



Organizational communication and its impact on satisfying the needs of internal audiences in Algerian institutions

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Abstract:

The article emphasizes the chronic underestimation of communication within Algerian institutions, particularly in the economic sector, where the state has monopolized investment, limiting private sector involvement to 30 percent. Although organizational communication and public relations began to receive attention in the late twentieth century, it was largely top-down and failed to foster genuine employee interaction. This neglect, the author argues, has contributed to repeated management failures due to an emphasis on bureaucratic control rather than effective communication. The reliance on strict rationality by decision-makers has stifled participatory dialogue, ultimately undermining institutional efficiency. The article asserts that effective communication is a crucial yet overlooked component of organizational success.

Keywords: *internal audience, needs, organizational communication.*

I. INTRODUCTION

Contemporary organizations strive to establish a communication policy with various dimensions. Some of these dimensions focus on internal stakeholders and external partners to mobilize material and human resources, reduce tension levels, and prevent them from escalating beyond control within the organization. Others are directed towards the service's target audience to improve the organization's image and gain trust. The primary challenge in achieving this lies in relying on effective communication.

In reality, there is an interdependent relationship between internal harmony and external openness. This raises the issue of communication effectiveness and how it is managed by the organization's leadership.

It seems appropriate to analyze this issue from two perspectives: the existence of a communication strategy and intelligent leadership that effectively utilizes available resources to manage the organization.

The question we aim to answer in this article is: What are the reasons for the weak effectiveness of economic institutions in Algeria? Is this related to a functional flaw in the management of communication activities?

1. Defining Concepts

The present article centers on three key concepts: organizational communication, internal audience, and needs. These notions are stated as follows:

1.1. Concept of Organizational Communication

Organizational communication encompasses the various types of communication employed by an organization to connect with its diverse internal and external audiences. You need it to raise morale (both inside and outside the company) and gain the confidence of the outside world, and to achieve what the organization aims to do: perform better (Goldhaber, 1993).

Organizational communication is the manner in which an organization expresses itself and the way in which it interacts with the world; it operates much like a nervous system that sends and receives information and creates a state of understanding between stakeholders, inside and out of the organization. (الزغبي، 2013).

When it works, it builds a culture where people feel like they belong and are valued, know what's expected of them, take pride and joy in their work, and the balance of trust tips toward openness. It goes both ways; down from the executive team to workers in order to communicate the vision and strategies, up from workers to the management team with feedback and ideas, and laterally across departments to facilitate cooperation, as well as criss-crossing hierarchies. It is evident in formal structures (reports, meetings, digital platforms) as well as informal structures (conversations, social activity). The more transparent, timely, and clear, the better the performance and the more an organization will succeed in its goals.

1.2. Internal Audience

The internal audience is represented within the institution itself and in people and entities to which it is organizationally linked, including middle and senior management, senior staff, founders, stakeholders, members of governance bodies, interns, and other collaborators. Their loyalty is not guaranteed, but created through clear communication and culture (Goldhaber, 1993).

The relevance of the internal audience lies in its driving potential performance as well as stabilizing force and rumor management, an authoritative voice for external audiences, a wellspring of ideas and innovation, and a co-creator in piloting products and services (الزغبي، 2013).

Developing the internal audience means (according to traditional communication) establishing routes of communication: downward communication to articulate the vision and policies of power, upward communication to gather feedback, and horizontal communication to coordinate, and cross-functional communication to break down the silos. That also means using multiple

channels (in-company platforms, emails, newsletters, meetings, instant messaging tools, dashboards, and informal gatherings) to ensure that the message is clear, values are reinforced, and trust and good engagement are created to achieve the company's goals. (Tourish, 2013)

1.3. Concept of Need

Need is defined as a felt, real or imagined deficiency, which may be physiological or psychological, that creates a state of tension or disequilibrium, inducing the individual to attempt an impulse directed toward alleviating more or less temporarily the experienced discomfort. The process that triggers and guides this behavior is called motivation, and the incentives are external, material, or symbolic forces that reinforce it (Maslow Abraham, 1943)

Derived from the philosophical and behavioral theories of its time, Maslow's Theory of the Hierarchy of Needs (physiological, safety, belonging, esteem, self-actualization, and, in later life, self-transcendence) was not designed to be prescriptive.

However, later investigations have revealed that the hierarchy is not as rigid as initially proposed and that different levels of goals can be targeted for attainment even if lower-order needs have not yet been satisfied (Wahba & Bridwell, 1976)

Complementary models have since been established, including the ERG theory, which categorizes needs into existence, relatedness, and growth (Alderfer, 1969) and Herzberg's dual-factor theory, which distinguishes between motivators and hygiene factors (Frederick Herzberg, 1959). Furthermore, in self-determination theory, three basic psychological needs for autonomy, competency, and relatedness were specified (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In the workplace, strong motivation results from the balance between an internal sense (values, meaning of success, creativity) and the fairness and transparency of external factors (e.g., recognition, learning opportunities, procedural justice, and organizational clarity). From the critical point of view, Marcuse brought in the term "false needs," those created by advertising and consumption patterns, and which may repress true needs for human development.

II. Maslow's Theory as a Paradigm :

Maslow was not the only person interested in the notion of human needs; other scientists had attempted to discover what motivates man to pursue the satisfaction of his needs. One of them was anthropologist Ralph Linton, who, in his book *The Cultural Background of Personality* (Linton, 1945) separated primary needs needed for survival from secondary or luxury needs. While his talk was more general and not specifically focused on the workplace, this distinction gives us some insight into what makes people go and what keeps them happy in their jobs.

Attribution theory (Heider, 1958) also raises the challenge against Maslow's hierarchy of needs and, to some extent, challenges the Frederick Herzberg two-factor theory (Frederick Herzberg, 1959). In his work *Motivation and Personality* (Maslow, 1954) Maslow described his hierarchical pyramid representing how human needs can be arranged in a pyramid. The bottom is made up of the very basics of what a person needs: food, safety, and, going upward, we find the needs that have to do with belonging, then self-worth, and eventually, at the top, what a person desires for self-actualization.

This point of view indicates how human motivation largely progresses in increments: on satisfying one level of human needs, new needs emerge and motivate human actions toward higher levels of need satisfaction. In doing so, the theory "rings true" with life as we know it at home and at work, we are always striving to find a balance between what is core and what we wish for.

A. Physiological Needs:

Fundamental needs include those that are necessary for an organism to live a healthy life - those such as food, water, and shelter, which are thought to meet some physiological essential need (Maslow Abraham, 1943). These wants are the earliest in calling for supply, as they include the terms of self-preservation. When a physiological requirement is unsatisfied, it operates to the exclusion of other motives. While these requirements are much the same for both man and beast, they are not satisfied in the same way, for culture forms the means whereby a society

satisfies the requirements at its disposal (Linton, 1945). The accepted but not inherent culture of a people is the taboos and the dos and don'ts of society.

B. The Need for Safety:

After the needs for survival are taken care of, the need for security arises. This transition is analogous to that of level 1, in which the concern of the gaze is evacuated from the personal into the social. Now, people start to be motivated by the needs of dependency. Solving it requires systems and policies beyond the control of any one employee, and ultimately comes down to organizations creating a place of work in which employees feel safe.

How much security is a matter of how the organization operates. For instance, the safety requirements for a site of an industrial regulatory body are greater than in the case of an administrative or commercial organization. Therefore, the government legalized, urged by civil society and trade unions, the laws for better protection of the workers according to their jobs. Labour inspections are also provided in relation to health and safety at work.

It was Frederick Taylor who popularized this philosophy in his seminal book about scientific management, in which he stated that the physical side of a job has to be right in order to see the best from the worker.

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C. Social Belonging:

It is crucial to be part of a workplace group because institutional work is done collectively. When roles are clear and tasks are allocated, everyone in the team knows that they must pitch in to achieve those larger organizational objectives. Organizations, at least other than the largest ones, for the most part have departments and divisions that are mutually supportive.

Hitting social needs around teamwork, friendship building, and highlighting communication. Elton Mayo's studies of workplace human relations and their effects on worker output and efficiency proved the importance of developing social relations among workers as well as between managers and employees (Mayo, 1933)

Employee consultation and participation in decision making: The Japanese approach to management emphasises that greater input of the employees in decision-making. This is one of the reasons Japanese organizations have low operating costs and minimal in-house disputes: there is a very strong spirit of "this is our little corner of the world and we love taking care of everything about it".

D. The Need for Esteem:

In meeting this need, one accords with the people's aspirations and legitimate demand for professional progress and social advancement. This is confronted by institutions that allow suitable employees to contribute towards the organizational goals.

While most people experience esteem needs privately, there are differences among employees in this area. This necessity must be motivated in many cases by personal merits, such as

professional skills, ability, aptitude, and the capacity to master discipline, but also the capacity to gain the trust of others by building a bridge of communication with the work team. Indeed, at this level in the hierarchy of needs, the person feels that the team and institution should recognize and appreciate them (Maslow Abraham, 1943)

Not understanding how someone wants to be understood leads to frustration and low morale. From the point of view of this need, which must be met, the technical or Task Climates must be accomplished, the social environment and work environment must be helpful to achieve this, which takes us to the 3 climates which May proposed: technical (work and task methods), the social (the group and social sides of theories X and Y), and the emotional (how people feel and the effect on morale at work) or may be seen as a more basic psychological view of change which also evolved from the experiments.

E. The Need for Self-Actualization:

Satiumi et al. referred to self-fulfillment as the most personal level of need in Maslow's hierarchy, which has been a topic of some scholarly controversy. "According to Maslow, self-actualization can only be achieved when all four deficiency needs have been satisfied, but the motivations at this level are vastly different from those at the other levels... here, he refers to the need to do what one was born to do, to become everything that one is capable of becoming" (Maslow Abraham, 1943)

Some companies, however, do let you skip ahead in the ranks without the former part of a chain. This is perhaps to their merit, as they reward their members with ambition, self-actualization, and interests. In this respect, they demonstrate flexibility, rather than bureaucratic inflexibility.

American economic organizations, for example, encourage individuals to pursue their own dreams, but this is not the case for Japanese economic organizations.

Personal fulfillment also tends to be slow in arriving for Algerians, especially in major public sector companies where the system prioritizes seniority over innovation or personal capacity.

III. Communication Patterns and Organizational Effectiveness:

Communication stems from organizational activity and is transmitted through established channels and networks. Analyzing this activity requires examination at two complementary levels: **At the individual level**, communicative behaviors unique to each employee are analyzed. These behaviors result from the individual's relationship with the organization.

The division of labor and organizational position shape the nature of each person's activities. Communication abilities vary among employees because of this division of labor.

At the collective level, the communicative aspects of group management systems are examined. These systems focus on coordination or management aimed at ensuring coherence within an environment subject to change.

Change may occur for various reasons, such as modernization, expansion, the introduction of new products, or the resolution of crises.

Discussing the types of activities that individuals within the organization can undertake naturally leads us to communication channels and their associated networks.

These channels and networks are highly influenced by the organizational chart of the institution. Typically, the organizational chart is presented to outsiders during visits to help them understand the management approach.

The organizational chart displays the allocation of functions and the division of labor among individuals. It defines authority relationships and the flow of information. The chart reflects relationships between superiors and subordinates, as well as among peers with equivalent decision-making authority and information exchange responsibilities.

In summary, the company is organized, and communication is channeled through organizational channels or communication networks. This activity can be analyzed at a double level:

At the personal level, the specific types of communicative behaviors displayed by the employee

are considered. These acts stem from the person's relationship with the organization. The nature of everyone's work is a function of task assignment and position in the organization. Through such division of labor, diversity in communication abilities among employees is established. At a collective level, the communicational nature of groupware is investigated. Such systems aim to coordinate or control, ensuring a certain coherence within a dynamic context.

Transformation can be driven by modernization, expansion, the introduction of new products, or the resolution of crises.

When examining organizational activities, we eventually focus on systems of communication and the networks associated with these channels.

These channels and networks permeate the institution's organizational chart. Traditionally, the organizational chart is shown to outsiders during visits to explain the management approach. The organizational chart displays the positions and job expertise within a firm or company. It defines power relationships and the flow of information. The diagram illustrates the relationships between superior/subordinate and peer-to-peer systems, where each can make decisions and has a responsibility to exchange information with one another.

The organizational chart also conveys the level of rationalization used by the manufacturer to lower costs and marshal resources to its advantage. This raises the question: how closely is it adhered to in practice?

'Organizational chart never tells the whole truth' Louis Quénnel, head of news, France24: "The organizational chart never tells the whole truth. It's no great overstatement to say that all official charts are false, for the map is not the territory and the chart is not the organization itself."

(Quesne, 1971) Organograms are often oversimplified representations of institutional structures and may overlook certain elements.

There is no organizational chart that can be considered a perfect one. Examples of different designs of organizational structures found in schools illustrate the issue. This varies as a function of organization size, namely, small versus large organizations. The tenet of organizational structure that Fayol set forth, however, is unchanged (Fayol, 1916)

At the start of the industrial localization programme in the 1970s, large-scale enterprises were the focus for development.

Internal Management Deficiencies During the 1980s, management inefficiencies led to a policy change, under which large firms were reorganized into medium-sized firms in order to enhance efficiency in administration. Some are preoccupied, while investigating the structure of institutions, with the gap between what happens in practice and a theoretical diagram of an organization, which is filled in terms of relations that do not feature in the comprehensive network of formal diagrams.

An organizational chart represents formal, visible links in an organization, which tend to be tied to internal communication. These undefined networks are the 'informal organization' whose eminence the HRM (Human Relations School) analyzed at length, and which is made up largely of the networks of personal contacts and the levels of social willingness among groups and among people.

This brings us to the question: what is the nexus of these two modalities of communication? Dimitri Weiss (Weiss, 1971): "Despite widespread assumption to the contrary, the informal communication network rarely supports formal communication, but rather appears as a competitor, undermining formal communication. Admittedly, it is occasionally watched and controlled by the administration, which may exploit it, in crises, as a means of disseminating selective information in order to bolster the formal system.

But the administration can also build its very own 'informal' system, a system that hovers above the formal one and that is dedicated to adjusting to certain needs dictated by the structure and the operation of the institution. (Weiss, 1971)

The word "channel" usually has some special meaning in the context of organizational communication. Accordingly, a communication channel is a chain of people, as represented in the organization chart, through whom messages are exchanged in written and oral forms.

The channel is neutral and the intermediates are considered the passive subject who has the right to perceive and accept the message, and if necessary, to communicate it without changing, adding, or deleting to those higher up in the chain. "As a convenient and suitable means of communication to the hand of government, is that object to which an individual must sacrifice every other, even that of personal liberty." Not just ladies and gentlemen, Chester Barnard told: "Securing an adequate and a continuing flow of convincing oral communication bears both the greatest importance and the most immediate and direct relation to administrative organization." (Weiss, 1971)

No channel has perfect neutrality, and this is particularly true for the voice signal. In response, the vast majority of businesses use written communication to minimize distortions and ensure the message is received as intended.

However, while the content of written messages is purified through the official organizational network it is insufficient because using only such written communication offers no atmosphere for interpersonal engagement, a critical factor for a message to succeed.

This strategy also removes the reinforcement and motivational components, thereby lessening the probability of message acceptance and the attainment of the aims of getting recipients to commit to the message and act on it.

Also, any written communicator must proceed through levels in the organization, and this delays the process of exchange from sender to receiver. This hiatus - known, in the Japanese, as the weightiness of the bureaucratic machine - pushes information everywhere backwards because of barriers to procedure and decisions forward, late, because their circumstances, related to the information, have changed.

Given such challenges, some contemporary organizations are therefore trying to develop new modes of communication that can facilitate the effective flow of internal information. This modification constitutes a long-lasting compromise to find the optimum between the clarity and the rapidity of the message delivery (Albou, 1975)

As a result, this method gives a secondary push to messages through human interaction, since way more reinforcement is applied. That's why top trade unions talk to workers in meetings organised outside of work to form friendships and trust one another.

Communication, in order for it to be productive, has to be participatory and interactive, with dialogue as the primary mode of communication. It's not the medium but the human connection that's really important.

McGregor contends that communication problems in organizations are usually symptomatic of deeper relationship issues between the people involved.

In the event of inadequate communication, attention should be turned to the relationships themselves, and not the media of communication (McGregor, 1960)

There are several studies that show that information users generally prefer interpersonal encounters. A great deal of organizational communication research has addressed the connection between organizational performance and communication systems. Research conducted by the Institute of Sociology at Stockholm University showed that a disconnect in information flow is associated with diminishing Outputs (-Dahlström, 1969).

Bavelas has a crucial research work on the role of communication in reaching a consensus in small groups. The studies involved three experiments, in which task A or B was assigned to two "persons." (Bavelas, 1950) A gives B the information, so that B knows what to do.

In the first scenario:

There, person "A" imparts information to person "B," but there's no possibility for them to converse with one another. The communication is one-sided.

In the second scenario:

'A' sends a message to 'B', and 'B' indicates understanding (or misunderstanding) with a green (or red) indicator.

In the third scenario:

Here, the two people work as sender and receiver simultaneously in bi-directional communication.

In the first trial, elt "B" could not follow the instructions, such that both viewed each other negatively, elt "B" thought "A" was confused, whereas "A" thought "B" was incapable. In

another experiment, "B" did perform the task, but after a great number of problems and delays. Subject "B" successfully completed in the third trial, and a general appreciation was established among the two partners.

It is clear from Bavelas's experiments that commands expressed categorically, without the option of questioning or clarification, will deter men from compliance and commitment.

IV. Effects of Poor Communication on Internal Public

Anything involving decision-making at a business is only as good as the data underneath it. When information is limited and time is short, "rational analysis decreases," and managers tend to opt for an alternative that is merely "satisficing," rather than "satisfying" a best-fit solution, a "good enough" choice rather than the best choice, which reflects the concept of bounded rationality (Simon, 1957)

A problem typically opens up as a single distance between expectation (that isn't being met) and reality (that is falling short). If you don't clearly demarcate that distance early, however, it can soon blossom into something messier.

At that point, rather than enhance the circulation of knowledge, build trust, and create safe avenues for people to speak up, some of them try to double down on surveillance, thinking it can wipe out uncertainty. But when monitoring is burdensome, it can make the workplace seem punitive, spur silent resentment, and create what people sometimes describe as counter power or counter information. In some cases, that counter flow unearths genuine blind spots and corrects abuses; in others, it serves up noise and obfuscation while leaving the original abuses even harder to address.

Studies suggest that rumors or false information spread in organizations are not simply about "passing the message," but also a way for individuals to assert identity and opposition to authority (Allport, 1947)

When information is delayed or withheld, the risk of rumors spreading rises. This has led to the establishment of archives, knowledge banks, and internal communication platforms in most modern institutions, especially with the intense use of the internet. Yet technology alone is not enough staff are still looking for authentic human contact to counteract isolation.

Although managers often derive their information through hierarchical authority and from outside the organization, communication problems depend not only on deficient communication networks but also on the nature of relations between stakeholders, such as managers and unions (Dubois, 2015). Therefore, success lies in finding the right compromise between transparency and human touch, thus closing the gap that enables rumors to fester

In other words, there is a functional relationship between communication and the character of social dynamics within organizations. Effective communication helps contain rumors, eliminate misunderstandings, and reduce tension and psychological barriers. At the same time, social interaction among stakeholders facilitates the correction of information and the collaborative construction of shared meanings around issues central to the organization's members.

V. Algerian Management Experiences That Neglected Communication

The Algerian economic enterprise went through three management experiments. It began with self-management, a method imposed by post-independence circumstances, especially in the modern agricultural sector. This was followed by a phase of worker management through councils that took part in decision-making; it coincided with extensive industrial localization, yet it failed to deliver the expected results.

As the economic crisis deepened in the 1980s, the state, the principal actor in the economy, was compelled to introduce reforms that led to a third experiment. This consisted of abandoning the unified public labor statute and allowing wages to be set freely through agreements with unions, which shifted from participatory bodies to revendicative ones. At the same time, broader powers

were granted to managers, and the privatization of insolvent companies was launched as an ongoing process to this day.

However, communication throughout these stages remained confined to top-down channels for issuing orders and bottom-up channels for submitting reports or grievances. This raises questions about the absence of openness to other communication patterns and their relationship to the spread of tension within enterprises.

To understand this, the experiments must be placed in their social context. Algerian society is traditional, though it is also hybrid and cannot be transformed by laws alone. This structure was reflected in corporate governance: the economy was built on statization and industrial localization, inspired by foreign models that failed to achieve their goals due to resistance to change (Boulkaibet, 2018)

At the legislative level, an effort to codify decision making for the filling of management's pool failed and reproduced a hiatus and a ritualization of forms, reinforcing the gap between illusion and reality.

Leadership thus degenerated into a state of flux in which, more than on experience and expertise, it rested on trust and personalisation in a place where the model of man-God could be replaced by another and occupy people's psyche. Lack of openness also weakened the logic of decision-making.

These experiments in management sought to shape worker attitudes, but they also contributed to a social, economic, and political polarization that found voice in the valuing of various occupations and functions in each period

1-The Self-Management Experience:

Algeria witnessed in 1963 a distinctive experiment in its economic management history known as self-management. It was established by a decree that granted legal legitimacy to a situation imposed by post-independence reality: vacant agricultural farms and productive units abandoned by settlers, especially in rural areas.

The idea rested on enabling workers to run these units, thus appearing at once as a practical solution to fill an administrative and economic vacuum and as a symbolic instrument to restore recognition to peasants regarded as a social and revolutionary backbone. Nevertheless, the actual scope of implementation remained limited, being confined almost entirely to the deserted agricultural estates (Koulytchizky, 1974), and it did not expand into a comprehensive pattern covering the national economic structure. Self-management assumed an ideological and populist dimension that went beyond immediate productive aims; it was imbued with the meaning of a collective reappropriation of spaces that had previously symbolized colonial privilege.

Yet this symbolic charge did not translate into sustainable institutional performance, due to a set of structural imbalances: excessive state intervention that restricted the margin for initiative; bureaucratic procedures that impeded organizational fluidity; weak financing that prevented renewal of means and improvement of productivity; and deficiencies in the administrative and technical training of workers, which undermined their capacity to make sound operational and investment decisions. These limitations gradually undermined the experiment's effectiveness.

Faced with these constraints, momentum ebbed gradually. Subsequently, the trajectory shifted toward a new economic model that moved the center of gravity from the agricultural field to the urban industrial sphere, and from a formula premised on a minimal degree of non-intervention to more structured arrangements with clearer managerial participation in decision-making. In this way, the experiment concluded before crystallizing as a mature management system, and it is read today as a transitional episode combining situational necessities (addressing ownership vacancies) with ideological ambitions (reshaping the social symbolism of the peasant), without succeeding in establishing a sustainable

2-The Workers' Participation Experience:

Starting in 1966, Algeria's development focus shifted from agriculture to industrialization, especially after the 19 June 1965 coup, which unleashed a wave of nationalizations and entrenched strict centralized management (Garello, 1963).

Attention moved from the countryside and the peasant, long a revolutionary symbol, to the city and the industrial worker as the emblem of modernization. Yet the working class was newly formed, weakly organized, and poorly trained, leaving a wide gap between ambition and real control over the means of production. In this context, the 1966 Charter on Socialist Management of Enterprises emerged as a framework to grant workers a role in decision-making and oversight ((FLN), 1975) and elected workers' councils were created to turn the worker from a mere executor into a participant.

The experiment quickly revealed its limits after roughly fifteen years covered only 293 enterprises employing about 600,000 workers, just 16% of the total labor force in 1985 (أشنهو, 1982). More telling still, the oil sector, the backbone of the economy, was excluded, reflecting a lack of trust and the dominance of ideology over economic pragmatism. This experience differed from the earlier self-management model: the former was urban and industrial in base, while the latter was rural and centered on agricultural cooperatives, underscoring a deliberate intent to shift the economic center of gravity to the city.

Even so, the state remained the dominant player: it controlled about 70% of enterprises and retained the strategic sectors in terms of investment and employment, leaving only a narrow margin to the private sector. Under the weight of bureaucracy, overlapping competences, and weak incentives within the councils, momentum ebbed in favor of a top-down managerial logic. The model's spread shrank before signs of a cautious shift toward more market-oriented options appeared in the late 1980s.

In sum, socialist management of enterprises was a transitional phase: it fused the discourse of popular participation with the continued grip of a centralized state, exposing the gap between an ideological ambition to entrench economic democracy inside the enterprise and an organizational structure that did not truly redistribute power. It never matured into a sustainable model, yet it remains key to understanding the limits of the centralized industrialization project of that era.

3. Reliance on Experts:

In the 1990s, Algeria shifted to a market-oriented economy, moving away from the socialist model due to ineffective management since independence.

Algeria's industrialization strategy incurred significant costs and depended extensively on foreign loans. The second oil shock and subsequent decline in oil prices rendered Algeria unable to fulfill its financial commitments, resulting in a profound economic and social crisis. Consequently, Algeria initiated a series of economic reforms over the following two decades. Starting in 1980, Algeria shifted its economic focus from investment to management.

This included restructuring major state-owned enterprises and, with international support, gradually transferring management to Algerian nationals. Despite reforms, the crisis worsened, leading to major social unrest in October 1988. Public enterprises, central to national development, faced efforts to reduce their influence.

Strikes followed, with workers calling for the dismissal of managers accused of bureaucratic practices. In response to the unrest, the government enacted additional reforms. These measures included legislation to separate trade unions from the ruling party, thereby shifting unions from participatory to demand-driven organizations. Managers received expanded authority, and the General Labor Law, which had previously restricted individual initiative, was repealed. A new system of regulating relations between employers and trade unions was established. These agreements define workplace relations, set working conditions, protect workers, and regulate salaries, promotions, and other rights and obligations (Bank, 1991)

VI. Conclusion

Communication and media in Algerian institutions were generally viewed as unnecessary burdens until the late 1990s. In 1995, President Zeroual issued directives that emphasized the importance of communication through formal instructions to institutions.

Attention to communication remains limited in most Algerian institutions. In these settings, non-specialists often rely on unclear and informal practices, making communication an extension of the existing bureaucracy, both internally and externally. Consequently, this helps explain the lack of transparency and poor visibility of Algerian institutions.

Given these observations, it is important to consider the conclusions that can be drawn from this research paper.

- Algerian institutions still pay little attention to communication, whether in its traditional or electronic forms, as an effective tool to eliminate misunderstandings with their internal audience.
- The lack of visibility of Algerian institutions has resulted in the formation of a negative image among their stakeholders.
- Fear of transparency and insistence on bureaucratic relationships are intended to enhance the prestige of officials. This has led to the spread of rumors instead of formal communication, weakening morale among the internal audience.
- Weak organizational communication has isolated institutions from their social environment. Their internal audience now feels a sense of alienation.

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