation towards a geocentric orientation and also as the development of the strategies of globalising organisations. Chase-Dunn, Kawano and Brewer (2000: 77) define globalisation as the 'process(es) of increased density and frequency of international or global interactions relative to local or national ones'. Few studies have been conducted on the globalization process, but according to Gabrielsson, Gabrielsson, Darling and Luostrarinen (2006) it is usually seen as the expansion of an organisation's markets geographically from the domestic continent to other continents to develop an increased global alignment of activities. One of the key drivers and a significant indicator of globalisation is information and communication technology (ICT) due to its greater connectivity and flow of information through new communication systems. According to Poster (2006), McLuhan (2006) and Kotler and Armstrong (2010) these new communication systems or computer-mediated communication, which is made possible through the Internet and World Wide Web, introduces various new forms of media and methods of communication, varying from a synchronous to an asynchronous nature characterized by both integrating and disintegrating forces (Taylor, 1999).

The main factors which contributed to the rise of globalisation can hence be seen as the economic philosophy of creating wealth through free trade (laissez-faire capitalism), and technological factors, which include the use of the Internet, the World Wide Web, facsimiles,

video conferencing which make it possible to conduct business across distances (Conrad and Poole, 2002). According to Monge (1998) globalisation has three notable influences on organisational communication, namely: it results in time and space compression, changing communication patterns and perceptions, because functions can take place quickly when and where time and space are no longer connected; it enhances a sense of global consciousness and reflexivity. According to him people need to be sensitive to the cultures, attitudes, behaviours and beliefs of others in global, multinational and multicultural organisations; and it leads to the disembeddedness of organisations and people in a single location because behaviour and interaction are lifted out of the local context and restructured across time and space.

SEE ALSO

Technology; online communication

READING

Kotler and Armstrong (2010); Taylor (1999); Mumby (2013).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Conradie (2007); De Beer (2004); De Beer (2004; 2008); Ferreira (2004); Olivier (2007); Phiri (2010); Servaes & Lie (2010); Van Antwerp (2010); ; Phiri (2010); Ekeanyanwu (2009); Kamalipour (2007); McPhail (2013)

CONCEPT

Grassroots

TEXT

The term 'grassroots' is usually used as an adjective to describe phenomena associated with participatory, volunteer-driven, needs-based, local, community groups. It was first used by Rudyard Kipling in a novel in 1901 to indicate the source or origin and used for the first time in a political sense by Albert Beveridge, then senator of Indiana, in 1912 (Blackwell 2007). As the word root implies grassroots refer to the bottom-line basics. According to the Oxford Dictionary (2014) 'grassroots' means fundamental, basic or common. According to Blackwell (2007) the term refers to the most basic level of something and when people are concerned that basic level refers to individual people.

In the context of social and human sciences, grassroots are used in many different settings; grassroots social movements and associations indicate the formation of groups based on a cause (Smith, 2000); grassroots journalism refers to citizen journalism where the former audiences of media products become the creators and distributors of news and other stories (Gillmor, 2006); non-profit organisations are sometimes referred to as grassroots organisations to indicate community involvement (Guenther, 2009); and grassroots sponsorship involves providing resources to local organisations, events and activities (Newman, 2011).

From an organisational communication stance, grassroots organisations, associations and social movements could enter the sphere of business as stakeholders or activist publics that must

be considered and engaged with by the communication department. Grassroots journalism should change the way the communications department deals with stakeholder groups as each individual that comes into contact with the organisation could potentially be a journalist broadcasting messages about the organisation. Of course, corporate social investment could involve grassroots organisations as recipients of funding and other investment.

SEE ALSO

Community, community relationships, development communication, nonprofit organisations, participatory development communication, social development, social movements, stakeholders

READING

Blackwell (2007); Gillmor (2006); Guenther (2009); Newman (2011); Oxford Dictionaries (2014); Smith (2000)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Grunig's models of public relations

TEXT

James E Grunig is often hailed as the founding father of Public Relations meta-research related to communication management in the organisational setting. Arguably one of the reasons for this assigned eminence is the research he began in 1976, where he sought to explain the public relations comportment of organisations for the formulation of measurable types of behaviour (Grunig, 1976; Grunig, Grunig, Sriramesh, Huang and Lyra, 1995).

In an extensive empirical research campaign, he categorises the public relations behaviour of organisations, initially according to Thayer's (1968) concepts of synchronic and diachronic communication, focussing on the benefit created for the organisation and/or its stakeholders through the public relations process (Grunig, 1976). Subsequently, as he was convinced that the synchronic-diachronic classification does not possess sufficient depth for a theory of public relations, he introduces four models of public relations, based on collaborative work in 1984, regarding the historical development of public relations (Grunig et al., 1995; Grunig and Hunt, 1984). These four models are by names the Press agency model, the Public information model, the One-way asymmetrical model as well as the Two-way symmetrical model (Grunig and Hunt, 1984; Grunig and Grunig, 1992), each one respectively discussed as a concept in this book.

These four models constitute the models of public relations, and gave rise to various other momentous public relations theories, the most notable of which is arguably the excellence theory of Dozier, Grunig and Grunig (1995).

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; excellence theory; press agency model; public information model; one-way asymmetrical model; two-way symmetrical model

READING

Dozier, Grunig and Grunig (1995); Grunig (1976); Grunig and Grunig (1992); Grunig and Hunt (1984); Grunig, Grunig, Sriramesh, Huang and Lyra (1995)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Hackman's job characteristics theory

TEXT

In contemplating job satisfaction at the beginning of the 1970's, the organisational psychologist J. Richard Hackman contends that work, in itself has no inherent meaning – individuals (employees) impute meaning to their work (Kalleberg, 1977). This realisation, naturally, makes the understanding of work or job satisfaction all the more complex, as it implies an understanding of all possible inherent meanings attributed by individuals to their work.

In an attempt to disentangle and elucidate the meaning that individuals ascribe to their working situation, as well as their satisfaction with it, Hackman (1976) outlines various characteristics of the working environment, and holds forth that job satisfaction can be measured by exploring the degree to which employees value and experience each one of these characteristics. According to Courtney (2013) the core characteristics identified by Hackman and his colleagues are skill variety; task identity; task significance; autonomy; and feedback – all tersely defined below in Table 8.

Table 8: Core job characteristics (Courtney, 2013)

>>> Insert Table 8 here<<<

Significant to the field of organisational communication is the last characteristic, where the link between job satisfaction and communication satisfaction is considered for the first time – an

aspect that is seen to re-emerge in later seminal literature on communication satisfaction (cf. Downs and Hazen, 1977)

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; Job Satisfaction

READING

Arnold and House (1980); Hackman (1976); Hackman and Lawler (1971); Hackman and Oldham (1975)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Hermeneutics

TEXT

Hermeneutics is a long-standing methodology of study, which was initially employed for the study of texts – specifically biblical texts. At the turn of the eighteenth century, however, the concept grew and developed as a theory of human understanding, through the work of philosophers such as Schleiermacher, Dilthey and Heidegger (Palmer, 1969). This focus on human understanding, and the revived prominence it lend to the field of hermeneutic study in the late 1960's and early 1970's (Crowther, 2003; Gadamer, 1976; Hekman, 1986) is categorised by Howard (1982) as having three faces: analytic hermeneutics; psychosocial hermeneutics; and ontological hermeneutics.

The latter form, also known as sociological hermeneutics, is steeped in the tradition of the German philosopher Hans-Georg Gadamer, and is the approach most used in the field of organisational communication. Herein, ontological or sociological hermeneutics is interpretivistic in its approach as it postulates that meaning is married to context. Put differently, and as from an organisational communication perspective, it is only possible to understand the meaning of organisational behaviour within the context and discourse from which it originates (Flick, Von Kardorff and Steinke, 2004; Howard, 1982; Palmer, 1969). Ontological or sociological hermeneutics, therefore, gives rise to fields of study within organisational communication that focus in on the socially constructed context of the organisation itself – such

as organisational culture and climate studies, as it tries to unpack the meaning of behaviour in an organisational setting vis-à-vis its context.

SEE ALSO

Interpretivistic approach

READING

Crowther (2003); Gadamer (1976); Flick, Von Kardorff and Steinke (2004); Hekman (1986); Howard (1982); Palmer (1969)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Herzberg's job satisfaction motivators and hygiene factors

TEXT

The era of scientific management saw an almost singular focus on the 'removal' of the individual from the equation of organisational communication and organisational management. The more impersonal the approach to organisational communication and –management, the better its chances at success were predicted to be (Mumby, 2013; Taylor, 1912; 1934). It is natural, therefore, to expect for the pendulum to swing back around the other way in terms of the theoretical progression in the fields of organisational communication and –management. Just so, schools of thought developed (for example the Human relations school), which sought to focus on, rather than eliminate the importance and place of the individual in the functioning and success of organisations.

In this vein, the psychologist Frederick Herzberg develops, what others mostly refer to as the two-factor theory, and he himself designates the motivation-hygiene theory, making reference to the factors that he proffers up therein (Courtney, 2013; Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 2010). This theory focusses in on the factors that lead to job satisfaction (motivation factors) and those that lead to dissatisfaction (hygiene factors). Table 9 below lists each one of these motivation and hygiene factors.

Table 9: Herzberg's job satisfaction motivators and hygiene factors

>>> Insert Table 9 here<<<

Although many forms of criticism has been lodged against this theory – of its applicability to all forms of workers (cf. Dunnette, Campbell and Hakel, 1976), to its unidimensionality (cf. Burke, 1966), et cetera, it did produce the concept of job enrichment which still proves to be particularly appealing in organisational communication management to this day (Miner, 2005).

SEE ALSO

Job Satisfaction; Human relations school; Scientific management theory

READING

Dunnette, Campbell and Hakel (1976); Herzberg (1966); Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, (2010); House and Wigdor (1967); Miner (2005)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Information integration

TEXT

The information integration segment of cybernetics theories relates the receiving of information to attitudes and attitudinal change in organisations and organisational communication. Two of the major theories within this grouping is Anderson's (1971) information-integration theory as well as Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) expectancy-value theory. Both of these theories focus on the manner in which the receiving of information affects individuals' attitudes and behaviours based on established or existing predispositions, although how these predispositions impel attitude and behaviour is the point of distinction.

The information-integration theory centres on the manner in which an individual consumes and organises information about individuals, organisations or objects to form attitudes, based on predispositions or beliefs (Anderson, 1971; 1981; Littlejohn and Foss, 2008; Shaw, 1980). Two aspects are pertinent in the formation of attitudes: valance and weight. If information provided supports an individual's predispositions or beliefs, positive valance (most likely to lead to a positive attitude) is experienced, and if the weight assigned to the information bears to credibility, support to the information is once again experienced (Anderson and Graesser, 1976; Blau and Katerberg, 1982; Littlejohn and Foss, 2008). If not, the inverse effect is experienced, and a negative attitude to the individual, organisation or object is resultant.

The expectancy-value theory relates an individual's predispositions or beliefs to the formation of attitudes, but in this states that two kinds of beliefs influence this formation (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Littlejohn and Foss, 2008). The first kind of belief is the belief in and the second the belief about the object, individual or organisation in question. These two kinds of beliefs can be altered based on information received, which means that an individual's general attitude is influenced by more than one belief aspect (Littlejohn and Foss, 2008).

Applications of these theories in the field of organisational communication range from topics of leadership exchange to small group communication to product or service acceptance. In any area of the field where attitudinal attributions are central to the understanding of the research phenomenon, these theories seem to feature.

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; cybernetics theory

READING

Anderson (1971; 1981); Anderson and Graesser (1976); Fishbein and Ajzen (1975); Littlejohn and Foss (2008); Shaw (1980)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Integrated communication/strategic integrated communication

TEXT

Various scholars emphasise the need to integrate communication to provide organisations with a competitive edge through integration (Schultz and Schultz, 2000; Duncan and Caywood, 1996; Grunig and Grunig, 2002; Kitchen and Schultz, 2000). Integrated communication became the umbrella term to include all strategic organisational communication and presented a shift away from a customer-centred approach to a stakeholder-centric approach, where stakeholders are seen as any individual/organisation which is vital to the long-term health of the organisation (Lake 2010) where coordination became a powerful element of this approach (Kehinde 2011, 65). Subsequently integrated communication has been defined as a strategic management process to control and influence the complete communication process with both internal and external stakeholders in support of the organisational brand to enhance profitable and sustainable stakeholder relationships (based on and adapted from viewpoints of authors such as Duncan and Caywood, 1996; Grunig and Grunig, 1998, Kitchen and Schultz, 2000).

In realising the importance of a strategic approach to communication in the organisation, Barker (2013) posited that the drive to the total brand experience is not enough, but rather to strategically managing mutually beneficial organisational and stakeholder relationships, where the planning thereof recognises the added value of an strategic integrated communication (SIC) approach. The SIC approach postulates that communication in the organisation from a strategic perspective should focus on the integration of all functions holistically where the total process

should be information driven, interactive, and should focus on consistency in terms of brand, messages, knowledge creation and sharing, processes, functions and the strategic intent of the organisation. In essence, this perspective includes the main thrusts of existing approaches, but is flexible in terms of how the elements are presented – that it is dependent on the strategic intent of the organisation (whether information-driven, brand-centred, message-centred, stakeholder-centred, or a combination of several features).

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication; brand management; knowledge creation and sharing.

READINGS

Grunig and Grunig (1998), Duncan and Moriarty (1998); Gayeski and Woodward (1996)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Niemann (2005); Niemann-Struweg and Grobler (2007, 2011); Barker (2013)

CONCEPT

Integrated Marketing Communication

TEXT

Definitions of the concept of Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC) emerged during the 1980s in response to the need for organisations to have a more strategic integration of communication tools and more and more organisations are using it to reach their target audiences. These definitions have evolved notably over the last three decades, and according to Baker (2003), the watershed between the production/sales approach to business and the emergence of a marketing orientation was probably best illustrated with the publication of Theodore Levitt's article 'Marketing myopia' in 1960. According to Belch and Belch (2012) organisations started looking at marketing from a much broader perspective with the focus on strategic integration of promotional tools which led to the process of IMC.

The most widely used definition seems to be that of the American Association of Advertising Agencies (Belch and Belch, 2012), which defines IMC as a concept of marketing communications planning that recognises the added value of a comprehensive plan which evaluates the strategic roles of a variety of communication disciplines – for example, general advertising, direct response, sales promotion and public relations – and combines these disciplines to provide clarity, consistency and maximum communications impact through the seamless integration of discrete messages. Notable writers in the field such as Schultz and Schultz (2004), Kitchen (1999) and Grunig and Grunig (2001) argue that IMC advocates that marketers should make a paradigm shift from promotion to their target markets, in the sense of

advertising being a unidirectional set of activities, to communicating with their target markets, which emphasises a two-way flow of information. In line with the above definition, but from a strategic integrated communication approach which postulates that all communication should be integrated and aligned with the strategic objectives of the organisation, the following definition is propounded for the purpose of this book:

{INDENT} IMC is the process of strategically managing mutually beneficial organisational and stakeholder relationships where the planning thereof recognizes the added value of an strategic integrated communication approach through integration of all functions which is information driven, interactive, and focuses on consistency in brand, messages, knowledge creation and sharing, processes, functions and the strategic intent of the organisation. {END INDENT}

With the growth of the Internet as a global marketing medium, digital media should be regarded as an integral part of the IMC efforts at a global, regional and local level through the use of social media, mobile marketing and other forms of digital communication to facilitate customised communication through database, interactive and relationship marketing (Varnali, Toker and Yilmaz, 2011).

SEE ALSO

Advertising; direct marketing; internet marketing; sales promotion; publicity/public relations; personal selling relationship marketing; marketing public relations and sponsorship; integrated communication; strategic communication

READING

Belch and Belch (2012); Grunig and Grunig (2001); Hasert (2001); Kitchen (1999); Styhre (2003); Turkle (1995)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2013); Botha (2010); Goneos-Malka, Grobler & Strasheim (2013); Mulder (2004); Nel (2007); Niemann (2002); Niemann, Crystal & Grobler (2003); Scriven (2001; 2007); Mudzanai (2013); Nchaka (2010); Hasert (2001); Du Plessis (2012)

CONCEPT

Integrated online communication

TEXT

Integrated online communication (also referred to as digital communication or web-based communication) is defined as any communication message which is sent through a communication channel that uses digital technology. According to Bailey, Steeves, Burkell and Regan (2013: 92) digital technology and their confluence could trouble social constructed dichotomies and they theorised for a metaphoric cyber-future with a greater anonymity characterised to cyberspace rather than the physical space. These technologies include the following:

- *the Internet (a system of computers linked to each other online through a array of networks like telephone cables, satellite communication, optical fibre lines, computers, etc. which is constantly active);*
- *the World Wide Web (a hypermedia information storage system that links resources around the world);*
- *the Intranet (a private computer network accessible only by employees);*
- *the Extranet (an Intranet that is selectively open to third parties such as vendors, customers, suppliers and stakeholders);*
- *E-mail (a written message that is delivered from the originator's computer to the recipient's computer and involves the transmission of text messages and attached files);*
- *Internet phone and picture (video) phone (it is more advanced than e-mail and enables users who are concurrently online to talk to one another via the Internet or, if they have*

the requisite facilities, to see one another on their respective computer monitors while they talk at a lower cost than normal telephone call rates);

- *Gophers and Telnet (sites that users can access to obtain general information);*
- *Usenet or Internet newsgroups or net news (the network of computer users constituting a collection of discussion groups);*
- *mailing lists (LISTSERVs) (they are similar to Usenet but differ in that, instead of being posted to a bulletin board, items are sent directly to users in the form of an e-mail);*
- *commercial online services providers (which include CompuServe and Prodigy and offer some services applicable to public relations);*
- *electronic news and electronic newspapers (through the use of the Internet facility to update people on the latest news, often as it breaks);*
- *online marketing (an interactive form of marketing that uses online media to reach a global target audience and allows for more one-to-one communication);*
- *corporate website (the World Wide Web name for a particular kind of document that has been designed to be displayed on a browser by an organisation and not a private individual);*
- *online marketing applications (online actions that the marketer can take on the corporate website to foster an organisation's marketing strategy, for example, e-commerce, customer service, e-mail marketing) (Ellsworth and Ellsworth, 1995; Horton, 2001; Hurme, 2001; Kitchen, 1999; Sherwin and Avila, 1997; Turkle, 1995; Witmer, 2000; Yen and Chou, 2001).*

SEE ALSO

Web communication; technology

READING

Ellsworth and Ellsworth (1995); Kitchen (1999); Sherwin and Avila (1997), Yen and Chou (2001)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Leonard (2005); Mbatha (2009); Nyabuga (2004)

CONCEPT

Intercultural communication

TEXT

Intercultural communication can be seen as an understanding and awareness of different cultural values while attempting to increase intercultural communication competence. The main goal of intercultural communication in the organisational context is to include assisting people in recognizing, accepting, and appreciating cultural differences (Vasquez and Taylor, 1994). Hence, exposure to cultural value dimensions of power distance, high versus low context cultures, and collectivism versus individualism are important for effective intercultural communicators. A clear relationship exists between ethnocentrism and intercultural competence, specifically that the higher ethnocentrism, the lower intercultural competence would be (Nieuliep, 2012; Oommen, 2014). Ethnocentrism, which is in communication the belief that what is understood about communication in one country is applicable to all, influences intercultural communication through cultural values, emotions, attitudes and behaviours displayed in an interaction (Neuliep, 2012), specifically individuals who perceive their own cultural values and world views as more legitimate than those values and views of people from other cultures or countries. This is becoming more and more important in organisations as it is seen as one of the major factors contributing to organisational conflict and different level.

SEE ALSO

Culture; elements of culture; organisational culture.

READING

Vasquez and Taylor (1994); Holtzhausen, Petersen and Tindall (2003).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Nhlapo (2013); Samovar (2013)

CONCEPT

Intergroup communication

TEXT

Intergroup communication, like its counterpart intragroup communication, has its beginnings in the field of social psychology, as early as the 1920's and 1930's with work such as Lippmann's (1922) and that of Katz and Braly (1933). Unlike its counterpart, however, communication scholars have been slower in addressing and cultivating this field from their own vantage point (Harwood, Giles and Palomares, 2005). One reason for this, perhaps, is that intergroup communication has arguably been dominated by Tajfel's (1978) social identity theory; which, at the onset, examines and focuses on language in intergroup communications (see also Gudykunst, 1986).

Still, Harwood et al. (2005) holds forth the establishment of a division for intergroup communication by International Communication Association (ICA) in recent years as a promising development, indicative of growth in the field. Notwithstanding the recent nature of this development, Alderfer (1977) offers an organisational communication perspective on intergroup communication, by presenting boundary permeability and relationship mutuality as distinguishing factors that impact on the effectiveness of intergroup communications. Furthermore, theorists such as Gudykunst (1986) endeavours a theory for intergroup communication and like Jones, Watson, Gardner and Gallois (2004), relies on the social psychology theory of social identity to do so, yet from a decidedly organisational communication perspective.

By way of definition, the aforementioned division of the ICA's characterisation of intergroup communication follows (ICA, 2002):

{INDENT}Intergroup social contexts shape, and are shaped by, communication. By understanding the ways in which this reciprocal process is played out, we can have much to say about a great number of social phenomena. Some relevant topics would include prejudice and discrimination, social identity processes, language survival and death, social influence, leadership, communicative shifts and concomitant effects on relationships, computer mediated communication [et cetera]. Intergroup communication informs many areas of communication, but this is perhaps mostly so for interactions in the workplace, between cultures, genders, generations, for mass media phenomena and political communication. {END INDENT}

SEE ALSO

Intrapersonal communication; interpersonal communication; intragroup communication; intergroup communication; interorganisational communication; levels of communication

READING

Alderfer (1977); Gudykunt (1986); Harwood, Giles and Palomares (2005); Jones, Watson, Gardner and Gallois (2006)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Madonsela (2011)

CONCEPT

Internal marketing

TEXT

The leading authors who first defined internal marketing are Berry, Hensel, and Burke (1976): 'employee as internal customer and job as product'. However, over three decades forty-two definitions traversed from Berry et al.'s (1976) original definition in the literature. The generally accepted definition of internal marketing is that internal marketing is a cultural framework and an instrument to achieve strategic alignment between front-line employees and marketing (Finney and Scherrebeck-Hansen (2010). More specifically, internal marketing is a collection of human resource policies and procedures that treat employees as members of an internal market who need to be informed, educated, developed, and motivated in order to serve clients more effectively (Varey 1995). Some authors realised the complexity of the concept over time and argued that most definitions have not focused on employees' views (Barnes, Fox and Morris 2004) which is seen as a serious omission given that an employee's perceptions are critical to understanding how well internal marketing is practised. A review of the literature indicates three significant ways that internal marketing is practiced, namely through internal communication (Varey and Lewis, 1999), training (Quester and Kelly, 1999) and internal market research (Belch and Belch, 2012).

SEE ALSO

Marketing, integrated marketing communication.

READING

Belch and Belch (2012); Anosike and Ahmed (2009)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Reece & Glen (2009)

CONCEPT

Internal organisational communication channels

TEXT

According Rensburg (2002), internal organisational communication channels can be defined as the controlled channels used internally in the organisation to communicate with the organisation's internal publics – employees constituting a large contingent of these. These channels, although designed primarily for internal use, can sometimes also be used for external publics, whether directly, or in an indirect manner, as its contents inform external communications.

Internal organisational communication is usually divided into two broad categories, namely interpersonal communication and mediated channels, with the distinction between the two being the use of a medium or channel (for example technological) other than face-to-face exchange (cf. Dewhirst, 1971; Fidler and Johnson, 1984; Lewis, 1999). Rensburg (2002) offers a more comprehensive classification, however, proffering distinctions between print communications; audiovisual communications and interpersonal communications (along with Steyn and Puth's [2000] adaptation). Separating mediated internal organisational communication into print and audiovisual applications does demarcate the scope of these channels better; however, further separation and revision on these categories is needed with the introduction of social media. For example, although some channels of social media (for example Twitter) may be in use for internal organisational communication, the controlled nature of this channel (as suggested by Rensburg [2002], inter alia), will need to be rethought.

Apart from the theoretically customary manners wherein choice of organisational communication channels are based, selection of concomitant use of internal organisational communication channels also hinge on characteristics of the internal environment; managerial paradigms within the organisation; the experience of the individuals involved and methods used in the acquisition and processing of information (Daft and Weick, 1984; Rice, 1990; Russ, Daft and Lengel, 1990).

SEE ALSO

Channels of organisational communication; organisational communication channel choice

READING

Daft and Weick (1984); Dewhirst (1971); Fidler and Johnson (1984); Lewis (1999); Rensburg (1999; 2002); Rice (1990); Russ, Daft and Lengel (1990)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Rensburg (2002)

CONCEPT

Internet marketing

TEXT

The Web, specifically the Internet and Internet marketing, offers company's the opportunity to build relationships with their customers and stakeholders, and can be used to offer diverse information on a variety of company information and services (Greer and Moreland, 2003). According to Richardson (2001), the first online marketing revolution was characterised by rapid growth in the business-to-consumer market. Two examples of this growth was the emerging role of cybermediaries (for example, search engines such as Google, Yahoo and others); and procurement portals for industrial operating supplies and parts. The third revolution is currently taking place within organisations themselves where they establish corporate websites, extranets and intranets, which in turn are transforming stakeholder relationships. Internet marketing hence includes the integration of various online marketing, advertising and public relations techniques which could be combined and used as 'an online communication mix', for example, e-mail, discussion forums and the corporate website (Newsom, Turk and Kruckeberg, 2004).

SEE ALSO

Integrated marketing communication; cyberspace; social networks; marketing mix

READING

Greer and Moreland (2003); Belch and Belch (2012); Grunig and Grunig (2001); Hasert (2001); Kitchen (1999); Styhre (2003).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Du Plessis, Angelopulo & Du Plessis (2006); Steyn, Grobler & Cilliers (2005)

CONCEPT

Interorganisational communication

TEXT

Although all other levels of organisational communication (as discussed in this book) are paired, with their inter- and intra- counterparts, this level has no intraorganisational complement. This is because all communication internal to the organisation is seen as intraorganisational communication, and as a concept and level, this term would therefore be broad to the point of redundancy. Rather, the level that is distinguished is interorganisational communication.

As a field its own, interorganisational communication is yet to be widely researched. Simply stated, the phrase is defined as communication efforts between distinct organisations towards a common goal. As a relatively unexploited subject area, no direct or unique theories exist in literature to address this phenomenon, although various theorists have adapted and incorporated theories and literature from other fields. Specifically as example, Bennington, Shelter and Shaw (2003) propose that negotiated order and organisational culture can be seen as constructs for interorganisational communication, and as such employ the negotiated order theory and organisational culture literature as theoretical base, whilst Adriaanse and Voordijk (2005) opt for, perhaps, a closer organisational communication match by making use of the functionalist approach, the radial humanist approach and Habermas' critical societal theory. Moreover, Donaldson, O'Toole and Holden (2011) fairly recently endeavour to bring forth assertions more directly aligned to the field of organisational communication in focussing on relational communication strategies in interorganisational communication.

SEE ALSO

Intrapersonal communication; interpersonal communication; intragroup communication; intergroup communication; levels of communication; relationship management theory

READING

Adriaanse and Voordijk (2005); Bennington, Shelter and Shaw (2003); Donaldson, O'Toole and Holden (2011); Kettinger and Grover (1997); Kumar and Van Dissel (1996)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Interpersonal communication

TEXT

*Interpersonal communication is a widely researched subject, which had its origins in the fields of philosophy and psychology, where the perspective was predominantly on interpersonal communication as a product or antecedent of romantic or personal relationships. Evidence of this initial and ongoing focus can be found in the work of Stewart (1973), who, in the first edition of his book *Bridges not walls: A book about interpersonal communication* edits an anthology of articles from various disciplines, relating interpersonal communication to romantic and intimate relationships, families, cultures and communities. In this work already, however, the significance of this subject to the field of organisational communication is evident.*

Although abundant, Rubin, Perse and Barbato (1988) are of the opinion that research into interpersonal communication can be divided into three streams. The first of these focuses on identifying interpersonal behaviours and categorising them in a thematic manner. Work from this stream is, for example, that of Lorr and McNair (1965) and Bochner, Kaminski and Fitzpatrick (1977). The second stream moves away from describing the behaviour that accompanies this level of communication, and focuses rather on the actual structure of the conversation. This stream includes works such as those from Wish, D'Andrade and Goodnow (1980) and Triandis (1977). The last dimension identified by Rubin et al. (1988) is that which relates interpersonal communication to themes of everyday discourse and communication, including work from Schutz (1966), Millar and Rogers (1976) and Mehrabian and Ksoinzky

(1972) among which the literature forerunners of Hon and Grunig's (1999) relationship management theory can be found. These three streams are all descriptive in their reasoning, and a last theme that should supplement that of Rubin et al. (1988) is the stream of intention, rationale and competence. Work in this theme focuses on the rationale behind the interpersonal communication and then measures the competence of the communication process against these intentions or rationales. Work to fall into this stream would include that of Rubin and Martin (1994) – expanding the term interpersonal communication competence or ICC, Rubin et al. (1988) and Westmyer, DiCioccio and Rubin (1998).

It is within this last stream that research into interpersonal communication in an organisational communication context would mostly fall, as the rationale and intentions of the communication – when associated with the business objectives of the organisation – are mostly known and impressed in the communication.

A definition of this kind of interpersonal communication, within an organisational context would therefore be mediated or non-mediated communication between two or three individuals that is guided and gauged by the objectives of the organisation which these individuals form part of, or are associated with, for the sake of the message central to the contemporaneous communication.

SEE ALSO

Levels of communication; interpersonal relationships

READING

Bochner, Kaminski and Fitzpatrick (1977); Lorr and McNair (1965); Mehravian and Ksoinzky (1972); Millar and Rogers (1976); Rubin and Martin (1994); Rubin, Perse and Barbato (1988); Schutz (1966), Triandis (1977; 1980); Westmyer, DiCioccio and Rubin (1998); Wish, Dandrade and Goodnow (1980)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Fielding (2010); Maubane (2007)

CONCEPT

Interpersonal relationships

TEXT

In the organisational communication context, interpersonal relationships generally refer to three aspects: interpersonal communication and relationships within the broader organisational communication context; and the theoretical concepts from psychology literature.

Interpersonal communication in the organisation focuses on communication and relationships between individuals within the organisational setting (Fielding, 2010; DeVito, 2009). DeVito (2009) defines interpersonal communication as both the verbal and nonverbal interactions between interdependent individuals.

Apart from communicating on an interpersonal level in the workplace, interpersonal communication and relationships are relevant to organisational communication scholars specifically, because the theoretical principles of interpersonal communication are used in organisational communication theories (Coombs, 2001). For example, authors such as Ferguson (1984) and Toth (1995) argue for the value of using interpersonal theory in the study of organisation-stakeholder relationships. The interpersonal relationship scholars Millar and Rogers (1976) identified the relational dimensions intimacy, trust and control that was later used by organisational communication scholars such as Hon and Grunig (1999), Grunig (2002) and Broom, Casey and Ritchey (2000) and Ledingham and Bruning (2000) to develop, describe and measure stakeholder relationships.

SEE ALSO

Stakeholder relationships; dimensions of stakeholder relationships; interpersonal relationships; relationship marketing; stakeholder claim; primary stakeholders; secondary stakeholders; shareholders; stakeholder analysis/map; stakeholder approach; stakeholder management; interpersonal communication

READING

Broom, Casey and Ritchey (2000), Clement (2008), Coombs (2001), DeKay (2012), DeVito (2009), Ferguson (1984), Hon and Grunig (1999), Knapp (2002), Ledingham and Bruning (1998), Millar and Rogers (1987), Stafford and Canary (1991), Toth (1995)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Fielding (2010)

CONCEPT

Interpretivistic approach

TEXT

The central assumption of the interpretivistic approach is that there are multiple realities that exist simultaneously and around the same phenomenon in the sphere of reality. This is owed to the fact that reality is an internal and subjective experience, conjured or constructed by an individual (Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 2006; Merringan and Huston, 2004). Taken to the context of organisational settings, the interpretivistic approach considers communication as the vehicle by which individuals construct meaning and assemble reality (Walsham, 2006; Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 2006; Merringan and Huston, 2004).

Directly opposing the functionalistic approach, interpretivists opine that individuals are not merely rational beings, whose behaviour can be predicted and expectantly controlled or managed – they construct a reality based on their understanding of a situation, which is born out of their values, beliefs and inimitable reactions to the situations and contexts they find themselves in (Neher, 1997; Yanow and Ybema, 2009). Those following an interpretivistic approach in organisational settings would thus endeavour to discover and comprehend the understanding and meaning created by these individuals, and in so doing seek to understand the social context in which this meaning is produced (Neher, 1997; Yanow and Ybema, 2009). Simply put, an interpretivistic approach would attempt to holistically (rather than reductionalistically) understand the context of the organisation, as understood by the individuals in that organisation.

*The notion of **socially constructed** reality, as aided by communication, had an acute effect on organisational communication as it opened up new avenues for research and perception in this field – for example the whole body of organisational culture literature (Mumby, 2013).*

SEE ALSO

Critical Approach; Functionalist Approach

READING

Husén (1988); Mumby (2013); Neher (1997); Walsham (2006); Yanow and Ybema (2009)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Van der Walt (2006)

CONCEPT

Intragroup communication

TEXT

Research into intragroup communication hails from the field of social psychology, but almost from its inception, the application to organisational communication was established. An example of this is the work by seminal psychologist scholars, Hackman and Morris (1974) regarding group performance effectiveness in task groups within organisations. One of the first manifestations of intergroup communication research sees the application of leadership in this setting – for example in the work early work of Shaw and Gilchrist (1956), and more recently that of Beehr (1996) – alongside purports of the importance of trust and status within groups (De Cremer and Van Dijk, 2005; Lawler, 2005).

Intragroup communication is an important research topic within the field of organisational communication, as organisations purposely construct groups within its context, and encumber these groups with certain organisational tasks. In the words of Newton and Levinson (1973), these groups either function to accomplish or to undermine the tasks set for them, and therefore organisational goals; where this accomplishment or undermining is greatly dependent on the dynamics of this group. For the purposes of organisational communication, intragroup communication can be defined as the communication in and amongst members of a group created by, or associated with, an organisation which interests are upheld, forwarded or impeded by this group.

The most recent, and most considerable, research focus in the field of organisational intragroup communication is conflict management in these groups. Many of these studies not singularly focussing on conflict management, but rather on the potential value of conflict for organisational outcomes (cf. De Dreu and Van de Vliert, 1997; Jehn, 1994; Jehn and Bedersky, 2003; Jehn and Manniz, 2001).

SEE ALSO

Organisational teams and groups; Intrapersonal communication; interpersonal communication; intergroup communication; interorganisational communication; levels of communication

READING

Beehr (1996); De Cremer and Van Dijk (2005); De Dreu and Van de Vliert (1997); Gladstein (1984); Hackman and Morris (1974); Jehn (1994); Jehn and Bedersky (2003); Jehn and Manniz (2001); Lawler (2005)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Madonsela (2011)

CONCEPT

Intrapersonal communication

TEXT

After Polito (1977), intrapersonal communication in the organisational communication context can be defined as that communication which places the focus on the individual within the communication process in understanding how incoming information is processed by the individual through the autonomous selection, interpretation and evaluation of internal or external stimuli in terms of previously acquired information. Various models depicting the intrapersonal communication process have been proposed, for example Durkheim's (1915) triangle or context representations such as that by Cole (1994). However, for the field of organisational communication, the most pertinent of models is depicted in Polito (1977) where the encoding, decoding and transmission of stimuli is represented circularly.

In terms of organisational communication, the main focus for studies dealing with intrapersonal communication is the process whereby stakeholders, internal or external to the organisation, are processing meaning created by the organisation (the stimuli in this case). Furthermore, scholars such as Broms and Gahmberg (1983) have centred on intrapersonal communication in the corporate culture environment of organisations, pointing to the use of organisational communication aspects as autocommunicational texts.

SEE ALSO

Interpersonal communication; intragroup communication; intergroup communication; interorganisational communication; levels of communication

READING

Broms and Gahmberg (1983); Cole (1994); Polito (1977); Stacks and Andersen (1989); Vocate (1994)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Bezuidenhout (2006); Roodt (2009)

CONCEPT

Job satisfaction

TEXT

Job satisfaction has originally been defined by Locke (1983) as a pleasure or positive affective state resulting from an individual's appraisal of his/her work experience. Follow-up studies found that managerial practices, leader characteristics and behaviours are also associated with employee job satisfaction to ensure they have a good feeling about their work (Emmert and Taher, 1992; Oldham and Cummings, 1996) and to produce positive workplace outcomes (Butler, Cantrell and Flick, 1999), especially through supportive leadership and participative approaches (Dorfman, Howell, Hibino, Lee, Tate and Bautista, 1997). The most recent definition refers to job satisfaction as the representation of the extent to which individuals feel positive or negative about their jobs which are influenced by, inter alia, the individualised considerations, supportiveness, participative behaviours of leaders, task clarity, contingent rewards, outcome measures and consultation in the organisation (Kim 2002; Mustafa and Lines, 2014).

SEE ALSO

L Leadership; management; management styles; leadership styles; leadership theories. eadership; management; management styles; leadership styles; leadership theories; communication satisfaction.

READING

Bolman and Deal (2003); Miller and Monge (1986).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Raboroko (2011)

CONCEPT

Knowledge

TEXT

Knowledge on its own is defined by Orlikowski (2002) as ‘an ongoing social accomplishment, constituted and reconstituted in everyday practice and is neither a “thing” (objectivist reification) nor a “disposition” (subjectivist reduction)’. According to Styhre (2003), ‘knowledge is always in a state of becoming’ which means that it is always refined, developed, used and transformed, or as Choo (1998) talks of knowing rather than knowledge. Styhre (2003) denotes various forms of human capacities which are embraced in the notion of knowledge and indicate that it can be explicit, tangible, codified, tacit, personal, collective, and the like – which means that knowledge is a concept ensconced with ontological and epistemological assumptions. Knowledge, which is created by social interactions among individuals and organisations in a particular time and place (Lin and Tseng, 2005), has an active and subjective nature (Nonaka et al., 2000). In order to understand the meaning of knowledge, it needs to be looked at on the individual, group and organisational levels of the organisation in terms of two dimensions (Nonaka, 1991; Roth, 2003; Tiwana, 2001; Yolles, 2000):

- *tacit knowledge (informal cognitive/mental and technical/concrete know-how and skills which are personal, context-specific and difficult to formalise or articulate because it is stored within the individual); and*
- *explicit knowledge (formal and more tangible, observable, precise and formally articulated and embedded in tools, processes and rules which are transferable through written documents).*

Knowledge therefore has value, which is also true for knowledge about knowledge, which means that value is about creating new knowledge and capturing its value (Luic and Glumac, 2008).

SEE ALSO

Knowledge management; knowledge creation; knowledge sharing; learning organisations

READING

Hugo-Burrows (2002); Lueg (2001); Yolles (2000: 1204); Nonaka (1991)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2006a); Barker (2008); Conradie (2010)

CONCEPT

Knowledge creation and sharing

TEXT

Interest in knowledge creation and innovation is evident in studies conducted in learning organisations since the 1990s with the emphasis on the facilitation of organisations based on their own learning potential to stay competitive through innovation (Nonaka, 1991; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). The information technology revolution and advancements of the Internet enhanced the value of knowledge creation as an intangible asset. Merx-Chermin and Nijhof's (2005: 135) argue that 'knowledge creation is perceived as one of the major assets of innovative organisations, and innovative organisations are defined by knowledge creation'. Nonaka (1991) identifies four basic patterns for knowledge creation, namely socialisation, externalisation, combination and internalisation, all of which convert between tacit and/or explicit knowledge. According to Yolles (2000), the idea of knowledge creation is associated with different worldviews, specifically as indicated by Checkland and Scholes (1990) and Kuhn (1970): informal (Weltanschauung) and formal (paradigm). Informal worldviews consist of a set of undeclared assumptions and propositions, whereas formal worldviews are more or less declared (for example the expression of ideas through language with explicit statements).

Knowledge sharing, a relatively new phenomenon in the field of communication specifically, has different meanings in the sense of dealing with either the central storage of knowledge or reusing it. 'To share' means either to 'give away a part' or to 'have in common', hence reference is also made to 'common knowledge' where Roth (2003) sees knowledge as paradoxical in that the

more you share, the more it grows. Another perspective is the concept of 'shared understanding' which is defined as a collective way of organizing relevant knowledge (Zakaria, Amelinckx and Wilemon, 2004). This leads to the concept of 'knowledge transfer' where ongoing experience is translated into knowledge and transferred/exchanged across boundaries of time and space to create knowledge. Knowledge sharing has become a key component in learning organisations, especially to ensure that technological solutions support the entire knowledge management cycle and create value. Hence it can be understood as the formal and informal exchanges through ongoing social interactions to mobilise knowledge that is dispersed around the organisation (Monge and Contractor, 2003).

SEE ALSO

Knowledge management; learning organisations

READING

Monge and Contractor (2003); Lueg (2001); Yolles (2000)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2006a); Barker (2008); Barker (2012); Howie, Muller & Paterson (2005)

CONCEPT

Knowledge Management

TEXT

Styhre (2003) distinguishes between different theoretical perspectives to define the notion of organisations on the basis of knowledge-based resources or assets: the transaction costs theorists who see the organisation as an equilibrium of minimized transaction costs; the agency theorists who conceptualise the organisation as a package of contracts, tangible as well as psychological or emotional; and knowledge management theorists who see the organisation as an collective of intellectual resources, implicating knowledge creation and sharing in various forms. Existing viewpoints in the literature define knowledge management as the generation, storing, representation and sharing of knowledge to the benefit of the organisation and its individuals. Most knowledge management theorists perceive the organisation as a collective of intellectual resources, implicating knowledge in various forms and that it is important to ensure a comprehensive and understandable management initiative and procedures in the organisation (Bell, 2001). In terms of theoretical constructs, knowledge management include aspects such as communication (interactivity), technological aspects and the human component. Ardichvili, Page and Wentling (2003) re-emphasises the human component of knowledge management and argue that one of the crucial aspects to determine virtual community's success, is motivated and actively participating members of an organisation in these activities – thereby creating virtual knowledge-sharing communities.

Earlier Knowledge Management studies focused mainly on the capture and dissemination of knowledge. Since the mid 1990s, the focus shifted towards the first community of practice (COP) (or communities of knowledge sharing) which emerged in 1997 (Ardichvili et al., 2003) and in the virtual world refers to virtual communities of practice (VcoP's). Although most traditional approaches to knowledge management assumed this knowledge to be relatively simple, more recent approaches realise that knowledge is in fact complex, factual, conceptual and procedural. A tendency still exists to follow the tradition in thinking of communication as the transfer and processing of information, but the current state of affairs is towards a focus on knowledge creation and sharing. One of the key discourses of the knowledge management paradigm is hence the focus on explicit and implicit, embodied, tacit and narrative knowledge, and the 'absent presence' of the body (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995; Polanyi, 1958) as an essential part of everyday communication because it allows for the transformation, sharing and processing of knowledge.

The different modes of knowledge creation and sharing constitute an interesting theoretical perspective on the transformation, transfer and creation of knowledge and establish a definite relation between the transfer and sharing of knowledge on the one hand and the information and knowledge being transferred and shared on the other hand. Central to this process are three key criteria, namely content, communication and the consumer as indicated in Figure 4, the figure below.

>>> Insert Figure 4 here<<<

Figure 4: Key criteria of knowledge management

One of the main obstacles for the implementation of knowledge management is according to Lin and Tseng (2005) organisational culture, specifically in terms of knowledge sharing and the fear of innovation. According to Zakaria et al, (2004), the influence of culture on knowledge conceptualisation and sharing is often underestimated because cultural conditioning affects the evaluation of the way in which the information and knowledge is communicated and experienced. Because knowledge management is a multifaceted socio-technical process encompassing various forms of knowledge creation, storing, representation and sharing to the benefit of the organisation and its individuals, it is seen as information with specific properties and the introductory stage to knowledge (Lueg, 2001).

SEE ALSO

Knowledge creation and sharing

READING

Ardichvili et al., (2003); Bell (2001); Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995); Polanyi (1958)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2006a; 2007; 2008); Conradie (2010); Coetzee (2011)

CONCEPT

Lasswell's fundamental model of communication

TEXT

Although Harold Lasswell is widely cited as one of the founding fathers of communication research, he was an American political scientist who worked chiefly in the field of propaganda. Seeing the propagandist's task as 'consist[ing] principally [of] selecting the social suggestions best calculated to evoke a desired response' (Lasswell, 1970:195), he was concerned with the way that communication could be used to have a desired effect on recipients of a communication message. Herein, in Lasswell's (1948) view, the communication process could be best described and concretised by asking the questions of who? says what? to whom? through what medium? with what effect?. Graphically exemplified the description consequentially yielded the following model as depicted in Figure 5 (after Lasswell, 1948):

>>> Insert Figure 5 here<<<

Figure 5: Lasswell's fundamental model of communication

As can be seen, the model is mechanistic in its approach, with each one of the elements of the communication process following in a linear line of causality. Also important to note here is that the interactions of causality are represented in sets of single contingencies – meaning that each element can only be influenced by the one that foregoes it, that the interactions are one way in nature (\rightarrow) (cf. Craig, 2007).

SEE ALSO

Fundamental models of communication; Mechanistic view; Shannon and Weaver's fundamental model of communication; Schramm's fundamental model of communication; Transmission view

READING

Bineham (1988); Lasswell (1948; 1970)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory

TEXT

The Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory has its inception in the 1970's, and it is a leadership theory that disaffiliates itself from the prevailing traditional leadership theories of the time by moving away from explaining leadership within an organisational setting as a product of a leader's personal characteristics and/or situational aspects. Rather, this theory focusses on the dyadic relationship between the leader and his/her followers as a level of analysis affecting the leadership taking place (Dienesch and Linden, 1986; Gestner and Day, 1997; Linden, Sparrowe, Wayne and Ferris, 1997; Winkler, 2010).

The LMX theory purports that a different relationship develops between a leader and each one of his/her followers, which is necessarily distinct from one another. A leader would thus have a different working relationship and by proxy a different leadership modus from one follower to another (Linden et al., 1997; Winkler, 2010). The quality of these discrete relationships is the basic unit of analysis within this theory as vantage point, and the relationship in itself is, at its simplest form, described as being an exchange relationship. Simply put, leaders lead because they gain something from their followers, and followers follow because they receive something from their leader (Gerstner and Day, 1997; Winkler, 2010).

The theory, which is born from writings characterised initially as the vertical dyad linkage theory (Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975; Winkler, 2010) has undergone various stages of

development. After Winkler (2010), Figure 6 below depicts these stages and the developments that shaped their existence.

>>> Insert Figure 6 here<<<

Figure 6: Stages of the LMX theory

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; leadership/management; responsible leader; leadership styles; leadership theories

READING

Danseareau, Cashman and Graen (1973); Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975); Dienesch and Linden (1986); Gerstner and Day (1997); Graen (1976); Graen and Cashman (1975); Linden, Sparrowe, Wayne and Ferris (1997); Winkler (2010)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Price and Bezuidenhout (2005)

CONCEPT

Leadership styles

TEXT

Authors like Adler (1997), Bolman and Deal (2003), Deal (2006) and Butler, Cantrell and Flick (1999) emphasise the importance of organisational structure, managerial behaviour, leadership styles and organisational strategies and policies to address the changing values of educated employees in the organisation, virtual environments and society as a whole. Educated employees or new employees in the post Industrial Revolution demand executive leadership styles because they are becoming more concerned about self-fulfilment and the changing nature of work in the workplace than the older employees during the Industrial Revolution (Brown and Dodd 1999; Neher 1997). The environmental challenges also require different personal skills, leadership strategies and more effective communication techniques (Dorfman and Howell 1988). Most literature on leadership has a strong research base on transformational leadership, although the potential of other leadership styles like supportive, participatory, political, ritualistic and task-orientated styles should also be realised (Mustafa and Lines, 2014).

Mumby (2013) explain three traditional approaches to leadership, namely:

- The trait approach which posits that leaders are born, not made and have three main categories of personal characteristics namely physical appearance, abilities and personality;*
- The style approach which focuses on leadership behaviour, specifically whether it is autocratic, laissez-faire and democratic; and*

- *The situational approach or contingency approach which confers that contextual factors such as the structure of the task at hand, the power of the leader and the size of the work group have a mediating effect.*

More recent approaches to leadership styles which are mostly discussed and applied in the literature and research include the following.

- *Symbolic action leadership where the role of leaders is to engage in sense making for others to ensure consensus around meaning between leaders and subordinates, in other words it is socially constructed through interaction (Pfeffer, 1981; Bolman and Deal 1991, 2003);*
- *Transformational leadership which emerged in the 1980s where a differentiation is made between four important skills namely: self-awareness (reading one's own emotions and recognising their impact, knowing one's strengths and weaknesses, self-worth and capabilities), self-management (emotional self-control, transparency, adaptability, initiative and optimism), social awareness (empathy, service and organisational awareness of decisions and politics at various levels) and relationship management (inspirational to others, influencing and developing others, change catalyst, managing conflict and building bonds and collaborative teamwork) (Miller and Monge 1986; Brown and Dodd 1999; Spreitzer, Perttula and Xin 2005);*
- *Situational leadership shapes the economic situation of a nation because they tend to examine the objectives and historical causes of leadership and assess situations on the grass-root level to allow, warrant and dictate the emergence of the leader (Adler 1997; Burns 2006; Brown 2008);*

- *Transcendental leadership contributes to the role of the employee in the development and maintenance of creativity, honesty, integrity, innovativeness and a spirit of higher being, as a means of meaningful participation in the organisational process, in other words transcendence takes a person beyond the limits of his or her knowledge and experiences and puts things in a wider context (Bolman and Deal 1991);*
- *Authoritarian leadership is used to effectively carry out stated objectives based on the interests of the authoritarian type of leader (Pasa 2000) and do not provide incentives for stakeholders to embrace other options and is indifferent about transitioning and change, which differs from transactional leaders who are continuously transitioning into complementing constitutions through continuous research and change in systems;*
- *Transactional leadership falls within the realms of the authoritarian leadership styles because of the rationalisation of why to accept or not to adopt the new Leadership traits are reflective of the leaders' capacity and approach toward the implementation of new or alternative systems and possess some particular trait for innovations to change systems instantaneously without much effort and adapt quickly to changes and unlike the other styles, deals with the feelings of people being affected (Nahum-Shani and Somech 2011);*
- *Collective leadership enhances collaborations between leaders and subordination in the adaption to systems and is based on collective decisions based on leader, subordinate and organisational involvement (Newman and Nollen 1996; Mustafa and Lines 2014).*

In addition, some reference is also made to the bad leaders attitude approach (lack of capacity to plan and execute); structural leadership (emphasises clear direction, policies, goals and efficiency) (Bolman and Deal, 2003); human resource leadership (focuses on employee growth

and development to attend to their needs and preferences) (Mustafa and Lines, 2014); symbolic leadership (the capturing of followers' attention through the utilisation of important functions of various symbolioc forms like myths, rituals and ceremonies); and political consideration or orientation approaches (which involves actions that relate to polical tactics like networking, negotiation, bargaining and persuasion where innovations are used for pragmatically for re-election or maintaining of politically held offices).

SEE ALSO

Responsible leader; leadership theories; leadership/management; followership.

READING

Mumby (2013); Elenkov and Manev (2005); Dorfman and Howell (1988); Brown and Dodd (1999); Elliott (2000).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Van der Walt (2006).

CONCEPT

Leadership theories

TEXT

Since learning organisations are associated with the adaptive management approach, the most prominent organisational leadership theories within this approach which are identified by leading organisational researchers Neher like (1997) and Miller (2003) are summarised in Table 10.

Table 10: Adaptive organisational leadership theories

>>> Insert Table 10 here<<<

These theories does consider the exploration of employee needs, motivations and behaviour as important because it addresses for example, values such as ambiguity, unpredictability, complexity, open communication, employee participation, association, and adaptiveness.

SEE ALSO

Responsible leader; leadership styles; learning organisations; leadership/management.

READING

Koo (1999); Covey (2004).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Van der Walt (2006); Du Plooy (2001).

CONCEPT

Leadership/management

TEXT

Increasing research has been conducted since 1990 by various authors (like Bolman and Deal, 1991, Hofstede 1980; Spreitzer et al, 2005; Elenkov and Manev, 2005 to name a view) regarding the differences between an organisational manager and an organisational leader. The reason for this distinction is that the focus and purpose of management is different from that of leadership because management in the organisation focuses primarily on the coordination of day-to-day operations and activities, specifically the following: the direction of resources (including employees) to accomplish predetermined tasks; providing order and procedures necessary to cope with the complexities in organisations; managers perceive themselves as conservators and controllers or regulators of an existing order of affairs with which they personally identify; control and regulation to dissonant managerial practices are based on an old science; and that a manager can be associated with a defensive organisational climate due to a passive-defensive organisational culture that could be related to the managerial practices referred to in these definitions. Leadership in the organisation entails strategic thinking, effective communication skills and constant reinforcement or organisational needs. According to Gallagher (2002: 27), 'the traditional emphasis on effective leadership, visionary leadership, inspirational leadership and strong leadership raises the philosophical dilemma of what constitutes ineffective leadership, non-visionary leadership, non-inspirational leadership and nonsituational leadership'.

Denrell (2005) noted that in contrast to effective leaders, one should examine those leaders who were demoted, transferred, forced to resign their positions or who get terminated for these attributes. This includes the following:

- empowering individuals (like employees) to respond creatively to a changing situation (for example changes in the organisation);*
- leaders adopt personal and active attitudes towards individual and organisational goals, which contribute to resonant managerial (leadership) practices;*

- *a resonant leader is self- and socially aware (and therefore able to recognise, understand and react empathetically to his or her own and others' emotions and goals) and is equipped with skills such as self- and relationship management, which are characterised, by transparency, adaptability, collaboration and inspiration;*
- *a leader can be associated with a supportive organisational climate due to a constructive organisational culture that could be related to the leadership practices referred to in these definitions; and*
- *the role of leadership in the change process is to inspire humans; whereas a managerial approach focus on rationality and control to maintain organisational goals, resources, structures and the people in it.*

SEE ALSO

Responsible leader; leadership styles; leadership theories; management styles

READING

Gallagher (2002); Denrell (2005); Robins (2001)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Van der Walt (2006); Molema (2006); Khunou (2006); Van der Walt, Du Plessis & Barker (2006)

CONCEPT

Learning organisations

TEXT

Learning organisations, a relatively new but very important area of organisational communication, draws upon two of the most fundamental assets in the value creation process, namely knowledge and relationships (Ford and Hakansson, 2006; Johnston, Peters and Gassenheimer, 2006). This means that organisations engage in value creation activities to increase the intelligence of their offerings to consumers and suppliers through effective systems and activities. The knowledge created can be either formal or informal with the aim to increase consumers by understanding their operations and cultures in order to better support and develop capabilities as well as to learn themselves. Schultz, Hatch and Larsen (2000) refer to this as a 'culture of innovation' which is reflected in an organisations emphasis on human creativity and learning capabilities. In other words, learning organisations emphasise continuous learning and improvement opportunities to generate useful knowledge through organisational communication in all areas, including improved production, processes, new market opportunities, competitor threats, scarce sources of supply and innovation (Peters, Johnston and Pressey, 2010)

SEE ALSO

Responsible leader; leadership styles; learning organisations; leadership/management.

READING

Schultz, Hatch and Larsen (2000); Miller (2003); Van Riel (1995); Nonaka (1991)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Van der Walt (2006)

CONCEPT

Levels of communication

TEXT

Five levels of communication in the organisational context are distinguished; by names: intrapersonal, interpersonal, intragroup, intergroup and interorganisational communication. These levels of communication are partially adapted from the levels of self-definition from the self-categorisation theory of Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher and Wetherell (1987). The self-categorisation theory, which is founded in the field of psychology, focuses on the locus of identification of an individual depending on the individual's participation in a group. Herein, all of the said levels of organisational communication are identified, save for interorganisational communication.

In the figures below, the differences between each of these levels are highlighted, as they are defined. It should be noted that these levels are not mutually exclusive in their application or effecting, as various levels can be employed by individuals, simultaneously.

>>> Insert Figure 7 here<<<

Figure 7: Intrapersonal and interpersonal communication

>>> Insert Figure 8 here<<<

Figure 8: Intragroup, intergroup and intraorganisational communication

Each one of these five terms will be further unpacked as a respective concept.

SEE ALSO

Intrapersonal communication; interpersonal communication; intragroup communication; intergroup communication; interorganisational communication

READING

Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher and Wetherell (1987)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Management styles

TEXT

Management styles refer to relatively consistent patterns of interaction that typify individuals in organisational leadership positions (Weick, 1979). Although various management styles are referred to in the literature (autocratic, bureaucratic, democratic, charismatic, dictator.) these terms are used interchangeable and are subsequently broadly classified in terms of three basic styles (Hambrick, 2007; Child, 1972; Liu, Lepak, Takeuchi and Sims, 2003; Combs and Ketchen, 1999; Gilles and Combs, 2009; Combs and Kitchen, 1999; Shane, 1996):

- *Participative management style (also referred to as democratic) is open and supportive and involves joint decision-making, in other words there is a shared contribution through both superiors and subordinates which creates an open atmosphere because the subordinates are entrusted in considering alternatives before a decision is made which creates the opportunity for new ideas to enhance better performance;*
- *Directive management style (also referred to as autocratic or dictator) is associated with dominance and assertiveness, has clear rules for interaction because the focus is more on providing subordinates with a framework for decision-making and action is in alignment with the superior's intent and plans which could provide structure and hence reduce unnecessary ambiguity because everybody can concentrate to complete the tasks effectively; and*
- *Charismatic management style (also referred to as laissez-faire, motivational or inspirational by some authors) refers to individuals who have magnetic qualities to*

articulate an aspiring vision, set high goals and motivates others to achieve more and is particularly appealing to subordinates who need to feel part of the larger whole.

Most studies take an ideal-type approach where a participative and directive approach are seen as opposite ends of a continuum which means they are distinct with regards to their respective use to behaviours and preferences and that both styles might be associated with positive outcomes, but recent research trends indicates that the charismatic style is clearly distinguishable from the other styles but that all three styles might not be mutually exclusive in real organisations (Gupta and Shalley 2006).

SEE ALSO

Responsible leader; leadership theories; leadership/management; decision-making.

READING

Gilles and Combs (2009); Gupta and Shalley (2006).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Claassen (1997)

CONCEPT

Marginalisation

TEXT

Marginalisation, also referred to as social exclusion, describes the phenomena whereby groups of people are generally excluded from the day-to-day activities that their society considers 'normal' (Stewart, 2004). The government of the United Kingdom defines this social exclusion as 'a shorthand term for what can happen when people or areas suffer from a combination of linked problems such as unemployment, poor skills, low incomes, poor housing, high crime, bad health and family breakdown' (Social Exclusion Unit, 2001). Although these two definitions provide a clear indication of what marginalisation means, it is important to note that the meaning of the term depends on the particular society it is used in (Stewart, 2004). Silver (1994) argues that the definition of social exclusion depends on the conception of integration and citizenship of the specific society in question and distinguishes between three paradigms: the solidarity paradigm where the breakdown of cultural bonds are considered marginalising; the specialisation paradigm where discrimination reflects marginalisation; and the monopoly paradigm in which powerful groups restrict outsiders access to resources.

Marginalised groups are generally poor when compared to the rest of their society, but marginalisation also happens on the grounds of culture, religion, colour, gender, nationality, migration status, disability or illness (Stewart, 2004), to name a few. Silver (1994) summarises literature on social exclusion and lists the following privileges that marginalised groups are typically excluded from: a livelihood, secure and permanent employment, housing, credit,

minimal consumption levels, education, skills, cultural capital, welfare, citizenship, equality before the law, participation in democratic processes, humane treatment, respect and possibilities of fulfilment.

SEE ALSO

Advocacy; activism; greening; carbon footprint; minority groups; social movements; union communication; public opinion; propaganda

READING

Silver (1994); Stewart (2004); UNDP (2010)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Overton-de Klerk and Oelofse (2010)

CONCEPT

Marketing communication

TEXT

According to Ouwersloot and Duncan (2008: 9) marketing communication (MC) is 'a collective term for all the various types of planned messages used to build a brand' including all the marketing mix elements, tools, functions or instruments used during a specific time during the marketing programme. The main objective of MC is also to build brands and focuses on the use of the media to build a brand by connecting an organisation with consumers through brand messages and creating a good reputation. Although MC functions and media have been used for decades, the twenty-first century saw a shift, especially in terms of advertising, where MC tools are used more strategically to complement and reinforce each other through the media. Recently the changes as a result of the widespread use of computers, databases, new communication technology, wider brand choices and added responsibilities to manage the creation and delivery of and responses to messages, led to the use of an integrated marketing approach (IMC) which directs the processes for planning, execution and monitoring of messages in the brand-customer relationship. Belch and Belch (2012) identify the key elements of a marketing communications process as follows: sender or source of communication, message or content of the communication, the communications loop as a two-way process involving feedback, the receiver part of the marketing communications process that consists of both target and nontarget audience members, media or the carriers of marketing communications, the marketing communications context, that is, the environment in which communication takes place, receiver's response, that is, the attitudes, associations, and behaviors to the marketing communications,

brand equity or the value of the organisation's names, symbols, and images to all target audiences who interact with it, image and brand management, including strategic and tactical tasks involved in the management of the communication processes, customer/audience relationship management, viz. the strategic and tactical, tasks involved in the management of positive, personal, and continuing communication between the organisation and its audiences.

SEE ALSO

Integrated marketing communication (IMC), management communication, integrated communication, advertising, public relations.

READING

Schultz (1996); Schultz and Schultz (2004); Belch and Belch (2012)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Cloete (2012); Bell (2010)

CONCEPT

Marketing communication planning

TEXT

Marketing communication planning for campaigns refers to the process of delivering a message of a brand's intended positioning to specific target audiences through the employment of communication vehicles in a specific context and in line with the strategic intent of an organisation. The shift in communication planning terminology from advertising to integrated marketing communication (IMC) started 20 years ago and was led by scholars like Schultz and Schultz (2004) and Kitchen and Pelsmacker (2004) to name a few. The focus shifted to the emergence of new methodologies to monitor the process, outputs on stated objectives and ongoing actions to optimise brand communications through an integrated approach where integration according to Rossolatos (2013: 545) 'primarily amounts to the adoption of a holistic perspective toward the marketing communication planning, implementation and control process that takes into account not only discrete variables that affect various dimensions of the process, but also the interaction among them'.

SEE ALSO

Integrated marketing communication (IMC), management communication, integrated communication, advertising, public relations.

READING

Schultz (1996); Schultz and Schultz (2004); Christensen, Firat and Trop (2008)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Marketing mix

TEXT

The marketing mix refers to the exchange process and relationship building with consumers by examining their needs and wants and developing products or services to satisfy it through a specific price, avail it through a specific place or channel of distribution and the promotion thereof through communication to create awareness and interest (Belch and Belch, 2012). These four aspects are the marketing mix and the basic task of marketing is then to combine the product, price, place and promotion into an implementable plan or programme to facilitate exchange of information and knowledge. Most marketing plans or programmes focus on the promotional aspect and integrate it with other marketing activities, keeping in mind that it will only be successful if the product is of high quality, the price is good and that it is distributed effectively. Promotion is thus seen as the coordination of an organisation's efforts to use channels of information and persuasion to sell their products and services or to promote and idea (Ray, 1982). The tools used to communicate through the aspects of the marketing mix, are often referred to as the promotional mix which includes different elements. Most authors refer to the following six as the most pertinent: advertising, direct marketing, internet marketing, sales promotion, publicity/public relations and personal selling. Some authors also recognise the following elements as part of the promotional mix: relationship marketing, marketing public relations and sponsorship. In terms of an integrated marketing communication perspective, a holistic approach to the promotional mix is advocated. A key issue is to ensure consistency

between any promotional mix component and the overall marketing communication efforts of an organisation in support of the corporate brand.

SEE ALSO

Advertising; direct marketing; internet marketing; sales promotion; publicity/public relations; personal selling relationship marketing; marketing public relations and sponsorship; integrated marketing communication

READING

Belch and Belch (2012); Grunig and Grunig (2001); Kitchen (1999); Schultz, Hatch and Larsen (2000)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Angelopulo and Barker (2007); Nothnagel (2006); Scriven (2002)

CONCEPT

Maslow's Hierarchy of needs

TEXT

Abraham Maslow (1943) attempts to amalgamate a large body of literature related to human motivation and subsequently posited a hierarchy of human needs to explain what directs and guides human behaviour and motivation. This hierarchy of human needs is categorised in two groupings: deficiency needs and growth needs. Within the levels of deficiency needs, which comprises the physiological, safety and belongingness needs, each lower level need must be satisfied before moving to the next higher level need. Within the field of organisational communication Maslow's hierarchy of needs is used to define, guide and gauge motivation and behaviour within the organisational setting.

After Maslow (1943;1971); Maslow and Lowery (1998) and McGuire (2012), Figure 9 below depicts the hierarchy of human needs, with its levels and groupings.

>>> Insert Figure 9 here<<<

Figure 9: Maslow's hierarchy of needs

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory

READING

Maslow (1943; 1971); Maslow and Lowery (1998); McGuire (2012)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Mass communication channels

TEXT

As from an organisational communication perspective, the utilisation of mass communication channels, has the aim of communicating or reaching (as in its lexis) sizeable groups of the organisation's external audiences, largely through uncontrolled channels (see Channels of organisational communication) (Perse and Courtright, 1993; Rensburg, 2002; Skinner, Von Essen, Merhsam and Motau, 2010). Where internal organisational communication narrowcasts directly to specific constituencies, mass communication channels broadcasts to wider groupings (Rensburg, 2002; Utley, 1997). Traditional classifications of mass communication channels for organisational communication use has focussed on the mass media, and almost synonymise the mass media industry (press and broadcast media) with mass communication channels. Since the inception and wide application of the Internet as organisational communication tool, this stance is tested, however. Notwithstanding disparate properties, such as push and pull mechanisms (Franklin and Zdonik, 1998; Umbach, 1997) in these channels, the internet allows for communication with sizeable external stakeholders or audiences, and as such is classified as a mass communication channel. However, where mass communication channels making use of the mass media are reliant on an intermediary in the form of the media, the internet allows for direct broadcasting, and as such is controlled by the organisation. In Figure 10, below, this is depicted.

>>> Insert Figure 10 here<<<

Figure 10: Mass communication channels

SEE ALSO

Channels of organisational communication

READING

December (1996); Morris and Ogan (1996); Perse and Courtright (1993); Rensburg (2002)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Skinner, Von Essen, Merhsam and Motau (2010)

CONCEPT

Mechanistic view

TEXT

The term 'mechanistic', when used to describe communication, refers to the reduction of the elements of the communication process into its smallest parts, concretising them, and looking at the mechanics of how they work in partnership with each other to drive the communication process forward. Just like a machine, the 'parts' of the communication process are seen as functional cogs, each with their own task. If all the parts successfully (or as intended) fulfil their task, a predictable outcome is observed, and if there is a malfunction in the process, each part can be examined independently to find the breakdown in the process that caused the malfunction.

In a less metaphorical description, communication is explained mechanistically with the underlying assumption that all communication phenomena occur as a sequence of events, where the elements of the communication process are causally determined by, and causally determine the success of its contiguous element (Krone, Jablin and Putnam, 1987). Each element is therefore given a concrete substance, as their place and sequence in the process is exactly known (Darnell, 1971; Sindhav and Adidam, 2005). The intention of this reduction to rudimentary, concrete and atomistic parts is to allow for independent measurement of each of the communication elements.

The origin of the mechanistic view on communication is largely attributed to CE Shannon (an engineer) as part of the publication of Shannon and Weaver (1949) on their mathematical theory of communication.

SEE ALSO

Transmission approach

READING

Krone, Jablin and Putnam (1987); Shannon and Weaver (1949);

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Media Richness theory

TEXT

Daft and Lengel's (1986) media richness theory focuses on the choice of organisational communication channel use by purporting that organisational communication is optimal when the capabilities of the intended communication channel to be used are matched with the communication task to be conveyed (Irmer and Bordia, 2003). In Lengel and Daft's (1989: 226) words

{INDENT}Just as the physical characteristics of a pipeline limit the kind and amount of liquid that can be pumped through, the physical characteristics of a [channel] limit the kind and amount of information that can be conveyed. {END INDENT}

These physical characteristics of the channel are by names the channel's ability for multiple information cues to be conveyed; its ability for rapid feedback as well as its ability to establish a personal focus. The greater the channel's ability in these three characteristics, the more rich this channel is typified to be, and therefore the more complicated, dense and lengthy the information that can be conveyed through it (Christensen and Bailey, 1997; Lengel and Daft, 1989; Russ, Daft and Lengel, 1990; Trevino, Lengel and Daft, 1987). Later, these theorists revise and extend their theory to include characteristics of social influence, specifically symbolic cues, following critique against it as a purely rational process model (Trevino, Daft and Lengel, 1990; Webster and Trevino, 1995).

Arising from these characteristics, Lengel and Daft (1989) devise a media richness hierarchy, shown below in Figure 1.10, adapted, for the purposes of this book, to also include the ranking of social media, which was not yet in existence at the time of its formulation. The reason why social media is ranked below physical presence, yet above interactive media, is because this channel of communication allows for the conveyance of more information cues (albeit virtual 'artificial' such as emoticons to replace non-verbal cues), as its synchronicity allows for rapid, if instantaneous feedback with a much more personal focus than its more traditional interactive channel counterparts, yet not to the degree of physical presence.

>>> Insert Figure 11 here<<<

Figure 11: Media richness hierarchy

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication channels; organisational communication channel choice; dual capacity model

READING

Christensen and Bailey (1997); Daft and Lengel (1986); Irmer and Bordia (2003); Lengel and Daft (1989); Russ, Daft and Lengel (1990); Trevino, Daft and Lengel (1990); Trevino, Lengel and Daft (1987); Webster and Trevino (1995)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Alexander (2004)

CONCEPT

Minority groups

TEXT

As the word suggests, minority groups are groups which are numerically inferior when compared to the rest of their society. Although no definition has been agreed upon in international law, the United Nations refers to minorities as based on national, ethnic, cultural, religious or linguistic identity (UN, 2010) and provides a set of objective and subjective criteria against which the existence of a minority group could be assessed (UN, 2010). Objective factors include ethnicity, language or religion while subjective factors such as self-identification and the desire to preserve the group identity are used to identify minority groups.

Minority groups are disproportionately at risk for being socially excluded and becoming marginalised minorities (Social Exclusion Unit, 2001).The United Nations (2010) identified survival and existence, promotion and protection, equality and non-discrimination and effective and meaningful participation in society as important considerations and concerns relating to minority groups worldwide.

In the context of organisational communication, the presence of minority groups as internal or external stakeholders contributes to a diverse and complex organisational environment. Grunig (1992a; b) states that excellence in management means, among other things, valuing diversity, employing minorities and taking steps to accommodate the needs of individuals belonging to minority groups. The importance of recognising and valuing diversity is not only a theme in

various organisational communication studies and publications (cf. Okoro and Washington, 2012; Sriramesh and Verčič, 2003; Allan, 1995), but is intrinsically part of the foundations of many communication theories such as the excellence theory and the stakeholder theory.

SEE ALSO

Advocacy; activism; greening; carbon footprint; marginalisation; social movements; union communication; public opinion; propaganda

READING

MRG (2012); Social Exclusion Unit (2001); UN (2010)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Bornman (2003)

CONCEPT

Models of interpersonal communication

TEXT

Communication as an intangible phenomenon has been attenuated from the abstract to the concrete in various areas of the discipline, in order to better understand the components thereof, through descriptive models. Perhaps the greatest concentration of these models is found in the description of interpersonal communication, incited by renowned models such as that of Shannon and Weaver (1949).

Krauss and Fussell (2007) offer a classification of interpersonal communication models, dividing them into four categories, by names, encoder/decoder models, intentionalist models, perspective-taking models and dialogic models. Explaining the differences between these classifications, Krauss and Fussell (2007) summarise:

{INDENT}For Encoder / Decoder models, meaning is a property of messages, for Intentionalist models it resides in speakers' intentions, for perspective taking models it derives from an addressee's point of view, and for Dialogic models meaning is an emergent property of the participants' joint activity. {END INDENT}

After these authors, Table 1.2 below abridges the main aspects of each of these classifications, as well as the pertinent literature that they encapsulate.

Table 11: Models of interpersonal communication

>>> Insert Table 11 here<<<

SEE ALSO

Levels of communication; interpersonal communication

READING

Austin (1962); Brown and Lenneberg (1954); Clark and Brennan (1991); Clark and Schaefer (1989); Clark and Wilkes-Gibbs (1986); Ellis (1967); Grice (1957); (1969); Innes (1976); Kaplan (1952); Krauss and Fussell (1988); (2007); Levelt (1989); Levinson (1983); Lyons (1977); McKoon, Greene and Ratcliffe (1993); Piaget and Inhelder (1956); Rommetveit (1974; 1983); Scherer and Giles (1979); Searle (1969; 1979); Shannon and Weaver (1949); Wiener, Devoe, Robinow and Geller (1972)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Morality/Moral values

TEXT

The Oxford Dictionary of English defines 'moral' as the concern with principles of right and wrong (ODE, 2011). Moral values are usually concerned with interpersonal behaviour on an individual basis (Fisher and Lowell, 2006). Many people view morality and ethics as interchangeable concepts (cf. IoDSA, 2009), but it is generally accepted that morality refers to acceptable human interaction, while the term ethics refers to more than that. As simple as the definition of morality might be, an objective definition of morality is difficult as it is bound to the specific context in which it is judged (Donaldson and Dunfee, 1994).

Many issues of organisational communication have moral content (in addition to the strategic and financial bearing usually considered). Morality in organisations could hence be seen in issues of staff treatment and communication and stakeholder responsibility (cf. Buzzanell, 1994; Goodwin, 2000; Meisenbach, 2006).

SEE ALSO

Organisational ethics; ethical behaviour; ethical dilemma; professional standards/bodies/codes

READING

Donaldson and Dunfee (1994); Fisher and Lovell (2006); Kelman (1963); ODE (2011)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Burger (2008); De Villiers (2007); IoDSA (2009)

CONCEPT

Mumby's Fordist and post-Fordist organisations

TEXT

In discussing postmodernism as a concept of organisational communication in this book, it was mentioned that organisations approaching their operations with a postmodernistic slant is known as post-Fordist organisations due to their implied abnegation of modernistic principles, with its association with Henry Ford supplying the allegorical description. The move from modern, Fordist organisations to postmodern, post-Fordist organisations is resultant of change in the environments of organisations which signified that slow-to-change bureaucratic organisations were no longer functional (Laing, 1991; Mumby, 2013; Parker, 1992). An alternative had to emerge, that is simultaneously more pliable in its structures and more responsive to an environment that is increasingly more demanding (Burstein and Linger, 2003; Mumby, 2013). Encapsulating what this change implied, and the resultant, almost polar approaches to organisational structure it yielded, Mumby (2013) provides basic and fundamental characteristics of both Fordist and post-Fordist organisations. In Table 1 below, Mumby's differentiation is summarised:

Table 12: Mumby's Fordist and post-Fordist organisations

>>> Insert Table 12 here<<<

SEE ALSO

Postmodernism

READING

Amin (1994); Bustein and Linger (2003); Laing (1991); Mumby (2013); Parker (1992)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Network roles

TEXT

Within the networks of an organisation, communication can also be analysed in terms of the functional roles that individuals play, in other words, the set of task-related behaviours required from a member of an organisation to fulfil the position. According to Neher (1997), Miller (2003) and Jones (2007), these roles can be categorised as indicated in Table 13:

Table 13: Network roles

>>> Insert Table 13 here<<<

SEE ALSO

Networks

READING

Miller (2003); Monge and Contractor (2001); Waddell (2009).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Networks

TEXT

Networks can be identified from a practitioner and professional stance or from the burgeoning social networks industry (Waddell, 2009) with the emphasis on the creation and sharing of knowledge and information among groups and organisations. Networks in organisations specifically refer to stable patterns of relationships that allow for the flow of communication through a number of contacts that connect different points together and can be centralised (dependent on one person) or decentralised (free communication between all members) (Miller, 2003). Five networks are prevalent in organisations which are summarised in Table 14.

Table 14: Networks in the organisation

>>> Insert Table 14 here<<<<

Formal networks are prescribed by an organisation through rules, regulations and procedures through official channels of communication; informal networks exist in the interpersonal relationships within organisations through unofficial or informal communication.

SEE ALSO

Network roles; knowledge management; Social networks

READING

Miller (2003); Waddell (2009)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Angelopulo and Barker (2013)

CONCEPT

Nonprofit originations (NPOs)

TEXT

Defined by the national Department of Social Development in South Africa, a non-profit organisation (NPO) is an organisation established for public purpose and of which no property or income is distributable to the members or office bearers other than as reasonable compensation for their services (DSD, 2011). Camay and Gordon (1997) define NPOs as organisations that are privately run and independent from government. NPOs are established and managed in terms of the Nonprofit Organisations Act 71 of 1997 (Nonprofit Organisations Act, 1997). Generally NPOs also include nongovernmental organisations (NGOs), community-based organisations (CBOs) and civil society organisations (CSOs). Usually NPOs are groups of citizens that organise (initially on a voluntary basis) to fulfil a humanitarian, socio-political, advocacy and monitoring roles (Douai and Stavrositu, 2011; Taylor, 2005).

For the organisational communication function, NPOs are often regarded as lobbyists or activists for issues that concern the organisation (Franklin et al 2009). NPOs then come into contact with corporate organisations as community stakeholders about issues such as health, the environment, poverty and other social causes. NPOs engage with corporate organisations in another stakeholder capacity when they are recipients of corporate funding. Because NPOs exist with the purpose of serving public interest (Nonprofit Organisations Act, 1997) and because they cannot generate funds like private organisations do, they depend on funding from external sources (Byrne and Sahay, 2007; Hodge and Piccolo, 2005; Helmig, Jegers and Lapsley, 2004).

NPOs are also organisations in their own right and make use of communication techniques such as the creation and maintenance of a public profile in the media and engaging with stakeholders such as funders and government (Franklin et al 2009). Their special context makes the management NPOs unique, but in order to ensure their survival NPOs have to manage their communication and other business functions with just as much rigour as the private sector.

SEE ALSO

Community, community relationships, development communication, grassroots, participatory development communication, social development, social movements, stakeholders

READING

Byrne and Sahay (2007); Camay and Gordon (1997); Douai and Stavrositu (2011); DSD (2011); Franklin et al (2009); Helmig, Jegers and Lapsley (2004); Hodge and Piccolo (2005); Nonprofit Organisations Act (1997); Taylor (2005)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Le Roux and Snyman (2007); Van Dyk and Fourie (2012); Visser (2012); Schutte (2009)

CONCEPT

Online crisis communication

TEXT

According to Greer and Moreland (2003), 'research is scarce regarding the use of online communication following a major incident' and Conway, Ward, Lewis and Bernhardt (2007: 214) contend that the Internet has the 'ability to instantaneously distribute information and is a powerful basis for Internet potential crisis' to protect the reputation of a company. At the same time, a crisis can become a time of chaos, risk and uncertainty to organisations which requires timely and appropriate communication to minimise damage to the reputation and to maintain customer trust. Hence, Fjeld and Molesworth (2006) argue that a crisis allows a company to communicate directly and rapidly to customers through direct interaction, and that the Internet in particular can contribute to effective crisis communication. The accelerated capacity of the Internet can either empower a crisis or counteract the threats posed by the increasing fragmented media landscape and emergence of independent online media outlets. One way to counteract this is to engage with the online community through the use of knowledge management in dynamic crisis web sites incorporating safety and security messages to reassure customers before, during and after a crisis.

SEE ALSO

Knowledge management; crisis communication; crisis management; online communication

READING

Fjeld and Molesworth (2006); Fearnbanks (2007); Gonzalez-Herrero (1994); Mersham & Skinner (2002); Seeger (2002)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2011); Swart (2011)

CONCEPT

Online public relations (OPR)

TEXT

Online public relations is defined in the same way as traditional public relations, but is conducted via the Internet and online services in a strategic manner and can reduce barriers between an organisation and its internal and external publics. The constant introduction of new online innovations and information communication technologies are revolutionising the practice of online public relations to raise the profile of an organisation (thus increasing awareness amongst the different target audiences) and, ultimately, to create a favourable corporate brand. These new communication technologies have added the 'dialogue' dimensions of one-to-one, asynchronous communication (for example, e-mail between two people) to communication processes both within an organisation and between organisations; many-to-many asynchronous communication (for example, a large number of dialogues in discussion groups, chat rooms, Usenet, electronic bulletin boards, and so on); synchronous communication which can be one-to-one or many-to-many (that is, sender and receiver are present at the same time); and asynchronous communication which can be many-to-one, one-to-one or one-to-many (that is, consumers seek out a site to access information) (Hurme, 2001).

SEE ALSO

Public relations; web-based communication; technology

READING

Hurme (2001)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2004)

CONCEPT

Online social networks

TEXT

Online social networks are webs of relationships that grow from computer-mediated discussions and conversations among people who share a common affinity (work for the same organisation, department, or discipline), articulate a shared connection and who differ and traverse in other ways (distance, time comprehension, space and imbeddedness in single locations). In order to communicate across time and space, these conversations take place online, mostly through online social networks. Because online social networks grow from personal interactions of humans and the technological infrastructure that connects those humans, a successful online social network requires social know-how, psychological understanding as well as technical expertise (Boyd and Ellison, 2008).

SEE ALSO

Social networks

READING

Baumeister (1998); Bishop (2001); Boyd and Ellison (2008)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2006a, 2008, 2009); Bornman (2004); Bosch (2009); Grant (2007); Mpofu & Salawu (2012); Saunderson & De Wet (2005); Wessels (2012)

CONCEPT

Ontological, epistemological and methodological orientations

TEXT

Organisational communication, remnant of its partial roots in the social sciences, acknowledges that the way in which individuals experience, understand and research reality is based on a specific individual orientation. This orientation, which influences the way in which meaning and knowledge is constructed by an individual, can be disintegrated into three aspects: ontology, epistemology and methodology.

These three concepts function in concert with one another. Where, simplistically, ontology is seen as the nature of the reality that the individual is confronted with, and what can be known about it, epistemology focuses on how we come to know the things that we believe can be known from this reality. Lastly, methodology considers how we may go about practically studying or effecting whatever we believe can be known or altered of this reality (Guba, 1990; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; 1988; Mumby, 2013; Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 2006). In a sense, therefore, these three aspects build on one another, and the relationship they harbour can be depicted graphically as below in Figure 12.

>>> Insert Figure 12 here<<<

Figure 12: The relationship between ontology, epistemology and methodology

Although usually used in the research sphere, in an organisational communication setting, the ontological, epistemological and methodological views of an individual would influence the approach that this individual will take, or the overall meta-view or vantage point that will influence all subsequent interpretations, understandings and executions of communication in the organisational setting. Differentiating, for example, between transmission and ritual views (and which to assent to) would depend on the ontological, epistemological and methodological positions of an individual.

SEE ALSO

Carey's transmission and ritual views of communication

READING

Guba (1990); Guba and Lincoln (1994) Lincoln and Guba (1985); (1988)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Organisational behaviour

TEXT

Organisational behaviour (not to be confused with behaviourism) is a field of study in organisational communication that draws on various disciplines to act as an aegis concept for a host of organisational enquiries that directly focus in on the behaviour of individuals within an organisational setting – including studies ranging from managerial approaches to employee and job satisfaction.

Pugh (1971) offers one of the first comprehensive definitions of organisational behaviour, in delimiting it as the ‘study of the structure, functioning and performance of organizations, and the behaviour of groups and individuals within them’. Building forth on this, and drawing from Bennett (1994; 1997) and Johns and Saks (2011), the discipline of organisational behaviour can be defined as the study of how individuals (individually or in groups) relate to an organisation and its functioning through their conduct or behaviour, intentions, perceptions and attitudes. The discipline seeks to systematically examine how to effectively manage, motivate, predict, explain and change these behaviours, intentions, perceptions and attitudes to the benefit of the organisation’s goal attainment.

The discipline relies heavily on other social and behavioural sciences – especially sociology and industrial psychology – and the approaches used in its execution and effecting can be depicted in an approximate timeline, as below in Figure 13.

>>> Insert Figure 13 here<<<

Figure 13: Progress of Organisational Behaviour approaches (after Bennett, 1994; 1997; Johns and Saks 2011)

SEE ALSO

Scientific Management Theory / The Taylor Approach; Bureaucracy; The Human Relations School; Systems Theory; Contingency Theory

READING

Bennett (1994; 1997); Buchanan and Huczynski (1985); Johns and Saks (2011); Johnson and Gill (1993); Pugh (1971)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Organisational change

TEXT

The axiom of nothing is as constant as change is specifically pertinent in the study of organisational communication, because its development as a field had a strong systems inset with the understanding that an organisation has (or should have) permeable boundaries with its environment, both internally and externally. The interdependency of the organisation and its environment realised, it therefore stands to reason that change in the organisational environment by and large, if not manifestly, leads to change within the organisation itself.

Organisational change is simply defined by Dawson (1994) as the alterations in activities or tasks brought on in an organisational context. Most theorists agree that a distinction should be made between deeper lying, more invasive or significant changes and its more superficial if inconsequential (by comparison) counterparts, although not all theorists agree as to the designation of these terms. Dawson (1994) and Kanter, Stein and Jick (1991), for example make the distinction between minor changes and transformational changes whilst Nadler and Tushman (1995) differentiate between incremental and discontinuous change, as Weick and Quinn (1999) distinguishes episodic and continuous change.

However they be defined, these changes are largely attributed to change forces in the organisational context, the most significant categorisations of which are from Leavitt (1965) with an amendment from Dawson (1994) as well as Lewis (1987). Dawson (1994) distinguishes

between internal forces for change (which includes technology, people, task and administrative structures), as well as external forces for change (including technological obsolescence, political and social events, increase in size and complexity of organisation, internationalisation of business, government legislation and economic climate). Lewis (1987), on the other hand, draws the distinction between forces of change that hamper or impede change in the organisation – restraining forces – and forces that excel or promote change in the organisation – driving forces of change.

The notion of restraining change is also addressed by other theorists, although the foremost occurring aspect is that of organisational inertia in the change process, referring to organisations' inability or unsuccessful endeavour to implement true change in their organisations. In the face of this, Dawson (1994: 16) succinctly states that "a change is not a change" referring to the fact that change in an organisation needs to be managed if it is to be effected.

SEE ALSO

Change ; change management; systems theory

READING

Dawson (1994); Kanter, Stein and Jick (1992); Leavitt (1964); Lewis (1987); Nadler and Tushman (1995); Weick and Quinn (1999)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Ströh (2004)

CONCEPT

Organisational climate

TEXT

Organisational climate can be defined as a set of organisational attributes which have endured and persisted over time in spite of changes in individual members' attitudes (Miller, 2003). It therefore refers to a feeling people have about the atmosphere of the organisation that either encourages or discourages communication (Zaremba, 2006) and can be positive or negative. Climate is also concerned with the impact of organisational systems on groups of people and their perspectives on observable practices and procedures and/or whether these expectations are met. Meudell and Gadd (1994) suggest that, although a strong culture is important, an organisation will be successful only if an appropriate climate is created which means that a strong link exists between how the people perceive an organisation (Meudell & Gadd, 1994).

SEE ALSO

Organisational culture

READING

Miller (2003); Meudell & Gadd (2004); Newell (2008)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Dombay (1999)

CONCEPT

Organisational communication

TEXT

The origins of the field of organisational communication can be traced back to the early 1900s, whilst actual studies in this field became more prevalent during the 1960s and 70s. Since the early 1980s, the literature has evolved and matured to become a well-established academic field concerned with communication as a phenomenon of study that influences organisational practitioners in the private and public sectors.

Hence it focuses on communication and organisational behaviour including the symbolic use of language, how organisations functions and what their goals are, whilst the discipline of organisational communication focuses on the context or organizations and their communication processes (Miller, 2003). Deetz (2001: 3) refer to this as both 'a way to describe and explain organizations and an approach to communication as an integrated whole'. This is evident in the shift in understanding the field of organisational communication in the years since 1989 as one of integrated external and internal communication with blurred boundaries between the two (Cheney and Christensen, 2001). In the context of this book, organisational communication deals with communication within the organisation, or more specifically, intra-organisational communication.

SEE ALSO

*Integrated communication/strategic integrated communication; external communication;
internal communication*

READING

Miller (2003); Van Riel (1995); Kitchen and Schultz (2001); Schultz (1996)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Van Rheede van Oudtshoorn & Van Tonder (2006)

CONCEPT

Organisational communication channel choice

TEXT

The amount of communication channels available for selection when an organisation aims to send a message to its stakeholders is ever increasing. In recent years, this aspect has been exasperated by the influence of social media on organisational communications. Consider, for example, the fact that Lengel and Daft (1988), almost thirty years ago, comments on the increased availability of multiple and differing channels due to the uptake of new media in organisational communication. Just so, Irmer and Bordia (2003) talks to the fact that computer-mediated communication is providing important alternatives to more 'traditional' communication channels, at the time, not even considering the impact of smart phones on the communication patterns of organisations (especially within the African context). No doubt, in future years the choice of 'new communication media' will increase even more, and organisations will have to adapt and incorporate these new channels into their communication arsenal.

Lengel and Daft (1988) explains why the selection process that sees one communication channel be utilised, as opposed to another is so important, noting that organisations need to realise that the sending of information through a particular channel is a decision that affects the actual meaning of the message of the intended communication. In remarking on the relationship between a communication channel and communication effectiveness, they state:

{INDENT}A [channel] can enhance or distort the intended message, and the explosion in electronic technology is making media selection and even more critical issue. Each channel of communication [...] has characteristics that make it appropriate in some situations and not in others. {END INDENT}

Theories regarding organisational communication channel choice can be divided into two streams, each with their own two specific focuses (cf. Trevino, Lengel and Daft, 1987; Webster and Trevino, 1995). Graphically presented, this can be summarised as below in Figure 14.

>>> Insert Figure 14 here<<<

Figure 14: Rational and social models and theories of media selection

SEE ALSO

Channels of organisational communication; dual capacity model; media richness theory

READING

Christensen and Bailey (1997); Conrath (1973); Daft and Lengel (1986); Daft, Lengel and Travino (1987); Fulk, Schmitz and Steinfield (1990); Fulk, Steinfield, Shmitz and Power (1987); Lengel and Daft (1989); Russ, Daft and Lengel (1990); Sitkin, Sutcliffe and Barrios-Choplin (1992); Steinfield and Fulk (1986); Trevino, Daft and Lengel (1990); Trevino, Lengel and Daft (1987)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Roos and Jordaan (2006); Wiese, Jordaan and Van Heerden (2010)

CONCEPT

Organisational communication structure

TEXT

Since the onset of academic enquiry into organisational communications, structure research has featured as a central component to, not only understanding the way that organisations communicate, but also the ways that communication shapes the manner in which individuals function within the organisational setting (Johnson, 1993). Writing about the perceived link between organisational communication and structure, Pool (1973) describes communication as the skeleton that determines an organisation's structure, as where in the mind of McPhee (1985), organisational communication structure is the defining characteristic of an organisation – it determines the quality of atmosphere, its purposiveness and distinguishes the endeavours of an organisation from disjointed activities orchestrated by a group, society or other assembly.

Central to both of these views is a well-recognised datum of organisational communication structure research: structures affect behaviour, performance, coordination and activities in an organisation as orchestrated by the individuals embedded within the social system of organisational functioning (Johnson, 1993; Pfeffer, 1978). Johnson (1993) concretises this sentiment by outlining six reasons why it is important to understand structure as it relates to organisational communication. Tersely, these pertain to:

- **normative behaviour.** *The study of organisational communication structure offers a look into the everyday functioning of the organisation – the normative behaviours of its members. When research is done into any aspect of organisational functioning, an exploration of the*

normative behaviours of its members would necessarily have to feature on some level. The organisational communication structure of an organisation is therefore a springboard for many larger or more specific enquiries.

- **action enabling.** *Working off of the assumption that without structure there would be communication chaos in large organisations, it can safely be presumed that the more coordinated and patterned communication connections exist in an organisation, the more things can occur in the known, and the more organisational members will be able to function in the known. Organisational knowledge, in this sense, therefore enables action within the organisation which would otherwise be impossible without adequate information.*
- **information processing.** *Closely related to the reason above and that below, organisational communication structure, in its role of promoting coordination between organisational systems, is viewed as being uttermost if not chiefly complicit in organisational information processing, on all levels.*
- **uncertainty reduction.** *Members of an organisation must feel confident that messages (both those they send, and those directed at them) will flow to specified locations at specified times. The organisational communication structure that allows for this will reduce uncertainty in the organisational context as it gives way to predictability and coordination.*
- **social support.** *Organisational communication structures offer support to organisational members and facilitates personal growth, as it encourages self-actualisation through the social espousal of colleagues.*
- **integration.** *Integration as manifested by organisational communication structures functions on two levels: firstly, as linked to the reason directly above, it integrates individual members into the organisation, and secondly, it integrates various systems of the organisation*

together. Explicating the latter; it is the structured communication flow between systems – such as departments – that allows for integrated, rather than dispersed modes of functioning; working towards unified aims.

Granting the reasons as outlined above, Johnson (1993) also considers the negative consequences of organisational communication structure, and in so doing reflects on the work of McPhee (1985) and Pfeffer (1978). Herein, those who research organisational communication structure should also be mindful and heedful of the relation between structure and power – as it can be used to manipulate and serve specific and enigmatic goals – and the ways in which structure can inhibit innovation in organisational settings.

SEE ALSO

Approaches to organisational communication structure; Networks

READING

Dow (1988); Jablin (1987); Johnson (1993); McPhee (1985; 1988); Pacanowsky and O'Donnell-Trujillo (1982)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Organisational communication theory

TEXT

Organisational communication is a theoretically rich discipline, which is both broad and explicit in its discernment. In the lexis of the discipline, theory, when used in the general sense, is used to refer to and denote all literature on the phenomenon under investigation, and not just literal theory. In this, a model could be organisational communication theory, just as easily as a philosophy could be.

However it be defined, organisational communication theory is classified by its main motivation for application. The foremost classifications of organisational communication theory hinges on its descriptive, normative, instrumental and/or deterministic natures. A descriptive classification, as the name implies, sees the theory aim to describe the phenomenon under investigation. A descriptive theory seeks to offer a detailed account of organisational communication phenomena, in proffering all the relevant aspects, qualities or characteristics of this phenomena; trying to be as exhaustive as possible (Fawcett and Downs, 1986). As a descriptive theory aims to describe how organisational communication phenomena could be, or are, perceived, so do normative classifications seek to offer accounts of how this phenomenon should be (Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Fawcett and Downs, 1986; Jones, 1995). Detractors of normative theories often regard these theories as idealistic and even pigeonhole them as being removed from observable realities in the organisational context. Supporters deem it to portray or illustrate an ideal for organisations to aspire to.

An instrumental classification of a theory is conferred when a theory aims to relate an organisational communication phenomenon's means to its end (Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Jones, 1995). Closely related, a deterministic theory sees inevitable consequences to set antecedents (Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Fawcett and Downs, 1986; Jones, 1995). Due to the fact that instrumental theory is less absolute in its expressions, as opposed to deterministic theory, it is the one used more often, just as its application opportunities are broader.

In the study of organisational communication phenomenon, the recurrent process is to work deductively, delineating and discussing broader germane theories and making deductions from it, more specific to the particular study. When the inverse is applied, grounded theory could result, as the study does now not commence with a study of organisational communication theory, but the study aims towards inductively producing organisational communication theory.

SEE ALSO

READING

Donaldson and Preston (1995); Fawcett and Downs (1986); Jones (1995)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

De Wet (2011)

CONCEPT

CONCEPT

Organisational culture

TEXT

The idea of organisational culture was recognised as early as 1948 in a discussion concerning the ways in which thinking and behaving in organisations became institutionalised in terms of influencing employees' actions (Meek 1988; Kummerow and Kirby, 2014). In organisational studies, the origins of this organisational culture can be traced to the 1970s although it was only during the 1980s that it became widely adopted by researchers into organisational studies (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Schein, 1991). Over the last two or three decades, organisational culture has been defined in terms of shared meaning (patterns of belief, symbols, rituals and myths); it has been described by Baker in 1980 and Siehl and Martin in 1982 (both cited in Miller, 2003) as the glue that binds an organisation together, and has been portrayed as consisting of shared values and beliefs. More recently, most definitions have become aligned in terms of an emphasis on the notions of shared meaning, values, patterns of beliefs, assumptions and expectations held by members of an organisation (Jones, 2007; Schein, 1991; Zamanou and Glaser, 1994;) and an emphasis on the way in which organisational culture distinguishes organisations from each other. For the purpose of this book, organisational culture is defined as the shared beliefs, values, feelings, norms or common perceptions held by members of an organisation that are apparent in behaviour; that connect a group of people; and that guide the functioning of an organisation through symbols, processes and cultural elements (Crow and Hartman, 2002; Zaremba, 2006).

One of the most notorious researchers in the field of culture and cultural differences is Geert Hofstede (1980) who identified the following aspects which might be applicable to the organisational context: power distance as an indication of how power is distributed in the organisations where those on higher levels in the hierarchy have more power than those on a lower level; uncertainty avoidance which refers to the extent to which uncertainty is experienced on different levels in terms of uncomfortability, predictability and stability; individualism/collectivism which refers to the extent people prefer to make their own decisions and emotionally independent from others or in groups; and masculinity/femininity where masculine values of assertiveness, competitiveness and materialism is preferred to feminine values such as nurturing, relationship quality and supportiveness. Two types of organisational cultures exist: dominant cultures that reflect the core values of the organisation and which are shared by most members; and subcultures that stem from the dominant culture but which reflect common problems, experiences and situations with which members are confronted. If these cultures differ considerably it can lead to confusion between members and about whether certain behaviour is acceptable or not (Grunig et al.; 2002; Hofstede et al.; 1990).

SEE ALSO

Cultural elements; culture; organisational climate

READING

Grunig et al. (2002); Hofstede et al. (1990); Schein (1984); Zamanou and Glaser (1994); Mumby (2013).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Werner (2007); Dombai (1999); Verwey (1990); Parry (2000)

CONCEPT

Organisational environment

TEXT

The environment of an organisation (also business environment or corporate environment) is said to be all those factors and forces that affect an organisation (Steyn and Puth, 2000; Cutlip, Center & Broom, 2000). The environment can be inside the organisation or outside the organisation, is unstable and beyond the control of the organisation (Barker & Angelopulo, 2005; Steyn and Puth 2000). The instability of the environment creates a dynamic relationship between organisation and environment that changes when either party changes (Allan, 1994). From a systems theory perspective, adaptability to the environment is consistent with an open system where survival and growth depends on successful interchange with the environment (Cutlip, Center & Broom 2000).

Some theorists refer to only the external environment of an organisation, but generally both the internal environment (including issues such as the profile of the organisation, mission, vision, values, culture and policies) and external environment (including politics, economics, technology, stakeholders and many others) as the organisational environment (Steyn & Puth 2000; Van Marrawijk, 2008).

A number of classifications for the external environment have been formulated by organisational and public relations theorists. These classifications include Grunig (1992a) and Sriramesh and

Verčič (2003)'s distinction between the environmental factors infrastructure of the country, the media environment and the societal culture that surrounds the organisation.

Other theorists distinguish between a macro societal environment including issues such as politics, economy, ecology, technology and legislation (Allan, 1994). The macro environment is also known as the remote environment (Steyn and Puth, 2000). The second level is called the industry environment or the competitive environment and includes organisations that are offering similar or identical products and services (Steyn and Puth, 2000). The third level is known as the market level and includes service providers, suppliers, customers, competitors and other groups involved in the day-to-day operations of the organisation (Steyn and Puth, 2000).

SEE ALSO

Competitors, environmental scanning

READING

Cutlip, Center and Broom (2000); Grunig (1992 a; b); Sriramesh and Verčič (2003)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Van Reede van Oudtshoorn & Van Tonder (2006); Fuaad (2003); Seymour (2002); Howie, Muller & Paterson (2005); Boehme (2006); Madonsela (2011); Rabie (2012); Leonard (2005); Jansen van Vuuren (2002); Jordaan (2003)

CONCEPT

Organisational ethics

TEXT

The King III report on corporate governance defines ethics as that which is good and right (IoDSA, 2009). The King report indicates that ethics involves three key concepts – ‘self’, ‘good’ and ‘others’. In the organisational context this means that if a product is designed or a business decision taken, the organisation must consider, not only what is good for them (and their profits), but also for others.

According to Kapstein (2001) the current conception of organisational ethics started internationally at the end of the Cold War in 1989 when democratisation and the accompanying economic freedom held promise for people world-wide. However, by the mid-nineties it was clear that the free-market system with its powerful multinational organisations were more powerful than governments and participated in mergers and acquisitions that threatened to create international monopolies (ibid). Society began rising up against these corporate forces with demonstrations, consumer groups, labour unionists, environmentalists and human rights activists all calling organisations to more ethical behaviour. These ethicists have been a steady force in global economics.

With organisational ethics as part of the organisational vocabulary, two powerful approaches to ethics, which in turn produced two streams of organisational ethics research, emerged: a descriptive approach (describing how an organisation conducts itself): and a prescriptive

approach (that focuses on how organisations should conduct themselves) (Donaldson and Dunfee 1994). Two research approaches followed on this, namely: an empirical focus (that explains factual information such as managerial motivation and accountability measures); and a normative focus (discussion what organisations could and should be doing).

SEE ALSO

Ethical behaviour; ethical dilemma; morality/moral values; professional standards/bodies/codes

READING

Donaldson and Dunfee (1994); Epstein and Hanson (2006); Fisher and Lovell (2006); Kapstein (2001); O'Fallon and Butterfield (2005)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

IoDSA (2009)

CONCEPT

Organisational identity

TEXT

The origin of the term identity dates back to Sigmund Freud's (1900) scientific terms 'identity of perception' and 'identification' in his work The Interpretation of Dreams, where dreaming maintains the personality's continuity and identity; hence demonstrating the importance of identity in the human psyche. Today it is studied from philosophical, social, psychological and other points of view, thereby making it possible to study identities in social groups or networks from different perspectives.

In the organisational communication context, organisational identity is perceived to be the underlying character of the organisation which can remain static or be controlled by the organisation through organisational identity management to achieve differentiation and a competitive advantage (Barnett et al, 2006). As a result companies are 'making increasing efforts to transmit a differentiated identity to society, both by using visual symbols and communication actions, and through their behaviour and the organisation's own internal culture' (Bravo, Pina and Matute, 2011). The difference between organisational identity and corporate identity is explained by Barnett et al (2006), Hawabhay et al (2009) and Balmer and Van Riel (1997) who posit that the effective management of corporate identity in the organisation can lead to the acquisition of an organisational image to obtain a favourable perception. Although the organisational image can be shaped by the corporate identity, it cannot be controlled.

In the 1990s academics considered organisational identity as an essential element of an organisations' strategic planning, beyond the mere modification of cosmetic and visual elements to all of the fundamental characteristics of an organisation, both central and peripheral (Balmer, 2011). In addition conceptualisation of the term has been distorted by the existence of other interrelated concepts which have often been used as equivalents (Balmer, 2001). Hence, Lipinski, Walsh and Crothers (2011) argues that an organisation's identity is shaped based on how it perceives the business environment and affects its market orientation through direct interaction with brand communities which they define as 'specialised, non-geographically bound based on a structured set of social relations among admirers of a brand. Integrating and interacting with brand communities and allowing them to influence an organisation's identity will help companies to become more market-oriented and influence their perception of the business environment to more accurately reflect actual market conditions'. Organisational identities can be individual or collective, and argues that it can be seen as either explicit (renderings of the 'we's) or tacit (self-salient dimensions).

SEE ALSO

Corporate identity; reputation; corporate image.

READING

Barnett et al (2006); Hawabhay et al (2009); Balmer and Van Riel (1997) Dewey (1958); Shapiro (2010)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2014)

CONCEPT

Organisational reputation

TEXT

Around the mid-1980s, the corporate world realised that a favourable reputation could help an organisation to create competitive advantage (Gotsi and Wilson, 2001). In organisational communication studies, organisational reputation has since been investigated in both academe and practice alongside related themes such as corporate identity and identity and stakeholder relationships.

Grunig (1993) defined organisational reputation as the accumulated cognitions and attitudes that stakeholders have in their long-term memory and associate with the organisation. The idea that organisational reputation has a long-term nature and effect is also evident in the formulation of Markwick and Fill (1997) who view organisational reputation as corporate image over time. Yang (2005) and Yang and Grunig (2005) linked organisational reputation to the type and quality of stakeholder relationships. Indicating both the long-term and relational aspects of organisational reputation, Hon and Grunig (1999) indicates that a good reputation consist of those organisational behaviours that stakeholders remember.

Schreiber (2008) argues that organisational reputation should be defined differently from different perspectives and suggests a definition of reputation from the perspective of the organisation and a definition from the perspective of stakeholders (much like corporate identity and image). For the organisation, reputation is an intangible asset that facilitates the

management of expectations and needs from stakeholders and creates differentiation from competitors. From the perspective of stakeholder an organisation's reputation is the intellectual, emotional and behavioural response of the stakeholders when they considered whether the organisation meets their needs and expectations.

A favourable reputation has been linked to various advantages for an organisation. For example, Kim (2000) linked organisational reputation to bottom-line earnings and argues that reputation impacts on whether customers will buy an organisation's products or services; and Nakra (2000) adds that an organisation's reputation affects its ability to attract investors, to access talented staff members and to influence government. Roberts and Dowling (2002) also indicates the potential for value creation, financial performance and ultimately profitability of a solid reputation, but adds the intangible character of reputation makes it very difficult for competitors to replicate reputation.

SEE ALSO

Corporate image, corporate identity, organisational identity, reputation management

READING

Grunig (1993); Markwick and Fill (1997); Hon and Grunig (1999); Kim (2000); Nakra (2000); Gotsi and Wilson (2001); Roberts and Dowling (2002); Yang (2005); Yang and Grunig (2005); Schreiber (2008)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

North and Enslin (2004); Bechan (2008); De Wet (2007); Van Rensburg and De Beer (2011); van der Merwe (2013); Le Roux (2003)

CONCEPT

Organisational values

TEXT

Organisational values, an essential component of organisational culture (Schein, 1992; 1995), refer to beliefs that management 'ought to' identify in the management of an organisation in the establishment of objectives or in choosing the most preferable organisational activities from a range of alternatives. Organisational values used to be seen as decisive in determining the type of perspective used within the organisation and that they reveal how people communicate, explain, rationalize, and justify what they say and do as a community (Kotter, 1996; Pfeffer, 1998). Furthermore, organisational values were seen as relatively stable over time and because they set the standards and criteria for choosing goals and actions, they can be considered the essence of organisational culture (Quinn, 1992; Peters and Waterman, 1982; Elliot, 2000). Organisational values function on both cognitive and behavioral levels. On the cognitive level, organisational values are a means of establishing, enforcing or rejecting basic assumptions about and attitudes toward knowledge sharing; and at the behavioral level, organisational values are means for the shaping of individual knowledge sharing behaviour (Williams 2002). According to Ghoshal and Bartlett (1997), employees who share an organisation's values and whose positions allow them to contribute to those values have far stronger incentives to collaborate and, by implication, to share knowledge. Hence it is posited that sharing 'a view of the world' is of fundamental value for the development of sufficient levels of trust among subcultures and for knowledge sharing among individuals to take place. As organisational values manifest themselves in established patterns of behaviour, Schein (1992) argues that a

close link exists between those values and knowledge sharing which means that today top managers articulate, nurture and utilize values to shape certain types of individual behavior and to achieve desired organisational goals, such as increased intra-organisational knowledge sharing.

SEE ALSO

Organisational culture; culture.

READING

Schein (1992).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Participatory development communication

TEXT

Besides a very general understanding of development communication, the conception of communication for development is dependent on the paradigm in which it is used and as beliefs around social development changed and progressed, so has the intended functions of communication. In the field of social development, the modernisation paradigm and the participatory paradigm are usually polarised to indicate a shift in thinking about development.

From the modernisation paradigm communication is seen as functionalist, linear, top-down and transmissional (Lerner, 1958; Schramm, 1964; Kumar, 1994; Jacobson & Kolluri, 1999; Huesca, 2001) and mass media viewed as the predominant channel of communication and it was said that innovations and technological savvy will trickle down to underdeveloped societies to help them move to a more modern way of life (Rogers, 1962; Jacobson & Kolluri, 1999; Melkote, 2003). The thinking that followed the modernisation paradigm, focused on the multiplicity and plurality of development and stressed empowerment, participation and democratisation from all parties involved in the development process (Freire, 1970; Servaes, 2002). This paradigm distinguished itself from modernisation ideas by implying local level development, emphasising small-scale efforts, and focusing on an integrated and holistic view of individuals, their families and communities (Huesca, 2001; Servaes, 1995; Servaes, 1999). It is based on grass roots participation and inspired by the subaltern groups it serves (Tandon, 2000).

For development to be participatory, the communication intrinsic to the process must also be participatory. Participatory development communication has been defined in various ways depending on the circumstances for which it is defined; in some instances participatory communication means a free national press while in others it indicated control over media used in development projects (Jacobson, 1994; Servaes, 2008). Jacobson and Kolluri (1999) contextualise participatory communication again as being both communication between members of the community and also to communication between the community and external stakeholders. Other characteristics that form part of the concept of participatory communication includes the dialogic, two-way nature of such communication (Freire, 1970; Nair & White, 1993; Jacobson & Kolluri, 1999), the importance of a localised cultural approach to knowledge sharing driven by the needs of the community (Nair & White, 1993; Melkote, 2003; Servaes, 2008).

Tufte and Mefalopulos (2009) distinguish between two approaches to participation; the social movement perspective where the focus is on removing unfair hierarchies of knowledge, power and economic access; and the institutional perspective that focuses on the inclusion of all parties in the development process in the planning and implementation of development projects. It is within this institutional perspective of participation that the best definition of participatory development communication for the organisational communication context can be found. Simply put, participatory development communication from an organisational perspective can be defined as the equal inclusion of all parties/stakeholders in any communicative process that has a development goal to ensure equal power distribution and input in the entire process in a democratic manner. Such organisational communication activities can include corporate social

investment, community engagement, sustainability practices as well as communication in development NPOs.

SEE ALSO

Community, community relationships, development communication, nonprofit organisations, grassroots, social development, social movements, stakeholders

READING

Lerner (1958), Rogers (1962), Schramm (1964), Freire (1970), Nair and White (1993), Jacobson (1994), Kumar (1994), Servaes (1995), Servaes (1999), Jacobson and Kolluri (1999), Tandon (2000), Huesca (2001), Servaes (2002), Melkote (2003), Servaes (2008), Tufte and Mefalopulos (2009)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Burger (1999); Burton (2002); Durden (2007); Fourie & Kloppers (2009); Naidoo & Fourie (2013); Naidoo (2010)

CONCEPT

Personal selling

TEXT

Personal selling is a type of person-to-person communication where the seller attempts to assist and/or persuade prospective buyers to purchase a product, service or to act on an idea (Belch and Belch, 2012). The focus is on direct contact (whether electronically, through telecommunications, face-to-face or other) through personal and individualised communication which allows the message to be tailored to the specific needs and wants of the consumer. According to Kitchen (1999) the role of personal selling is threefold: Information role where personal selling is part of a two-way process through which information about the organisation's product or offering needs to be communicated to existing and potential consumers. This process, which allows for feedback, ensures that consumers' perceptions are correctly interpreted and understood by management. Persuasive role which is necessary to convince consumers that their needs have been identified and that the product or offering provides competitive benefits. Relationship-building role where salespeople have to initiate, build and develop relationships between the organisation and its consumers, which emphasises the role of the 'relationship manager'. Personal selling aids the communication flow between an organisation and its consumers where salespeople are responsible for implementing marketing strategies and the sales force is the embodiment of the entire marketing programme. Responsibilities of the salespeople are expanded to include a wide variety of marketing activities, such as market analysis, sales forecasting, new product ideas, buyer behaviour analysis,

communication, sales co-ordination, consumer service and relationship building (Semenik and Bamossy, 1995).

SEE ALSO

Integrated marketing communication

READING

Belch and Belch (2012); Gilligan and Wilson (2009); Kitchen (1999); Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2009)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Phenomenology

TEXT

Phenomenology can be traced back to the European philosophical tradition, where its inception is ascribed to the work of Edmund Husserl (1931), and his ponderings surrounding the facticity of essences – for example (cf. Merleau-Ponty, 1945) the essence of perception or the essence of consciousness. Sequentially, two main streams of scholarly development is seen, namely existential and hermeneutic phenomenology (Craig, 1999; Hawes, 1977; Lanigan, 1991), with further fragmentations into various disciplines.

For study into organisational communication, phenomenology is simply defined by Littlejohn and Foss (2011) as the way in which individuals understand the world through their personal and direct experiences – simply put, the way that they experience phenomena, be it events, objects or conditions. As organisational communication phenomenologists, the lived experience of an individual becomes the basic data of reality, as the only reality that one can know, is the subjective experience of reality and the world (as it can be known to one) (Flick, Von Kardorff and Steinke, 2004; Gregg, 1966; Husserl, 2012; Merleau-Ponty, 1945; Schultz, 1997).

Underscoring this, four basic principles of organisational communication phenomenology can be highlighted, after Deetz (1973) and Littlejohn and Foss (2011):

- *Knowledge exists in conscious experience: Individuals come to know the world as they engage it, therefore, knowledge of the world exists in the conscience and subjective experiences of the individual.*
- *Meaning is ascribed by potential: An individual relates to phenomena, and ascribes meaning to that phenomena, based on the potential that it could have on the individual's life (vis-à-vis the more potential it has for an individual, the more meaning is assigned to it).*
- *Language is the vehicle of meaning: Language is used to come to an understanding of the world, and to consequentially articulate that understanding.*
- *Interpretation forms reality: In the phenomenological tradition, reality cannot be separated from interpretation (also known by the German *Verstehen*), as interpretation is the active process of assigning meaning to experience.*

Using phenomenology as organisational communication methodology would therefore see an understanding of the organisational and communication process, as from the vantage point of the individual that forms part of it (Flick, et al., 2004; Gregg, 1966; Husserl, 2012; Merleau-Ponty, 1945; Schultz, 1997; Stewart, 2002).

SEE ALSO

Hermeneutics; Interpretivistic approach; Attribution theory

READING

Craig (1999); Deetz (1973); Flick, Von Kardorff and Steinke (2004); Gregg (1966); Hawes (1977); Husserl (2012); Lanigan (1991); Merleau-Ponty (1945); Schultz (1997)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Fourie (2006)

CONCEPT

Positivism

TEXT

Under the leadership of Morits Schlick, a group of scientifically trained philosophers established the Vienna Circle in the 1920's. The prime objective of this group was to unify science with empirical methods, and in so doing, they postulate that all observable aspects in human existence (everything) can be explained by a set and finite set of rules (Feigl, 1981; Miller, 2002; Stewart, 2002). From this, positivism (also referred to as logical positivism) became known.

Applied to the field of organisational communication, Stewart (2002) states that positivism suggests that all communication behaviour is governed by a set of finite rules. The objective of the organisational communication researcher or practitioner is, therefore, to discover what these rules are, and to understand how they operate. Resultantly, positivistic organisational communicators would make use of methodologies that would allow for significantly generaliseable findings, allowing for the emergence of common trends in the data, that would act as the 'rules' of the phenomenon being researched.

SEE ALSO

Critical approach; Transmission view

READING

Ayer (1959); Feigl (1981); Jacobson (1996); Laudan (1996); Miller (2002); Smith, Booth and Zalewski (1996)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Postmodernism

TEXT

Postmodernism is not an easily definable concept, due to the fact that postmodernism in itself flouts being specifically defined. This is attributable to the fact that postmodernists challenge the dominant modernist view of truth as singular and universal in favour of the belief that there are multiple ways of viewing the world, and therefore multiple realities (Manning, 1992; Mumby, 2013). In lieu of a definition, the explanation offered by Manning (1992) is perhaps most speaking, where postmodernism is explained as an antitheory that is both a feature of, and a characteristic perspective within a contemporary society – appropriately sociological for its origins in the intellectual movement lead by scholars such as Michel Foucault and Jacques Derrida. Underlying postmodernism is the challenging and rejection of the modernist belief that rationality and science can be applied to the human condition (Baudrillard, 1988; Deetz, 1992; Hall, 1997).

Applied to the field of organisational communication, postmodernists reject all ‘correspondence’ or ‘conduit’ metaphors of communication where set and quantifiable conditions of the world are represented – such as transmission and mechanistic views (Mumby, 2013; Mumby and Stohl, 1996). True to this notion, postmodernists manage communication in the organisational setting around the principles of instability, flexibility, constant change and empowerment. As the principles of the modernist movement (such as predictability, stability, hierarchy and structure) are remnant and reminiscent of Henry Ford and his organisational form, organisations that

emerge from a postmodern way of thinking are often termed as being 'post-Fordist' (Mumby, 2013).

SEE ALSO

Mumby's Fordist and post-Fordist organisations

READING

Alvesson and Deetz (2006); Manning (1992); Mumby (2013; 1996); Mumby and Stohl (1996); Pilotta and Mickunas (2012)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Burger (2008); Goneos-Malka (2012); Holtzhausen (2002); Olivier (2007)

CONCEPT

Press agency model

TEXT

The press agency model is chronologically the first of the historical models of public relations to be defined by Grunig and Hunt (1984). This model describes the use of one-way communications from an organisation to its stakeholders, where the public relations practitioner acts as a propagandist (Grunig et al., 1995; Guth, 1995). True to its propagandist nature, public relations in this model is tasked with relaying positive information to stakeholders, in order to persuade these stakeholders to behave in the manner that the organisation would like to see them behave (Grunig et al., 1995; Morsing and Schultz, 2006).

Affording it its adverse repute, this model sees the public relations practitioner hide negative information from organisational stakeholders, just as the positive information that is indeed portrayed, need not necessarily be completely accurate or reflective of the whole truth of the situation (Sriramesh, Kim and Takasaki, 1999; Morsing and Schultz, 2006).

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; Grunig's models of public relations; public information model; one-way asymmetrical model; two-way symmetrical model

READING

Grunig and Grunig (1992 a); Grunig and Hunt (1984); Grunig, Grunig, Sriramesh, Huang and Lyra (1995); Guth (1995); Morsing and Schultz (2006); Sriramesh, Kim and Takasaki (1999)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Primary and secondary stakeholders

TEXT

The stakeholder theory has at its core the argument that an organisation cannot only seek to satisfy the needs of its shareholders, but should satisfy the needs of multiple stakeholders (Freeman and Velamuri, 2006). In order to serve the needs of multiple groups and because of resources constraints, stakeholders are grouped, prioritised and labeled according to different situations. Generally, a distinction is made between primary and secondary stakeholders (Clarkson, 1995; Freeman, Harrison and Wicks, 2010). Primary stakeholder are those stakeholders on which the organisation's survival depends – without them an organisation could cease to exist or would not be successful. Primary stakeholders are most important as the value they add or withhold directly influences the success of their organisation (Freeman and Velamuri, 2006). Secondary stakeholder groups are those groups who have some influence on the organisation, but their impact is relatively limited (Clarkson, 1995; Freeman, Harrison and Wicks, 2010).

The distinction between primary and secondary stakeholders could be linked to the wider and narrower sense of stakeholders as first described by Freeman and Reed (1983). In the narrower sense a stakeholder is any identifiable group on which the organisation is dependent for survival. Examples of these groups include employees, customer segments, certain suppliers, key government agencies, shareholders and certain financial institutions. In the wider sense a stakeholder is any identifiable group that can affect or who is affected by the achievement of

organisational goals. Examples of stakeholders in the wider sense include public interest groups, protest groups, government agencies, trade associations, competitors, unions. Freeman, Harrison and Wicks (2007) mirror the distinction by providing a two-tier stakeholder map showing the different primary and secondary stakeholders.

SEE ALSO

Stakeholders; Stakeholder relationships; dimensions of stakeholder relationships; interpersonal relationships; relationship marketing; stakeholder claim; shareholders; stakeholder analysis/map; stakeholder approach; stakeholder management

READING

Clarkson (1995); Freeman, Harrison and Wicks (2007); Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar and De Colle (2010); Freeman and Reed (1983); Freeman and Velamuri (2006); Laplume, Sonpar and Litz (2008)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Private created channels and oramedia

TEXT

Less traditional forms of organisational communication channels are outlined by Rensburg (2002) to include private created channels and oramedia. Private created media, as the name implies, is manufactured by the organisation, and as such is a controlled form of communication. It includes documentary films, private and mobile exhibitions; educational literature as well as seminars and conferences (Hardaker and Fill, 2005; Shiau, 2011). Oramedia, likewise, is defined and demarcated by Rensburg (2002) to be

{INDENT} based in indigenous culture produced and consumed by members of a group. Unlike the mass communication media which reach many people at a time but only have cognitive influence (knowledge, awareness and interest), oramedia can only reach a few people at a time, but can be an effective relay chain to the mass communication media. These media have visible cultural features , often quite conventional, by which social relationships and a world view are maintained and defined. {END INDENT}

Included under the categorisation of oramedia are puppet shows, village theatre, improvisation theatre, industrial theatre, oratory, poetry and music and festivals (Awa, 1989; Owumechili, 1995; Rensburg, 2002).

These channels should be used in conjunction with other, more traditional channels of communication in organisational settings, although notwithstanding their significance to the

South African context, are yet to be widely included or utilised (Awa, 1989; Owumechili, 1995; Rensburg, 2002; Scholes, 1997; Ugboajah, 1985).

SEE ALSO

Channels of organisational communication; organisational communication channel choice

READING

Awa (1989); Hardaker and Fill (2005); Owumechili (1995); Scholes (1997); Shiau (2011); Ugboajah (1985)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2007); Greeff (2010); Rensburg (2002)

CONCEPT

Professional standards/bodies/codes

TEXT

All professions and industries need to adhere to some kind of professional standards and ethical codes usually compiled by professional bodies of that industry/profession. The members of these professional bodies are bound by a code of ethics and must adhere to certain standards. Professional bodies generally guide practitioners with industry information, standard-setting for professional training and providing accreditation and also attempt to unify the industry/profession (IFL, 2009; Meintjes and Niemann-Struweg, 2009).

In South Africa and for the communications industry the best known professional bodies/codes and standards are PRISA (the Public Relations Institute of South Africa) and the IABC's (International Association for Business Communicators) charter in South Africa.

SEE ALSO

Organisational ethics; ethical behaviour; ethical dilemma; morality/moral values

READING

IFL (2009)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Meintjes and Nieman-Struweg (2009); Tomaselli and Shepperson (2003)

CONCEPT

Propaganda

TEXT

Propaganda is the presentation of information with the primary objective of influencing the audience that receives the messages (Skinner, Von Essen, Mersham & Motau, 2010). Harold Laswell defined propaganda as the controlling of opinions by using significant symbols, stories, rumours, reports, pictures and other forms of communication (Lasswell, 1927; 1934). What all definitions of propaganda have in common is the fact that propaganda is a form of communication and that it aims to manipulate the audience by means of influence in favour of the propagandist (c.f. Bussemer, 2008; Jowett & O'Donnell, 2012; Sullivan, 2009).

Propaganda has long since been a part of the public relations environment and the press agency model of publicity that was the model of the 1850 to 1900 had propaganda at its heart where information was aimed at persuasion and the whole truth were regularly concealed (Grunig and Hunt 1984; Grunig and Grunig 1992a). Public relations, in the modern sense of the word has at its core the building and maintaining of mutually beneficial relationships between organisations and their stakeholders with the image of the organisation at heart while propaganda is still defined for manipulation of opinions with ideology at heart (Skinner et al, 2010).

SEE ALSO

Advocacy; social movements; greening; carbon footprint; minority groups; marginalisation; union communication; public opinion; excellence theory

READING

*Lasswell (1927); Lasswell (1934); Grunig and Hunt (1984); Grunig and Grunig (1992);
Bussemer (2008); Sullivan (2009); Skinner et al (2010); Jowett and O'Donnell (2012).*

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Public information model

TEXT

The public information model is second in the historical development of public relations models, as classified by Grunig and Hunt (1984). Like its predecessor; the press agency model, the public information model is once again one-way in its nature, as its main aim is the dissemination of (generally) accurate information about the organisation, without volunteering negative information (Grunig et al., 1995; Morsing and Schultz, 2006). The point of divergence between the press agency model and the public information model is the motives of the public relations function within the organisation. As Sriramesh et al. (1999) terms it, the public information model, notwithstanding its one-way nature is altruistic in its motives, unlike the press agency model, which is self-serving in its endeavours.

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; Grunig's models of public relations; press agency model; one-way asymmetrical model; two-way symmetrical model

READING

Grunig and Grunig (1992a); Grunig, Grunig, Sriramesh, Huang and Lyra (1995); Grunig and Hunt (1984); Guth (1995); Morsing and Schultz (2006); Sriramesh, Kim and Takasaki (1999)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Bester (2001); Cawood (2011); De Wet (2009); Schutte (2001); Snyman (2002); Van Audenhove (2003)

CONCEPT

Public opinion

TEXT

Public opinion refers to the beliefs, attitude and preferences of the members of a specific society (Letki, 2007). Public opinion features mainly in politics and organisational communication. Within the organisational communication sub-field of public relations, public opinion is defined as preferences expressed by a significant number of people (Hennesy, 1975). The influence of public opinion started in the late twentieth century with the polling of citizens' opinions before elections but grown rapidly during the economic growth after World War II (Letki, 2007).

Public opinion is seen as dynamic (Cutlip, Center & Broom, 2006), complex (Hennesy, 1975) and not easily interpreted (Heath, 2001). The expression of public opinions happens between people in many different ways including casual conversation, contact with the media, voting, contacting union or political representatives, campaigning, donations, petitioning and protesting. The technological advances of recent years also increased the delimited boundaries of the expression of public opinion and social media changed the way in which public opinion is define and considered (Moy, 2008).

SEE ALSO

Public relations, publicity, sales management, sales promotion

READING

Hennesy (1975); Cutlip et al (2006); Letki (2007); Moy (2008)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Public relations

TEXT

Traditionally, public relations has been defined by the Public Relations News as 'the management function which evaluates public attitudes, identifies the policies and procedures on an individual or organization with the public interests, and executes a program of action to earn public understanding and acceptance' (Moore and Canfield, 1977). The focus then was on the series of stages required and the term management but should according to (Belch and Belch, 2012) should be used in the broadest sense and not be limited to business management. The most used definition of public relations is that by the Public Relations Institute of South Africa namely the management, through communication, of perceptions and strategic relationships between an organisation and its internal and external stakeholders (Belch and Belch, 2012; Dozier and Repper, 1992; Dozier et al, 1995). Although public relations (and publicity) has traditionally been considered more as supportive rather than central to the marketing promotional process, the focus today is on the integration of it as an integral part of all marketing and communication strategies.

SEE ALSO

Integrated marketing communication; corporate communication; organisational communication

READING

Belch and Belch (2012); Ferguson (1984); Grunig (1976, 2008); Guth (1995); Grunig and Hunt (1984); Grunig and Yuang (2000).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Nel (2001); Burger (2009); Holtzhausen (2007); Lubbe (2007); Moila (2001); Naude (2002); Naude, Froneman & Atwood (2004); Steyn (2000; 2004); Swart (2012); Swart & Verwey (2003); Van Heerden (2004); Van Heerden & Rensburg (2005); Verwey (2000); Burger (2008); Niemann & Grobler (2001); De Wet (2008); Nieman-Struweg, Meintjies & Grobler (2007)

CONCEPT

Publicity

TEXT

Although publicity is often used interchangeably with public relations, they differ in that publicity refers to 'stories and brand mentions delivered by the mass media without charge' whilst public relations refer to the efforts 'to generate and control publicity' to ensure support from the public (Ouwensloot and Duncan, 2013: 11). Hence publicity is also referred to as 'unpaid' advertising which is often used to create and/or enhance brand awareness through news announcements in the media to build brand credibility. Publicity involves obtaining editorial coverage in the media and typically does not identify a message sponsor. The fundamental claim in discussions of the relative impact of publicity versus advertising is that people give greater credence to editorial content than to content with an identified message sponsor (Belch and Belch, 2012). The lower source credibility associated with advertising, rather than editorial content, is due to the sponsors' vested interest in the message, their apparent persuasion intent, and source bias. However, the key advantage of advertising over publicity is message control. Therefore, communication managers are faced with the classical trade-off between message credibility and message control. Despite the widely accepted advantage of publicity over advertising with regard to source credibility, research results are mixed in terms of their relative effectiveness.

SEE ALSO

Public relations; corporate communication, integrated marketing communication.

READING

Ouwersloot and Duncan (2013); Belch and Belch (2012); Grunig (1976, 2008); Guth (1995); Grunig and Hunt (1984); Grunig and Yuang (2000).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Relationship consequences

TEXT

Hon and Grunig (1999) posit that relationships form between parties due to the reason that one party has consequences on the other. Grunig and Huang (2000) use the terms relationship consequences and relationship outcomes interchangeably and list control mutuality (joint acceptance and symmetry), commitment (loss of autonomy and interdependence), satisfaction (liking), trust and goal achievement as consequences/outcomes of relationships. Broom, Casey and Ritchey (2000) use very much the same consequences in their explication of stakeholder relationships, namely: goal attainment, dependency/loss of autonomy and routine/institutionalised behaviour.

Probably the best known relationship consequences are the four outcomes suggested by Hon and Grunig (1999): control mutuality, commitment, trust and satisfaction. Hon and Grunig (1999) designed a quantitative questionnaire to measure these outcomes and Grunig (2002) adapted the questionnaire for qualitative interviews. Many relationship authors base their ideas of relationship outcomes/indicators/dimensions on the work by Hon and Grunig (1999) – some of these authors include Grunig and Huang (2000), Bruning and Galloway (2003) and Jahansoozi (2006).

SEE ALSO

Stakeholders; dimensions of stakeholder relationships; interpersonal relationships; relationship marketing; stakeholder claim; primary stakeholders; secondary stakeholders; shareholders; stakeholder analysis/map; stakeholder approach; stakeholder management

READING

Broom, Casey and Ritchey (1997; 2000); Bruning and Galloway (2003); Grunig (2002); Grunig and Huang (2000); Hon and Grunig (1999); Hung (2005); Jahansoozi (2006)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Coetzee (2008); Slabbert and Barker (2012); Van Dyk and Fourie (2012a; b)

CONCEPT

Relationship marketing

TEXT

The focus of relationship marketing is communication with consumers rather than to consumers, and it emphasises the importance of feedback and two-way communication. This represents a move away from transactional marketing towards interactive marketing and the integration of different perspectives into a multiple perspective. Relationship marketing therefore seeks to combine all internal and external marketing activities by highlighting the significance of inter-relational relationship marketing.

Relationship marketing emerged during debates that took place during the 1990s when it was contemplated whether it would replace traditional marketing and whether new theories would be needed to study the concept. Criticism against this viewpoint is based on the idea that symbolic two-way communication cannot replace genuine two-way communication, and that a symbolic relationship will not have the same effect as a real relationship. According to Möller and Halinem-Kaila (1997), contemporary interests in relationship marketing are acquired from four basic sources: marketing channels; B2B marketing; services marketing; and direct/database marketing (consumer marketing). This perspective challenges the traditional marketing management paradigm (with its focus on the 4Ps of the marketing mix, especially on product) and emphasises the value of both the buyer and seller in the exchange process, thereby stressing the significance of managing exchange relationships (with more emphasis on price, package and people). A more recent perspective suggests replacing the 4Ps of the traditional marketing mix

with the 4Cs of relationship marketing, which include: Consumer needs and wants; Costs; Convenience; and Communication. The relationship marketing paradigm is based on the 'who', which adds value to the product or service to ensure long-term and ongoing relationships (Grönroos, 2004). From the literature it is clear that the relationship marketing movement, which acknowledges the significant role of the consumer in the value-creation process, will have a powerful impact on IMC in terms of turning it into the 'integrative function' that would provide other departments with the market-related input they need to function in a co-ordinated way.

Definitions of relationship marketing range from a practical point of view, with a focus on establishing successful relational exchanges (Morgan and Hunt, 1994) to a purpose perspective in which the specific objectives of all parties are met (Grönroos, 1997) and the processes are enacted are clearly defined (Möller and Wilson, 1995). Based on these definitions, relationship marketing is defined as the commercial activity between economic partners, service providers and consumers that aims to create, maintain and enhance these relationships in order to achieve mutually beneficial objectives based on profit and trust between these parties. The following elements are crucial to relationship marketing: trust, commitment and social support (Brink and Berndt, 2004; Kitchen, 1999).

SEE ALSO

Integrated marketing communication, Stakeholder relationships, marketing mix, marketing communication, strategic marketing

READING

Grönroos (2004); Kitchen (1999)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Reputation management

TEXT

As corporate image, corporate reputation forms in the minds of stakeholders based on various signals from the organisation (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990) and given all the advantages of a solid corporate reputation – increased earnings, access to talented staff and increased influence – corporate reputation can be viewed as an organisational asset (Nakra, 2000) and it is understandable that the management of corporate reputation is an important communication function of organisations.

Reputation managed is defined by Skinner et al. (2010) as the way in which organisations work and compete to achieve status regarding the good name of their organisation. Similarly, Plowman, Briggs and Huang (2001) refer to reputation management as the maintenance of positive perceptions in the minds of stakeholders. Nakra (2000) simply states that reputation management is building and then maintaining a sound reputation.

When considering how corporate reputation is managed, Fombrun and Shanley (1990) studied the formation of reputation and found that stakeholders use both economic and non-economic cues from the organisation to generate an organisational reputation. Hon and Grunig (2002) suggested that the basis of reputation management should be stakeholder relationship management and Yang (2005) agreed if a good reputation could be attributed to positive

stakeholder relationships, managing those stakeholder relationships is in fact the management of reputation.

SEE ALSO

Corporate image, corporate identity, organisational identity, organisational reputation

READING

Fombrun and Shanley (1990); Nakra (2000); Plowman, Briggs and Huang (2001); Grunig (2002); Yang (2005); Skinner et al (2010);

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

North and Enslin (2004); Bechan (2008); De Wet (2007); Van Rensburg and De Beer (2011); van der Merwe (2013); Le Roux (2003)

CONCEPT

Responsible leadership

TEXT

In the age of the 'responsible communicator' where responsible communication is expected, the need exists for 'responsible leadership' which Karp (2003) defines as the need for the organisation to have a responsibility to all stakeholders, accepting accountability for business decisions and being transparent and accountable in all areas of business. Maak (2007: 329) sees it as 'the art and ability involved in building, cultivating and sustaining trustful relationships to different stakeholders, both inside and outside the organisation ... to achieve a meaningful, commonly shared business vision'. Today leaders are exposed to a global stakeholder society which demands accountability and commercial viability for sustainable stakeholder relationships which is only possible if leaders act responsibly with all stakeholders in the organisation, society and the environment in general (Freeman, 1984; Maak and Pless, 2006). Hence, responsible leaders will be morally obliged to ensure that products and services meet the needs of customers and that all stakeholders are treated respectfully and fair to ensure trust through open and transparent communication taking into consideration the safety, health and well-being of employees.

SEE ALSO

Leadership/management; leadership styles; leadership theories.

READING

Maak (2007); Burke (2005); Pless and Maak (2011).

CONCEPT

Rhetoric

TEXT

To define rhetoric, as concept, is an arduous task, as this concept has been used in an indeterminate amount of ways, since its inception as a civic art of discourse in Ancient Greece, around 600BC (Booth, 2004; Edmondson, 1984; Hauser, 1999; Fleming, 1998). Focussing in only on the segment of rhetoric that would have bearing on organisational communication is just as problematic, as scholars such as Andrea Lunsford (1995) nebulously defines rhetoric as ‘the art, practice, and study of [all] human communication’.

The reason why Lunsford’s (1995) definition rings true – no matter how indefinably of a definition it is – is because, as the seminal rhetoric author Kenneth Burke (1969) reminds: one cannot address another without having the symbols of communication inherently encouraging or eliciting a response. The study of rhetoric, as it features in the field of organisational communication, therefore, looks, at the one end, at the manner in which communication is constructed to elicit and encourage a response, and at the other end at the expected response generated by a particular communication message.

Concretising this, and the study of rhetoric further, Cohen (1994) divides the study of rhetoric into two distinct categories, as Fleming (1998) conceptualises the field into three groupings – all applied below, in Table 15, to the field of organisational communication.

Table 15: Focus and classifications of the study of rhetoric

>>> **Insert Table 15 here**<<<

SEE ALSO

READING

Booth (2004); Burke (1969); Cohen (1994); Edmondson (1984); Fleming (1998); Hauser (1999)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Ritual view

TEXT

The ritual view on communication develops largely as counterpart to, and reaction against the transmission view on communication, that dominated communication literature since its inception. The transmission view holds forth that recipients are passive inheritors of communication messages, bestowed upon them by a sender in a linear communication process. The ritual view opposes this by postulating that receivers and senders are co-creators of meaning in the communication process, and that receivers are not docile, but active and unpredictable prime movers (Calvert, 1997; Carey, 1989; Hooper-Greenhill, 1999). Part of, or resultant from this co-creation of meaning, communication is believed to be a principle aspect in the maintenance of society, as it facilitates the representation of shared beliefs.

The idea of a linear and mechanistic communication process is rejected in favour of a process without a direct line of causation, but rather a set of relationships that dynamically alter, shape, reshape and outline a reality which is socially or jointly constructed (Carey, 1989). The crux of understanding communication no longer lies in construing the controlled outcome of the communication process, but rather in interpreting the role of presentation and involvement in the structuring of meaning (Carey, 1989; Hooper-Greenhill, 1999).

The ritualistic view occasioned bodies of knowledge relating to, for example, semiotic and cultural approaches to communication studies and is a growing field its own.

SEE ALSO

Carey's transmission and ritual views of communication; Interpretive approach; Transmission view

READING

Carey (1989); Peters (2000)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Sales management

TEXT

Sales management refers to constructs that have been investigated as performance levers focusing on the individual salesperson level, such as salesperson creative performance, salesperson proactivity (Pitt, Ewing, and Berthon, 2002), or salesperson adaptive selling behavior (Park and Holloway, 2003). Most research on management control in general, and sales management in particular, builds upon the contingency theory. This theory posits that no one universal, best-practice approach exists, but that the most effective choice of controls depends on the specific organisational and environmental setting and the specific organisational objectives the sales executives set out to accomplish (Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989). The main focus is therefore a shift from short-term objectives (like sales performance) to long-term objectives and a changing selling environment (where sales executives are required to adapt their sales management control system).

SEE ALSO

Integrated marketing communication (IMC), management communication, integrated communication, advertising, public relations.

READING

Belch and Belch (2012); Ouwersloot and Duncan (2013); Grunig (1976, 2008); Guth (1995); Grunig and Hunt (1984); Grunig and Yuang (2000).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Koekemoer (2013)

CONCEPT

Sales promotion

TEXT

Sales promotion refers to marketing activities which provides added value or incentives to the sales force, the distributors or the consumer to stimulate immediate sales. Sales promotion includes (Ouwersloot and Duncan, 2013; Belch and Belch, 2012):

- *consumer-orientated sales promotion which is aimed at the ultimate user of the product or services (like coupons, samples, premiums, rebates, competitions) with the aim to make an immediate purchase and to stimulate short-term sales; and*
- *trade-orientated sales promotion which is aimed at marketing intermediaries like wholesalers, distributors and retailers (for example through allowances, price deals, sales contests and trade shows).*

Types of sales promotion include trade promotions (to push from manufacturers to retailers for brand support, price reductions, in store advertising, to name a few); consumer promotions (to create a demand and pull products from retailer to increase brand awareness); and organisation promotions (to generate added store traffic, move excess products through sales, enhance store image and create a perceived price image to attract consumers to the store) (Belch and Belch, 2012; Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells, 2009).

SEE ALSO

Integrated marketing communication

READING

Belch and Belch (2012); Kitchen (1999); Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2009)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Schramm's fundamental model of communication

TEXT

Referring, inter alia, to foregoing fundamental models of communication, Schramm (1971:9) reflects: 'In the early days of communication study, the audience was considered relatively passive and defenceless, and communication could shoot something into them'. In his fundamental model of communication, Schramm (1954) diverges from this (at the time) dominant stance, and makes provision for feedback in the process of communication, stating that 'feedback tells us how our messages are being interpreted' (Schramm, 1954:9). With this, a move away from models that focus in on the technical aspects of communication is seen, where the focus on the channel is replaced by a focus on the meaning exchange between participants to the communication process.

The dynamic nature of communication is depicted for the first time, as it is understood that participants to the communication process fulfil both sender and receiver roles intermittently with the encoding, receiving, decoding and interpretation of messages featuring in this exchange. A deviation from single contingencies of interaction to double contingencies of interaction, where both participants jointly determine the message – from a point of relative sameness, is seen (Craig, 2007), as the communication process becomes two-way, rather than linear (although still mechanistic). Figure 15 below depicts an interpretation of Schramm's (1954) fundamental model of communication.

>>> Insert Figure 15 here<<<

Figure 15: Schramm's fundamental model of communication

SEE ALSO

Fundamental models of communication; Mechanistic view; Lasswell's fundamental model of communication; Shannon and Weaver's fundamental model of communication; Transmission view

READING

Johnson and Klare (1961); Schramm (1954; 1971; 1983); Schramm, Riesman and Bauer (1959); Schramm and Roberts (1971); Wagner (1994)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Scientific management theory / The Taylor approach

TEXT

Although ideologically precursed by individuals like Henry Towne, in 1911 Frederick Taylor offers up the first systematic attempt at a set of principles regarding the management of employees in an organisational setting; which he labels the scientific management theory (Kummerow and Kirby, 2014; Mumby, 2013). The impetus for the development of this theory or approach lies in the context of industrial capitalism, which, as status quo of the time, heavily concerns itself with the various ways in which a labour unit (an employee) could be optimally engaged for greater output or productivity. The contextual spur, as for Taylor, transpires on two levels: firstly, in keeping with the predominant concern of the time, Taylor seeks to scientifically develop 'one best way' to carry out any given task in an organisation. Secondly, at the time of Taylor's exploration and writings, the organisational context is characterised by high levels of antagonism between employees and organisational management (Mumby, 2013), due to the capitalist endeavour of ever increasing the productivity of its workforce. Taylor's 'one best way' seeks to eliminate the relational 'tug o' war' that seemed to dominate employee-organisational relations by replacing the old system of ordinary management (Taylor, 1934) with a system based on cooperation and mutual benefit.

As from Johnson and Gill (1993), Mumby (2013) and Taylor (1912; 1934) the shift away from ordinary management, as aided by the principles of scientific management can be presented as below in Figure 16.

>>> Insert Figure 16 here<<<

Figure 16: Ordinary versus Scientific Management

Although Taylor's scientific management theory was, from its inception, deemed controversial and opposed by employees and managers alike (Friedman, 1977; Johnson and Gill, 1993), it seems to have taken hold in various forms and in various approaches, all over the world. The 'moral tone' (Banta, 1993:96) that underlies Taylor's work does seem to get lost in many instances, however – both in erstwhile and modern applications and writings.

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; Bureaucratic theory; Functionalist approach

READING

Antonacopoulou and Méric (2005); Banta (1993); Bell and Martin (2012); Taylor (1912; 1934); Mumby (2013)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Shannon and Weaver's fundamental model of communication

TEXT

Of all of the fundamental models of communication, Shannon and Weaver's (1949) is perhaps the most influential as it, true to its nature as a paradigm case (see the concept Fundamental models of communication), acted as the impetus for subsequent models, graphic representations and movements in the field of communication in general, and organisational communication specifically (Johnson and Klare, 1961).

The scholarly marriage between the two germinal authors began when Claude Shannon – an engineer with the Bell Telephone Laboratory – published a paper describing the problematic relationship between system capacity, signal transmission and signal degradation (noise). Warren Weaver, a physicist with the Sloan foundation, was tasked with writing an introductory paper for the volume comprising Shannon's work, and therein commented on the fact that Shannon's theorems could be applied to the field of communication studies as readily as to the field of communication engineering (Ritchie, 1986). Although it has since been decades that the main focus of attention in the field of communication has shifted to more reciprocal and mutual meaning creation avenues of exploration, the influence of Shannon and Weaver's (1949) model has not yet ceased in organisational communication studies.

As with Lasswell's model – which many scholars believe Shannon and Weaver's (1949) hailed from – Figure 17 below depicts the linear, mechanistic and technical nature of Shannon and

Weaver's representation of the communication process. Once more, communication elements are depicted in a sequential manner, and interactions of causality are still signified as sets of single contingencies, although external influences on the communication process are now taken into account.

>>> Insert Figure 17 here<<<

Figure 17: Shannon and Weaver's fundamental model of communication (after Shannon and Weaver, 1949)

SEE ALSO

Fundamental models of communication; Mechanistic view; Lasswell's fundamental model of communication; Schramm's fundamental model of communication; Transmission view

READING

Johnson and Klare (1961); Ritchie (1986); Shannon and Weaver (1949); Wagner (1994)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Shareholders

TEXT

As the name suggests, a shareholder holds a share of an organisation and the Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE) defines a share as one of the three ways in which organisations raise money to grow their businesses (the others are to borrow money and the issue bonds). Shareholders make money from dividends paid to them when the organisation made sufficient profits.

In South Africa, a locally registered private company (Pty in its title) may have up to 50 shareholders, but shares cannot be offered to the public. Public companies (Ltd in their title) are formed to raise capital by offering shares to the public and no limit is put on the number of shareholders in a public company (Companies Act 71, 2008).

The importance of shareholders as stakeholders is undeniable. Friedman and Miles (2002) regard them with the top management as the most important stakeholder group – in their quadrant configuration shareholders are seen as the necessary-compatible stakeholders to recognise and manage. In the management and financial literature it is argued that organisations should keep the interests of their shareholders in mind and that maximising shareholder value will create value for all other stakeholders (Lazonick and O’Sullivan, 2000).

SEE ALSO

Stakeholder relationships; dimensions of stakeholder relationships; interpersonal relationships; relationship marketing; stakeholder claim; primary stakeholders; secondary stakeholders; shareholders; stakeholder analysis/map; stakeholder approach; stakeholder management

READING

Friedman and Miles (2002); Lazonick and O'Sullivan (2000)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Companies Act 71 (2008); JSE (2012); Schoonraad (2001); South Africa.info (2009)

CONCEPT

Social development

TEXT

Social development in its simplest form implies the advancement of society. Many different definitions of social development exist. For example, Midgley (1986) defines social development as resulting in the fulfilment of aspirations, adjustment between individuals and communities, freedom and security and a sense of belonging and purpose, while Pawar and Cox (2010) considered a variety of definitions and their conceptual analysis concluded that social development is the systematic introduction of a planned change process that is aimed at realising human potential, transformation, restructuring, and strengthening the capacity of people and institutions to meet human needs. The United Nations Development Programme defines human development as the expansion of the freedom and capability of people to lead valuable and purposeful lives (UNDP, 2011).

In recent years, two strong prerequisites for social development became an undeniable part of any discussion on social development –participation and sustainability. By participative social development is meant that those socially marginalised groups that are the target of the social development should be meaningfully included in decisions that affect their lives (Rajesh, 2000; Servaes, 1999; Tufte and Mefalopulos, 2009). Sustainability means that development should happen in such a way that it meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability for future generations to also meet their needs (WCED, 1987).

In the context of organisations' accountability, social development refers to all the actions taken by an organisation to improve the social, economic, cultural or environmental conditions of a society (Fisher and Lovell, 2006). Social development is often used interchangeably with corporate citizenship, corporate social investment, corporate social responsibility and sustainable development.

SEE ALSO

Accountability; corporate governance; corporate citizenship; black economic empowerment; charitable giving/donations; social development; corporate volunteerism; corporate social responsibility; corporate social investment; sponsorship; triple bottom line

READING

Fisher and Lovell (2006); Midgley (1986); Pawar and Cox (2010); Rajesh (2000); Servaes (1999); Tufte and Mefalopulos (2009); UNDP (2011); WCED (1987)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Burger (2009); IoDSA (2009); Steyn and Nunes (2007); Van Dyk and Fourie (2012b)

CONCEPT

Social exchange theory

TEXT

The social exchange theory is a concept from the field of social psychology, described by Emerson (1979:336) as 'the economic analysis of noneconomic social situations'. Very basically described, the social exchange theory views the social situations created between communicating individuals as two sides of a transaction, involving the exchange of utility or reward. Although Homans (1958), Thibaut and Kelley (1959) and Blau (1964) are largely credited with the conceptualisation of this theory, Adams (1965) positions it squarely in the discipline of organisational communication when applying it to an equity theory of motivation in the organisational setting.

In his conceptualisation, Adams (1965) purports that employees 'weigh up' the input that their work asks for, against the personal output that they would gain from it; basically estimating the value and motivation of their work by what the benefit of it would 'cost' them. Dissatisfaction naturally arises when the benefits to cost ratio seems inequitable.

For the field of organisational communication, the social exchange theory has been brought to the fore from studies relating to personal integration to those focussing in on performance-related management and motivation. This view of communication is certainly very transactional in its approach (see concept transmission view), although it has been applied with success to various contemporary organisational communication studies (Courtney, 2013).

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; Transmission view

READING

Adams (1965); Befu (1977); Blau (1964); Emerson (1979); Homans (1958); Thibaut and Kelley (1959)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Social media

TEXT

Due to its fast evolving nature and diversity in delivery platforms, a lack of agreement exists on what social media is. Various viewpoints exist, for example Marchese (2007) who focuses on social media from a traditional media perspective stating that it is not the media itself, but the system of discovery, distribution, consumption and conversation surrounding the media. From an instrumental viewpoint, Drury (2008) defines social media as online resources that people use to share content, like for example videos, photos, images, text, ideas, insight, humour, opinion, gossip, news. Authors like Kee, Sparks, Struppa and Mannuci (2013), Kim and Miranda (2011) and Zarella (2009) emphasises people's behaviours when using social media and see it as the means for any person to publish digital, creative content; provide and obtain real-time feedback via online discussions, commentary and evaluations; and incorporate changes or corrections to the original content. Daugherty, Eastin and Bright (2008) defines it as user-generated content created or produced by the general public rather than by paid professionals and primarily distributed on the Internet. However, the most used definition is probably that of Safko and Brake (2009) who consider social media as activities, practices, and behaviours among communities of people who gather online to share information, knowledge, and opinions using conversational media; where conversational media are Web-based applications that make possible for one to create and easily transmit content in the form of words, pictures, videos, and audios. Hence, in general social media can be understood as online platforms for the interaction, collaboration, and creating/sharing of various types of digital contents (Lee and Cho, 2011).

Social media therefore permit people to be active participants in a communication process, not only as information receivers but also as message creators, made possible through online applications intended to facilitate information creation and sharing, knowledge distribution, and opinion exchanges.

Social media platforms refer to open source (i.e. publicly accessible) media sites on the internet that accept user-generated content and foster social interaction. Social media platforms are ideal to create awareness of an organisation's products and services by using different social media platforms for brand building, including networking sites (Facebook – Beacon - and MySpace); social bookmarking sites (Propeller and Reddit); video sharing communities (Youtube and Metacafe); photo sharing sites (Flickr); professional networking (LinkedIn); web-based encyclopedias (for example Wikipedia); blog networking communities (Open Diary); social media aggregators (Friendfeed and Streamy); micro blogging (Twitter); blog publishing (wordpress.org), social media searches (Socialmention); social event calendars (Google calendar and social web); and mobile phone platforms (MXit, WhatsApp and The Grid) to name a few (Cosme, 2008; Luckhoff, 2009; Zarella, 2009). The application of these social media platforms in an organisational context can be used strategically in social media marketing for brand-building purposes through competitive differentiation, market share growth or brand expansion (Borges, 2009). A major challenge of social media integration is the difficulty to quantify the return on investment thereof.

SEE ALSO

Web-based communication; social networks; cyber organisational societies

READING

Constantinides, Romero and Boira (2009); Luckhoff (2009); Zarella (2009).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Steenkamp (2012); Du Plessis (2010); Van der Westhuizen (2012)

CONCEPT

Social movements

TEXT

A social movement is a collectively expressed resistance to change or grievance against the status quo by a group of people (Tilly, 1978). Social movements are sustained by the interactions of the powerful and the powerless and the collective action of those without power or formal representation are needed to reach their goal (Ayres, 1999; King, 2008b). Social movements are characterised by the extra-institutional tactics they use, for existing outside of the formal systems of authority and for relying on disruption and subversive methods to influence decision-making (Ayres, 1999; King and Soule, 2007; McAdam, 1999). Industrialisation and urbanisation of the 19th century led to an educated, free and independent society which arguably had been one of the main causes of the social movement. Modern social movements utilise technology and the increasing number of social networking sites to promote their causes (Eaton, 2010; Kim and Miranda, 2011).

The role and nature of social movements suggest that their contact with the corporate world will most likely be as adversaries or critics of corporate practice grouping social movements with activism and advocacy groups when it comes to organisational communication. As with activist and advocacy groups, it is the responsibility of organisations to communicate with and regard the needs of all stakeholders (King, 2008b).

SEE ALSO

Advocacy; activism; greening; carbon footprint; minority groups; marginalisation; union communication; public opinion; propaganda

READING

Ayres (1999); Eaton (2010); Huesca (2001); King (2008b); McAdam (1999); McCarthy and Zald (1977); Tilly (1978)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Bond (2008)

CONCEPT

Social networks

TEXT

A social network refers to a structure made up of individuals (or organisations) connected by one or more specific types of characteristics (including friendships, common interest, dislike, relationships of beliefs, knowledge or values, etc.), a social utility that connects people with friends and others who work, study and live around them. Furthermore, it involves human dynamics where an identity is presented in order to connect all through the acting of certain roles.

The following properties of social networks, which also applies to online social networks, are prevalent in the literature (adapted from Boyd and Ellison, 2008; White, Chu and Salehi-Abari, 2010): community structure where members have an inherently intelligent human-based organisational structure with similar nodes clustered together within a wider network with similar types of topics; small world effect where the distance between two vertices in any network is short and strangers are connected through someone they know who enables them to articulate and make them visible; and trust relationships when an individual is connected through someone they know to the others which implies that the implicit recognition of making the connection, is trustworthy.

SEE ALSO

Networks, virtual communities

READING

Baumeister (1998); Bishop (2001); Boyd and Ellison (2008)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2006a, 2008, 2009); Bornman (2004); Bosch (2009); Grant (2007); Mpofu & Salawu (2012); Saunderson & De Wet (2005); Du Plessis (2013)

CONCEPT

Sponsorships

TEXT

Sponsorship is defined as a commercial agreement from which both parties (the sponsor and the organisation) expect a return on their investment, in both monetary and non-monetary terms before, during and after the sponsorship campaign (Baker, 2003). Organisations use sponsorships to support an event financially and/or through donations by using event management (the building of a products marketing programme around a sponsored event) and include sport sponsorship, entertainment tours, festivals, fairs, social cause-related marketing and supporting the arts (Moriarty et al, 2009). The main benefits of sponsorship include: the fact that it is flexible to fit into the demographic and psychographic requirements of consumers; provides brand equity through exposure, association value or brand exclusivity and brand personality traits; create a competitive advantage and extend the value of advertising campaigns by creating an interactive, dynamic environment for relevant and persuasive messages through media exposure; enhance the image and reputation of an organisation; increase staff morale; encourage future job expectations; is cost-effective because it creates coverage and brand awareness more quickly than traditional advertising; presents the opportunity for global and national unification as it facilitates access to international markets, create long-term relationships with consumers and with the nation, and inspire feelings of nation-wide goodwill; and create challenges because marketers require creativity and ingenuity to maximise return on sponsorship investment.

SEE ALSO

Integrated marketing communication

READING

Belch and Belch (2012); Kitchen (1999); Ouwersloot and Duncan (2013).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Stakeholder analysis/map

TEXT

The stakeholder theory posits that the needs of multiple stakeholders should be identified and managed, but the pragmatic aspects of stakeholder relationship management has lagged behind – specifically the range of stakeholder relationships that an organisation can have and changes that occur with time (Freeman and Reed, 1983; Friedman and Miles, 2002). The overall academic interest in stakeholder relationships echoed the needs in practice to understand and engage with important stakeholders (Jahansoozi, 2006).

Broom, Casey and Ritchey (2000), among others, stated that relationships are patterns of links through which the parties pursue and satisfy their interdependent needs. In order to be able to ensue this exchange of needs, stakeholders need to be identified and categorised (Ledingham, 2003). Linking to the need to practically identify and categorise stakeholders, both researchers and practitioners make use of stakeholder analysis that results in a stakeholder map. A stakeholder map provides a (mostly graphical) representation of the stakeholder groups and allow for better decision-making and prioritising by an organisational communication researchers/practitioner. A stakeholder map shows those individuals or groups that has a legitimate interest in the organisation and also indicates the linkages and communication channels between the organisation and the stakeholder. As a map representing a theory of organisational communication, the organisation usually forms the centre of such a stakeholder map.

Stakeholder maps usually resemble any of the following formations:

>>> **Insert Figure 18 here**<<<

Figure 18: Example of stakeholder map 1

>>> **Insert Figure 19 here**<<<

Figure 19: Example of stakeholder map 2

SEE ALSO

Stakeholder relationships; dimensions of stakeholder relationships; interpersonal relationships; relationship marketing; stakeholder claim; primary stakeholders; secondary stakeholders; shareholders; stakeholder analysis/map; stakeholder approach; stakeholder management

READING

Broom, Casey and Ritchey (2000); Freeman and Reed (1983); Friedman and Miles (2002); Jahansoozi (2006)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Deenanath (2013)

CONCEPT

Stakeholder claims

TEXT

According to the father of the stakeholder theory, stakeholders refer to an individual or group who has a stake, interest, ownership, claim or right regarding an organisation (Freeman, 1984).

The prominence of a stakeholder group depends on their claim, and the claim of each stakeholder group depends on the nature of the business and the situation at hand (Evan and Freeman, 1993). Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) argue that groups that are excluded from the stakeholder label are groups that cannot affect the company or who are not affected by the company.

Because organisations have limited resources, it is clear that certain claims need to be prioritised in specific situations. Accordingly, Mitchell et al. (1997) expanded on the viewpoint of the stakeholder theory by arguing that the prominence of a stakeholder group depends on the power, legitimacy and urgency of their claim to the company to which it relates and that the prominence of specific stakeholder groups in specific situations can assist managers who have to decide between competing or conflicting stakeholder claims. Freeman, Wicks and Parmar (2004) indicate that the value maximisation in a stakeholder relationship is not free from ideological content and when the rights of one stakeholder group is upheld, it could lead to the rights of another stakeholder groups being violated. This supports Mitchell et al.'s (1997) argument of the importance to prioritise and distinguish between different claims from different stakeholders.

SEE ALSO

Stakeholder relationships; dimensions of stakeholder relationships; interpersonal relationships; relationship marketing; stakeholder claim; primary stakeholders; secondary stakeholders; shareholders; stakeholder analysis/map; stakeholder approach; stakeholder management

READING

Evan and Freeman (1993); Freeman (1984); Freeman, Wicks and Parmar (2004); Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997); Schneider (2002)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Greeff (2012); Schoonraad (2001); Slabbert and Barker (2012); Steyn and De Beer (2012); Van der Walt and Van Heerden (2008); Rensburg and De Beer (2011)

CONCEPT

Stakeholder relationship management

TEXT

In line with the main thrusts of the systems theory, stakeholder theorists argue that it is the management and maintenance of relationships that give an organisation a competitive edge (Agle, Donaldson, Freeman, Jensen, Mitchell and Wood, 2008; Freeman, 2000; Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar and De Colle, 2010; Ledingham, 2003). This means more than the identification and description of stakeholders to support corporate goal attainment, but also emphasises the need for the management of these relationships in order to maintain positive and mutually beneficial relationships.

Donaldson and Preston (1995) presented three categories that represent the different natures and purposes of the stakeholder theory, namely: the descriptive, instrumental and normative stakeholder theories. The descriptive stakeholder theory is used to describe the nature of organisations and how the decision-makers in organisations think. The instrumental stakeholder theory investigates the links between stakeholder management and the attainment of organisational goals. Normative stakeholder theory is used to interpret how organisations should go about their stakeholder relations and identifies moral and ethical guidelines in this regard. Donaldson and Preston (1995) then concluded that the stakeholder theory is simultaneously descriptive, instrumental and normative, making it a managerial theory; it combines all three theoretical categories to provide a management philosophy for organisations and recommends certain attitudes, structure and practices. The management of stakeholder relationships centres

on balancing the interests of the parties in the relationship (Ledingham, 2003) through deliberation and two-way communication (Steyn and Puth, 2000) and should have a long-term focus (Broom, Casey and Richey, 2000; Friedman and Miles, 2002; Hon and Grunig, 1999; Ledingham, 2003).

Many theoretical concepts from the management of interpersonal relationships have been used when discussing management and maintenance of stakeholder relationships. According to Grunig and Huang (2000) and Hon and Grunig (1999) relationship maintenance strategies have the following concepts that could be applied in the strategic management of stakeholder relationships: access, openness, positivity, assurances, networking and the sharing of tasks.

SEE ALSO

Stakeholders; dimensions of stakeholder relationships; interpersonal relationships; relationship marketing; stakeholder claim; primary stakeholders; secondary stakeholders; shareholders; stakeholder analysis/map; stakeholder approach

READING

Agle, Donaldson, Freeman, Jensen, Mitchell and Wood (2008); Broom, Casey and Richey (2000); Donaldson and Preston (1995); Freeman (2000); Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar and De Colle (2010); Friedman and Miles (2002); Grunig and Huang (2000); Hon and Grunig (1999); Ledingham (2003)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Coetzee (2008); Greeff (2012); Meintjes, Neimann-Struweg and De Wet (2009); Slabbert and Barker (2012); Steyn and Puth (2000); Swart (2001); Swart and Verwey (2003); Wiggil (2011)

CONCEPT

Stakeholder relationships

TEXT

The idea of focusing on the needs of stakeholders instead of shareholders/stockholders of an organisation is referred to as the stakeholder theory or stakeholder concept. Although the stakeholder theory posits that the needs of all constituencies should be considered for the organisation to function effectively, the theory is criticized for not elaborating on the pragmatic aspects of harbouring relationships with stakeholders such as the possible range of stakeholder relationships that an organisation can have and how these relationships change over time (Freeman and Reed, 1983; Friedman and Miles, 2002).

Hence the stakeholder relationship theory developed (mainly from public relations scholars) to address the need for concrete guidelines on how to view the value of stakeholders, relationships with stakeholders and the measurement of these relationships. One of the first public relations scholars to propagate the relational approach is Mary Ann Ferguson (1984) who indicated in a conference paper that the relational approach should be the paradigm of all public relations theories. Many public relations scholars followed on her recommendations and by arguing that the value of organisational communication is in relationships with stakeholders (Hon and Grunig, 1999) and that the unit of measurement for the impact of organisational communication should be the organisation-stakeholder relationship (Ledingham, 2003).

Various authors have described the formation of stakeholder relationships (cf. Hung 2007; Ledingham and Bruning, 2000). Bruning and Ledingham (1999) argue that when both parties realise that they influence one another, a relationship emerges that can be described and analysed according to the perceptions of both parties. Similarly, Broom, Casey and Ritchey (1997) listed tentative conclusions about stakeholder relationships that, in the absence of an agreed-upon definition, could serve as valuable reference points regarding organisational stakeholder relationships:

- Stakeholder relationships is a phenomena that can be studied separately from the perceptions held by the parties in the relationship;*
- Stakeholder relationships form when parties have perceptions and expectations of each other, if they experience mutual threats and opportunities or if there is any other need to relate to each other;*
- Stakeholder relationships consist of dynamic exchanges as parties seek to satisfy their interdependent needs;*
- Stakeholder relationships evolve and change over time, but can be descried at a given point in time;*
- Stakeholder relationships lead to increased dependency, loss of autonomy, structured interdependence and the attainment of organisational goals;*
- Stakeholder relationships have unique and measurable characteristics that are not necessarily shared by the parties in the relationship, thus the relationship can be defined as something separate from the parties in that relationship;*
- The antecedents and consequences of stakeholder relationships can also be distinguished from the parties in the relationship;*

→ *The formation and maintenance of stakeholder relationships is a process of mutual adaptation and contingent responses by the parties;*

Ledingham (2003) also devised a listed summary of knowledge on stakeholder relationships:

→ *In the relational perspective, relationship assumptions frame theory building, teaching and practice and relational outcomes supersede other measures in organisational communication;*

→ *The stakeholder relationship is the most appropriate measure of communication impact;*

→ *The analysis of stakeholder relationships grew from the interpersonal relationship discipline and many principles of interpersonal relationships serve as the foundation for stakeholder relationships in the organisational context;*

→ *Stakeholder relationships are based on the dynamic interchange of needs, expectations and the fulfilment of those needs and expectations;*

→ *Measuring relationship dimensions can define the state of the stakeholder relationship and the state of the relationship can in turn predict the perceptions and behaviour of the parties;*

→ *Different types of stakeholder relationships include symbolic, behavioural, personal, professional and community-related relationships;*

→ *Stakeholder relationships change over time;*

→ *Effective management of stakeholder relationships results in mutual understanding and benefit;*

→ *Successful stakeholder relationships centre on common interest and shared solutions of communal problems;*

→ *The state of the stakeholder relationships reflects the perceptions of the parties regarding the fulfilment of their needs and expectations;*

Mutually beneficial stakeholder relationships have the potential to general economic, societal and political gain for organisations and these stakeholders.

SEE ALSO

Stakeholders; dimensions of stakeholder relationships; interpersonal relationships; relationship marketing; stakeholder claim; primary stakeholders; secondary stakeholders; shareholders; stakeholder analysis/map; stakeholder approach; stakeholder management

READING

Broom, Casey and Ricthey (1997); Bruning and Ledingham (1999); Ferguson (1984); Freeman and Reed (1983); Friedman and Miles (2002); Hon and Grunig (1999); Hung (2007); Ledingham (2003); Ledingham and Bruning (2000)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Greeff (2012); Holtzhausen and Fourie (2011); Slabbert and Barker (2012); Swart (2012); Van Dyk and Fourie (2012b); Verwey (2000)

CONCEPT

Stakeholders

TEXT

Stakeholders are those groups or individuals on whom the survival of an organisation depends (Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar and De Colle, 2010). Originally used to counter the idea that shareholders/stockholders are the only grouping of importance to an organisation, the stakeholder concept posits that the needs and expectations of all groups who have a 'stake' in the organisation should be considered and managed strategically.

*The origin of the stakeholder concept is questionable, but it is believed that Dodd (1932) was the first to argue for what is now known as the 'stakeholder approach', but it seems that the actual term have first been used in an internal memorandum of the Stanford Research Institute in 1963. The stakeholder concept is popular in organisational research and a vast number of works have been published on the subject, but the seminal author remains R. Edward Freeman who authored *Strategic management: a stakeholder approach* in 1984, and in doing so, gained widespread acceptance of the principles of the stakeholder theory in business practice and research.*

The stakeholder theory (as conceptualised by Freeman) is based on the premise that an organisation should be attentive to all individuals and groups with a legitimate stake in the organisation and not only those groups with a monetary stake. The issues of value creation, ethics in capitalism and managerial mindset can be addressed by the stakeholder theory making use of the four basic principles of the stakeholder theory: the separation fallacy (it is a flawed

belief to view business and ethics as separate from each other); the open question argument (informing business decisions with the answers to open questions such as “for whom is value created and who not?”); the integration thesis (integrating business and ethics to the core); and the responsibility principle (the principle that most people are concerned about the effects of their actions on others).The stakeholder theory is also classified as simultaneously being descriptive, instrumental, normative and managerial (Donaldson and Preston, 1995) and these classifications are argued to inform a holistic understanding of all the facets of this theory.

SEE ALSO

Stakeholder relationships; dimensions of stakeholder relationships; interpersonal relationships; relationship marketing; stakeholder claim; primary stakeholders; secondary stakeholders; shareholders; stakeholder analysis/map; stakeholder approach; stakeholder management

READING

Dodd (1932); Donaldson and Preston (1995); Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar and De Colle (2010)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Greeff (2012); Oksiutycz (2012); Schoonraad (2001); Slabbert and Barker (2012); Steyn and De Beer (2012); Van der Walt and Van Heerden (2008); Rensburg and De Beer (2011)

CONCEPT

Strategic marketing

TEXT

Earlier authors such as McArthur and Griffin (1997) and Duncan and Moriarty (1998), and others such as Gilligan and Wilson (2009) argue that within the IMC framework, the integrative process improves marketing accountability and elevates it from a tactical or executional communication discussion to a strategic marketing level which increases brand messaging and positioning, as well as building customer trust with all stakeholders through a synergy process. According to Kliatchko (2009), synergy inherently refers to one spirit, one look or one voice, which can also be seen as the starting point of IMC (Luck and Moffatt, 2009). Central to the principle of strategic marketing is the idea that two important customer-facing functions – marketing and sales – work together in crafting and seamlessly executing organisations' marketing strategies. Thus, the implementation of the strategic marketing principle is requiring companies to view their sales organisations as strategic marketing partners since salespeople are 'primarily responsible for the lion's share of customer acquisition and retention' (Baldauf and Lee, 2011: 211). One of the ways organisations may prepare their sales organisations to become key strategic marketing partners is through sales force transformation (Piercy, 2010). Sales force transformation requires that organisations entrust their sales forces with critical tasks of portfolio management and long-term customer relationship development; rather than simply being a tactical function engaged in meeting with consumers and selling organisation goods and services. As an important component of the strategic marketing concept, the idea of sales force transformation has been examined primarily in western contexts (Piercy, 2010, 2006). Evidently,

the United States and Western European markets are increasingly experiencing stagnating growth, while their counterparts in emerging markets are growing rapidly, and in turn, becoming very competitive (Blocker, Cannon, Panagopoulos and Sager, 2012). As a result, when organisations focus on the growth in emerging economies through implementation of the strategic marketing concept, they may be motivated to transform their sales organisations with the hope that the strategic sales organisations may help them grow in such competitive markets (Piercy, 2006).

SEE ALSO

Integrated communication; integrated marketing communication.

READING

Duncan and Moriarty (1998); Kliatchko (2009).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Slabbert & Barker (2012); Conrad (2010)

CONCEPT

Systems theory

TEXT

The notion of systems is incidence throughout the reasoning and philosophy that shaped (especially) Western knowledge as it is the first to explain and concretise in the most rudimentary, yet comprehensive, way that variables in a system are related to others – suggesting that on some level there is a relationship between them (Luhmann, 2008; Von Bertalanffy, 1972; Walby, 2007). The notion had been carried forward in an inherent and implied fashion; however, not being explicitly defined and concretised until the late 1920s, when Von Bertalanffy first questioned its nature, somewhat as a reaction to the reductionistic and mechanistic approaches to scientific study (Burns and Deek, 2010), in terms of biology, which was his field of specialisation. The general systems theory was born.

The general systems theory is based on the synergistic effect which posits that, in terms of systems, the whole is always greater or more than the sum of its parts (Burns and Deek, 2010; Hammond, 2003; Kurtyka, 2005; Mulej, 2007; Von Bertalanffy, 1968). This realisation is resultant from the theory's examination of individual entities in their greater, connected context.

According to Burns and Deek (2010), Hammond (2003), Kurtyka (2005), Mulej (2007) and Von Bertalanffy (1968), the general systems theory posits three characteristics and designations, at its core. Firstly, it puts forth that any set of interrelated contexts or entities can be viewed and defined as a system. This system is part of a hierarchy and, therefore, consists of subsystems

below and supra-systems above (also called meta-systems in some literature). This hierarchical classification, although linear in its ordering, is not stagnant, as it changes as per the vantage point of the classifier. A subsystem can be seen as a system in its own right, with various subsystems of its own, just as a system can be seen as a subsystem of a system greater than itself. Secondly, and resultant of this viewpoint, the general systems theory posits that all systems (albeit a sub-, supra- or standard system) that come into contact with one another are on some level and to differing degrees interrelated. This interrelatedness goes hand in hand with interdependency, which sees the systems necessary to one another for survival. It is precisely due to these interrelationships (including them into the equation), that the whole of the system can be seen to be greater than the mere sum of its parts. In the third instance, the general systems theory builds forth on this second designation by stating that all systems need to be studied as a whole, going against the reductionist approach, which would rather see the entity broken down into its smallest components to be analysed independently (Kurtyka, 2005; Mulej, 2007).

With the wide-spread acceptance of the general systems theory, it was realised that these three basic characterisations and designations used to examine biological aspects can also be made applicable to various other fields of study (Liu, Forrest and Vallee, 2009: 1247; Mulej, 2007: 348; Walby 2007: 449). The application to other fields saw the general systems theory alter and modify itself to include an array of aspects and supplement understandings of systems. In the field of communication science, an increase in systems research was evident in the late 1970s and early 1980s by noted communication scholars such as James Grunig and Peter Monge, in line with the social sciences interpretation of scholars such as Luhmann and Habermas (Bausch, 2001; Grunig, 1975; Habermas, 1985; Leydesdorff, 2000; Luhmann, 1984). Prominent adjuncts

to, and interpretations of, the general systems theory from the field of organisational communication is, inter alia, notions of adaptability and equilibrium, negentropy as opposed to entropy, of open and closed communication systems and of input, throughput and output as stages of such an open system (Angelopulo, 2002; Bausch, 2001).

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; cybernetics theory

READING

Bausch (2001); Burns and Deek (2010); Grunig (1975); Habermas (1985); Hammond (2003); Kurtyka (2005); Leydesdorff (2000); Luhmann (2008); Monge (1982); Mulej (2007); Von Bertalanffy (1968); Walby (2007)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Angelopulo (2002); Greeff (2012)

CONCEPT

Technology

TEXT

Neher (1997: 174-179) stated that technology has had and will continue to have an impact on people's values, which in turn affects the organisation and offers new possibilities. Two main constructs determine the use of new technology and information systems in organisational communication, namely: perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use as fundamental determinants (Umbach, 1997; Luic and Glumac, 2008; Ghobadi and Ghobadi, 2013). Perceived usefulness is defined as the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would enhance his or her job performance is linked to behavioural decision theory in explaining that individuals will use or not use an application on the basis of their beliefs of the extent to which that particular application will improve their job performances or not. Accordingly, it is argued that individuals will adapt more easily to using information technology when its usage is easy and it enhances their routines. Perceived ease of use is the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would be free of effort and is derived from the self-efficacy theory and the adoption of innovation approaches. The adoption of new technology as online communication tool creates the opportunity to communicate with people internal to the organisation through the Intranet (a private computer network based on the data communication standards and technologies of the public Internet that is accessible only by employees); external through the Extranet (an Intranet that is selectively open to third parties such as vendors, consumers, suppliers and stakeholders and requires connectivity, security, applications for all parties and compatible directory services and messaging systems for all parties); and through

multimedia (interactive databases that allow users to access online information in various formats, for example text, graphics, video and audio. The use of multimedia ensures impact, immediacy and selectivity of the online marketing message (Hurme 2001; Yen and Chou 2001).

SEE ALSO

Data mining; databases; cyberspace; web-based communication

READING

Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2009); Belch and Belch (2012)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Lesame (2008); Mbatha & Lesame (2013)

CONCEPT

The Goal setting theory

TEXT

The goal setting theory developed through the work of the American psychologist, Edwin A. Locke (and his colleagues) between the late 1960's and the early 2000's. Initially, it is seen as a theory of human motivation, studying why some individuals are better at realising and completing organisational activities than others (Locke and Latham, 1994), however, it has permeated into various other fields of study, including that of strategic organisational communication.

The basic principle underwriting the goal setting theory is that employees will be enabled, more prone and willing to achieve organisational goals if three basic standards are met in goal setting. Firstly, referring to the aspect of goal attributes, employees must have clear and challenging goals to achieve; secondly, referring to goal choice, employees must, themselves be partners to, and involved in the process of setting goals in the organisation; and thirdly, under the aspect of goals and feedback, employees must receive constant and constructive feedback on the progress of meeting the goals set (Courtney, 2013; Locke and Latham, 1994).

This way, employees are more likely to take ownership of organisational goals, and not will not view themselves as passive inheritors thereof, paving the way for better realisation of goals and greater job satisfaction for employees (Latham, 1991; Locke, 1996).

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory

READING

Latham (1991); Latham, Ganegoda and Locke (2011); Lee, Locke and Latham (1989); Locke (1996); Locke and Latham (1990; 1994; 2002; 2006); Locke, Shaw, Saari and Latham (1981)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

The human relations school

TEXT

The human relations school, as the name suggests, focusses in on the social dimensions of organisational functioning, recognising the importance of communal behaviour and understanding in this context. Although this is contemporarily a well-established notion and clustered field within the discipline of organisational communication, at the time of its inception – largely ascribed to the researcher Elton Mayo – it was not.

An early impetus to the development of the human relations school is the unexpected empirical evidence gleaned from a study focussing in on quite another aspect, but that inadvertently brought forward the importance of the feelings and morale of employees. This was the Hawthorne study, and it sought to experiment with the effect that physical working conditions (e.g. temperature of the workplace, level of illumination) had on the productivity of workers. In both the control and research groups, the levels of productivity ever increased, as the experiment progressed, no matter how much the physical working conditions were altered for the worse. After further research, the Hawthorne study yielded, not findings on the effect of physical working conditions, but rather findings relating to the importance of the feelings of communality of workers, and the value of morale in a working environment (Johns and Saks, 2011; Johnson and Gill, 1993). Ever since, a process that leads to inadvertent, yet propitious findings is described as having a ‘Hawthorne effect’ (Johnson and Gill, 1993) (alongside the secondary

effect described by this study, where subjects behave differently when they know they are being observed).

The touchstone of this research with that of the human relations school is the underlying principle that human co-operation in the organisation relies on the evolution of a 'nonlogical social code', characterised by relationships and solidarity between workers (Johnson and Gill, 1993; Mumby, 2013). This nonlogical social code drives individuals to act and directs their behaviour towards goals – that of the organisation if managed successfully – and sustains the behaviour until those goals are met (Courtney, 2013). In short, the importance of paying attention to the feelings, attitudes and relational concerns of employees is realised, as this has a definite impact on the organisation's goal attainment and bottom line (Johnson and Gill, 1993; Mumby, 2013).

For the first time, organisations are positioned to meet human needs, where the reverse had been the norm in the past (Courtney, 2013), shifting the focus to the psychological and social aspects of organisational life (Mumby, 2013). The link between the disciplines of organisational communication, sociology and psychology – evident in this book by the permeable boundaries between the concepts of these disciplines – was established and persist to this day.

The human relations school also brought to the fore the importance of informal communication (for the first time in the evolution of the discipline) and the necessity for social leadership and management in an organisational setting (Johnson and Gill, 1993; Mumby, 2013): an impetus in

itself for the development of various other fields of research within organisational communication.

SEE ALSO

Interpretivistic approach

READING

Johnson and Gill (1993); Kummerow and Kirby (2014); Mayo (1933)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

The hypodermic tradition and the theory of personal influence

TEXT

Schramm (1971:9) offers perhaps one of the best allegorical descriptions of the hypodermic tradition, by stating that in 'the early days of communication study, the audience was considered relatively passive and defenceless, and communication could shoot something into them'. What Schramm (1971) refers to here is a pervasively accepted notion of the 1920's and 1930's that mass communication has an exceedingly powerful and persuasive influence on mass audiences, who are inherently susceptible to manipulation, and almost 'easy prey' to mass communicators (Bineham, 1988; Curran, Gurevitch and Woollacott, 1982). Influenced, if not born from the European social theory of the nineteenth century (DeFleur, 1966), the hypodermic tradition draws on the idea that people had been 'brainwashed' by mass communication messages during the First World War (Bineham, 1988).

Challenging and replacing the idea of mass production of communication for mass audiences (linking closely to the modernist, Fordist view of organisational communication), is the theory of personal influence, as coined by Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955). The predominant view that emerges from this theory is that audiences are active users of mass media, and that they control the media, rather than the other way around. Offering first traces of Interpretivism, Katz and Lazarsfeld's (1955) theory of personal influence recognise that individuals who act as recipients of communication messages have different traits, values, cultures, and otherwise mediating

variables that influence their reactions to messages – which inherently, therefore, is different in each instance.

From these two dominating stances of their time, a differentiation between approaches to contemporary organisational communication study is discernable: On the one hand a functionalist, stimulus-response approach that sees the outcome of the communication message as something that is explicitly controlled by the sender of the communication message, and on the other hand an interpretivistic underpinning that sees individuals as co-creators of social meaning.

SEE ALSO

Fundamental models of communication; Mechanistic view; Lasswell's fundamental model of communication; Shannon and Weaver's fundamental model of communication; Transmission view; Mumby's Fordist and post-Fordist organisations; Interpretivist approach; Functionalist approach

READING

Bineham (1988); Curran, Gurevitch and Woollacott (1982); DeFleur (1966); Katz (1960); Katz and Lazarfield (1955)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Theory X and Theory Y

TEXT

*In his renowned book *The human side of enterprise*, Douglas McGregor (1957b) explores and examines the behaviour of individuals at work, and their consequent management, resultantly formulating two theories, which he terms Theory X and Theory Y. The three antecedents to these theories are that management is responsible for organising the elements within an organisation that lead to productive enterprise; that, with respect to people, this management is a process of directing individual's efforts by motivating and controlling their actions, and modifying their behaviour to alignment of the organisation's goals; and lastly without management's active intervention people would not necessarily do so out of their own volition (McGregor, 1957b).*

McGregor (1957a) believes that managers in an organisational setting either deal with employees from the point of Theory X, or that of Theory Y, and proceeds to list the almost polar qualities of each one of these management approaches. Theory X states that the average individual in an organisation is indolent by nature, and likes to work as little as possible, as he/she lacks ambition, dislikes responsibility and prefers to be led. It would be the responsibility of management to align and motivate this individual to the organisation's goals, as he/she would not do so otherwise. As individuals in organisations, from this perspective, desire security above all else, they dislike and are resistant to change (McGregor, 1957a).

Conversely, Theory Y holds forth that people are not, by nature, passive to organisational goals but that the motivation, potential for development, the capacity for assuming responsibility and the readiness to direct their behaviour towards the attainment of organisational goals are all present within individuals. Although it is the responsibility of management to make it possible for individuals to recognise and develop these characteristics, management is not responsible to put it in place (Carson, 2005; McGregor, 1957a; 1960).

Within the field of organisational communication, these theories, either in isolation, collectively or partially have led to the formulation of many other theories, including Maslow's hierarchy of needs, organisational development theories as well as various perspectives on organisational management.

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; Maslow's hierarchy of needs; change management; managerial perspectives

READING

Carson (2005); McGregor (1957a; b; 1960)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Transmission view

TEXT

The notion and use of transmission in the explication of a process, is contrived at the inception of the modern Western scientific culture (Peters, 2000), and when it is applied to the study of communication, it is done so with the same scientific slant. It is in this vein that a catalyst for the development of the transmission view on communication is the model of communication that resulted from Shannon and Weaver's (1949) mathematical information theory.

True to these origins, the transmission view explains the phenomenon of communication in terms of a linear process, where communication is reduced to its most rudimentary variables, which is held forth as the basic elements of this communication process (Penman, 1988; Calvert, 1997). What distinguishes the transmission approach to other linear models of communication is two underlying principles or hypotheses. Firstly, communication is seen to have an instrumental disposition, referring to the belief that communication is something that one person intentionally 'does' to another. Secondly, communication is seen to take place in concrete coordinates, meaning that one element of the communication process follows directly on another – they do not overlap and their position in the communication process is known, stagnant and unchanging. These two hypotheses bring about the central understanding, as from the transmission view, that communication has the aim and purpose of control. The sender of the communication message would exercise his/her control over the elements of the communication process, with the result being a predictable and controlled outcome over the recipient of the communication message.

This notion of an instrumental disposition leading to a controlled and predictable outcome of communication as process, occasioned discourses and bodies of literature such as the uses and gratification theory, the stimulus-response view and similar behaviourist comprehensions.

SEE ALSO

Behaviourism; Carey's transmission and ritual views of communication; Functionalist approach; Ritual view

READING

Carey (1989); Peters (2000)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Triple bottom line

TEXT

The basic principle that underlies the term triple bottom line is that an organisation should not only be concerned with profits (single or traditional bottom line) but also with social and environmental issues. The term triple bottom line was first introduced in 1994 by John Elkington (2004). Over the last twenty years, the popularity of the idea grew with the related business concepts of accountability, corporate citizenship, corporate social responsibility, sustainability and corporate governance. One internationally renowned advocate for the triple bottom line idea is the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) – an international organisation that promotes sustainability reporting and provides a reporting framework that is used by thousands of organisations across the world (GRI, 2012).

In South Africa, the well known King III Report on corporate governance refers to the triple bottom line as the triple context in which organisations are required to operate – people, profit and planet (IoDSA, 2009). This is a poetic paraphrasing of the three (social, environmental and economic) components underlining the term triple bottom line.

SEE ALSO

Accountability; corporate governance; corporate citizenship; black economic empowerment; charitable giving/donations; social development; corporate volunteerism; corporate social responsibility; corporate social investment; sponsorship; triple bottom line

READING

Elkington (2004); GRI (2012)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

IoDSA (2009); Steyn and De Beer (2012)

CONCEPT

Two-way asymmetrical model

TEXT

The third of Grunig's models of public relations, is the two-way asymmetrical model and as the name implies, this is the first of the two 'sophisticated' models of two-way communication for the practice of public relations for organisational communication management (Sriramesh et al., 1999). Even though this model applies two-way communication principles, Grunig et al. (1995) warns that one should not lose sight of the fact that two-way communication can still be manipulative in its nature. Less austere, Grunig and Hunt (1984) terms the model to busy itself with scientific persuasion, with feedback generated in the two-way communication process being employed to the design of persuasive messages aimed at manipulating stakeholders for the benefit of the organisation (Grunig et al., 1995; Guth, 1995; Morsing and Schultz, 2006; Sriramesh et al., 1999).

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; Grunig's models of public relations; press agency model; public information model; two-way symmetrical model

READING

Grunig and Grunig (1992); Grunig, Grunig, Sriramesh, Huang and Lyra (1995); Grunig and Hunt (1984); Guth (1995); Morsing and Schultz (2006); Sriramesh, Kim and Takasaki (1999)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Two-way symmetrical model

TEXT

The fourth and last model of public relations, as categorised by Grunig and Hunt (1984), is the two-way symmetrical model, which is thought to be the ideal model, as relative to its three counterparts (Sriramesh et al., 1999). The main reasoning behind this assertion, is that this model sees public relation practitioners in an organisational setting make use of the feedback gained from the two-way communication process to arrive at a mutual understanding with the organisation's stakeholders.

This mutual understanding is the result of symbiotic changes in the ideas, attitudes and behaviours of the organisation and its stakeholders, regarding conflicting aspects within the relationship. By a neutral observer, the symbiotic changes would be described as being to the benefit of both the organisation and its stakeholders (Grunig et al., 1995; Sriramesh et al., 1999). Public relations and communication management, in this instance, works towards a mutually beneficial relationship between the organisation and its stakeholders.

SEE ALSO

Organisational communication theory; Grunig's models of public relations; press agency model; public information model; one-way asymmetrical model

READING

Grunig and Grunig (1992); Grunig, Grunig, Sriramesh, Huang and Lyra (1995); Grunig and Hunt (1984); Guth (1995); Morsing and Schultz (2006); Sriramesh, Kim and Takasaki (1999)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Types of knowledge

TEXT

Guba and Lincoln (1994) identify four types of knowledge which define the nature of an approach to inquiry, including positivism, post positivism, critical theory and constructivism: positivism has an ontology which is naively realistic, an epistemology that adheres to objectivity and the possibility of finding universal realisms; post positivism, which is linked to positivism, supports the notion of an objective reality, which may be seen as imperfect and probabilistic and an estimated image of reality; critical theory include both postmodernism and poststructuralism, because the epistemology thereof supports the notion that inquiry is value determined and the ontology that reality is virtual and shaped by social, political, economic, ethnic and other factors which crystallise over time - accordingly there is no absolute real world because participants create it within their frame of reference and interact with their own creation; and constructivism differs from the critical theory in that it discards ontological realism in favour of ontological relativism by perceiving reality as a relative phenomenon, and is based on the notion that local and constructed realities exist. According to Yolles (2000) each of these approaches has its own axiomatic ontology and epistemology. Ontology involves beliefs about the form and nature of reality, and epistemology the nature of knowledge and the relationship between the knowers (those who know) and the knowing. Inquiry into organisations and environments are therefore dependent on knowledge, understanding and epistemological frame of reference, and the way in which it is dealt with, and is determined through epistemology and ontology.

SEE ALSO

Knowledge management; knowledge creation; knowledge sharing; data-mining.

READING

Lueg (2001); Styhre (2003).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2006a)

CONCEPT

Types of organisational culture

TEXT

The following types of culture are prevalent in an organisation: constructive, passive-defensive and aggressive-defensive organisational cultures. Constructive cultures are cultures in which employees and managers for example, are encouraged to interact constructively with one another in order to attain goals and to grow and develop. Hence, a constructive culture emphasises normative beliefs of achievement, self-actualisation, human encouragement and affiliation. Passive-defensive cultures reinforce the belief that employees need to act passively in order to secure their employment which reinforces normative beliefs associated with approval, traditional rules, dependence and avoidance. Aggressive-defensive cultures encourage employees to act in forceful ways in order to protect their status and job security and emphasises competition, perfectionism, power and opposition (Dozier and Repper 1992; Deal and Kennedy 2002).

SEE ALSO

Cultural diversity; elements of organisational culture; identity; culture.

READING

Deetz 1994; Triandis (1995); Livingstone, Allen and Reiner (2001); Ruddock (2001).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

Types of relationships

TEXT

Hon and Grunig (1999) differentiate between two types of relationships, namely: communal and exchange relationships. Communal relationships are those relationships where parties provide benefits to one another because they care about each other's welfare. Exchange relationships are relationships where parties provide benefits to each other because of what they expect in return. Hon and Grunig (1999) argue that the type of relationship influence the relationship outcomes. Hung (2005) researched the two types of relationships proposed by Hon and Grunig (1999) and as a result, new types of relationships emerged from the study, including: one-sided communal relationships, mutual communal relationships, covenantal relationships, exchange relationships, symbiotic relationships, contractual relationships, manipulative relationships and exploitative relationships. Hung (2005) also provided a continuum to indicate the range of relationships from concern for the other, to concern for the self with the mutual communal, covenantal and exchange relationships in the win-win zone.

SEE ALSO

Stakeholders; interpersonal relationships; relationship marketing; stakeholder claim; primary stakeholders; secondary stakeholders; shareholders; stakeholder analysis/map; stakeholder approach; stakeholder management

READING

Broom, Casey and Ritchey (1997; 2000); Bruning and Galloway (2003); Grunig (2002); Grunig and Huang (2000); Hon and Grunig (1999); Hung (2005); Jahansoozi (2006)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Greeff (2013)

CONCEPT

Union communication

TEXT

Unions are a collective of wage earning people that associate in order to maintain and/or improve their economic, social or political conditions. Such unions are then the unified voice of its members and bargains on employment and political issues (McKinnon, 2008). Unions also protect their members when it comes to issues of workers' safety and corporate fraud that affects workers negatively (Salinger, 2005). Unions are thus important activist groups that require management and communication from the management of organisations (Grunig & Grunig, 2008).

From an organisational communication perspective, the need to communicate with activists such as unions creates turbulence in the organisational environment. According to the excellence theory the turbulence created stimulates excellence in communication practices (Grunig & Grunig, 2008).

When considering union communication, two aspects are important – firstly, the communication between a union and a corporate organisation. Communication in this instance is usually in a formal setting and includes communication activities such as mediation, bargaining and negotiation. Secondly, union communication could also refer to communication within the union itself (Knapp & McCroskey, 1968).

SEE ALSO

Minority group, social movements, accountability, corporate governance, empowerment

READING

Knapp and McCroskey (1968); Salinger (2005); Grunig and Grunig (2008); McKinnon (2008)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Rensburg (2003)

CONCEPT

Variables of cyber identity

TEXT

In addition to the characteristics of cyber identity discussed earlier, the following main variables of cyber identity can also be identified based on an interpretation of existing literature: power (certain stakeholders can obtain power through interconnectedness and positioning to gain greater urgency by sharing contents online); asynchronous communication (provide individuals the opportunity to reflect on insights while reacting to and engaging with each other); social capital (relationships within and between networks have value through bonding, bridging and linking); trust and belonging (creating cyber identities based on expertise and experience and participation); multiplicity and multidimensionality (different layers of cyber identity); impersonal nature (may lead to impoverished form of socialisation); temporal (time factors); duration of relationships (length of time); salience (the significance of being seen in a particular way); ideology (an individual's beliefs, opinions and attitudes to the cyber identity); narratives (to reveal inner thoughts, desires and feelings); connectivity versus isolation (if individuals feel isolated, they might feel disconnected from peers and the organisation); narratives (through story telling); centrality (which refers to the extent to which an individual defines him/herself through interconnectedness); and relational ties and intimacy (formed in the group) (Oztok, 2014; Sedereviciute and Valentini, 2011; Brown, 2011; Buckingham, 2007; Deetz, 1994; Moeng, 2009).

It is argued that cyber identities are influenced by these immanent, nonlinear, relational and contextual variables which form a transcendental and real realm in this space. From the constant incurrence of changes in the cyber organizational societies, these variables influence the presentation of multiple identities to feel part of and adapt to the in-group of out-group in the cyber organizational society.

SEE ALSO

Cyberspace; cyber organisational societies.

READING

Rimskii (2011); Oztok (2012); Sedereviciute and Valentini (2011); Lawler (2005); Marckwick and Fill (1997).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Bornman (2004); Barker (2014)

CONCEPT

Virtual communities/blogging communities

TEXT

The most widely used and prominent terms used in online social networks are virtual communities and blogging communities. Although a significant number of organisations have looked at their strategic orientation of business activities using the internet more prevalently, limited results have been obtained. The phenomenon which has reaped the most success on the internet according to Flavian and Guinaliu (2005) is the analysis of virtual communities, which grew exponentially through the World Wide Web (WWW) and electronic mail, chat rooms or instant message systems. Virtual communities (VC), which can be seen as personal relationships in cyberspace where computer-mediated space integrates/facilitates knowledge creation and sharing where these communities are characterized by groups of people with more or less specific, complex and common goals, value systems, norms, rules and a sense of identity which they want to enhance through electronic communication. Subsequently five types of VCs are recognised: business-to-business (B2B), business-to-consumer (B2C), business-to-employee (B2E), employee-to-employee (E2E) and consumer-to-consumer (C2C).

Most studies on virtual communities is devoted to the evaluation of behaviour and usage of virtual communities drawing from methodology of the social sciences, particularly social anthropology and ethnography, also referred to as electronic or virtual ethnography (Phippen, 2004). Various key terminologies are used to describe this, namely 'brand communities', 'communities of interest', 'virtual communities of consumption' or 'Internet cultures', the most

widely used term is virtual communities and blogging communities. In this context, virtual communities refer to personal relationships in cyberspace where computer-mediated space integrates/facilitates knowledge creation and sharing through various participants with more or less specific, complex and common goals, value systems, norms, rules and a sense of identity that they want to enhance through electronic communication.

Blogging communities, also referred to as blogospheres (White, Chu and Salehi-Abari 2010:662), are similar to virtual communities with the main differences that it has no shared space, clear boundary or membership and is driven by personalities. Blogging communities can therefore be defined as 'virtual communities which allow members to post blogs on their website where blogs are an online version of people's daily diary, which allow anyone to share his or her thoughts and experiences' (Kim et al 2011: 1760).

Where virtual communities encourage many-to-many communication, blogging communities encourage one-to-many communication with less interaction than virtual communities.

SEE ALSO

Web-based communication; integrated online communication

READING

Grosz (2001); Styhre (2003); Turkle (1995)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Barker (2006a); Barker (2008); Du Plessis (2006)

CONCEPT

Web-based communication

TEXT

The World Wide Web (WWW) offers organisations the opportunity to build relationships with their consumers and stakeholders through web-based communication which can be used to offer diverse information on a variety of organisation information and services. Web-based communication (also referred to as digital or online communication) is one of the tools/elements of IMC and in the general field of marketing communication because it makes interactivity in rich information setting possible (Assael, 2004; Ouwensloot and Duncan, 2008; Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells, 2009; Belch and Belch, 2012). Despite the growing importance of web-based communication as an online communication tool, research found that web sites are limited in terms of communication with consumers and employees during a crisis, but emphasise the importance to use it as an additional means to and not replace the use of traditional media (Greer and Moreland, 2003). Although most organisations today primarily rely on the use of all elements of the marketing mix to move products and services through IMC, an increasing number of organisations are going directly to the consumer through direct marketing which is increasingly possible through web-based communication on the Internet to convey information, create awareness and to create immediate behavioural responses and/or transactions.

SEE ALSO

Integrated marketing communication; cyberspace; social networks; technology; World Wide Web.

READING

Hurme (2001); Witmer (2000); Kitchen (1999); Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells (2009); Sherwin and Avila (1997); Belch and Belch (2012).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

Van Niekerk (1997); Hanekom (2013); Du Plessis (2004; 2006); Angelopulo & Barker (2005); Crispin (2013); Howie, Muller & Paterson (2005)

CONCEPT

Weber's three types of authority

TEXT

In discussing bureaucracy as concept in this book, it was mentioned that Max Weber himself, notwithstanding his profound influence on the field, was not an organisational scholar, but rather a philosopher and sociologist. Many of his musings and research centred on the aspect of authority, and it is his interest in the manner in which the authority of monarchies and feudal systems was replaced by that of the capitalist state, that lead to the emergence of the bureaucratic theory in the first place. Weber's speculations regarding the types of legitimate authority in social systems therefore, antedate his bureaucratic theory, but impacts on organisational communication literature just as profoundly – for example in managerial and leadership communication study.

In terms of defining legitimate authority, Weber (1978) disengages the terms power and authority from each other, stating that where power is the ability to exercise will despite the opposition of others, authority refers to the development of a system that allows leaders to legitimately exercise dominance over a group of people who fall within that system (see also Mumby, 2013). Making further distinction, and to explicate the concept of authority, Weber (1978) identifies three types of legitimate authority, delineated below in Table 16.

Table 16: Weber's three types of authority and their application to organisational communication

>>> **Insert Table 16 here**<<<

SEE ALSO

Bureaucracy; leadership/management; responsible leader; leadership styles; leadership theories

READING

Aldrich (2008); Mumby (2013); Weber (1979)

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

CONCEPT

World Wide Web

TEXT

The World Wide Web (WWW) is a hypermedia information storage system that links resources around the world to allow users to create or share information needed to access computer software and programs, and to communicate interactively. A particular site can have a number of graphic images and text that can contain 'hot links' or 'hyper links' which will take the user to another site where they can acquire further information (Hurme, 2001; Witmer, 2000; Kitchen, 1999; Sherwin and Avila, 1997). An outstanding feature of the WWW is hypertext, which provides for a hypermedia environment where information can be presented with pictures, animation, sound and text to a global target audience. Although the terms Internet and WWW are often used intertwined, they differ in that the Internet is a global system of interconnected computer networks and the WWW is one of the services that operates on the Internet, therefore it is a collection of text documents and other resources, linked by hyperlinks and URLs, usually accessed by web browsers from web servers (Berners-Lee, 1999).

SEE ALSO

Technology; web-based communication.

READING

Berners-Lee (1999); Hurme (2001); Witmer (2000); Kitchen (1999); Sherwin and Avila (1997).

SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLICATIONS

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