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AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF COMMUNICATION ROLES AS
PREDICTORS OF JOB SATISFACTION AND MANAGEMENT PREFERENCE

The University of Oklahoma

PH.D.

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AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF COMMUNICATION ROLES
AS PREDICTORS OF JOB SATISFACTION AND
MANAGEMENT PREFERENCE

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY
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degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

BY
LARRY WAYNE LONG
Norman, Oklahoma

1979

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF COMMUNICATION ROLES AS
PREDICTORS OF JOB SATISFACTION AND
MANAGEMENT PREFERENCE

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AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF COMMUNICATION ROLES
AS PREDICTORS OF JOB SATISFACTION AND
MANAGEMENT PREFERENCE

BY: LARRY W. LONG

MAJOR PROFESSOR: H. WAYLAND CUMMINGS, Ph.D.

This investigation explored ways in which communication roles and actor properties are related to job satisfaction and management preferences of organizational members. Expectations relating communication role and actor variables with job satisfaction and management preference were generated from a functional model of communication roles. It was determined that communication role enactment and actor properties are highly significant predictors of expressed levels of job satisfaction and preferences for Theory X and interpersonal relations-oriented management philosophies. Specifically, the data analyses showed that source-receiver and task-socio-emotional distinctions in role enactment and actor properties were most effective for predicting the criterion variables selected for the study.

The research design permitted the development of reliability indices for factor structures and predictive validity for the Communication Role Assessment Measure (Cummings, Long, and Lewis, 1979). This favorable assessment lends credence to the rationale and justification for functional communication role research.

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CHAPTER I

COMMUNICATION ROLES IN ORGANIZATIONS

Communication, according to Likert (1967), is an intervening variable that is affected by antecedent variables such as managerial leadership and organizational climate. These antecedent and intervening variables are said to affect such end-result variables as productivity, earnings, and market performance. In defining intervening variables, Likert (1973) stated:

The intervening, or intermediate variables reflect the internal state and health of the organization, for example, the loyalties, attitudes, motivations, performance goals, and perceptions of all members and their collective capacity for effective interaction, communication, and decision-making (p. 10).

When one assesses intervening variables, the clear implication is that assessment of the organizational climate is primary. Goldhaber, et. al., (1978) characterize this research as emphasizing perceptual and attitudinal states of communication in the organization. An examination of the relationships between communication in the organization, satisfaction of its members, and an understanding of managerial leadership styles ought to assist in understanding what Likert terms the antecedent and "intervening" variables.

A somewhat different approach to the study of organizations is oriented toward an understanding of information flows. Here, communication roles are emphasized, concentrating on the social and psychological properties of people who occupy those roles (Sutton and Porter, 1968; MacDonald, 1971; Roberts and O'Reilly, 1975; Richards, 1976).

Goldhaber, et. al., (1978) argue that we understand more about specific attributes of network roles, and considerably less about the comparative distribution of those roles. Further, the concept of roles appearing in organizational communication research (Richards, 1976) is extremely limited when compared to the richness of the concept represented in sociology and social psychology (Sarbin and Allen, 1969). For example, Richards (1976) identifies what he calls "group roles," "bridge roles," "liaison roles," and "isolate roles." All of these concepts of role are operationalized in terms of the amount of interaction in which an organizational member participates, i.e., interacting primarily within a group (group role), interacting primarily with other groups (bridge role), interacting primarily with two or more groups but not a member of any one group (liason role), and interacting very little with any group (isolate role).

Such an approach to role concepts in communication limit to a large degree the kinds of communication variables which can be related to role constructs. For example, few researchers, if any, seek to establish a relationship between an employee's

perception of communication roles and preference for management philosophy.

This study will offer an alternative taxonomy of roles, emphasizing communication activities and perceptions in the organization, permitting a more complete accounting of those intervening variables which reflect the state of health of an organization.

Specifically, we will ask how an employee's communication roles relate to such concepts as job satisfaction and management preference. Two narrower research questions will be investigated: (1) To what extent is an employee's level of job satisfaction dependent on certain communication roles? (2) To what extent is an employee's Theory X and interpersonal relations-oriented management preference predicted by a knowledge of involvement in certain communication roles?

These questions will be assessed through an analysis of the employee's role enactment (number of roles played, involvement and comfort level in the roles, and the amount of time spent in each role) and role skills. Communication roles will then be compared to the employee's expressed level of job satisfaction and management preference.

This chapter is divided into two major sections. Based on a discussion of traditional approaches to communication in organizations and suggested implications of psychological and sociological orientations, the development of organizational communication research will first be presented. This survey of

the development of organizational communication will illustrate limitations of the research conducted in the past. This discussion will consider traditional and theoretic (psychological and sociological) perspectives that have been taken by those persons concerned with communication in the organizational setting. Second, a "functional" approach to research in organizational communication will include a discussion of "function," and how it is related to communication. This second section will introduce concepts and variables of communication and role theory, and lead to a model for organizational communication role research.

The Development of Organizational Communication Research

The review of literature relating communication and job satisfaction suggests that much effort has yielded a large amount of scattered and unintegrated results. The following account of the development of organizational communication points to the need for creation of a model to direct efforts in organizational communication research.

Traditional Approaches in Organizational Communication Research

The 1950's were characterized by message studies such as those focusing on message distortions and message accuracy. In the 1960's, organizational climate became central; studies

focused on variables such as trust, openness, and job satisfaction. In the 1970's we found a multiplicity of topics and theoretic approaches, defying simple classification (Richetto, 1977).

Cummings, Long, and Lewis (1979) indicate three general approaches representative of organizational communication literature: Communication as carriers of meaning, communication as an "effector," and communication as flow patterns. Many approaches to organizational communication have been primarily concerned with skill development, such as writing, presentations, interviewing techniques, and report preparation. Baird (1977) viewed communication as a carrier of meaning from one person to another. Ellis (1977) perceived communication as an instrument to achieve desired effects (often organizational goals). Luthans (1973), Goldhaber (1974), Wofford, Gerloff, and Cummins (1977), Schreider, Donaghy, and Newman (1975), and Zelko and Dance (1978) take the position that communication is viewed best as flow patterns of information.

Critical problems exist in these traditional approaches. Applying principles of communication from the "meaning" approach (Baird, 1977) is rather ambiguous scientifically since there is difficulty in validly measuring the accuracy of the transfer of meaning. At the same time, other perspectives of communication emphasize "effects," i.e., attitude and behavior change (Ellis, 1977). A view of communication as "flow patterns" places emphasis on such concerns as communication

overload (Farace, Monge, and Russell, 1977). In essence, there is a tendency for these approaches to fail to view communication ". . . in relation to the social system. . . and the specific function it performs in that system" (Katz and Kahn, 1978, p. 429), particularly in relation to its psychological and sociological impact. The implication is that narrow theoretic restrictions of the researchers fail to offer an explication of organizations with sufficient power to enhance our understanding of the full richness of the communication act.

Psychological and Sociological
Perspectives of Organizational
Communication Theory

The social sciences, especially communication and organizational theory, are concerned with human behavior. The "parent" disciplines in the behavioral sciences--psychology and sociology--tend to lead researchers to select one or the other approach when viewing organizational communication (Moore, 1968). Each orientation provides different guidelines to the kinds of questions and answers the researcher will investigate. For example, an organizational communication scientist with a psychological orientation focuses on worker needs, satisfaction, motivation, and how communication serves those individual foci. With a sociological orientation, the researcher focuses on structure, design, group relationships, power constituencies, and how communication serves the social interdependencies. Likewise, the communication researcher

with a psychological orientation examines how self-concept, self-talk, communication apprehension, and communication satisfaction affects the social system of the organization. Those with a sociological orientation analyze how group communication, networks, and environmental effects on communication contribute to task achievement. What is needed is an integrating, theoretic perspective which shows how both contributions are possible.

An assumption in this study is that organizational communication research is limited when viewed as an either/or relationship between psychology and sociology. To examine organizational communication with one orientation to the exclusion of the other is conceptually restrictive. Many sociologists and psychologists prefer to view themselves as a combination of the two orientations; however, the "bottom line" is often more reflective of the extreme positions than is stated in appropriate disclaimers in their scholarly activities. If one is to believe that communication is both psychological and sociological, then there should be a basis for integrating individual and social principles in the organization. Communication scholars must find a way to look at the organization as a social system and its impact on the individual, and simultaneously view individual behavior and its impact on the organization as a social instrument. The symbolic dimensions of communication study encompass the concerns of psychologists who emphasize individual needs and the concerns of sociologists

emphasize individual needs and the concerns of sociologists who highlight properties of roles, norms, and social structure.

A Functional Approach to Research in Organizational Communication

Communication is conceptualized as the symbolic exchange between two or more people.* The way people use symbols provides information about both psychological experience and social life. Communication is psychological in that it elicits meaning in the minds of participants (Baird, 1977). Communication is sociological in that it provides information about a social network of relationships (Hicks, 1973). Thus, organizational communication research may be viewed as psychologically and sociologically targeted assessment of the function of communication.

The delineation of specific functions of symbols will permit us to view communication roles as a definable set which interfaces between behavioral roles identified by an organization and the properties of symbols in human experience. Symbolic exchange will be described in the form of communication roles for information-sharing, solution-seeking, negotiation (conflict resolution), and behavior changing (Cummings, Long, and Lewis, 1979). The use of the term "communication role" emphasizes how individuals, groups, and organizations "use"

*The use of the term "symbolic" should not be construed to be identified with language or linguistics, although an understanding of language is useful in understanding the nature and function of symbols (Lotz, 1956).

symbols as they communicate. Organizational theorists describe the integration processes in organizations as those found in sub-systems of production, support, maintenance, adaptation, and management (Katz and Kahn, 1973). Organizations find it useful to describe the roles within these sub-systems. For example, the organization will describe the roles of production supervisor, personnel manager, supply superintendent, or accounting personnel in relation to the successful achievement of the organizational mission. This study will describe concerns in relation to organizational integration through the operationalization of communication roles.

A taxonomy of communication roles would permit us to ask what communicative roles are associated with production, support, maintenance, and adaptive sub-systems. More specifically, it would permit us to ask what communicative roles are associated with being a production supervisor, personnel manager, supply superintendent, or accountant. The successful integration of principles of communication with principles of organizational behavior require a two-tiered approach to role definition--a theory of communication roles interfacing with a theory of organizational roles.

From a systems perspective, a combination of functions of symbols in communication with role theory will permit a message-centered, functional analysis of communication in organizations with the capacity to integrate psychological and

sociological concerns. This approach will consider the fundamental properties of a system, especially structure and function. In this section, the functions of communication will be explicated, and a communication role taxonomy will be presented after a discussion of the variables inherent in role theory and communication.

The awareness of "systems" in the "hard" sciences has influenced investigation of variables in the "soft" sciences. The value of a systems approach to research in organizational communication is in the opportunity to combine psychological and sociological perspectives in a new way. Systems concepts assist in understanding, although it is not yet justifiable by the hard criteria of a mature science but necessary for continuing the search. Rapoport (1975) defines a soft system as "a portion of the world that is perceived as a unit and that is able to maintain its 'identity' in spite of changes going on in it" (p. 46). The advantage of the functional approach to communication in organizations is found in its heuristic aspect--the ability to provide intellectual points of leverage for investigations. When the human being is considered as a system, the limits of investigation tend to be psychological. Here, we analyze symbols as an expression of perceptual and cognitive experience (Cummings and Renshaw, 1979). When several individuals are considered as a system, psychological properties of symbol using tend to be ignored, and the social properties of communication as symbolic exchange tend frequently to be

sociological. The intellectual "point of leverage," then, is directed at the relationship between the symbols used by individual systems and the symbols exchanged by social systems.

Fundamental Properties of a System

The three fundamental properties of a system are structure, function, and change (Rapoport, 1975). Structure consists of inter-related parts within the system. A system reacts to changes in the environment, that is, it functions. And, a system undergoes slow, long term changes--it grows, develops, or evolves, or it degenerates, disintegrates, and dies. The human being and the human organization meet criteria for the "soft" definition of a system (Rapoport, 1975; Parsons, 1961).

Structure

The concept of structure addresses the patterning of roles in organizations when the organization is considered as the "system." When the single human being is considered as a "system," structure can be conceived of as the patterning of psychological attributes. In this way, structure may be regarded as time-bound in that the pattern of attributes is descriptive of a system at a single point in time. As such, structure analysis is considered to be relatively static in systemic terminology.

Function

The concept of function dynamically extends the more static concept of structure (Parsons, 1965). Four general meanings of function are found in the literature: (1) Activity of task performance of an object or entity, (2) a relation of interdependence between activities, (3) a consequence or an aggregate of consequences of structures across time, and (4) interdependence of a special quality such as mechanisms for the maintenance of a system (Isajiw, 1968).

The first meaning of function is the least complicated and the one most often used. Unfortunately, it is frequently used interchangeably with other concepts. Its usage has become popular because it is the most readily understood by the non-academician.

The second meaning is derived from mathematical concepts. It refers to quantitative aspects of a variable in relation to quantitative aspects of another variable upon which its value depends (Isajiw, 1968).

The third meaning considers function in the sense of interacting structures and their consequences. Consequences refer to observable and objective "results." Hence, "functions" acquire a positive or negative valence. Functions, then, are observed consequences which make for the adaptation or adjustment of a system (Merton, 1957).

The fourth meaning of function is the most used among social scientists. This usage of function refers to the

fulfillment of the system's needs. As Isajiw (1968) states, "The prevalent meaning of the term implies the idea of orientation towards satisfaction of needs" (p. 75). On the surface, there is ambiguity in defining "function" in this way. Acts or behaviors which contribute to need satisfaction might be the result of sub-system relations, de-emphasizing adaptation to the environment. Thus, unsatisfied needs are attributable to faulty relationships between components of the system and may be termed as "functional" or "dysfunctional." On the other hand, need states which are the result of environmental changes may not indicate functional or dysfunctional states of the system. Rather, the system is seen as seeking to gain some form of stability, or harmony, with a turbulent environment. In this way, the source of needs for satisfaction are to be found in the environmental-sub-system interaction.

The distinction between function and purpose is not always clear. Bergmann (1962) indicates that the use of the term function has "problematic" and "unproblematic" meanings which are largely determined by the scientist's differentiation between function and purpose. Dance and Larson (1962) argued that function was different from purpose. They argued that a function occurs when an event is the inevitable and natural result of something, while purpose is that which can be done with something (p. 63). They illustrated by saying that heat is the "inevitable result of the dissipation of energy."

Dissipation of energy always results in heat, although one should not say that heat is the "purpose" of dissipation of energy. At the same time, heat may be used to "melt ice," but the melting of ice is not an inevitable result of "heat." Thus, the melting of ice is a purpose for heat, but not the function of heat.

When we define an act as a function, we may, sometimes, attribute purpose to acts. For example, we might consider communication as "persuasive," and conclude that "persuasion" is a function of communication advocating it as "an inevitable result of the communication act." However, when we view a person attempting to "persuade" us, we often ascribe intent or purpose. The "problematic" meaning of function here is attributable in large part to the many uses of the meaning of "intent." On the other hand, an "unproblematic" meaning might conclude that persuasion as a function of communication embraces both; that is, persuasion is an inevitable result of communication and can be said to have purpose. The use of the term "function" here is in the "unproblematic" sense; that is, a function refers to both the inevitable result of something else and is capable of being ascribed as having purpose. Later it will be necessary to come back to this distinction when discussing the meaning of intrinsic and extrinsic functions.

Earlier, Isajiw was cited as indicating a prevalent meaning for function is its orientation toward satisfaction of needs. It is possible through "pressing" the analogy a

bit, to speak of the dissipation of energy "needing" to generate heat. This is quite different from asserting that heat "needs" to melt ice. The problem with the word "need" is as difficult to handle as that of "function."

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Functions

Katz and Kahn (1978) distinguished between what they called the intrinsic and extrinsic functions of organizations. For them, the intrinsic functions of an organization referred to the interaction of sub-systems within the organization (e.g., selection, placement, and management of personnel). Such intrinsic functions included what was described earlier by Likert as antecedent and "intervening" variables. Katz and Kahn's extrinsic functions of organizations are what Likert terms "end-result" variables which ". . . reflect the achievements of the organization, such as its productivity, costs, scrap loss, earnings, and market performance" (p. 10). For Likert, job satisfaction and communication were intervening variables, and, thus, intrinsic functions of the organization.

One could not seriously contend that "productivity" is an "inevitable result" of organizations, but one might say that "productivity" is a purpose of organizations. Of course, non-productivity might be a purpose of organizations. On the other hand, "communication" might be considered an "inevitable result" of organizations, or of any social gathering.

The distinguishing property of intrinsic and extrinsic functions is dependent upon two things: (1) What systemic

level are we discussing, i.e., individual, group, organization, or society, and (2) Is the activity an "inevitable result" of the system, or is it a purpose of that system? When describing the function of an individual, those activities which are the "inevitable result" of that individual system are termed "intrinsic functions." Those activities which are the "purpose" of that individual system shall be termed the extrinsic function. This is somewhat different from Katz and Kahn's definition, particularly their view that intrinsic functions refer to the interaction of sub-systems within the organization. While Katz and Kahn might not have intended to exclude what we describe here, they did not specifically state this position. However, this point of view may be implied from their distinctions between intrinsic and extrinsic functions when viewed in the context of defining function and purpose.

Earlier, communication was described as the symbolic exchange between two or more persons. Symbols function intrinsically as markers of human experience (Cummings and Renshaw, 1979). At the same time, these symbols function extrinsically for a single individual when relating to one or more other individuals. For dyads, however, communication (symbolic exchange) is an intrinsic function to that dyad, but may have extrinsic functions in meeting purposive needs for that dyad. The same, of course, holds for groups, organizations, and perhaps even societies. At each level, intrinsic functions refer to the use of symbols or symbolic exchange (communication)

which are the inevitable result of that system. At the same time, extrinsic functions refer to the use of symbols or symbolic exchange (communication) which express the intent or purpose of that system when adapting to need states identified in the environment.

The Functions of Communication

Communication functions in recurrent and discernible ways for those involved in communicative activity. According to Dance (1979), human communication functions intrinsically to link an individual with the environment, develop higher mental processes, and regulate human behavior. One may argue that these are not all of the intrinsic functions of human communication, nor do they encompass even the relevant extrinsic functions of communication. Considerable evidence exists that symbols have information value (Cummings and Renshaw, 1979), assist in problem-solving behavior of individuals (Guilford, 1967), are useful in resolving conflict (Berlyne, 1958), and hold persuasive qualities (McGuire, 1969). Likewise, organizational theory emphasizes information as a basis of power (Cartwright, 1965), problem-solving (Taylor, 1965), conflict management (Davis, 1972), and persuasion (Koehler, Anatol, Applbaum, 1976). Thus, the analysis of functional uses of communication should add much to our understanding of communication in organizations, and ultimately provide a basis for making communication behavior a central construct, rather than the communication setting (Miller, 1978).

Communication As Symbols of Experience

While the act of "communication" is not unique to humans, it appears to be quite certain that its symbolic character has unique qualities for humans. Although the term "experience" is somewhat nebulous, scientific research requires operationalization of our term to allow its study scientifically.

Symbols are arbitrary indicators of human experience, both real and imagined, whose referential properties can include one's self and others, animate and inanimate objects, internal or external, rewards or punishments, liking or disliking, in motion or static, located in time, disposed or indicative, as "is" or "is not" (Cummings and Renshaw, 1979).

Cummings and Renshaw suggest that experience is composed of an awareness of ourselves and others, and of those entities in our environment which are animate or merely objects. We are aware of things that "go on inside of us or others" and of those things we can observe externally. We can symbolize that which is rewarding or punishing. We can symbolize whether we like or dislike ourselves, objects, or others. We can perceive that our experiences are unchanging or changing, and that experience can be located in our past, present, or future. We can experience not only what was, is, or will be (indicative), but what might have been, might be, or could happen in the future (dispositional). Finally, we can experience not only

what is, was, or will be, but what is not, was not, or will not be.

At the level of the individual, symbolized experience gives rise to "meaning" of messages exchanged in communication. On the organizational level, symbolized experience gives rise to "organizational intelligence" (Johnson, 1977), or consensual meaning among group members. Hence, the way a system arrays its experiences through the use of symbols is quite significant. For an individual or social group, the information function of communication has both intrinsic and extrinsic properties; that is, information is an inevitable result of symbolic behavior, and its usage can be said to imply purpose when symbols are produced in the presence of others or other social groups.

Communication As Symbols to Seek Solutions

Numerous ideal types of how to seek solutions to problems have been suggested. Some of the most recent ones have included the work of Dewey (1933) who argued for the reflective thinking process of problem solving. An abbreviated version of the reflective thinking process is sequenced such that (1) a difficulty is felt, (2) the problem is defined in terms of its nature and scope, (3) criteria for solutions are considered, (4) possible solutions are devised and evaluated, and (5) a solution is accepted. Work done by subsequent researchers either confirms Dewey's position, or makes minor variations (Guilford, 1967).

The solution-seeking process involves: (1) Symbolic exploration of our experience to define the nature and scope of the problem and (2) a symbolic search for our experience for solutions to those problems (Cummings, Long, and Lewis, 1979). Intrinsically, when the frame of reference is the individual, this function is a bio-psychological process (Guilford, 1967). When the frame of reference is a social group or an organization, it is a decision-making process intrinsic to the social system or group. Extrinsically, the function of solution-seeking is to change some undesirable condition for a desirable state, and to maintain the satisfying condition as long as possible. For example, when an individual works because the paycheck received functions to buy articles, we might say that the satisfaction derived from the work is gained from the extrinsic nature of the job (Herzberg, 1966). When an organization assesses ways to increase profits, the possible dividends are related to the organization's extrinsic function, i.e., seeking solutions to problems about how to increase receipts.

Communication As Symbols to Resolve Controversies

When a person or organization seeks solutions to problems, typically--but not always--more than one solution will emerge. When one solution is clearly better than the others, there tends to be little difficulty in the resolution of conflicts. If everyone saw the world in the same way (i.e., in

effect having the same experiences and same meaning) there might be considerably less to concern us. However, individuals and organizations find solution-seeking intensified because often there are many ways to reach an "end-state." VonBertalanffy's (1950) principle of "equifinality" indicates that a system can reach the same final state from a variety of paths. As individuals and organizations move toward regulatory mechanisms to control their operations, the diversity of initial conditions may be reduced (Katz and Kahn, 1978). In a very important sense, the process of resolving controversy is a process of reducing uncertainty, i.e., random initial states. As the uncertainty of a solution increases, a potential for controversy will tend to increase. When an individual or organization is uncertain about the best solution to a problem, there is a degree of anxiety or apprehension within the system.

From a communication perspective, symbols function to focus our experience and enable a kind of "solution-fitting" activity. Berger (1972) states that a ". . . basic assumption. . . is that role enactment is a communication activity which occupies much of man's time" (p. 260). This adjustment process is a kind of simulated, trial-and-error activity, a symbolic "negotiation" with our experience, both on an individual level and an organizational level. Ultimately, the validity of the solution is critical. Solutions which produce dissatisfying experience in the future will promote the

re-emergence of controversy and the whole process of solution-seeking and resolution of conflict will reappear. Solutions will produce satisfying experience in the future tend to resolve controversy surrounding the specific problem.

Communication As Symbols to Change Behavior

Symbols also change behaviors; that is, they have a persuasive function. Dance and Larson (1972) called this a regulatory function. Symbols are instruments to change our own and other people's experience. The symbols we use in our communication have an effect, intentionally or unintentionally, on ourselves and those around us. Our symbols serve to focus our memory, even distorting and changing it. Self-persuasion research clearly implies this process (Widgery and Miller, 1972). Persuasion is both an intrinsic and extrinsic function of symbols. The extrinsic function is generally concerned with a system's purposeful behavior aimed at changing the behaviors of another system. An example is found in Kelman's (1958) work. He described what he called the process of socialization, what is viewed here as a policy-based style of changing behaviors.

Kelman spoke of compliance, identification, and internalization as basic to socialization. Compliance is based on the use of rewards and punishments for the purposes of changing behavior. The assumption made in this "style" of behavior change is that there is an instinct to seek rewards and avoid

punishments. For example, people "behave" in certain ways because they would rather have a job than be fired, more money than less, and praise rather than scorn. When we communicate, we can symbolically reward or punish ourselves, or others. From the point of view expressed here, only the target of change (self or others) distinguishes its intrinsic or extrinsic function.

Identification is based on the use of a "liking" relationship to change behavior. Hence, if we "like" the source of a message, it is more likely that we will behave in harmony with the source than if we dislike the source.

Internalization is based on the use of "shared experiences" to change behavior. We may change our behavior because we hold similar experiences with those who wish to change us. Also, we may refuse to change our behavior because our experiences are "too different" from those who seek to change us. Many organizations attempt to shape the environment by using techniques that enhance the propensity for organizational members to internalize organizational goals (e.g., participative management).

In summary, the functions of symbols in communication include: Symbols as an information-sharing function representing human experience, symbols as a tool for decision-making, symbols as a tool to resolve controversies, and symbols as a tool to change behavior. These recurrent and discernible functions have intrinsic and extrinsic properties relative to the

individual, the group, or the organization. Intrinsic functions are concerned with how communication "works" within a specified system, and are "inevitable results" of symbolic behavior. Extrinsic functions are concerned with how a system uses communication to satisfy needs in the environment requiring adaptation; that is, how symbols are used purposefully.

Role Theory Variables and Communication

An earlier section (Chapter I, pp. 2-3) concluded that role theory has received only limited use in communication studies of organizations. In order to associate the functions of communication to organizational behavior, an overview and re-examination of role theory will provide insights necessary for this study.

Rommetveit (1955) regards the concept of role as the "theoretical point of articulation between psychology and sociology," in the sense that it is the "largest possible research unit in the former and the smallest possible within the latter" (p. 31). The constructs of role theory and variables inherent in roles present a key to integrating both perspectives for communication research. The term "role" has been chosen as a metaphor to represent observations of communication activity. However, identified roles such as "bridge" and "liason" do not lend to our understanding of how this "theoretic point of articulation" can be understood.

A communication role itself does not determine how a person in a given situation will "behave." Auxiliary metaphors such as role enactment, role skill, and role expectations are more descriptive of a person's behavior (Sarbin and Allen, 1969). For example, we may speak of a person's "role enactment" when that person is using symbols as an indicator of experience, to seek solutions to problems, to resolve controversies, and to change future behavior. In this manner, role enactment becomes descriptive of behaviors exhibited when individuals perform roles of information sharing, solution-seeking, negotiation, and behavior change. Additionally, the functional communication roles may be further divided into source, receiver, task, and socio-emotional roles. (See Figure 1, Chapter I) For example, a person may enact the communication role of sending task-related messages to seek solutions to task problems. In sum, this study seeks to describe the relationship between sixteen communication roles and job satisfaction and management preference.

In the past roles have received relatively little attention in symbol-using approaches to the study of organizational communication. Earlier we cited Richard's (1976) position regarding liaison, non-liaison, and bridge roles in organizational communication. MacDonald (1976) used these roles to study communication in an organizational setting. These roles (liaison, non-liaison, and bridge) primarily addressed sociologically-based communication questions, not

related in any way to the use of symbols. The psychological properties of individuals were largely ignored. Conversely, the psychological approach (Koehler, 1976) tends to ignore many meaningful sociological dimensions of the organization. What is needed is the concept of roles applied to communication which combines both psychologically and sociologically revealing questions, and takes seriously Rommetveit's assertion about roles as a theoretical point of articulation. "To the extent that choice of concepts can contribute to so complex a synthesis, the concept of role is singularly promising" (Katz and Kahn, 1978, p. 171).

Although role perspectives have been used in organizational research, little or no attempt has been made to develop a consistent, integrated, or complete theoretic model of communication roles. Katz and Kahn (1978), as organizational theorists, have considered human interaction to be but one part of the "taking of organizational roles."

An important consideration is how the role concept might relate to our earlier discussion of functions. As a vehicle for understanding symbolic behavior in communication, the concept of role seems at first to hold no value. However, we defined communication as a symbolic exchange between two or more people. Whenever two or more people interact, a role is played by each person as an inevitable result of communication activity. The act of "playing" some role is intrinsic to any communication incident. At the same time, however, a

person may "take on" a role for a purpose. And, of course, this implies that a role may have an extrinsic function. How the functions of communication relate to roles as a functional entity in the organization will be discussed later. For now, the way in which roles may associate psychological with social states of a system is required in order to appreciate the way psychology and sociology assist in understanding communication in organizations. Communication scientists might best focus on the variables and constructs inherent in communication roles and actors who occupy those roles as a means of integrating psychological and sociological questions (Cummings, Long, and Lewis, 1979).

Role Theory Variables

As indicated earlier, the term "role" was chosen to represent observations of communication activity. The purpose of this section is to describe certain auxiliary metaphors which are useful. Among the many concepts studied by role theorists, we shall consider role enactment, role expectations, role location, role demand, role skills, and self-role congruence (Sarbin and Allen, 1969). This review will provide the basis for the analysis of communication roles.

Role Enactment

Role enactment is concerned with what a person says and does in a particular setting. Sarbin and Allen (1968) discuss three areas of role enactment. The first is "number

of roles." Sociologists argue that the more roles actors have in their repertoire, the better prepared they will be to meet the exigencies of social life. Role theorists call this "role versatility." The second area is "organismic involvement." The point to be made is that actors enact roles with a level of involvement that may be non-existent or minimal (ritualistic) to a more intense involvement level of "bewitchment." The third area is concerned with the "pre-emptiveness (time) of roles." The amount of time one spends in one role can be viewed relative to the amount of time that same person spends in other roles. Simultaneously, any social group may have certain roles which, if occupied by someone, pre-empts others from taking on that role. For example, when an individual occupies a "source role" in a communication setting, this pre-empts others from occupying that same role. Communication role research, then, is concerned with the number of communication roles played, involvement level, and the time an individual spends in any role.

Role Expectations

Role expectations are comprised of rights and privileges, the duties and obligations, of any occupant of a social system in relation to persons occupying other positions in the social structure (Sarbin and Allen, 1968). Role expectations will vary in their "degree of generality," i.e., roles may be abstractly or concretely defined in terms of acceptable

behavior for the actor. Some roles may deal with narrowly defined aspects of a person's life while some may encompass a broader area. Expectations may vary in terms of "clarity" which suggests the possibility of a difference in the amount of information needed to enact a role and the amount of information available. Thus, communication role research determines if communication roles are abstract or concrete, narrowly or broadly defined, and vague or clear.

Role Location

Sarbin and Allen (1968) state that "the role location variable is a measure of cue properties in the social ecology, especially cues arising from the conduct of persons in interaction with one another" (p. 510). It is important to note that an individual's perception of his own location in a social system depends upon the accuracy with which he draws conclusions about the roles of others. Role location, however, is dependent upon which taxonomy of roles is used to describe the social system.

Role Demands

The demands for communication role enactment are guided by an actor's perceptions of the behaviors and positions of others in their roles. Role demands are the perceptions and cognitions an actor has with respect to others. These serve as frames of reference for understanding both the actor, who

has "demands" placed on him, and the social milieu which creates those demands.

Role Skills

A person enacting a role may be viewed as facing a task, the task being to fulfill as well as possible the expectations and demands of the role. The skill a person possesses is derived from his physical, psychological, or social readiness to perform some task to some given level of competence (Sarbin and Allen, 1968). If an individual lacks the skills necessary to perform a communication activity, he may withdraw from participation. Another conclusion is that some may possess higher readiness levels than others. For example, some employees may be reticent to communicate orally and simply prefer to write memos. Hence, value is placed on assessing the communication role skills required for organizational roles. Thus, one basis for selection of a competent employee is determined by the communication role skills exhibited.

Self-role Congruence

Self-role congruence is concerned with the "goodness-of-fit" between the actor and the role. The degree of congruence is often determined by the degree with which role enactment, expectations, location, demands and skill is exhibited when one's in a role. When a person's involvement level and skills are similar or congruent with the requirements of a role, role

enactment will tend to contain less potential for intra- and inter-role conflict. When the actor's characteristics are incongruent, role enactment will tend to be less effective, suggesting either intra- and/or inter-role conflict.

Role Theory and Communication

Certain substantive concepts characterize the communication discipline and can be used in conjunction with role theory. Regardless of how communication "functions," it clearly involves people--people who send messages, and people who receive them (Gouran, 1979). As people communicate, they vicariously seem to send (source) or receive (receiver) symbols and messages (Berlo, 1960). From a role theory perspective, we can identify "source" and "receiver" as two kinds of roles. Accordingly, actors who occupy the roles of "source" and "receiver" are further involved in role "enactments," "expectations," "locations," "demands," "skills," and "congruence."

Presuming communication to be the symbolic exchange between two or more people, those who occupy "source roles" are presumably identifiable by their production of "symbols;" those who occupy "receiver roles" are primarily identifiable by their consumption of "symbols." The act of "producing symbols" is an intrinsic function of people; the act of "consuming symbols" also is an intrinsic function of people. An illustration of these basic roles -- source and receiver --

should assist in understanding the ways role theory can be applied to communication.

As stated earlier, role enactment is concerned with the number of roles, the "organismic involvement" in those roles, and the pre-emptiveness of those roles. A role-theory base for studying communication suggests that actors may play one or both roles (source and receiver) in some social setting. Public speakers, for example, tend to play the source role and utilize much less the receiver role. In small groups, many actors find themselves enacting receiver roles and not source roles. And, of course, actors may be involved in varying degrees with the occupancy of source and/or receiver roles. Similarly, actors who tend to occupy source roles in many different social situations may be said to "pre-empt," i.e., spend most of their time in that role. At the same time, in specific social settings one person might occupy the source role in any single social setting and "pre-empt" others in that social setting from occupying the source role.

Actors may "locate" the role required of them in the social setting. For example, subordinates in an organization may receive cues from the social condition implying that they should not "locate" themselves primarily in "source roles."

Similarly, perceptions of actors "predispose," or demand that certain roles be played. When managers perceive that they must be "sources" and subordinates must be "receivers," role demands exist both for the managers and for subordinates.

Separately, however, is the concern whether people are "skilled" in occupying the roles of source and receiver. Indeed, the concept of "expertness" in the source credibility literature strongly supports the significance of perceived skills with which people function in the source roles. However, it is equally important to determine the skills with which actors occupy other roles, such as "receiver." It is here that the role concept provides a useful construct for researching "receiver-role credibility."

Self-role congruency is concerned with the degree with which an actor "fits" the role that is played. One basis for determining congruency is the degree with which an actor finds a "match" between the roles he plays, the level of involvement in those roles, the expectations associated with those roles, the location of the role from contextual cues in the social ecology, the demands of those roles by the actor and others in the social context, and the skill (expertness) with which the actor occupies those roles. Discrepancies tend to indicate the potential for intra-role and inter-role conflict. For example, actors who perceive the demand is high for them to occupy the role of source but who perceive they are low in skills to play that role, have a poor "goodness of fit." Hence, they find themselves uncomfortable as a "source." Take for example, managers who perceive that they should play a source role, but feel very unskilled as a source of communication. Clearly, the poor "fit" suggests an incongruity of the

actor-role relationship. Such an incongruity portends difficulty through the production of role conflict.

Communication Roles as a Function

The intrinsic nature of a communication role is the inevitable result of that system's operation. For example, source and receiver roles hold intrinsic properties when the unit of analysis is a social group. The intrinsic function of a group is to have symbolic exchange occur, wherein source and receiver roles are utilized.

The extrinsic nature of a communication role variable involves asking questions about the necessity of that role to be played in order for the group to adapt to the environment. For example, a group which has a problem (task) to be solved, requires communication roles for the purpose of task solutions.

The interpersonal versus task environment distinctions of Collins and Guetzkow (1964) are not too different from what is being said here. Communication which aims at maintenance of interpersonal, socio-emotional relationships is an intrinsic activity that requires communication roles as an "inevitable result" of the group's survival. However, communication which aims at the task environment has a purposive, extrinsic property which requires certain communication roles to be played. The tasks or purposes may be varied as the uses of heat described by Dance and Larson (1972).

When an organization is the unit of analysis, intrinsic functions of symbolic exchange are frequently associated with antecedent and intervening variables; extrinsic functions of symbolic exchange are frequently associated with end-result variables. Thus, communication functions intrinsically for an organization in terms of such constructs as managerial style and organizational climate. Extrinsically, communication functions to achieve productivity, improve market performance, or assist the organization in coping with other aspects of its external environment. One could conclude, then, that intrinsic communication roles aim at the socio-emotional concerns such as loyalties, motivations and satisfaction; extrinsic communication roles emphasize task-related concerns such as output, earnings, and adaptation to the environment.

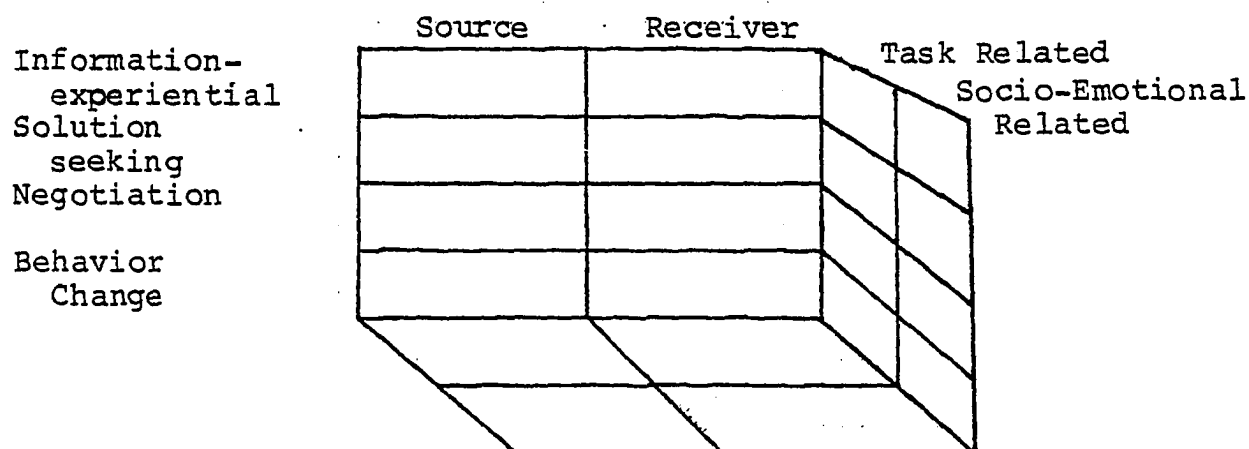
In sum, the functions of communication roles operate intrinsically and extrinsically relative to the unit of analysis. Symbols function to represent experience intrinsically when they relate components of a system to one another and extrinsically when they relate the system to its environment. Symbols used as a tool for decision-making function intrinsically when problems to be solved concern component relationships and extrinsically when problems to be solved concern the system's needs and goals. Symbols used as a tool to resolve controversies operate intrinsically when negotiation between the system and the environment is necessary.

Symbols may function intrinsically to change the behavior of system components or extrinsically to change the behavior of the system when adapting to the environment.

A Communication Role Taxonomy

When an individual, a group, or an organization uses communication to reflect experience, seek solutions to problems, resolve controversies, and change behavior, we can then describe their functioning in terms of communication roles: Source, receiver, information sharing, solution-seeking, conflict resolution, behavior changing, task, and socio-emotional. Additionally, these roles have intrinsic and extrinsic properties relative to the system level being considered.

Let us summarize and expand conceptually what we mean by the communication roles summarized in figure 1. There are six general categories of communication roles: Source-receiver,



GENERAL CATEGORIES OF
COMMUNICATION ROLES
(figure 1)

task and socio-emotional related, information-experiential, solution-seeking, negotiation, and behavior change.

Source-Receiver Roles

A source role is said to occur when an individual "produces" symbols, oral or written. A receiver role is said to occur when an individual "consumes" symbols, oral or written.

Task-Socio-emotional Roles

A task role is said to occur when an individual is a source or receiver of symbols, the content of which is about work. A socio-emotional role is said to occur when an individual is a source or receiver of symbols, the content of which is about person-related needs. This task versus socio-emotional distinction is not new, either in communication theory or organizational behavior (Bales, 1950). It is new, however, to present this distinction in the context outlined here.

Information-experiential Roles

The first basic function of communication was that symbols are used as carriers of our experience. We use symbols to represent our experience as a kind of "indicative" statement about "what is our experience." An information-giving role is said to occur when an individual symbolizes his experience. An information-asking role is said to occur

when one asks questions about other people's experiences.

Solution-seeking Roles

We have the ability to use symbols to search out our experience or those of others as a kind of tool to control our environment. Two important solution-seeking roles can be defined. A problem-defining role is said to occur when an individual uses symbols to define the nature and scope of a problem. A solution-trial role is said to occur when an individual uses symbols to represent possible solutions to problems.

Negotiation Roles

In general, a negotiation or conflict resolution role is said to occur when an individual communicates to select one or more solutions over others. More meaningful to organizational settings, however, is the "style" of resolving conflicts (Cummings, Long, and Lewis, 1979). We may have a win-lose negotiating style which is said to occur when an individual attempts to gain acceptance of a solution through the exercise of power. A lose-lose negotiation style is said to occur when an individual attempts to gain acceptance of a solution through compromise. A win-win negotiating style is said to occur when an individual attempts to gain acceptance of a solution through the searching (reassessment) for a better solution, i.e., a return to the solution-seeking function of communication.

Behavior Change Roles

Following Kelman (1958), there are three styles of behavior change roles: Compliance roles, identification roles, and internalization roles. The use of symbols representing rewards and punishments and liking-disliking relationships characterize compliance and identification roles, respectively. Internalization roles occur when an individual attempts to change the role behaviors of others through the use of shaped experiences, i.e., where individuals actively shape the experience of others, work roles, or personal needs and goals. Renshaw (1975) discusses numerous ways to measure types of "shaping" and alternative descriptions when it is absent.

With the description of a taxonomy of communication roles and the variables of role theory, the research questions directing this investigation may be more precisely stated as expectations. The operationalization of communication role variables and concepts to be investigated are made in a later chapter. It is important to note at this time, however, that those operationalizations represent only one of many potential ways to analyze communication roles. This discussion has been primarily theoretic, i.e., it has generated interpretation of a large amount of research which could be converted and integrated by a specific point of view.

The following chapter contains a review of the relevant

literature, as well as specific expectations about relationships between communication actors and roles and job satisfaction and management preference.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND EXPECTATIONS FOR RESEARCH

Early research in organizations assumed that satisfaction on the job was related directly to productivity. It soon became apparent that such a simple formulation was inadequate (Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, 1969). Likewise, the research comparing managerial style, e.g., scientific, bureaucratic, classical, human relations, human resources, contingency, and socio-technical, with worker satisfaction and productivity have been the object of concern for many investigators of human behavior in organizations. Not only have organizational policy makers been interested in improving subordinate behavior patterns, but theoreticians interested in human motivation have been equally concerned. "The study of satisfaction [as well as management style] should be able to contribute to the general psychology of motivation, preferences, and attitudes" (Smith, 1957).

Due to this emphasis in organizational theory and research, criterion variables selected for inclusion in this investigation were job satisfaction and management preference. Guiding our organization for this chapter will

be the concerns expressed in the research questions: What communication role variables predict job satisfaction; what communication role variables predict management preference?

What is Job Satisfaction?

Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) define job satisfaction as the "feelings or affective responses to facets of the situation" (p. 6). These feelings and responses are associated with a perceived difference between what is expected as a fair and reasonable return and what is experienced, in relation to alternatives in a given situation.

As indicated in Chapter I, communication and satisfaction are significant determinants of an organization's health. According to Downs (1977), "One area . . . which is receiving particular attention is the relationship between communication and job satisfaction" (p. 363). It is not clear, however, what valid relationships can be made. Goldhaber, et al., (1978) indicate that:

The picture presented in this body of research is confused and disjointed. While some evidence for a positive relationship between "communication satisfaction" and job satisfaction has been presented, the support has not been unequivocal. Further, the many divergent definitions of "communication satisfaction" in research leave us no clear view of what has been related (p. 80).

The problem with research in communication and job satisfaction, they add, stems from research which

indicates that both communication and job satisfaction are multi-trait phenomena. Yet, communication and satisfaction are often treated as unidimensional variables in research (Goldhaber, Porter, Yates, and Lesniak, 1978). As Redding (1972) points out, ". . . it is questionable whether an overall evaluation of communication or job satisfaction can adequately represent the complexity of an individual's perceptions in these areas" (p. 430). A review of the current communication literature leads one to the conclusion that a more thorough analysis of the complex relationship between communication and job satisfaction should generate concern about the oversimplifications of which Redding warns. Goldhaber, Porter, and Yates (1977) suggest that a significant amount of the discrepancy in communication research can be explained by a lack of standardization of concepts and measures of organizational communication variables.

Despite the general problems, organizational communication research does indicate a positive relationship between job satisfaction and communication. Baird and Diebolt (1976) found among organizational employees significant correlations between job satisfaction and satisfaction with the company ($r=.68$), satisfaction with supervisor ($r=.64$), and frequency of communication ($r=.54$). Hurt and Tiegen (1977) found that as employee participation increased, job satisfaction increased ($r=.39$ for perceived

organizational innovativeness, $r=.24$ for individual innovativeness). Hain and Widgery (1973) found a significant correlation ($r=.68$) between a "communication index" and job satisfaction. Likert (1973) considered communication to be one of the major variables in organizations, and, in fact, incorporates communication strategies in the Human Resources management model. Frederick Taylor (1923) recognized that communication could moderate a work group's productivity, and devised management systems that would inhibit interaction among peers in the work setting. His goal was to improve superior-subordinate interaction. The point to be made is that communication, however varied in definition, has an obvious influence in the organizational setting.

Little is known about the relationship between communication role enactment and job satisfaction except in the most general terms. The bulk of the research reviewed deals primarily with superior-subordinate relations. While this type of finding has important implications for satisfaction, it tells us very little about the symbol-using activities in human interaction.

A similar observation may be made about the correlation between communication climate and satisfaction. The relationship between high communication activity and satisfaction requires further analysis; the question to be posed is "what kinds of communication activity?" One

conclusion to be drawn from factor analytic studies of communication and job satisfaction is that organizational members typically desire to enact many types of communication roles (Wiio, 1976; Downs and Hazen, 1976). Furthermore, the organizational role occupied by an individual may tend to limit the communication roles that the employee may or may not be allowed to occupy.

Predictors of Job Satisfaction

The taxonomy of communication roles in this study has received little direct attention. Conceptually similar studies do indicate relationships between the following communication role variables and job satisfaction: Source-receiver role enactment, socio-emotional role enactment, task-related communication roles, communication role diversity, and communication role involvement.

Source-Receiver Role Enactment and Job Satisfaction

Lawler, Porter, and Tennenbaum (1968) found that managers preferred to initiate communication rather than to be the receiver of communication initiated by others. They went further to show that managers tend to evaluate interactions with superiors more positively than those with subordinates even though the greatest amount of interaction by managers is with subordinates. Hence, superiors may tend to shape the propensity for subordinates to send them information due to their positive feelings about the

communication they (the superior) initiate. This leads us to expect the following:

EXPECTATION I: Source and receiver communication roles are significant predictors of job satisfaction.

It is reasonable to expect that superiors will spend a greater portion of their time in source roles, and subordinates will spend a greater portion of time in receiver roles. Additional support for this rests with the widely-held belief that supervisors are typically required to disseminate information to subordinates.

Socio-emotional Role Enactment and Job Satisfaction

Research conducted by Collins and Guetzkow (1964) indicates that people feel more positively about those interactions that satisfy their needs and in which they exercise self-control. This would suggest a self-initiated, socio-emotional interaction should be more positively evaluated than other-initiated interactions. The second expectation states:

EXPECTATION II: Socio-emotional communication roles will be significant predictors of job satisfaction.

One would expect that encouraging employees to communicate about personal needs and goals will affect job satisfaction. Maher and Piersol (1970) found that a lack of clarity of individual job objectives is negatively related to job satisfaction and to overall satisfaction. Thus, if an

employee is denied the opportunity to seek information relevant to his organizational role, that employee's level of job satisfaction will tend to be lowered.

Task-Related Communication Roles and Job Satisfaction

Task-related communication has been demonstrated to have an important impact on job satisfaction. Hackman and Lawler (1971) found job satisfaction to be most strongly related to their "core" motivational dimension of "feedback." They operationalized feedback as the "degree to which employees receive information as they are working which reveals how well they are performing on the job" (p. 262). Their definition of feedback included information derived from other organizational members as well as information derived from the work itself. Locke (1965) found that feedback on performance success was important in contributing to job satisfaction. Downs and Pickett (1977) found that the type of input from group leaders was the most significant factor predicting productivity and satisfaction. Hence, the third expectation states:

EXPECTATION III: Task-related communication roles
(particularly receiver roles)
will be significant predictors
of job satisfaction.

Communication Role Diversity and Job Satisfaction

When individuals occupy organizational roles that require diverse types of communication activity, those

organizational members tend to exhibit higher levels of job satisfaction. Communication role diversity and role location are related to the next "expectation."

Goldhaber, et al., (1978) suggest that liaisons are more gregarious, influential, and hold higher positions in the organization. Additionally, the liaisons tend to be more achievement-oriented. It seems likely that they would perceive themselves as higher in expertise; they would have a higher willingness and opportunity to communicate due to their achievement needs and wide experiences in communicating.

Status also seems to be related to job satisfaction (Robinson, 1974):

. . . this status-satisfaction relation holds no matter what aspect of the job one talks about; so, though we have argued that lower-status workers rate their jobs primarily in extrinsic terms and higher-status in intrinsic terms, it makes no difference. Higher-status workers have "the best of both worlds" anyway . . . the better educated are more satisfied with the intrinsic and extrinsic features of their job (p. 66-67).

If opportunity to communicate and attendant status are associated and lead to job satisfaction, it would be reasonable to expect the following:

EXPECTATION IV: Communication role diversity (number of different communication roles enacted) will be a significant predictor of job satisfaction.

Typical communication satisfaction measures tend

to ignore the diverse communication roles that may be enacted by organizational members. The taxonomical feature of "liaison roles" do not appear to be as descriptively meaningful of the contribution communication makes to job satisfaction. When compared to the concept of communication role diversity, one possibility is that liaisons may vary in levels of satisfaction relevant to the number of communication roles they enact, and thus be empirically less meaningful than the concept described here.

Communication Role Involvement and Job Satisfaction

Research indicates a high intercorrelation between job satisfaction, role involvement, and the time an employee spends in a communication role. However, knowledge of which communication roles and the level of actor involvement should increase our precision in understanding what contributes to job satisfaction. It may be that organizational members are more involved and spend more time in certain communication roles because the roles function extrinsically to improve job satisfaction.

There is behavioral support for the positive relationship between communication role involvement, enactment, and job satisfaction. Vroom (1964) suggested that employees who interact the least are the least satisfied. Athanasiou (1974) reports that when job satisfaction is viewed as an

independent variable, "the strongest relationships have been found between job satisfaction and frequency of incidental absence" (p. 91). Similar relationships between communication satisfaction and absenteeism were found by Hain and Tubbs (1974).

Communication apprehension also may shed light on involvement in communication roles by organizational members. Research by Daly and McCroskey (1975), Daly and Leth (1976), and Scott, McCroskey, and Sheahan (1978) was summarized by Goldhaber, et al., (1978):

There is evidence that communication apprehension has an influence on occupational choice, with high apprehensives consistently choosing occupations which require low levels of interaction. Additionally, high apprehensives may not be chosen for jobs as often as low apprehensives. An investigation of communication apprehensives as a function of network role would aid in our understanding of the differences between liaisons, groups members, and isolates in the organization (p. 86).

Analysis of communication role involvement and the amount of time an individual spends in communication roles could contribute to such an understanding. Therefore, the next expectation follows:

EXPECTATION V: Communication role involvement will be a significant predictor of job satisfaction.

Hecht (1978) summarizes the theoretic issues by indicating:

The measurement of communication satisfaction has not progressed very far. In fact, the measurement of satisfaction has been advanced

significantly only within the organizational [not communication] area (p. 364).

Redding (1972) categorized the many studies relating communication and job satisfaction: Explanation of policies in answer to employee questions; understanding what is expected of one in performing one's job; advance notice of changes; freedom to make suggestions to supervisors; the extent to which important information is obtained from sources or media preferred by the receiver; the accessibility of superiors; and the degree to which higher officers or management is open and willing to initiate communication. These studies clearly state or imply the existence of various source, receiver, task-related, and socio-emotional related communication roles inherent in organizations. It is theoretically important to determine which communication roles predict job satisfaction in organizations.

What Communication Role Variables Predict Management Preference?

Two specific questions can be generated from the research question about management preference: What communication role variables predict Theory X management preference; what communication role variables predict interpersonal relations-oriented management preference?

The absence of a literature review is indicative of the lacuna of communication research addressing these specific questions. Over the last nine years, eight major

communication journals surveyed showed no research reports seeking to relate communication variables to an employee's management preference. But if Likert and others are correct, there are good reasons to assess the relationship between communication and the style of management in organizations. Management style is a clear concern for organizational theorists, and should be significant to communication theorists.

Management Preference

Authoritarian communication management styles are indicative of those individuals who might prefer task-related communication roles. Fiedler (1970) indicates that one end of a continuum are those people who are primarily motivated by explicit competition for material and tangible rewards in the work situation. Thus, the sixth expectation:

EXPECTATION VI: Task-oriented communication role variables will be significant predictors of Theory X management preference.

Human welfare communication management styles are indicative of those individuals who might prefer socio-emotional-oriented communication roles. Fiedler (1970) indicates that on the other end of the continuum are those

people who are primarily motivated to seek interpersonal management styles. The seventh expectation states:

EXPECTATION VII: Socio-emotional communication role variables will be significant predictors of interpersonal relations-oriented management styles.

Michaelsen (1973) suggests two "points of disparity" between the conceptions of Fiedler (1970) and other management models (Blake and Mouton, 1964):

One difference is that [Fiedler's] model is clearly a personality measure, while the Blake and Mouton formulation, although it does deal with attitudes, motivation, and managerial theories, is based primarily on observations of managerial behavior. The other difference is that while the Fiedler model implicitly places task orientation and interpersonal relations orientation as end points of a single continuum, Blake and Mouton and a preponderance of other researchers maintain that these dimensions, at least in the behavioral domain, are very nearly independent (p. 229).

Considering these different viewpoints, the communication role functions of task and socio-emotional activities may provide a first step in relating communication to management philosophies. If Theory X and interpersonal relations-oriented management philosophies represent a continuum, an individual's preference for communication roles related to each philosophy could predispose that person to enact certain communication behaviors, and exclude other choices from his repertoire.

Summary

This chapter reviewed research on the relationship between communication and both job satisfaction and management preference. Although the majority of findings indicate a positive relationship between communication and job satisfaction, generalizations are usually restricted to source-receiver role enactment in superior subordinate relations, task-related communication feedback, organizational role location, absenteeism, and communication apprehension. Supervisor-subordinate research lacks the depth to describe the "kinds" of communication activities involved in interactions.

Several expectations from the data were predicted. First, variables inherent in source and receiver roles are expected to significantly predict job satisfaction. Socio-emotional role enactment is expected to predict job satisfaction. Task-related communication roles should significantly predict job satisfaction. And, finally, communication role diversity and involvement are expected to be significant predictors of job satisfaction.

An individual's communication role involvement, skill, trustworthiness, comfort, and interaction with others are frequent bases for attributing a particular management philosophy to a person. Thus, the second group of expectations seeks to describe more carefully these communication role variables as they relate to an employee's preference

for management philosophy. It is expected that task-oriented communication role variables are significant predictors of Theory X management preference; that socio-emotional communication role variables are significant predictors of interpersonal relations-oriented management preference.

The incorporation of role theory variables and communication functions permit integration of a vast body of literature and assist in the generation of expectations to be derived from this investigation. Results of this study should yield a precise description of organizational functioning from a vantage point that is inherent to communication theory and research. Additionally, the position offered allows the integration of communication variables with the concerns of those scholars outside the communication discipline involved in the explanation of organizational behavior.

CHAPTER III

METHOD OF ANALYSIS

Research indicates communication does predict job satisfaction. Although few reports of exploration exist on communication and management preference, an assessment of the relationship between communication roles and management preference is a reasonable concern. The purpose of this chapter is to describe and operationalize measures and procedures required to assess the meaning and value of the questions presented in previous chapters.

Site and Sample

Field studies, such as this investigation, are frequently plagued with many uncontrollable variables. Since these are largely uncontrollable, the aim of the researcher should be to ensure that uncontrolled variables do not spuriously effect the variables under study (Kerlinger, 1964). The technical procedure is in the research design where subject-to-subject error is minimized as much as possible. In order to achieve this, subjects ought to be selected from a homogeneous population.

Usually, uncontrolled variables create heterogeneity; thus, error variance ranges greatly, leading to violations of assumptions of many test statistics. The result is that the probability of not obtaining significant relationships when one should is increased (Type II error). On the other hand, excessive control of subject-to-subject variance increases the probability of finding significant relationships when they really do not exist (Type I error). This, too, violates assumptions of many test statistics.

Exploratory studies ought to err on the conservative side (Type II), not on the more liberal (Type I). However, attention to selection of homogeneous samples in the field setting assists in the discovery of significant variables under conditions which generally suffer from excessive heterogeneity (Kerlinger, 1965). It is true that homogeneous samples, such as that found in laboratory studies, restrict generalizations that can be made. Recent trends in communication studies, however, call for movement into the field setting in order to make results more meaningful. Such procedures make a useful basis for later systematic testing of hypotheses (Kerlinger, 1964).

The second consideration dealt with the determination of the type of organization that would exhibit the greatest amount of homogeneity. Autocratic organizations, particularly if they have a long history such as the U.S. Army, would appear to have less subject-to-subject variation

than bank employees or workers at private corporations. No data exist , however, to make a precise comparison of kinds of organizations. Only after many studies can such a clear assessment be made.

Therefore, subjects in this study were members of five National Guard military units who volunteered to participate. They were located in several towns and cities in the midwestern United States. Of available pools of subjects, informal assessment suggested these subjects would most appropriately meet the control requirements. The units are sub-parts of the same parent organization. Gender composition of the sample was 130 male subjects and 1 female subject; 98% were enlisted personnel and 2% were officers. Most subjects lived near or within the town or city of the military unit to which they were attached. Communication and management systems are nearly identical among the individual units. Additionally, organizational roles and role relationships are specifically defined. All personnel had similar military training in terms of general military education and occupational specialities. Recent evaluations of the units by Department of the Army representatives have indicated that job skill and proficiency, as well as overall unit effectiveness, meet the criteria prescribed by military doctrine (Headquarters, Department of the Army, 1977).

Procedures

Due to geographical proximity of the units and scheduling flexibility the survey was administered in a military classroom setting during the Summer of 1979. All materials were presented in a single booklet composed of four separate parts: Demographic data, the Job Description Index (JDI), selected subtests of the Survey of Management Beliefs (SMB), and the Communication Role Assessment Measure (CRAM). Each of these instruments are included in the appendices, and are more fully described and referenced below. All subjects were given oral and written instructions for completion of the instruments (See Appendix A). The overall purpose of the study was presented to all subjects, declaring that the survey they were given was part of an attempt to get some idea of "how employees feel about their jobs" and "what elements of communication were important or unimportant to them." The instruments were administered over a one-hour time period.

Criterion Variables

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was one of two criterion variables in this study. It was operationalized through the use of the Job Description Index (JDI). The JDI is one of the most carefully researched and well-documented measures of job satisfaction (Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, 1969). The

JDI is a 72-item instrument that measures satisfaction with five areas of a job: the type of work, the pay, the opportunities for promotion, the supervision, and the co-workers on the job (see Appendix C). Corrected split-half internal consistency coefficients are reported to exceed .80 for each of the dimensions of the JDI (Robinson, Athanasiou, and Head, 1974). A case for quasi-validity is offered by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) who report a correlation of $-.27$ between satisfaction and turnover (over a twelve month period) for discriminant validity.

The JDI is considered to be a multi-dimensional satisfaction measure. Principle components factor analysis yielded the previously mentioned dimensions (Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, 1969). Median item validities for each of the dimensions range from .35 regarding opportunities for promotion to .52 regarding co-workers on the job (Robinson, Athanasiou, and Head, 1974). While these validity values are not high, the accumulated research on this instrument far outweighs that of any other, and permits wide comparison of the results to the many others conducted by both communication and organizational theorists.

Management Preference

The second criterion variable was management preference. Management preference was operationalized through subtests in the Survey of Management Beliefs (Michaelson,

1973). The SMB questionnaire (See Appendix D) is an instrument designed to measure the extent to which employees subscribe to certain management philosophies. One subset of items were identified by Michaelsen (1973) as representing McGregor's (1960) "Theory X" management philosophy. Another subset of items were identified as representing "interpersonal relations-oriented" management philosophy (Michaelsen, 1973). Theory X and interpersonal relations-oriented management philosophy measures consist of eight and six items, respectively (See Appendix D). The fourteen items were randomly ordered to minimize response set bias. Michaelsen (1973) reports the following internal consistency-reliability coefficient alphas: interpersonal relations-orientation, .72; Theory X, .82. Validity data were not reported.

Predictor Variables

The predictor variables were derived from the rationale presented in Chapter I. Those which were considered relevant to Expectations I through VII offered in Chapter II are operationalized in Appendices E and F. These predictor variables are called the Communication Role Assessment Measure (CRAM). The instrument is a series of questions suggested by the communication role matrix (Chapter I, figure 1). Each subject was asked to indicate involvement level, self-perceived skill, self-perceived

trust, and comfort when sending and receiving task and socio-emotional information (See Appendix E). Additionally, the subjects indicated the amount of time spent in each of the communication roles and the amount of time spent talking to superiors, subordinates, and peers (Appendices E and F).

Consistent with the discussion in Chapter I, communication roles were further divided into sub-roles within the general categories of sending and receiving task-related and socio-emotional-related information: Information-experiential roles were divided into information-giving roles and information-asking roles; solution-seeking roles were divided into problem-defining roles and solution-trial roles; negotiation roles were divided into win-win roles, lose-lose roles, and win-lose roles; behavior change roles were divided into compliance roles, identification roles, and internalization roles. Each respondent was asked what per cent of his time was spent in each of these communication roles (See Appendix F).

Data Analysis

There were four major steps in the reduction of items used to explain the relationship between communication and job satisfaction. The steps involved the following: (1) A factor analysis based upon the theoretic categories restated in Figures 2 and 3 below; (2) an initial series of step-wise multiple regressions and (3) a final series

FIGURE 2

FACTOR ANALYSIS MATRIX FOR COMMUNICATION ROLES

	Source Role		Receiver Role	
	A1 Task	A2 Socio- emotional	B1 Task	B2 Socio- emotional
Informational- Experiential Role--C1				
Solution- Seeking Role--C2				
Negotiation Role--C3				
Behavior Change Role--C4				

FIGURE 3

FACTOR ANALYSIS MATRIX FOR COMMUNICATION
ACTOR VARIABLES

	Source Role		Receiver Role	
	D1 Task	D2 Socio- emotional	E1 Task	E2 Socio- emotional
Role Involvement-- F1				
Role Skill-- F2				
Role Trustworth- iness-- F3				
Role Comfort-- F4				
Superior- Subordinate- Peer Interaction-- F5				

of stepwise, multiple regression analyses were performed to determine which sets of variables identified in the marginals of the matrices explained significant variance in job satisfaction and management preference; and, (4) a final predictor equation for job satisfaction and management preference was constructed, based upon the results described in steps one, two, and three below.

Step One

The first step of the data analysis was designed for the purpose of determining the factor structures within the theoretic categories described by the marginals in Figures 2 and 3; and, it was designed to enable data analysis for the limited number of subjects in the study, i.e., the ten subjects per variable requirement for factor analytic procedures.

Figure 2 illustrates the eight factor analyses that were conducted to determine the factor structures of the communication roles. Variables in columns A1, A2, B1, and B2 were factor analyzed separately to determine the factor structures for each of the marginal categories of communication roles. Rows C1, C2, C3, and C4 were factor analyzed similarly.

Figure 3 represents the nine factor analyses that were conducted to determine the factor structures for the communication actor variables. Columns D1, D2, E1,

and E2 were factor analyzed as before. Similarly, row marginals identified in F1, F2, F3, F4, and F5 were factor analyzed.

There were two major reasons for the factor analyses. First, the factor analyses provide specific information about the appropriateness of the role breakdown by "class of roles," i.e., source-task, source-socio-emotional, receiver-task, receiver-socio-emotional, informational-experiential, solution-seeking, negotiation, and behavior change. The same results can be realized in the breakdown of communication actor variables, i.e., role involvement, role skill, role trustworthiness, role comfort, and superior-subordinate-peer interaction by source-task, source-socio-emotional, receiver-task, and receiver socio-emotional roles. The second reason had to do with the number of subjects included in the study. The ten subjects per variable criterion precluded any matrix where the number of variables exceed $n/10$ (where n is equal to the number of subjects).

A .60-.40 "purity index" (Guilford and Fruchter, 1978) was used to select the items representing any factor. That is, if an item had a factor loading of at least .60 on one factor, and if it had a loading of less than .40 on each of the remaining factors, it was classified as representative of that factor.

Step Two

A factor analysis alone does not assess the validity of a factor. Thus, the second step of the data analysis involved selection of the factors that best explained job satisfaction and management preference. This was achieved through the use of a series of stepwise, multiple regression analyses.

The factor variables for each of the marginal categories (See Figures 2 and 3) were selected as predictor variables with job satisfaction as the test (criterion variable). Thus, eight regression analyses were performed with the factor variables in columns A1, A2, B1, B2, D1, D2, E1, and E2. Likewise, nine regression analyses were performed with the factor variables in rows C1, C2, C3, C4, F1, F2, F3, F4, and F5. Although factors explained significant variance in job satisfaction, many contributed less than one per cent to the criterion variable, and were judged as not meaningful. Thus, these factor variables were dropped from further analysis. The one per cent criterion is an assumption about usefulness of prediction, and represents criterion external to statistical analysis.

Similarly, factor variables for each of the marginal categories were selected as predictor variables with each type of management preference as the test (criterion variable).

Step Three

The third step of the data analysis was to construct the predictor equations for job satisfaction and management preference based upon the communication role and actor variable items retained after completion of step two.

The remaining items were collapsed as predictor variables for job satisfaction in the following manner: Columns A1 and A2 were combined; columns B1 and B2 were combined; columns D1 and D2 were combined; columns E1 and E2 were combined; columns A1 and B1 were combined; columns A2 and B2 were combined; columns D1 and E1 were combined; and, columns D2 and E2 were combined. Likewise, the items in rows C1, C2, C3, and C4 were combined. A regression was performed with each of these combinations of items. The same procedures were followed for management preference, however, only the marginals in Figure 2 were used.

Once again, the same selection procedures were used. The remaining items from these regression analyses were used to develop the final equations in step four.

Step Four

The variables retained were subjected to a regression analysis resulting in three predictor equations: (1) An equation to predict job satisfaction, (2) an equation to predict Theory X management preference, and (3) an equation to predict interpersonal relations-oriented management preference.

Summary

This research design primarily describes the relationship between communication roles and job satisfaction and management preferences. The reliability and validity of the communication role approach is inherently tied to Expectations I through VII. If the expectations are fulfilled, the results generated in this investigation should lend additional credence to the rationale and justification of this approach to the study of organizational communication.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Previous chapters have provided the rationale and methodology for investigating the two major research questions. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the results. First, information relevant to the question, "what is the relationship between communication and job satisfaction," will be presented. This will be followed by a discussion of the question, "what is the relationship between communication and management preference." Then, the results of the factor analyses with respect to the taxonomy of communication roles will be presented.

What Is the Relationship Between Communication and Job Satisfaction?

The final regression equation yielded a Multiple R (validity coefficient) of .68. The amount of significant variance explained in job satisfaction by the communication role and actor variable factors was 45%. The twelve factor variables used to predict job satisfaction are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1

RESULTS OF STEPWISE REGRESSION PROCEDURES WITH JOB
SATISFACTION AS THE CRITERION VARIABLE*

Predictor Variable	R ² Change	Standardized Beta Weight
Receiver-Task Actor Variable Factor 1	.16	.28
Source-Socio-Emotional Role Factor 3	.10	.49
Source-Socio-Emotional Actor Variable Factor 1	.04	-.23
Source-Socio-emotional Role Factor 2	.03	.22
Receiver-Task Role Factor 4	.04	.24
Receiver-Socio-Emotional Role Factor 1	.02	.17
Source-Task Actor Variable Factor 1	.02	.17
Solution-Seeking Role Factor 1	.009	-.37
Receiver-Socio-Emotional Actor Variable Factor 3	.008	.10
Receiver-Task Role Factor 3	.007	.11
Superior-Subordinate-Peer Interaction Time Factor 3	.0009	-.04
Source-Socio-Emotional Actor Variable Factor 2	.0003	-.02

(R=.68; F=7.90, df=12,118, p<.01)

*See Appendix G for definition of communication role, communication actor variable, and superior-subordinate-peer interaction time factor definitions.

A statistically significant ($R=.68$; $F=7.90$, $df=12,118$; $p<.01$) linear model for predicting job satisfaction was generated from the regression model. It is important to note that 42% of the significant variance was explained by the first seven factor variables: Receiver-task role variable factor 1 (16%), source-socio-emotional role factor 3 (10%), source-socio-emotional actor variable factor 1 (4%), source-socio-emotional role factor 2 (3%), receiver-task role factor 4 (4%), receiver-socio-emotional role factor 1 (2%), and source-task actor variable 1 (2%). The remaining variables accounted for approximately 2.5% of the variance.

Expectation I

The first expectation stated that source and receiver communication role categories would significantly predict job satisfaction. Of the twelve prediction factors in the regression equation, five were derived from time spent in a source-receiver communication role. The five variables explained 29.7% of the variance in job satisfaction. These results tend to confirm the literature supporting the first expectation.

The most significant role variable was the enactment of source roles aimed at seeking solutions to problems about personal needs and goals (10%). Time spent in the source-socio-emotional role utilizing identification and inter-

nalization strategies of behavior have contributed 3% to the variance in job satisfaction. Additional contributions were made if individuals were asked for task-related information, if they enacted receiver roles when negotiating about personal needs and goals (when the negotiation style was win-lose and lose-lose), and when they received task-related information aimed at seeking solutions to problems.

It was surprising to find that the enactment of source-task roles did not greatly contribute to job satisfaction. Individuals reported that they derived satisfaction when sending task and socio-emotional information to subordinates; the research indicates that most of the satisfaction was derived from the socio-emotional aspect of the interaction, and not from the task-related dimension.

Expectation II

Expectation II posited that socio-emotional communication roles would be significant predictors of job satisfaction. This expectation was strongly supported by the data. And, as supported in previous research (Collins and Guetzkow, 1964), the enactment of source roles related to seeking information about personal needs and goals was a very important contributor to job satisfaction (15%). More specifically, however, the data indicates that solution-seeking functions and behavior changing functions (identification and internalization) of communication are the bases

for this contribution to satisfaction. Additionally, the receipt of information related to negotiation (win-lose and lose-lose styles) contributed 2% to job satisfaction. Although the implication of this finding is not clear, it is likely that win-win negotiation styles may be viewed as a means to defer decision-making by others. Hence, individuals opt for a potential loss rather than wait for disposition of matters relevant to their personal needs and goals.

Expectation III

Enactment of task-related communication roles, especially receiver roles, were expected to be significant predictors of job satisfaction. Individuals derived satisfaction when asked for task-related information (4%). Additionally, the receipt of task-related information aimed at seeking solutions to problems contributed to satisfaction (.7%). Actor properties (role involvement, self-perceived role skill and trustworthiness, and role comfort when receiving task-related communication) were more important in predicting job satisfaction than the amount of time spent in task-related receiver roles.

Expectation IV

The fourth expectation argued that the number of different communication roles enacted (role diversity) would

be a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Since this relationship was not directly observable from the previously discussed data analyses, a Pearson Product Moment Correlation was conducted between the number of communication roles enacted and that individual's expressed level of job satisfaction. A role was enacted when subjects reported a non-zero proportion of time spent in a role. Since forty roles were possible, the variable could range from 0 to 40. A significant correlation resulted ($r=.47$; $df=128$; $p<.0001$) explaining 17% of the variance in job satisfaction (two-tailed test).

This finding holds important implications relative to previous research. Clearly indicated by the data is the importance of communication role diversity with respect to job satisfaction. Additionally, the results presented here differentiate among the "diverse" types of communication activity that may contribute to job satisfaction.

Expectation V

Expectation V stated that involvement by an actor in a role would be a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Although role involvement by itself did not significantly predict satisfaction, the role involvement items were part of the factor structure of variables which did predict. For example, the greatest predictor to job satisfaction was receiver-task actor variable factor 1 (16%),

of which role involvement had a factor loading of .72. Similarly, role involvement contributed as follows: (1) To source-socio-emotional actor variable factor 1 (4%) with a factor loading of .76; (2) to source-task-actor variable factor 1 (2%) with a factor loading of .69, and (3) to receiver-socio-emotional actor variable factor 1 (.8%) with a factor loading of .85. Taken together, these four factor variables contributed to 22% of the significant variance explained in job satisfaction; this was over half of the total variance explained by the predictor equation.

Generally, expectations aimed at the importance of time in roles, not the properties of those actors. Therefore, it was unexpected to find that actor variables contributed more to the prediction of job satisfaction than the reports of role enactment. Task-related communication actor variables explained approximately 18% of the variance in satisfaction (source, 2%; receiver, 16%). This analysis indicates that the greatest contribution to job satisfaction is an individual's role involvement, self-assessed skill in that role, and the self-trust and comfort an actor has while receiving task-related information. Socio-emotional actor variables contributed slightly more than 4% to the explanation of significant variance (source, 4.03%; receiver, .8%). Hence, the predictor equation would lend support to an organizational communication management goal of emphasizing strategies to improve employee involvement, skill, trust, and comfort in task-related communication.

What Is the Relationship Between
Communication and Management
Preference?

The predictor equation for Theory X management preference yielded a Multiple R (validity coefficient) of .49. The amount of variance explained was 24%. Twelve predictor variables were introduced into the equation, and eleven explained significant variance. The results are summarized in Table 2.

The predictor equation for interpersonal relations-oriented management preference yielded a Multiple R (validity coefficient) of .54. The amount of variance explained was 29%. Of the twelve variables introduced into the predictor equation, all explained significant variance. The results are summarized in Table 3. Interpretation of these results will be made with reference to Expectations VI and VII.

Expectation VI

A statistically significant ($R=.49$; $F=3.41$, $df=11,119$; $p<.01$) linear model for predicting Theory X management preference was generated in the regression equation. It is important to note that the first seven factor variables explained 22.5% of the variance. Those variables were receiver-task actor variable factor 2 (7%), source-socio-

TABLE 2

RESULTS OF STEPWISE REGRESSION PROCEDURES WITH THEORY
X MANAGEMENT PREFERENCE AS THE
CRITERION VARIABLE*

Predictor Variable	R ² Change	Standardized Beta Weight
Receiver-Task Actor Variable Factor 2	.07	.21
Source-Socio-Emotional Role Factor 2	.05	.15
Solution-Seeking Role Factor 1	.03	.17
Superior-Subordinate-Peer Interaction Time Factor 1	.03	-.19
Superior-Subordinate-Peer Interaction Time Factor 4	.02	.11
Receiver-Socio-Emotional Actor Variable Factor 1	.01	-.16
Source-Task Actor Variable Factor 1	.02	.18
Receiver-Task Role Factor 1	.007	.08
Solution-Seeking Role Factor 2	.005	-.07
Receiver-Task Role Factor 4	.001	.04
Behavior Change Role Factor 1	.0008	.04

(R=.49; F=3.41, df=11,119; p<.01)

*See Appendix G for definition of communication role, communication actor variable, and superior-subordinate-peer interaction time factor definitions.

emotional role factor 2 (5%), solution-seeking role factor 1 (3%), superior-subordinate-peer interaction time factors 1 (3%) and 4 (2%), receiver-socio-emotional actor variable factor 1 (1%), and source-task actor variable factor 1 (2%). The remaining variables accounted for approximately 1.5% of the variance.

Expectation VI indicated that task-oriented communication role variables would predict Theory X management preference, and they did. However, they did not predict exclusively. Data analyses indicated that communication role variables explained the following amounts of significant variance: Task roles and actor variables explained 9.8%; socio-emotional roles and actor variables explained 6%; superior-subordinate-peer interaction explained 5%; solution-seeking roles explained 3.5%; behavior change roles explained .08%.

Task roles and actor variables explained the greatest amount of variance in Theory X management preference, representing at least partial evidence in support of this expectation. The greatest contributor was the per cent of time a person spent receiving task-related communication in the superior-subordinate-peer setting. Close inspection of the factor showed that employees who tended to communicate more with superiors and less with subordinates preferred Theory X management style. This factor accounted for 7% of the variance. An individual's involvement, skill, trust-

worthiness, and comfort in source-task roles explained 2% of the variance. Task-related behavior change (identification and internalization) and solution-seeking while enacting a receiver role contributed .8%.

The surprising finding that time spent in socio-emotional roles contributed to preference for Theory X management style is less so when we see that the socio-emotional roles were aimed at changing the behavior of others through identification and internalization. Additionally, the behavior change role factor of identification included task as well as socio-emotional concerns (.08% of the variance). Superior-subordinate-peer interaction time was positively related to Theory X management when the interaction was with superiors (2%), and, it was negatively related when the interaction was with peers (3%). Thus, it seems likely that a predisposition toward Theory X management philosophy would be a greater desire to interact with one's superiors than with peers. Additionally, there was a significant negative relationship between involvement, skill, trustworthiness, and comfort in socio-emotional receiver roles and Theory X management preference (1%). This result confirms everyday experience, but is new when considering the research literature reviewed for this study.

A few conclusions may be drawn from the data. First, interaction with superiors is clearly the most significant

predictor of Theory X management preference, particularly when the interaction is concerned with task-related matters. Negative relationships with peer interaction seem likely. This, perhaps, explains the negative relationships found between enactment of solution-seeking, task-related roles. Theory X management preference, at least as expressed in terms of communication activity, is not solely restricted to task-related areas. For example, data indicated that socio-emotional behavior change roles (when acting as a source) were significant contributors to Theory X management preference.

Expectation VII

A statistically significant $R=.54$, $F=3.95$, $df=12,118$; $p .01$) linear model for predicting interpersonal relations-oriented management preference was generated in the regression equation. Six factor variables accounted for 25% of the variance. Those variables were source-socio-emotional actor variable factor 1 (14%), role comfort factor 1 (4%), solution-seeking role factor 1 (3%), role skill factor 1 (2%), receiver-socio-emotional role factor 1 (1%), and source-socio-emotional role factor 3 (1%). The remaining variables accounted for approximately 4% of the variance. (See Figure 3 below.)

Expectation VII stated that socio-emotional communication roles would be significant predictors of interpersonal relations-oriented management preference. The data

TABLE 3

RESULTS OF STEPWISE REGRESSION PROCEDURES WITH
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS-ORIENTED
MANAGEMENT STYLE AS THE
CRITERION VARIABLE*

Predictor Variable	R ² Change	Standardized Beta Weight
Source-Socio-Emotional Actor Variable Factor 1	.14	.31
Role Comfort Factor 1	.04	-.21
Solution-Seeking Role Factor 1	.03	.69
Role Skill Factor 1	.02	-.16
Receiver-Socio-Emotional Role Factor 1	.01	-.06
Role Involvement Factor 1	.008	.16
Source-Socio-Emotional Role Factor 3	.01	-.42
Source-Task Role Factor 2	.009	.11
Receiver-Socio-Emotional Role Factor 3	.005	-.13
Negotiation Role Factor 4	.002	-.06
Information-Experiential Role Factor 1	.0005	-.02
Source-Socio-Emotional Role Factor 4	.0001	-.01

(R=.54; F=3.95, df=12,118; p<.01)

*See Appendix G for definition of communication role, communication actor variable, and superior-subordinate-peer interaction time factor definitions.

analyses strongly support that expectation. Socio-emotional communication role and actor variables explained over 19% of the variance in this management preference. Involvement, skill, trustworthiness, and comfort in sending communication about personal needs and goals was the greatest contributor (14%). Additional variance was explained when enacting source-socio-emotional roles to change behavior (identification and internalization styles) and negotiation through compromise (1.01%). However, when receiver roles included compromise strategies for negotiation, a negative relationship occurred (1%), while receiving solutions to problems was positively related (.5%). Solution-seeking roles aimed at personal needs and goals positively contributed 3%, whereas negotiation roles through confrontation (.2%) and information asking and giving roles (.05%) negatively contributed. Role skill and involvement contributed 2% and .8%, respectively.

Only one task-related communication role variable was a significant predictor (.9%) in the final equation. The contribution was made through the enactment of source roles aimed at giving task-related information, and adds support to the Expectation VI.

Interpersonal relations-oriented management style seems to be predicted largely by involvement, skill, trustworthiness, and comfort in source-socio-emotional communication roles. Individuals who are predisposed to this

management style tend to place a high value on skill and involvement in all communication roles. Determination of why role comfort (in all roles) was negatively related to the criterion variable is not altogether clear. One potential explanation stems from the possibility that interaction of a socio-emotional nature makes one uncomfortable because of the risk-taking involved in personal disclosures. This surprising result raises questions about the importance of communication apprehension, a problem requiring research. This will be discussed in Chapter V.

Interpersonal relations-oriented people tend to prefer to use identification and internalization as a vehicle for changing behavior of others. As receivers, they dislike confrontation and compromise when negotiating. As sources, however, they may use compromise.

The definition afforded by the data analysis with respect to interpersonal relations-oriented management preference is somewhat more precise than the one afforded for Theory X. This initial attempt to equate communication behavior with management preference suggests that further investigation and definition of the variables involved would add insight to our knowledge of organizational communication.

Factor Analysis Results

While the factor analyses were used primarily as a data reduction technique in answering the two major research questions, these results also offer information about the usefulness of the Communication Role Assessment Measure (CRAM). In addressing the instrument itself, the structural properties of the variables provide an empirical base for the theoretic justification of a role theory approach to communication.

Based upon the theoretic categories of the communication role matrix (Chapter I, Figure 1) and the marginals in Figures 2 and 3 (Chapter III), seventeen orthogonal factor analyses (varimax rotation) were performed to reduce the number of items to be included in the regression equations, i.e., one for each of the marginals in Figures 2 and 3. The communication role items factor analyzed, and the amount of variance explained by the selected items were: Source-task communication roles (59.6%), receiver-task communication roles (62.4%), source-socio-emotional communication roles (61.5%), receiver-socio-emotional communication roles (61.2%), information-experiential roles (52.8%), solution-seeking roles (64.7%), negotiation roles (61.3%), behavior change roles (65.2%), source-task actor variables (54.1%), receiver-task actor variables (75.3%), source-socio-emotional actor variables (53.4%), receiver-socio-emotional actor

variables (70.6%), role involvement (59.1%), role skill (65.0%), role trustworthiness (63.7%), role comfort (63.7%), and superior-subordinate-peer interaction time (69.9%). (See Appendix G for the factor items and loadings.)

As stated in Chapter III, a .60-.40 "purity" index was utilized. The requirement of ratio of ten subjects per variable was maintained throughout all data analysis procedures. Since the number of subjects was 131, no more than thirteen items were introduced to each analysis.

Reliability Measures

Communality estimates were used as indicators of reliability of the factor analyses (Harman, 1976). Since no earlier research is available to estimate error variance of CRAM, reliability is equal to h^2 .

Total variance of an item explained by a factor structure (t^2) is composed of $h^2 + b^2 + e^2$. Reliability estimates are normally based on $h^2 + b^2$. Since specific variance (b^2) is not available, reliability is estimated as h^2 , with error ($1 - h^2$) containing both true error (e^2) and specific variance (b^2). The result is that reliability will be slightly underestimated.

Reliability for the variable items in all 17 factor analyses ranged from a low of .57 (informational-experiential roles and role comfort) to a high of .75 (receiver-task actor variables). (See Appendix H for specific reliability

measures.) It should be remembered that reliability index explained the reliability of the factor structure, and not the reliability of the variable. In addition, these are not useful in estimating validity. The regression equations provided in the first two sections of this chapter are direct assessments of validity in relation to the criterion variable selected.

The primary concern of the research questions is validity. This explains why the factor analysis took a secondary role in the discussion of results.

Validity Measures

Factor loadings were used as the coefficient of validity for measuring each factor (Guilford, 1954, p. 399). In this way, the validity of each factor is addressed. The reliability of any variable as an indicator of the factor variable is the square of the factor loading. The correlation of the item (factor loading) is the coefficient of validity for measuring that factor. When more than one item is used, then $\sqrt{r^2/n}$ (where n=the number of selected items) is the coefficient of validity. Average validity for the selected items ranged from a low of .84 (time receiving task information) to a high of .91 (receiver-socio-emotional actor variable). (See Appendix I for the specific validity measures.) As stated earlier, the relationship between communication roles and job satisfaction and manage-

ment preference is essentially concerned with prediction. Thus, the Multiple R is the validity coefficient for the predictors against the criterion variables (Guilford, 1954, p. 405).

Assessment of the Role Variables

Any assessment of the value of a communication role perspective is dependent upon its meaningfulness and usefulness when data analysis is completed. However, the roles identified can be assessed in terms of the research value they hold in making predictions.

According to the matrix of roles described in Chapter I (Figure 1), each side of the matrix represented a level of analysis thought to be useful in this study. Thus, source-receiver role distinctions could be compared to symbol-using distinctions. And these, in turn, could be compared to the task versus socio-emotional distinctions.

When source-receiver distinctions were made, a coefficient of validity for job satisfaction was determined ($R=.59$). When task-socio-emotional distinctions were made the coefficient of validity was .55. The coefficient of validity for communication function distinctions was .49. Coefficient of validity indices found for Theory X management style were: Distinctions between source-receiver ($R=.21$); distinctions between task-socio-emotional ($R=.21$), and distinctions among functions ($R=.17$). Coefficient

of validity indices found for interpersonal relations-oriented management style were: Distinctions between source-receiver ($R=.21$); distinctions between task-socio-emotional ($R=.16$), and distinctions among functions ($R=.17$). The source-receiver distinction seems to be the most useful because of the higher coefficient of validity produced among the three regressions. The task-socio-emotional distinction follows closely behind. With the exception of interpersonal relations-oriented management style, the distinction among functions was the lowest.

Caution must be exercised when generalizing the results of the data analysis. Conclusions drawn have been based upon assessment of only one specific sample. Also, this analysis was based upon the selection of specific criterion variables operationalized by the Job Description Index and the Survey of Management Beliefs. Further research needs to be conducted with more diverse samples and different criterion variables for a total assessment of the value of the communication role perspective.

Summary

This chapter presented the results of data analysis and a discussion indicating that certain communication role and actor variables are significant predictors of job satisfaction and management preference. The communication variables used to form the predictor equations are much more

descriptive of the manner in which communication acts as an intervening variable in organizations than those accounts found in previous research.

All expectations of the research were supported by the data analyses, lending credence to this approach for investigating communication activity in organizations. Factor analysis and regression analysis indicated that the source-receiver and task-socio-emotional categories were the most fruitful means for comparing the functions of communication in organizations.

The results of the data are encouraging for those persons interested in organizational communication, especially in terms of the potential that the communication role approach offers toward the integration of many perspectives of organizational research. The following chapter will express some of the conclusions that are warranted by this research with respect to future communication role investigations. Additionally, priorities for future research will be offered.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Concerns about the analysis of antecedent and intervening variables in organizations prompted the investigation of two specific research questions: (1) To what extent is an employee's level of job satisfaction dependent on certain communication roles; (2) to what extent is an employee's preference for Theory X and interpersonal relations-oriented management styles predicted by a knowledge of an employee's communication activity and communication actor properties?

The purpose of this chapter is three-fold: To summarize the investigation in terms of general conclusions and principles for communication management in organizations, to assess the value communication role research, and to offer research priorities for the future.

General Conclusions and Principles for Communication Management in Organizations

Conclusions and principles about job satisfaction and management preference will be made independently. These remarks will offer recommendations for the practitioners

of management as well as those scholars interested in research in organizations.

Communication and Job Satisfaction

The goal of predicting job satisfaction based upon a knowledge of communication role enactment and communication actor properties was achieved. Job satisfaction and communication were viewed as intervening variables in relation to antecedent and causal variables (Likert, 1967). Communication roles were operationalized through the integration of communication and role theory, and were selected as the variables to predict job satisfaction. The results of the investigation provide implications for dealing with questions of concern facing managers and organizational researchers:

Is Communication Apprehension a Viable Concern for Managers and Organizational Researchers?

The data analyses suggest new implications for previous research relating communication apprehension and job satisfaction. Much of the literature reviewed indicates that a supervisor's communication behaviors might be expected to enhance or detract from subordinate satisfaction. Thus, many suggest that supervisors should be trained in effective communication. Additionally, superiors and subordinates that demonstrate anxiety when communicating are frequently referred to programs designed to overcome

apprehension related to oral communication, i.e., clinics and training sessions that place an emphasis on the development of skills and the reduction of anxiety related to the enactment of source roles.

While these conclusions undoubtedly have merit, the present research suggests that many of these training programs could be more effective if careful attention were directed toward an employee's listening skills and their concomitant impact on job satisfaction. Findings indicate that the most significant predictor of job satisfaction is an individual's self-perceived "readiness" to enact receiver roles when receiving task-related information. Thus, if low levels of self-perceived receiver role involvement, skill, trustworthiness, and comfort are present, we might say that the individual exhibits apprehension or anxiety in receiving communication. A goal for the organization, then, would be to develop communication management strategies aimed at creating an environment that is conducive to the development of "receiver skills."

Much research exists on oral communication apprehension. However, little is known about apprehension related to written communication. Common sense would tell us that organizational members may be anxious about writing and sending reports, memos, and filling out forms related to their organizational roles. Additionally, many persons may be apprehensive when they are required to "decipher"

written communication received from superiors. Although written modes of communication were not expressly considered in this investigation, the questions asked in CRAM do not exclude the possibility of their influence on the results. The potential impact of written communication apprehension warrants further research, particularly for those persons interested in the diffusion of information and innovations in the organizational setting.

When managers and organizational researchers speak of job satisfaction, at least three major areas of concern are addressed: Selection, training, and management of employees. Specific questions related to communication and job satisfaction and these areas are:

How Might Communication Roles Be Used To Assist in Employee Selection?

If organizations and organizational researchers could determine how to select the "right" person for organizational roles, problems with absenteeism, turn-over, and low morale could be eliminated or at least reduced. Previous research has indicated significant, positive relationships between attendance at work, high morale, and job satisfaction. This investigation indicates that satisfaction is not only dependent on the communication behavior of supervisors, but also on the self-perceived actor properties that employees possess when communicating (e.g., enacting receiver roles when receiving task-related

communication). One recommendation derived from the research is that organizations should attempt to select individuals who possess "high" level receiver role attributes. For example, interviews with prospective employees might be designed to assess an individual's propensity to enact certain communication roles required by the organization. Technical skills alone are not a sufficient basis for selection of employees. Communication roles offer an additional method for screening procedures.

Self-role congruence should be a concern of those persons involved in employee selection and placement. Self-role congruence is concerned with whether or not an individual possesses the physical, psychological, or social readiness to enact a communication role. Unfortunately, many organizations suffer from low morale, absenteeism, and turn-over when screening procedures are incapable of determining the "goodness of fit" between a prospective employee and the attendant communication activity inherent in organizational roles. Also, many promotional policies frequently place individuals into organizational roles that demand them to enact communication roles in which they feel unskilled, uncomfortable, or have low involvement levels. The present research implies that if self-role congruence in communication is low, job satisfaction will tend to suffer.

Certain types of screening and placement procedures

should be implemented to assess an employee's "readiness" to perform communication activities associated with organizational roles. Currently, some large corporations are in the process of analyzing the communication requirements for specific jobs. Then, they determine the kinds of "communication qualifications" that the role occupant should possess. The resulting selection and placement policies indicate that technical expertise, alone, may be a necessary, but not sufficient basis for organizational role enactment. If an organizational member is found to be deficient in certain communication roles, specialized training, placement in a different organizational role, or termination may be the only alternatives left to the organization.

What Kinds of Communication Role Training Are Needed?

There are two primary areas of concern when communication training is being considered with respect to job satisfaction. First, training programs should be devised to assist in creating a sense of involvement in task-related communication. Involvement in socio-emotional communication roles seems to have less positive impact on job satisfaction when compared to task-related roles. Concern for personal needs and goals is important, but may have little impact if task-related involvement is absent. Second, if maximal levels of job satisfaction are to be realized, organizational members should be given the opportunity to enact

communication roles in which they have high levels of actor involvement. Training programs for managers should include curriculum that provides guidelines for detection of low-level involvement, skills, and comfort in communication roles. If deficiencies are found among employees, then strategies to "create" high-level actor properties might be developed. For example, this research indicates that "involvement" in communicating about the job tends to enhance levels of satisfaction. If a manager has the appropriate knowledge and skills from management training, he could create an environment conducive to employee participation and, perhaps, positively impact on their levels of satisfaction.

How Might a Manager Use Principles Derived from Communication Role Research to "Manage"?

Several principles derived from communication role research could be used to assist in enhancing job satisfaction. First, the importance of communication role diversity and its relationship to job satisfaction cannot be ignored. Organizations should define organizational role such that they allow enactment of source-receiver, task-socio-emotional communication roles. In other words, communication policies should permit ample opportunity for organizational members to participate in job-related discussions and interaction aimed at developing greater compatibility between personal and organizational needs and

goals. This does not imply that employees should be required to enact a multitude of communication roles. Rather, they should be given the opportunity to enact those roles in which they are involved and feel skilled. Second, managers should give prompt feedback to employees about job performance and job-related matters. Employees desire feedback about the job and tend to have higher levels of satisfaction if involved in those types of roles. If managers perceive subordinates to be low in receiver-task role involvement, it is important that measures be taken to increase involvement levels. Third, negotiation and behavior change is best achieved with the use of "shared" strategies. Employees prefer the use of negotiating styles in which all will benefit (win-win styles), and they prefer behavior change styles which are based primarily upon identification and internalization.

Conclusions and principles offered for enhancing job satisfaction are by no means a "cure-all" for organizational problems. However, the present research indicates that the significant relationship between communication role enactment and actor properties and job satisfaction cannot be ignored when one considers intervening variables in organizations.

Communication and Management Preference

The goals of predicting Theory X and interpersonal

relations-oriented management preference (antecedent variables) from a knowledge of communication role and actor variables were realized. Although the relationships were not as high as expected, the coefficients of validity were still highly significant.

Two important conclusions may be drawn about those persons who desire Theory X management. First, those individuals prefer to communicate about task-related matters more frequently with superiors than with subordinates and peers. Second, they tend to enact source-socio-emotional roles aimed at changing the behavior of others. The strategies most often used are identification and internalization.

Those who prefer interpersonal relations-oriented management tend to exhibit high levels of self-perceived involvement, skill, trustworthiness, and comfort as sources of information about personal needs and goals. In addition, they perceive themselves to be highly skilled in all communication roles.

It was concluded that inference of an individual's management preference on the basis of communication role enactment was less accurate than prediction based upon actor variables (role involvement, self-perceived skill and trustworthiness, and comfort). Although the actual relationship between communication role enactment and management preference is not wholly clear, it is likely that

environmental conditions (e.g., organizational roles) may tend to influence an individual to enact less preferred communication roles. Further research, however, needs to be done in this area.

The Value of Communication Role Research

It may be premature to assess communication role research based on this investigation alone. However, the significant results found here should be quite encouraging for those interested in the phenomena of human communication. The assessment of this approach may be discussed by asking the following questions:

What Are the Liabilities of Communication Role Research?

Some persons might object to the generalizability of the Communication Role Assessment Measure. With respect to this investigation, such a conclusion might be accurate. However, the purpose of the research design was to develop predictive validity through the use of communication role variables. And, it is true that generalizations are limited with respect to the concepts of job satisfaction and management preference as they were defined. Also, the factor structures of the variables and the variables which were included in the predictor equations might fluctuate in different settings and with different sample groups.

One cannot infer cause-effect relationships between communication roles, actor properties, job satisfaction,

and management preference. Exploratory studies, such as this one, are aimed at finding significant relationships between variables. This was achieved, but it is highly inappropriate to infer that the enactment or lack of enactment of communication roles will cause an increase or a decrease in an individual's level of job satisfaction; or, that communication roles and actor properties "cause" individual's to exhibit one management style or the other. What can be inferred is that certain communication role enactments and actor properties tend to fluctuate with satisfaction and management preference.

Many individuals tend to object to the use of "pencil and paper" questionnaires in research. They frequently cite cases which are exceptions to conclusions drawn in survey research. However, the same problems are inherent to other methods of measurement. The questionnaire used provided the most comprehensive coverage of the expectations.

What Are the Assets of Communication Role Research?

The Communication Role Assessment Measure is an instrument designed to investigate communication variables, not organizational variables. The terminology and concepts used are inherent to communication theories and research endeavors. The approach offers the potential for integration of scholarly concerns. For example, the position presented in Chapter I allows one to ask research questions

from a psychological and sociological system level; communication theory variables might be combined with variables in other disciplines to assist in defining research concerns.

The results of this investigation, i.e., communication role research, supports and is supported by endeavors of other investigators. For example, research in communication apprehension has found similar results to those presented here. Investigations by organizational theorists interested in satisfaction and management style have drawn similar conclusions. Previous research in communication and job satisfaction attests to the validity of communication role research.

It must be noted that the present study offers an advantage that was not realized from other conceptual frameworks. Recommendations made in the past have suggested that increases in "participation," "attitude homophily," and supervisor "attractiveness" were highly correlated with increases in job satisfaction. While this research has value and is interesting, it offers little precision in terms of describing the "kinds" of communication activity, "the attitudinal objects," and the "kinds" of supervisory attractiveness that predict job satisfaction. This investigation goes one step further to describe, in terms of communication role enactment and actor properties, precise relationships between communication variables and job satisfaction and management preference.

The communication role approach provides descriptive,

as well as theoretic terminology. Chapter I presented a theoretic approach for researching communication-related variables. Chapters II, III, and IV provided descriptions, operationalizations, and conclusions from a perspective that was inherent to communication. The theoretic position enabled analysis and synthesis of previous research. For example, the research reviewed asked psychological and sociological questions that were inherent to both organizational and communication theories.

Communication role concepts may be transferred to many different settings. For example, many persons interested in investigating cross-cultural communication could compare source-receiver, task-socio-emotional role enactment among people of different cultures. The conceptual framework and vocabulary could be useful for investigators of small group interaction. Additionally, the categories could be used by those investigators desiring to utilize direct observational techniques in their research. And, rhetorical analyses could be done, based on communication role enactment and actor properties.

Almost any approach used to investigate communication will present assets and liabilities. The communication role constructs provide a means for the integration of many concerns and research priorities of scientists and practitioners. A description of some research priorities is important before concluding this treatise.

Research Priorities for the Future

A goal of communication role research is to provide a means through which psychological and sociological concerns might be combined to better explain the phenomena of human communication. Additionally, it is hoped that communication theorists and organizational theorists from both perspectives (psychological and sociological) would use the variables inherent in role theory to bridge the gap between their respective frames of reference and variables. Explanations of organizational functioning from a communication point of view might best be achieved by asking questions about antecedent, intervening, and end-result variables.

The Communication Role Assessment Measure has been used successfully in this study. Therefore, a first priority is to conduct similar investigations with more diverse populations. Conclusions drawn in this study are deemed generalizable to many types of organizations. However, data are needed from highly diverse populations. In this way, the development of norms for predicting job satisfaction might be realized. Further analysis of relationships between communication and management preference is needed. Other management style scales, as well as source credibility scales, could be used as criterion variables. In sum, this initial priority calls for more research of the type found here.

Communication role research designed to predict organizational climate, e.g., based on Likert's (1967) Systems I through IV, is needed. These analyses of organizational climate and management styles permit an entire description of antecedent organizational variables based upon communication role enactment and actor properties.

Another important area of needed research is the analysis of intervening variables in organizations. CRAM should be related to the widely used communication apprehension scales. For example, we need to know more about anxiety that may be induced when an individual occupies a source or receiver role, when the form of the message is oral or written, and when the communication is related to the task or to personal needs and goals. Description of other intervening variables might include the relationship between CRAM variables and attitude change, absenteeism, and turnover. Additionally, it would be important to know which communication roles and actor properties predict horizontal (superior-subordinate) and vertical (peer) communication and the phenomenon of gatekeeping. These investigations could provide a description of intervening organizational variables that are based upon concepts inherent to communication.

Finally, end-result variables are an important research priority. Longitudinal studies should assess the relationships among antecedent and intervening

variables. They might relate CRAM to productivity. These analyses need to be done on the individual, group, organizational, and even inter-organizational level. In this way, researchers can realize the integration of psychological and sociological perspectives, as well as the integration of communication and organizational variables.

This outline of research priorities will yield a description of communication in organizations that is comprehensive, theoretically meaningful, descriptive and pragmatic, and inherent to communication theories and terminology. Additionally, it insures that communication concepts and variables are not treated as artifacts of organizational activity. Instead, communication is viewed as the basis for explanations of organizational behavior.

This exploratory study of communication roles in organizations is the first step of many that need to be followed before the full value of functional communication role assessment may be realized. Perhaps the efforts here may stimulate further activity that will add to our understanding of communication.

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APPENDIX A

COMMUNICATION ROLE ASSESSMENT MEASURE

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