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USE OF ENGLISH AND COMMUNICATION

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CHAPTER ONE

LISTENING ENABLING SKILLS

Listening is the process of paying concentrated attention to what is heard with the main aim of identifying correctly the incoming statements and receiving information or message.

A listener is anybody who is capable of listening to anything said, and possibly, participates in what he listened to and what is demanded to be done. In fact, as reader of this book, you are a listener. Although, it is possible for you to be deaf and be doing this course. Even If you are deaf, you still listen to sign language.

Listening skills may focus on sounds, words, sentences or passages. For good listening to take place, the correct environment must be provided. Sources of interference or distraction must be cut down to the very minimum.

Why Must We Listen?

You as a listener must listen because listening is a day to day activity. You listen to your friends talking, may be in your language or English. You listen to directions when you are lost or new to a place. You listen to lectures, which are delivered by specialists in a field. You listen at home, at work, in the office, to a telephone conversation and so on.

Listening activities can therefore be divided into two major parts, namely- listening in general social setting and listening for specific purposes.

The kind of listening we are interested in here is listening for specific purposes. That is, listening to gather information, for directions, listening to academic

lectures, to process involved in doing something, or listening to critically evaluate what a speaker is saying. No matter where you are, you need the following requirements for active listening:

- i. **Functioning ears:** Anybody with a functioning ear can listen. Indeed, this is the attribute common to many people. Even the deaf listen by means of signals from sign language. Of course, if you have listening defects, listening ability will be difficult.
- ii. **Concentration:** is an important component of effective listening. Effective listening is difficult in the midst of interruption, when there is lack of interest in the topic, noise and when a speaker speaks above your head by using difficult words.

Things that hinders listening and understanding.

- The language is complex and full of difficult words
 - Noise coming out of the environment you are in
 - The uninteresting nature of the topic
 - Difficulty in following the speaker
- iii. **Ability:** think along with the speaker and anticipate what the speaker is about to say. You cannot think along with the speaker if your mind goes astray. You cannot anticipate the next thing, if your attention is not there. Indeed, ability to anticipate can assist you in good listening.

There are some signals in listening that can facilitate anticipation. They are:

Relationship

That is, your ability to relate or connect what was said before with what the speaker is saying now. Relationship comes into listening when expressions such as “as I said before”, “on the one hand”, “consequently”, “in other words”, etc., are said by the speaker.

Attention

Ability to pay attention to significant sign posts such as “firstly”, “secondly”, “lastly”, “now”, “next”, “where”, “when”, “who”, and so on, is an important listening enabling skill. These signs tell you the important points that the speaker is making.

LISTENING AND COMPREHENDING

Listening is closely related to comprehension. Listening is useless if there is no comprehension. You listen to comprehend and you comprehend, while listening. This section exposes you to the relationship between listening and comprehension.

As you listen, you must always be ready to comprehend. Comprehension is at different levels during the art of listening. Some speeches are to be comprehended, superficially, because the points are not too important. Some need proper attention because what is to be discussed is very important. Flexibility in the art of listening and comprehension is therefore very important.

In fact, comprehension is more than getting all the words or expressions in a listening passage. You need more than words to comprehend. You need the

general knowledge of what you comprehend. The more familiar you are with the topic, the better the comprehension. This brings us to the second part of our study: How can you comprehend what you listened to?

In order to comprehend you should:

- Listen attentively
- Follow the speaker
- Possess a wide range of vocabulary related to the subject being discussed.
- Recognise general speech pattern and major speech divisions such as introduction, main body of speech, transitional clues, change of ideas, shift of emphasis, summary, concluding remarks, etc.
- Put your experience of the world to bear on the topic
- Show interest in the topic.

Factors Affecting Comprehension

This is directly the opposite of how to comprehend. The following can affect the rate of comprehension.

- Not being familiar with the topic
- Lack of concentration
- Lack of interest
- Limited language and vocabulary of the subject matter
- Inability to think deeply.

LISTENING-COMPREHENSION AND NOTE TAKING

Listening and comprehension are related. You listen to comprehend. Comprehension is at different levels- superficial and deep comprehension. Flexibility in listening activities is important. The concentration you give to any listening activity depends on the importance of what is listened to.

In this unit, you will study listening comprehension for note-taking. All throughout life, you will face situations where you have to listen to lectures, may be delivered by a distinguished special guest or lectures presented in audio recordings, video or on the television. Occasionally, in this your course, lectures may be delivered at classrooms.

Note-Taking and Note-Making

Some people cannot distinguish between note-taking and note-making. The two terms, to such people, can be used inter-changeably. In this unit, we distinguish between note-taking and note-making. We take note-taking to mean taking notes from lectures or speeches. We, however, see note-making as an activity done during study time. You make notes from your textbooks, journal articles or study texts.

The ability to take good notes while listening to an important talk or lecture is a skill that you will find useful in your studies and generally in life. You should always take notes while listening to a speech, talk or a lecture, no matter the medium of delivery. That is, if you listen to a lecture on a video or CD-ROM, you should be able to take notes. You should also take notes in discussion groups, seminars and tutorials.

Activity

Answer the following questions.

- i. Who is a listener?
- ii. What is listening?
- iii. Why do we have to listen?
- iv. List possible listening enabling skills that you know.
- v. Listen to three important talks on your radio or TV. Briefly outline the major points of the talks.
- vi. What are the factors that hinder comprehension?
- vii. Differentiate between note-taking and note-making.

CHAPTER TWO

EFFECTIVE READING

Reading is the process that involves the interaction between the reader and the written material.

Stages of Reading

There are three levels or stages of reading, which are:

- i. **Beginning Stage:** here, the reader looks at the written material and attempts to pronounce the sound equivalent of the given alphabet. Gradually, the reader goes over to words or word groups or sentences with the aim of identifying what they stand for in sound or meaning.
- ii. **Intermediate state:** The reader looks at a written text and attempts to identify the message contained in the material.
- iii. **Advanced Stage:** the reader examines the written text and employs his or her experience, the language skills and the clues available to move towards an understanding of the material. Here, reading is a negotiated activity. It is that which promotes an exchange between the reader and the writer. What message is gained from a text would depend on the proficiency of the reader.

The Importance of Reading

People read to gain knowledge of what is around them. Not being able to read is to be ignorant of the happenings, events, situations and developments around

you. Books enlighten you and make you intelligent. They expose you to various experiences of life and enrich your understanding of the world around you.

You also read to collect facts that can be useful for you in your academic life. Such facts are in form of data, explanations, reports, findings, theories, laws, and so on. The facts are also stored in different forms. Some of these are in form of words, tables, charts, diagrams, formulae and pictures.

Reading can also be for pleasure. You need to cultivate the habit of reading whatever comes your way for pleasure, entertainment and the joy it gives. Many studies have shown that Nigerians have not formed the habit of wide informative reading. Reading culture is yet to be our culture. Many read only when they are forced to read. They read for examination or academic purposes only. They are weak in reading for pleasure. Do you know what? Reading is like a medicine. It heals souls. It enlivens minds and always makes you feel better.

How to Read Effectively

Some suggestions are given below to enable you read effectively.

1. Decide the purpose of reading a book, article, newspaper or any other reading material

Note that there is no same purpose for reading all materials. Some of the different reasons why you read are listed below:

- To find some information quickly
- To answer a question
- To understand a difficult idea

- To find meaning/of a word; a concept or a diagram
- To analyse a particular concept, diagram, table or chart
- To study a concept intensively
- To gain a general overview of a particular idea
- To critically assess a point of view
- To read for pleasure entertainment or the joy of it
- To locate, specific information concept, idea
- For many other reasons.

Your reading speed will vary according to the purpose of reading. For example, if you just want to locate a point or information you will either skim or scan through the passage to locate such information. If your purpose is to study the concept thoroughly, then your reading speed will be slow. What am I saying here? Flexibility in reading is paramount to effective reading. Flexibility in reading entails that one doesn't read all materials the same way. Some materials are to be read very fast, while some are to be read slowly. For example, locating the score of a football match, you will have to scan through the newspaper very fast with high reading speed. Of course, in preparing for examinations where you need to understand the concept very well, you must read with slow or average speed. If a lawyer is preparing for a case, he has to get all the facts of the case correctly. In order to do this, he must read the material very slowly. But if a medical doctor wants to locate the name for a particular medicine very quickly, he should skim through the medical book with high speed. When studying a particular nursing topic, the reader must use average or slow speed, depending on the difficulty level of the material.

2. Decide what to read

In effective reading, you must always decide not only the purpose of reading but also what to read. It is rarely necessary to read a whole book, except a novel which is to be read for pleasure. A good starting point is to look at the content page at the front of the book to decide the relevant chapters or pages that are to be read. A quick look at the chapter headings and sub-headings may help to indicate what should be read. The index at the back of the book may indicate the relevant portions of the book that can be read.

3. Get the overview of what is to be read

When you have decided about what to read, you should get an overview of the contents before starting to read the material. You need to do that because sometimes you may think the passage, chapter or section of a book is relevant and it may turn out to be irrelevant to the purpose of reading the text. This quick overview, probably at the back of the book (blurb), which gives a summary of the reading material or the introduction, which gives you the direction of the material, can give the impression about the relevance of the material.

4. Ask yourself specific questions connected with the material

In order to focus on what you are reading, you must start with something to guide your reading. You should endeavour to answer the guiding questions as you go along in your reading. If you make notes as you read, you will be able to answer the relevant questions more accurately. Your notes will assist you to focus on what you are reading. They will also provide you with the summary of what you

have read that can be re-read or revised later on in life, especially during examinations.

Activity

“The requirements of effective reading are diverse and of great importance”
Discuss.

SKIMMING AND SCANNING

Skimming

You should recognize three main reading purposes. The slowest speed is what you may call study speed for proper understanding of what you read. At this reading level, you are expected to have a high level of concentration and high level of understanding. Your attention should go to details in the reading passage. These details are to be remembered.

Next, reading speed is the one usually called average reading speed. This speed you should use for books or reading materials that are important and require intensive reading and comprehension, but that are easier than textbooks. A large number of novels are read at average speed, depending on the enjoyment obtained from them.

The last reading speed which is the concern of this section of the unit is the fastest reading speed. This is called skimming. This reading speed is used when you do not need high level of comprehension. Skimming is used to get a general idea, impression, overview or gist of the reading materials. Skimming requires

rapid reading which is often used when you want to obtain idea quickly. Let's practice this skill.

Scanning

Some people use skimming and scanning interchangeably. This is not our position in this unit. We take scanning to mean screening the passage very rapidly to locate important information within a large chunk of reading materials. In such a reading activity, you search through the passage to locate the information. In scanning, the eyes are not necessarily moving from left to right. They may move left and right, top to bottom, across the pages, northern to southern part of the page, to locate the specific information you are searching for.

Of course, even though this is not the only way to determine meanings of words, it is one of the ways. You make the words easier to find their meanings when you break them into smaller meaningful components.

Finding Meanings of Words by Searching Round the Passage

Many a time, you find the meaning of words by looking at the surrounding of the words in the passage. If you look at some words before, after, above or below the word in the passage, you may find the meaning of the popular word that is difficult for you. That is, some of the words or expressions surrounding the word that you find difficult may give you clues to its meaning. Again let us practice this.

READING AND COMPREHENDING AT VARYING SPEED LEVELS

The first part assists one to practice reading at the fastest speed. The difference is that skimming and scanning in this unit are geared towards reading very fast, while the ones discussed previously were directed towards making you able to locate specific information and obtain a general impression of a particular reading passage.

The second part is devoted to the practice of reading at an average speed. You are to learn how to read materials of different types with pleasure and maximum comprehension. The last part of this topic is the slowest- reading at an average speed which is used in a study-type of situation. As you study this unit, have your pen, paper and a dictionary beside you.

Reading at the Fastest Speed

Reading at the fastest speed is needed when you want to locate any information quickly or gain general impression of the reading material.

It is possible to skim and scan- read a passage at the same time. Skimming and scanning are regarded at the fastest speed. According to Edward Fry, a good reader achieves 50% comprehension while skimming and scanning at more than 800 words per minute. This is, possibly, the fastest speed you can achieve in your academic activities. Since this unit is concerned with the reading and comprehension at varying speed levels, the first speed level you will practice is the level that requires you to skim and scan at the same time. This is to be regarded as the fastest reading-comprehension speed level.

Reading at the Average Speed

This is the second reading speed that. It suggests reading a material that is not so difficult. It is to be used to read novels, easy textbooks, well laid out articles and materials that are presented using simple sentences.

Reading at a Study Speed Level

This is the slowest reading speed. This reading speed needs high concentration and particular attention to specific details which must be remembered, possibly during examinations.

The first exercise that must be done, while undertaking study-type reading is note-making- putting together the important points that you read. Can you still remember what we said in the previous units about the distinctions between note-taking and note-making? If you cannot remember, turn to the relevant unit. Have you been able to make the distinction between the two activities? Let me assist you in doing so. Note-taking is a term we reserve for taking notes from lectures, speeches or talks that are heard. Note-making is jotting down the important points from textbooks, articles, reports and handouts.

Note-Making from Books

Note-making from books is not the same as taking notes from lectures; although the two activities share certain things in common. The things that the two activities have in common are stated below.

1. You must, first of all, understand what the lecture or the textbook is saying before you start writing notes.

2. Pay attention to the headings and sub-headings of the lecture or the textbook. They can be very important in determining the major points. In most cases, the title often implies the major points that will be covered in the lectures or the reading material. This is not always the case as I pointed out earlier on. Sometimes, the title may be deceptive. It may not contain what is in the content of the lecture or the book. 3. Look for the signals in the lecture and the textbook that show that an important point or main point is about to be stated. Some of the signals are stated in the book.

4. Write down the major points as stated by the lecturer or the textbook. Having sorted out the major points of the lecture, the textbook or articles, you should write these points down. In the case of listening-comprehension, you have to write the points down quickly; but in the case of making notes from texts, you have more time to write the points down.

5. Select, as you write down the points, the words or phrases that give maximum information about the major point. You should also avoid words and expressions that do not convey any meaning, except they are needed to stick the notes together.

Practice in Determining Study-Type Reading Speed

In a slow study type reading, you should ensure that you read at least 200-300 words per minute. You should also ensure that you have a high-level comprehension while studying at this reading speed level. At least, in a study type reading speed, your comprehension rate should be about 80-90% (James, et.al, 1979: 100 - 1). For a poor reader to achieve a comprehension rate of 80-90%, the

study speed will be as low as 60 - 125 words per minutes. Determine your study -type reading speed by going through Exercise 1 below:

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CHAPTER THREE

READING FOR VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

Words and their meanings are powerful. You need words in mostly every type of communication. You cannot listen, speak, write or read English effectively without the words. Therefore you need to be able to increase your vocabulary power house. To increase your vocabulary power suggests a lot of efforts on your own part. You need to read intensively and extensively. You need to increase your vocabulary power daily and you need to be able to deduce meanings of words in contexts. All these are the concern of the next four units you will be treating in this course. I hope that at the end of the units, you will be fully equipped to be able to multiply your vocabulary power house tremendously.

To increase your word power in English is to be proficient in the language. If you have limited vocabulary items in your head, you will not read, speak or write English well. Specifically, you will find reading with thorough understanding difficult. You need English words to receive information from the texts and to produce and convey information. Inadequate store of vocabulary items can lead to your failure in examinations. During examinations, you may be short of words and expressions to use. You may also be unable to read, comprehend, summarise or write well. You can increase your word power by reading extensively. In fact, no day should go by without you gaining some new words. The great advantage of gaining new words daily is revealed in this simple poem in the next section.

Recipe for Vocabulary Development

Gain one word a day and you have 365 words a year. Gain two words a day and 730 words become yours in a year. If you gain three words a day, you are expecting 1095 words a year. Four words a day gives you 1460 a year. Don't try to gain five words a day, or else you'll find yourself 1825 words richer at the end of the year. If you want to increase your word power, open up a reading dairy today and record in context the new words you have gained a day. Wise men bank their words in a reading diary; it yields interest.

Do You Still Turn to the Dictionary Every Second?

Yes, let me confess to you. Dictionary is good but it should be the last resort. One way to increase your word power is to guess the meaning of a word from the context. Any word whose meaning you are able to figure out on your own without turning to the dictionary or asking somebody else, you will never forget. There are a number of ways you can deduce meaning of a word from the context. The first one to discuss and practice is word attack.

Finding Meanings of Words by Word Attack

You can attack a seemingly long and difficult word by breaking it into their divisible parts such as prefixes (attachment to a word that comes before the root of the word); root (the core or the main part of the word) and suffixes (attachments after the root or main part of the word). You can find the meaning of each component and join them at the end to deduce the actual meaning of the word.

Finding Meanings of Words by Identifying Lexical Familiarization

By lexical familiarization we mean words that are similar, related or familiar to the words that we are trying to determine their meanings. Writers, in an attempt to give the reader sufficient understanding of the meaning of a newly introduced word, supply some words around the new word that are related or belong to the same field or family of the new word. Lexical familiarization strategy is a deliberate intention on the part of the writer to give the reader sufficient words that will lead to sufficient understanding of the meaning of the newly introduced term, in order to enable the reader to continue to read the text with confidence.

What a Dictionary Can Provide You

Outlined in this section is what we can observe from the extract as the kinds of information that a dictionary can give you.

- Alphabetical order of words
- Various meanings of a word as used in various contexts (in 1,2,3)
- The way the words are pronounced; these are put in slash / / e.g. /imbeli/embellish
- The part of speech of the word e.g. v = for verb;
- The context in which the word is used e.g. (with 5th) meaning with something; Example of sentences in which the words can be used;
- The colloquial usage, if applicable;
- Figure of speech and idiomatic (IDM) expressions associated with the word
- Different derivational forms of the word e.g. embody- embodied- embodiment

When you consider so many things that a page of a dictionary can give, you will agree with me that a dictionary is, indeed, your companion. Use it when the need to do so arises. You will never regret it.

VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT IN VARIOUS ACADEMIC CONTEXTS

We will treat vocabulary development in psychology, legal, medical and paramedical, educational academic, arts, business administration and science. As you may probably know, it is not possible for us to expose you to all items of a field. The attempt is just to introduce you to the field and encourage you to read texts in the field more extensively. If the field we are treating is your own field, you should not only master the general vocabulary items of the field, but also the highly technical terms associated with the field. Indeed, you will need the knowledge of the common, technical and highly technical terms associated with your field. You need these terms to be able to function effectively in the field.

Vocabulary in Various Academic Contexts

Words are central to all academic fields. Academic fields have the words that are specific to each domain. In fact, the vocabulary items of the world can be classified into two broad categories. The first one is the categories of words that cut across all fields. These are called common-core words. The second category is the sets of words that are specific to a particular field. This is called the register of the field.

It is important for you to be familiar with the broad-based categories of words that are used in most of the academic contexts you will find yourself during this

programme. More than all these, it is necessary for you to be familiar with words that are specific to your own subject area.

The attempt, is to expose you to broad-based categories of words that are used in various fields. Thus, you will have practice sessions on identifying the meanings of words: as they change from one academic field to the other, as they cut across field and as they are specific to a particular field.

Of course, let me stress this point once more- it is not possible to practise all the words that you may come across in all fields. The effort in this unit is merely to draw your attention to some of these words and leave you to discover more in your private study and reading activities. Remember, if you want to gain many words, you must be ready to read extensively.

Vocabulary Items Associated with Psychology

Complement Entirely Environment Intercultural Competence Mental
 Conducted Hypothesis Assessment Eccentric Resemble Numerous
 Categorise Account Formulated Inferred Manipulated Identical Degree
 Precisely Unrelated Discrepancies Variation Relevant Deter Reared
 Accounted for Factors Comparative Attributable Experts Adopted

Vocabulary Items Associated with the Legal Field

Infringement, negotiation, settlement, violation, agreement, extradite,
 concurrently, manslaughter, conspiracy, abolished, corporal, arbitration,
 assault, 2-year probation, 5-year imprisonment, remand, conflict,
 reparation, persecutions, repeal of, immunity from, charged, defendant's
 sentenced, damage caused by criminal acts, I causing, consensus.

Vocabulary Items Associated with the Medical and Paramedical Fields

Again, this is a very wide field that cannot be covered within the context of one unit of a course. Just like all other academic fields, the medical field has common and technical terms. The common-core terms should be known by all educated groups like you. Of course, the technical ones, definitely, must be reserved for people in the field. The passage in the next exercise exposes you to some of the general terms typical of medical and paramedical sciences.

Fluothame, chloroform, drugs, unconsciousness, patients, surgery, hospitalization, broad, total, temporary, central nervous system, local, inhalation, ether, sensation, intravenous, powerful liquid, cyclopropane, ethylene, nitrous oxide, smiling, laughing, calibrated, injected, inhaled, fluothene, measured, booster, general, painkilling, soft effective.

Vocabulary Items Associated with Education

This section familiarizes you with some common terms associated with education. In most cases the words are common-core words in the profession.

Institution, counterparts, dilapidated, foundation, funding, sustained, policy, secondary, expenditure, free, tertiary, statistics, participation, equipment, furniture, maintenance, compulsory, synonymous, finances, centralized, appointments, policy, initiative, emulation, sector, prerogative, primary, equipping, development.

Vocabulary Items Associated with Natural Science

Science is another broad-based field that you must be conversant with. This is because the entire word is going more and more scientifically and technologically-oriented. No matter your area of specialization, a rudimentary knowledge of

science is demanded of you. In the next exercise you will be introduced to some scientific terms.

distillation, fermenting, condensing, purification, hydraulic, environmental, construction, fluids, stationary, objects structure, system, science, measurement, rules, problems, molecules, cunes, splitting, atoms depressions, designing business life story, heating product, modification, conclusion.

Reading Diverse Texts: Narratives

Narrative texts will be the first type of texts to be discussed in this series. You are to study their characteristic features and analyse some narrative texts in this unit.

In order to study the unit successfully, you will need a dictionary, paper and a writing instrument.

OBJECTIVES

- At end of this unit, you should be able to:
- Define narrative texts
- Identify the features of narrative texts
- Read and analyse clearly some selected narrative texts.

Narrative Texts

Perhaps the most common of all the texts you will find yourself reading from time to time are narrative texts. Narrative texts are common because they tell stories and many people like interesting stories. This section introduces you to narrative texts. Of course, there are different types of narrative texts. Some tell a sad (or tragic) story, while some make you laugh. Some stories are written in form of

novels, these are called long stories. Some are also written in short forms. They are called short stories.

You need to read stories in order to increase your reading speed and comprehension rate. Stories also give you various experiences about life. Such experiences include joy, sadness, conflict, destruction, suffering, affluence, greed, avarice, and so on. The experiences portrayed by stories often develop in form of the theme of the story or novel. Reading of stories can also increase your vocabulary power. From stories you come across many words and expressions which become part and parcel, of you as you read extensively.

Characteristics of Narrative Texts

1. Narrative texts range from the ones written in an extremely informal style, full of slangs and colloquialisms, to the semi- formal or less formal ones. In most cases, narratives are not formal except a role is given to character who speaks in a formal style.
2. All narratives are to follow a storyline, starting with the background to the story, the plot i.e. the unfolding of the plan or an outline of events in a novel; the climax which is the most exciting or important event or point in the story. The climax is often referred to as the most exciting part of a story. A story line ends with the fall or the final part of the story where all events have been fully unfolded and nothing more so exciting.
3. A good narrative keeps the reader in suspense. Thus, when you become accustomed to reading an interesting story, you hardly want to drop the book until you finish reading it. This is because you want the suspense created to be

unfolded. For example, a story may start with a mystery surrounding a particular episode or event. As you go through the story line, the mystery is gradually being unfolded until you come to the end and it becomes no mystery again.

4. A narrative follows a sequential order. The events may be organised in chronological order (of time), order of importance or the end of seriousness of the event. 5. Explanation does not form the major part of a story, except when a particular character is invited in the story to give an explanation of a particular event or situation.

6. Vividness (making all characters and events real), clarity, interesting episodes, imagination are all qualities of a story.

7. In storytelling, exaggerations, untrue events, fables are acceptable.

Now that we have briefly outlined the major characteristics of the narrative, we will expose you to some narratives. Our aim is to analyse some of these stories to bring out some of the characteristics we have outlined above.

ACTIVITY

Read the story titled 'I Have Found You a Girl' by Gideon Tseja and answer the questions that follow. Remember you are supposed to read this story at average reading speed.

I Have Found You a Girl

It was Silas who walked up to Steven one day and said unceremoniously, "I have found you a girl".

"You have found me a girl? I did not tell you that I wanted a girl," said Steven without much enthusiasm. "Every boy needs a girl," replied Silas dismissively.

"You will like her. She is beautiful. Fair-skinned, like you." When Steven did not make further comments, he continues. "Her name is Margaret. She is also called Linda. She is going to form one at WTC, Kabba; same school with my girl, Becky. I tell you, you will like her. Pretty young." The boisterous Silas left as abruptly as he had come, to chase some more girls, no doubt.

Steven did not dwell on what his cousin had told him. Instead, he wondered about him. He was always like this. He always had a way with women. Considerably shorter than him, stocky and dark skinned, Silas had always been attractive to women. He was like a magnet that pulled them irresistibly to him. As to the girl he said he had found for him, well, he would have to see. It might turn out that the girl was not his type at all. At Silas's insistence, Steven agreed to, at least, see the girl. But there was no question of his going to her family house. How was he going to explain his presence in a house he was not used to visiting?

One day Steven was walking towards his house in the company of Silas. Suddenly Silas grabbed his arm excitedly and pointed. There at a road junction near the motor park, and talking with another girl whom Steven recognised as Christie Alaaga, was a beautiful girl about fifteen years old.

"That's the girl I was telling you about" said Silas conspiratorially. His cousin was right, thought Steven. She was very beautiful, petit and fair-skinned. He noticed his heart was beating faster. By now they had caught up with the girls and Silas in that characteristically easy way he had with women, introduced Steven to the young women. Turning his attention to Margaret, he said, "this fine boy is going to be your husband". Margaret giggled with some embarrassment, and Steven, while keeping a calm exterior, felt awkward and was all jelly inside. His tongue

suddenly felt dry as he muttered something to the effect that it was nice to meet her. Silas kept the foursome together for a while with his witty, mischievous jokes, and the girls finally left after a promise to see Steven again was extracted from the giggling little girl. She was on her way to see her uncle to inform him that she was going to college at Kabba.

"Now, what do you think?" enquired Silas triumphantly. "She's o.k." answered Steven, feigning lack of interest. "She's o.k.' that's all you can say? Come on. Admit it. She is beautiful, and you know it"

Silas winked at his cousin mischievously. Steven merely smiled, but did not contradict him. Yes, Steven would definitely like to see her again. With Silas' help, a meeting was arranged for them in a friend's house - there was still no question of his visiting her in her house. In spite of the new ideas about romantic love, Steven felt more comfortable in the traditional way of courtship where the role of the families was of paramount importance. One wrong step in the way the parents were brought into the picture and the courtship was over even before it had a chance to get under way.

At the next meeting, Silas and others made discreet exits, leaving Steven and Margaret alone for the first time in their lives. There was awkward silence, as Margaret kept her eyes fixed on the floor while the eighteen-year-old boy stole furtive glances at her. He was the man and was expected to take charge of the situation.

He cleared his throat which had suddenly developed a lump in it. 'Em ...I must ask you one question, and please answer me truthfully.' Margaret kept her gaze on

the floor. "Do you ...do you have a boyfriend?" "No, I do not have a boyfriend," answered Margaret faintly but without hesitation. She, too, had developed a lump in her throat. "I am asking because ...because, I am not in the business of competing with anybody for a girl" Suddenly, he was no longer bashful. "I have no time for this boyfriend -girlfriend business. I want to marry you, so if you already have a boyfriend, I am out!" Nothing in her younger life had prepared her for this kind of blunt wooing. Already, she had read some romantic novels. Modern courtship was supposed to be gentle and dream-like. But this man ...straight to the point If you have a boyfriend, then that's it! What sort of men is this? These thoughts went through Margaret's mind. Strangely, as she might have expected, she was not revolted by the approach. She was rather intrigued. She discovered she liked a man who knew exactly what he wanted. She stole a quick glance at him before resuming her fixed gaze on the floor. What a handsome man! She thought. Barely audibly, he repeated herself, "No, I do not have a boyfriend." "That's settled then. I'll marry you", concluded Steven with a finality that left no room for any contradiction. For the rest of the holidays, they occupied each other's attention and time. Margaret would visit Steven's house, at first in the company of friends and then more and more on her own. But she did not go there to stay with Steven. Rather she stayed with Ma Mary and helped her with chores around the house. She went because of Steven, but she stayed with the mother. That is the way of African traditional courtship -the best way to a man's heart is through the mother. Steven still did not, at first, visit her in her family house, but his sisters and female relations did frequently. By the next holidays, Ma Mary had become very fond of Margaret. One day, she called her son and said. "That girl is a very good girl. I think she is right for you". Steven merely smiled. "I know the

family. They are very good people. I will start talking to them," concluded Mama Mary. Steven did not say anything which was another way of saying yes. Meanwhile, Steven had decided by the end of 1996 to stay on in St. Paul's and do the sixth form. From now he would spend the bulk of his holidays in Gboko. Now, this town had become the centre of his life after spending his early childhood in northern towns. It held the two great loves of his life -his mother and his wife-to-be. Source: Gideon Tseja (2001). My Unfortunate Brothers and Sisters Zaria: Tamaza.

Have you been able to get the main points of the story? If you have not I will advise you to read the story again, carefully and possibly at a slower pace to get all the details. You should also consult your dictionary for the meanings of unfamiliar words. Besides, try to guess the meaning of the words or phrases from the contexts in which they occur.

If you think you have understood the passage you can now answer the comprehension questions. Your answers will later on be cross-checked with the ones that will be given in the discussion. You should not turn to the discussion until you have completed the assignment.

Comprehension Questions

1. What type of a boy is Silas?
2. What type of a boy is Steven ?
3. What makes the narration informal in style?
4. Briefly map out the story line starting from the beginning to the end.
5. List, if any, elements of the suspense in the story.

6. Identify the sequential order followed in the story.
7. Give examples of vividness of description, interesting episode and imagination in the story.
 - a. Vividness
 - b. Interesting episodes
 - c. Imagination
8. Are there elements of exaggerations in the story? List them.

If you have completed the exercises then turn to the discussion that follows.

Discussion of 'I Have Found You a Girl'

You will agree with me that this story contains all the elements of a narrative. Characterisation is very vivid, real and quite intensely portrayed. From the behaviours, utterances and interactions with other characters, Silas could be said to be a womaniser "attractive to women", a boy who will never give up, (insisting Steven meets the girl), cunning (his witty, mischievous jokes). It is also possible to determine Steven's character in the story: Steven is a bit timid, tough inside; he is a pretender (liked Margaret but does not want to show it); poor at wooing a girl: started wooing with 'Do you have a boyfriend?'

The narration is informal because of the use of words like now she's ok, that's all, the conversational style, etc. All these are typical of a narrative essay.

The story line of 'I have Found You a Girl' starts with Silas tempting Steven with a girl. Steven's gradually succumbing, Steven wooing the girl, intimacy, parental interference. Remember all narratives must have a storyline.

Suspense- we are in suspense as to what will happen to the relationship between Steven and Margaret. Will it be cordial or break? Suspense is, indeed a characteristic feature of a narrative.

Sequential order- this is clearly defined in the story. The order is: insinuation of a girl by Silas. Steven meeting the girl, Steven wooing the girl, acceptance, intimacy, the coming of the mother into the affair.

Again, all narratives should follow a particular sequential order of events.

Stylistic features of 'I have Found You a Girl' ? Vividness- she is beautiful, fair skinned-one can easily visualise Margaret through the description. ? Interesting episode- Margaret meeting Silas and Steven and the mischievous way Silas hands over Margaret to Steven.. ? The romantic episode- where Steven woos Margaret.

Imagination- the whole story may be largely imaginative. There might not have been a situation like the one described here, in real life.

Judging from all of the analyses done above, you will agree with me that 'I have Found You a Girl' qualifies for an interesting narrative.

READING DIVERSE TEXTS: EXPOSITORY TEXTS

Expository texts are, possibly, the commonest reading materials that you will be coming across in your various academic activities. If you know how to tackle the texts, then you have a very powerful academic tool. As you go through the unit, draw special attention to how expository reading passages are presented. The way they are presented does not only assist you to read them more efficiently, it also prepares you for writing such texts.

Expository Texts

By expository texts we mean reading texts that explain an issue, a theory, a concept, or plan, using a good work of art. Expository reading materials do not tell story; they explain concepts.

Characteristics of an expository text

1. Expository texts are more formal than narrative texts. In most cases, abbreviation, contractions, (such as don't, isn't and haven't), conversational style and colloquialisms which may feature in narrative texts are limited in expository texts.
2. Expository texts do not tell stories. They discuss issues, concepts and plans and give reasons to support any viewpoint.
3. Expository texts are organized in logical, sequential order. The order is, usually, in terms of the sequence of ideas being discussed.
4. Expository texts explain. The explanations are in clear-cut terms. They are vivid, interesting and well thought out. Some good writers present ideas like a piece of onion. They unfold them bit by bit, one after the other.
5. Expository texts are supposed to be factual. Truths are to be guarded, very jealously. All points are to be supported with concrete evidences. In most cases, you avoid exaggerations, lies, illogicality and clumsiness in expository texts.

Analysis of Sample Expository Texts

Let's analyse some expository texts, using the characteristic features presented in the previous section.

ACTIVITY

Read the passage entitled 'The Importance of Education' and answer the comprehension questions that follow. Do not turn to the discussion on the passage until you have completed the exercise. You can form note as you read the passage using the note-making format suggested in module 2

The Importance of Education

The importance of education in the socio-economic development of Nigeria, indeed of all nations, cannot be over-emphasized. In its broadest sense, education is indispensable for the building and sustenance of a modern nation state. It prepares enlightened citizens capable of communicating among themselves at an intelligent level, thus making it possible for them to work out their social and economic relationships. Education is, in fact, a necessary ingredient for national unity, stability and development, for it not only prepares an individual citizen for living and personal fulfillment, but also makes it possible for him to contribute effectively to the development of his community and the nation generally. No wonder then that every country devotes a substantial part of its resources to the education of its citizens, using it as an instrument for national integration and development.

The various levels and types of education prepare citizens and confer on them certain abilities and competence that have profound effect on their future roles in and contribution to the society. The philosophy of Nigerian education, as well as

its aims and objectives, has been clearly spelt out in the National Policy on Education, with each level of education given a role in contributing to the unity and development of this country. Education at the primary level confers on the individual the ability to read and write, thus increasing his communication ability with other citizens as well as between various communities. The post-primary level is made up of the secondary schools and technical colleges.

The secondary schools generally prepare students for admission into higher education, while technical colleges impart skill and professional training for direct, on-the-job employment; higher education is broadly classified in this country as the education given in the universities, polytechnics and monotechnics, and colleges of education. This level of education equips individuals with the necessary physical and intellectual skills to develop them into useful members of the community, as stated clearly in the National Policy on Education.

The role of education in promoting national unity and development is generally accepted. The level and type of education acquired by an individual generally determines the nature of his job and his place in society. Competition is thus intense for educational opportunities, and factors which limit any part of the country from effectively competing for education, be they historical, circumstantial or even as a result of self-imposed apathy, generate negative political and social consequences. In order to reduce these problems to the minimum, the various governments must ensure adequate and equal educational opportunities for all citizens who need it. Each part of the country must have equal access to education both in terms of location and proper funding of institutions as well as staffing and student enrolment.

That is why successive federal governments have made efforts to put in place policies that would ensure that educational opportunities are available to all and federal educational facilities are reasonably spread throughout the federation. The main problem is to ensure that every state and local government is taking advantage of these federal facilities virtually at their door-steps to enhance their educational problems and then take conscious effort and sacrifice to provide the necessary resources to solve them. Most of the Northern States already have identifiable educational problems. One of the most urgent is how to increase the quantity and quality of output from the secondary schools for admissions into the tertiary institutions. At the moment, less than 15% of those who sit for the WAEC and JAMB matriculation exams in all public schools pass and obtain the necessary credits for direct admission into the universities and polytechnics?

These problems call for massive financial investment in the primary and secondary school levels of education, accompanied by stringent quality control measures. A successful example of how a state government can identify and solve a problem is the development of six science secondary schools by Kano State. This has enabled the state to utilise all available places offered to it and go even further to take up unused openings for other states.

Source: Mahdi, A. et al. NIGERIA: The Way Forward.

Comprehension Questions

1. List six importance of education brought out by the author in the space below.
2. What are the problems education in Nigeria is encountering as pointed out by the writer?
3. What are the roles assigned to education?

(a) At primary level (b) At secondary level (c) At tertiary level

4. Give one evidence each to support the fact that the passage titled 'Importance of Education' contains the following characteristic features:

(a) Formal style (b) Explanatory feature (c) Absence of storytelling (d) Lack of suspense (e) Logical organization (f) Factual

5. Use your knowledge of finding meaning of words in context learnt earlier on in this course to find the meanings of the following words as used in the passage:

(a) Integration (b) confers (c) monotronics (d) apathy (e) stringent

Discussion of Sample Expository Text

I think by now you have completed the exercise. Do you find the passage difficult? If you have been reading extensively, I don't think you should find the passage difficult. If you have finished the exercise, then start to read the discussion that follows.

Do you find it difficult to list the importance of education from the passage? The importance of education was well presented in paragraphs one and two of the passage.

Cross-check your answers with mine:

Education is important for:

1. Social-economic development of Nigeria
2. Building and sustaining the modern state
3. Promoting communication in an intelligent manner
4. National unity and stability
5. Promoting self-fulfillment in individual
6. Providing jobs

7. Providing status in the society.

Also the second question which asks for the problems faced by education in Nigeria is not very problematic:

1. The main problem is the need to make sure that every state and local government takes the advantage of education
2. The problem of how to increase the quantity and quality of out-put of secondary education to meet the demand of tertiary education.

The roles assigned to education at primary, secondary and tertiary levels are well listed in the passage.

Primary education-- read, write and increase communication.

Secondary education- prepares students for admission into higher education.

Tertiary education- equips individuals with physical and intellectual skills to develop themselves and their community.

Do you feel that the passage represents the features of expository texts very well? I think the passage is a good representation of an expository text. My evidences are presented in the box below. Cross check them with yours.

Expository characteristics in the passage titled "importance of education"

Formal Style: no abbreviations and contractions in the passage e.g. The importance of education in socio-economic development of Nigeria... cannot be over-emphasized is a formal style. ? Explanatory features: The passage gives a point and explains it with supporting sentences. THE POINT e.g. Education is, in fact, a necessary ingredient for national unity.

Evidence to support the point ...for it not only prepares an individual citizen for living and personal fulfillment, but also makes it possible for him to contribute effectively to development.

Absence of storytelling: only facts and supporting points are given, no story for illustration, Lack of suspense: The writer gives the point and goes straight to prove it. Logical presentation: The ideas are presented logically as importance of education → points in support → role of education at primary, secondary and tertiary → points to support the roles → problem of education → points to support the problems. Factual: the writer presents facts about education, its importance, its roles and its problems.

Can you guess the meanings of the words? Do you have to turn to your dictionary for the meanings of the words? I can easily guess the meaning of the words from the passage.

1. Integration = cohesion, unity
2. Confers = places
3. Monotechnics = a single technical school
4. Apathy = dislike
- 5 Stringent = strict

Now that you have cross-checked your answers with mine, what do you think of your performance? Do we agree in most of the answers? If we do not, re-read the page to confirm all observations I have made.

What are the things that can make the comprehension of an expository passage difficult? List some of these on a piece of paper. Compare your list with mine.

Lack of vocabulary of the field: expository passages can be difficult if you are not familiar with the words used in the passage. Some words used are central to the passage and you must know them.

Lack of organization: if the expository passage is not well- organized, you may become confused as you read it. All expository passages should start with the introduction, main body and conclusion.

Lack of familiarity: with the concept being discussed. If you have never heard the concept being discussed in the passage, you may find the comprehension of that passage difficult.

CHAPTER FOUR

PUBLIC SPEAKING

Public speaking (also called oratory or oration) is the process or act of performing a speech to a live audience. This type of speech is deliberately structured with three general purposes: to inform, to persuade and to entertain. Public speaking is commonly understood as formal, face-to-face speaking of a single person to a group of listeners. Public speaking plays a large role in the professional world; in fact, it is believed that 70 percent of all jobs involve some form of public speaking.

It involves communicating information before a large audience. What makes public speaking different from just talking to a crowd of people is in the way information is conveyed. In public speaking, the information is purposeful and meant to inform, influence or entertain a group of listeners.

There are five basic elements of public speaking that are described in Lasswell's model of communication: the communicator, message, medium, audience and effect. In short, the speaker should be answering the question "who says what in which channel to whom with what effect?"

Why Do We Need Public Speaking?

Public speaking dates back centuries, yet still remains one of the most important skills we can acquire in modern times. There are some very good reasons why you need to know how to do it. Actually, there are so many reasons why everyone should learn how to speak in a public forum. Let's check out a few:

- Every time you speak in public, it increases your self-confidence.

- As we become comfortable speaking, we become more comfortable around people.
- We can reach a large audience in a shorter time than having individual conversations.
- It's a great way to show how much you know about a subject.
- It sharpens critical thinking and verbal/non-verbal communication skills.
- You can build a fan base of followers.

HOW TO WRITE A SPEECH

The basic speech format is simple. It consists of *three parts*:

1. The opening or introduction
2. The body where the bulk of the information is given
3. The ending (or summary).

Begin with the most important idea on your outline. Consider **HOW** you can explain (show, tell) that to your audience in the most effective way for them to easily understand it. A good speech is never written from the speaker's point of view.

Step 1 – Writing from the audience's point of view.

To help you write from an audience point of view, identify either a real person or the type of person who is most likely to be listening to you.

Make sure you select someone who represents the "majority". That is they are neither struggling to comprehend you at the bottom of your scale or light-years ahead at the top.

Step 2- Writing Oral language

Write down what you'd say as if you were talking directly to them. If it helps, say everything out loud before you write and/or use a recorder.

After you've finished, take notes. You do not have to write absolutely everything you're going to say down but you do need to write the sequence of ideas to ensure they are logical and easily followed. Remember too, to explain or illustrate your point with examples from your research.

Tip: If this is your first speech the safety net of having everything written down could be just what you need. It's easier to recover from a patch of jitters when you have a full set of notes than if you have either none or a bare outline.

Step 3- Checking

Do not assume because you know what you're talking about the person you have chosen to represent your audience will too. Your audience is not a mind-reader.

Check the "tone" of your language.

Is it right for the occasion, subject matter and your audience?

- **Check the length of your sentences.**

If they're too long or complicated you risk losing your listeners.

- **Have you chosen words everybody will understand?**

There are 5 cent words and \$5.00 words. Why use a \$5.00 one when a 5 cent one tells it better?

Example: He "spat" = 5 cents. He "expectorated" = \$5.00

Check for jargon too. These are industry, activity or group exclusive words. If you're an outsider you won't know them and that's alienating.

- **Read what you've written out loud.**

If it flows naturally continue the process with your next main idea. If it doesn't, rework.

Step 4 – Linking or transition

Between each of your main ideas you need to provide a pathway. This links them for your listeners. The clearer the path, the easier it is to make the transition from one idea to the next. If your speech contains more than three main ideas and each is building on the last, then consider using a "catch-up" or summary as part of your transitions.

Step 5 – Ending

The ideal ending is highly memorable. You want it to live on in the minds of your listeners long after your speech is delivered. Often it combines a call to action with a summary of major points.

How to figure out the right call to action

A clue for working out what the most appropriate call to action might be is to go back to the original purpose for giving the speech.

- Was it to motivate or inspire?
- Was it to persuade to a particular point of view?
- Was it to share specialist information?
- Was it to celebrate a person, a place, time or event?

Ask yourself what you want people to do as a result of having listened to your speech.

Sample Speech: The Gettysburg Address By Abraham Lincoln**THE GETTYSBURG ADDRESS BY ABRAHAM LINCOLN**

Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth, upon this continent, a new nation, conceived in Liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal.

Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived, and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle-field of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field, as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives, that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this.

But, in a larger sense, we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate we cannot hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here.

It is for us, the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here, have, thus far, so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they here gave the last full measure of devotion that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom

and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

COMMUNICATION

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This topic gives you an overview of communication and introduces you to the main elements in the communication process. It also highlights the importance of writing clear, positive messages and offers you some basic tips and guidelines on this form of communication so that you may become more proficient in the kind of writing needed at home as well as in the college and workplace. You will also learn about some of the common pitfalls which may impede the effectiveness of written communication.

WHAT IS COMMUNICATION?

Communication is a learned skill. However, while most people are born with the physical ability to talk, not all can communicate well unless they make special efforts to develop and refine this skill further. Very often, we take the ease with which we communicate with each other for granted, so much so that we sometimes forget how complex the communication process actually is.

1.1.1 Elements in Communication

Have you ever wondered why some people can communicate so well while others fail to get their message across? What are the elements that must be present in the communication process before it can be successful and effective?

Well, communication has been defined as the act of giving, receiving or exchanging information, ideas and opinions so that the „message% is completely understood by both parties. Look at Figure 1.1 below. The illustration shows clearly that in a communication process, there must be a sender who speaks or sends a message, and a receiver who listens or receives the message.

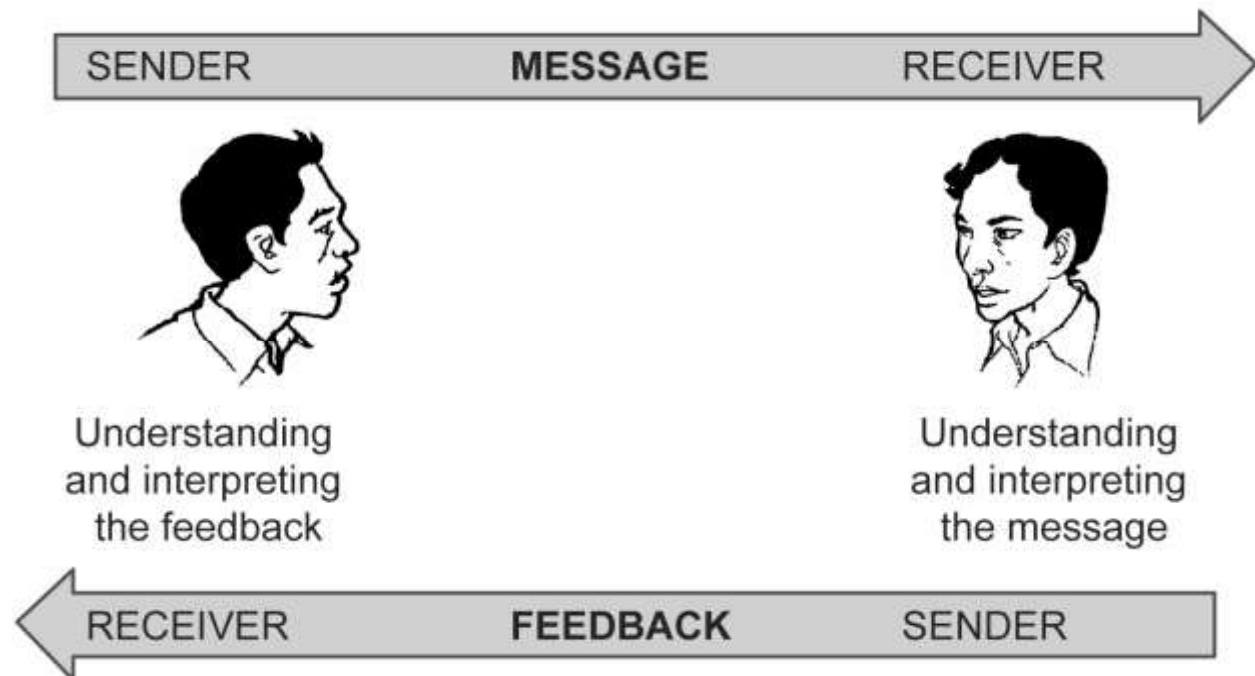


Figure 1.1: The communication process

The sender sends a message with a certain intention in mind. The receiver of the message tries to understand and interpret the message sent. He then gives feedback to the original sender, who in turn interprets the feedback. This process, repeated continuously, constitutes communication.

Clearly, there are several major elements in the communication process – a sender, message, channel, receiver, feedback, and context. There is both a speaker's intention to convey a message and a listener's reception of what has been said. Thus, listening skills are just as important as speaking skills in order for communication to be effective.

This means that if you want to get your message across accurately, you need to consider these three things:

- The message;
- The audience or receiver; and
- How the message is likely to be received.

A message is only considered successfully communicated when both the sender and the receiver perceive and understand it in the same way. If this does not happen, then there may be a breakdown in communication, which may ultimately stand in the way of you realizing your goals, either personally or professionally.

1.1.2 Factors Affecting Communication

As mentioned earlier, effective communication is a two-way process but there are a number of factors which may disrupt this process and affect the overall interpretation and understanding of what was communicated. Myriad problems can pop up at different stages of the communication process. These can relate to any of the elements involved – the sender, message, channel, receiver, feedback and context. It is therefore important to understand some of the factors that affect communication so that you can try to get your message across with minimal misunderstanding and confusion.

Below are some possible problem areas that may turn out to be barriers to effective communication:

(a) Status/Role

The sender and receiver of a message may be of equal status within a hierarchy (e.g. managers in an organization) or they may be at different levels (e.g. manager/employee, lecturer/student, business owner/clients).

This difference in status sometimes affects the effectiveness of the communication process.

(b) Cultural Differences

Cultural differences, both within or outside the organization (for example, inter-departmental dealings and communication with outside organizations or ethnic minorities) may impede the communication process.

ACTIVITY 1.1

The meaning of communication lies in the way that it is received.

Do you agree with the above statement? Discuss with your friends during the next tutorial session.

(c) Choice of Communication Channels

Before you choose your communication channel, you should ask yourself whether the channel is appropriate for a particular purpose and the person/receiver you

have in mind. Sending messages via inappropriate channels can send out wrong signals and end up creating confusion.

(d) Length of Communication

The length of the message also affects the communication process. You need to be sure that it serves the purpose and is appropriate for the receiver. Is the message too long or too brief?

(e) Use of Language

Poor choice of words or weak sentence structure also hampers communication. The same goes for inappropriate punctuation. The two sentences below illustrate clearly how different placement of punctuation can change the entire meaning of a sentence:

(f) Disabilities

Disabilities such as impaired sight, dyslexia and poor mental health can also be barriers to good communication, and should be taken into consideration when evaluating the effectiveness of the communication process. You may need to use hearing aids, sign language, magnifying systems, and symbols to alleviate problems caused by disabilities.

(g) Known or Unknown Receiver

Whether the receiver is known or unknown to you also plays a major role in determining the effectiveness of your communication. A known receiver may be better able to understand your message despite having insufficient information as both of you probably have common experiences and a shared schemata. An unknown receiver, on the other hand, may require more information and time to decode the message.

(h) Individual Perceptions/Attitudes/Personalities

Sometimes, the method of communication needs to take into consideration the receiver's personality traits, age and preferred style. The elderly and children, for example, have different communication needs and preferences when compared to young adults. Is the receiver of your message a visual, auditory, or kinesthetic sort of person? How do you think they will react to your message? Can you adapt your communication style to suit theirs?

Woman, without her man, is nothing.

(i) Atmosphere/Noise/Distracton

Our surroundings can sometimes pose as barriers to effective communication. A noisy place (a party, for instance) usually puts a strain on oral communication as both the sender and the receiver need to put extra effort to get the message across and ensure that it is understood clearly and correctly.

(j) Clarity of Message

Is the message conveyed in a clear or ambiguous manner?

(k) Lack of Feedback

Feedback is important as it enables confirmation of understanding to be made by both parties. The lack of feedback can sometimes create problems as it can lead to uncertainty and confusion.

When choosing the most appropriate channel of communication, you should heed the following:

- (a) Consider all aspects of the communication process (interpretation, understanding, feedback).
- (b) Think carefully about possible barriers.
- (c) Evaluate the complexity of the message and decide how it might be best conveyed.
- (d) Ask yourself these questions:
 - Who? Characteristics of the receiver(s).
 - Why? Purpose of the communication.
 - What? Content of the message.
 - How? Oral, written, visual or a combination of all three.
 - Where? Location of the meeting.
 - When? Timing/time limit/expected response time.

ACTIVITY 1.2

Your father is not keen on your decision to study medicine in the United Kingdom. How can you persuade him, bearing in mind the barriers to communication that you might encounter?

- (e) Determine whether you are meeting or writing to the people concerned. Is the communication via face-to-face interaction, telephone, letter, e-mail, memo or a report?
- (f) Decisions about the most appropriate channel of communication also depend on factors such as cost, time, confidentiality, convention, urgency and whether written documentation is required.

DEFINING WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

As mentioned earlier, communication can be oral or in written form. What is the difference between these two main types of communication?

Oral communication involves conveying ideas, thoughts or information via a spoken language. In written communication, however, information is exchanged using written symbols, that is, via words and sentences. Written communication is the sharing and exchanging of written symbols between individuals or groups. It is also the presentation of ideas in a coherent manner in written form.

Written communication can take place via:

- Letters;
- Faxes;
- E-mail;
- Reports;
- Memos; and
- Advertisements.

You can acquire good writing skills through extensive reading, note-taking and listening. In order to communicate effectively via writing, you need to have a sound grounding in grammar and vocabulary so that you can present ideas, together with supporting details, in a unified and coherent manner.

WHY WRITTEN COMMUNICATION?

The next question that arises is: „Why do we need to communicate in written form? Why is there a need to document our work or keep written records? The answers to these questions are many and varied.

For one thing, once you put something into writing, the message is there for posterity, so that others can read it again and again, whenever they like. This is especially useful for research purposes where you need to build up on existing pools of knowledge.

Writing also means that information can be stored and transferred from individual to individual and group to group without relying on memory. Through the written word, records can exist independently of the writer.

The written document also helps you to keep abreast of development in whatever project you are involved in as it provides an avenue not only for the sharing of ideas or opinions, but also for the presenting and defending of viewpoints.

Written communication can also serve as a form of acknowledgement, proof that something has been done in case verification is needed later. Sometimes, documenting work helps to clarify thoughts and thinking processes as it allows you to mull over things slowly, at your own pace. It is thinking made public.

So, what must be documented? Any idea, logic, argument or phraseology derived from an outside source must be documented. In academic writing, you must give credit for all borrowed materials, for example, quotations, references, information from primary and secondary sources, facts, data, statistics, opinions, ideas and interpretations which you have gathered from your reading and research.

Such material must be acknowledged and cited, irrespective of whether you have paraphrased, summarized or quoted directly. The only exception is what is loosely termed 'general knowledge or common knowledge', which is information or ideas generally known and accepted by everyone, including the writer and the audience.

You must cite and document all ideas and arguments borrowed from an outside source.

ACTIVITY 1.3

Why do you think formal work should always be documented?

TIPS ON WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

As the above quote shows, writing is a complex process. There is no short cut to being a good writer. If you want to write well, you need to first of all, read extensively. You must read not just books on writing but magazines, websites, newspapers, newsletters and others – anything that you can get your hands on.

Do not be overly concerned with grammar and spelling when you first start out. You can always fix those later. What is important is to put your thoughts down on paper first. The next section will outline some tips and guidelines to help you get started.

1.4.1 The Writing Process

Successful written communication requires careful thought and planning. It should contain comprehensive information about a specific subject and yet be clear, correct and easy to read.

A well-written piece of work requires you to pay attention to the following three stages in the writing process:

- Planning;
- Writing; and
- Editing.

(a) Planning

To write a good report, you need to plan what you want to say. After you have decided on what you want to say, list down all the points and arrange them in a logical and suitable sequence. This approach will ensure the clarity of your message and help you to avoid omitting relevant details.

We all use language to communicate, express ourselves, get our ideas across and connect with the person to whom we are speaking. When a relationship is working, the act of communication seems to flow relatively effortlessly. When a relationship is deteriorating, the act of communicating can be as frustrating as climbing a hill of sand.

(b) Writing

The writing stage requires careful planning. It includes a pre-writing stage where you gather all the information necessary to ensure that there is substance to your writing. Start writing in simple and plain English and move from something concrete to something more abstract and expressive.

In order to improve your writing skills, you need to practice writing in the target language everyday until you are able to express yourself clearly and meet the needs of your reader. Once you start writing, the words, sentences, paragraphs and lay-outs become writing tools which you can use to convey your message concisely, courteously, and confidently.

Sebranek, Meyer and Kemper (1996) summed it up in a nutshell when they say that writing is like „...basketball and juggling, (it) is not a God-given mysterious talent given only to a chosen few but, rather, a skill that gets better with practice, practice that involves increased challenges and, therefore, risk.

Adopt a plain, straightforward style when writing as this makes your work easy to understand and reduces the chances of misunderstanding arising from ambiguity.

(c) Editing

The third stage in the writing process is editing. It is crucial to check for grammatical errors and ensure that there is smooth language flow. The longer the report, the more editing is usually required. It can be useful to get someone else to read through the written piece for you.

1.4.2 Pitfalls to Avoid

Basically, there are four types of errors that you must try to avoid in written communication, as shown in Figure 1.2.

(a) Confusing Language

Confusing language refers to words that mislead the reader and cause communication breakdown. It may also result in barriers being erected between the writer and the reader. Avoid words which are ambiguous, bombastic, vague, sexist, exaggerated, inflated and archaic. Remember to write in plain, good English.

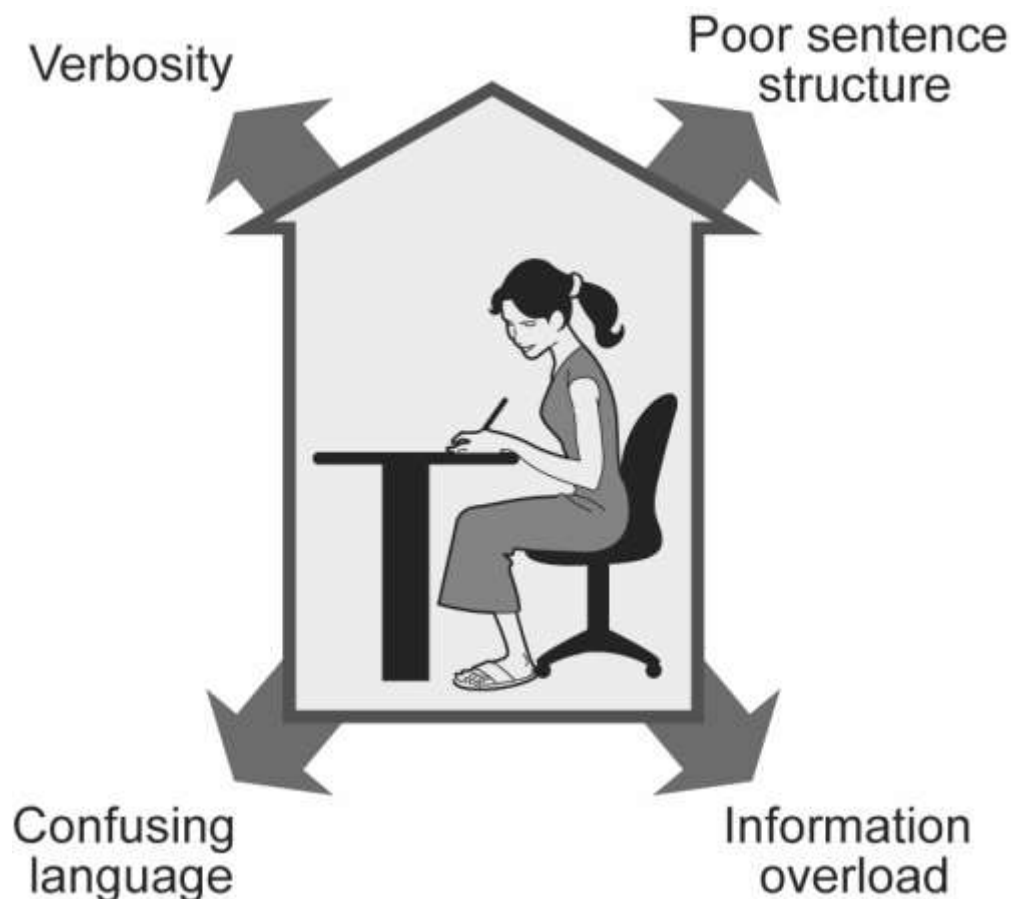


Figure 1.2: Common errors in writing

(b) Verbosity

Verbosity means the use of too many words, so much so that they interfere with understanding. If verbosity persists, it may antagonize, confuse, and bore the reader.

Check out the examples below:

- (i) Adnin was the winner! (OK)
Adnin won! (Better)
- (ii) The rugby ball flew all the way up, over to the centre field. (OK)
The rugby ball sailed to the centre field. (Better)
- (iii) The stability and quality of our financial performance will be developed through the profitable execution of our existing business, as well as the acquisition or development of new businesses. (Too long, too wordy, passive voice.)

We will improve our financial performance not only by executing our existing business more profitably but by acquiring or developing new businesses. (Better, shorter, active voice.)

ACTIVITY 1.4

In writing, why do you think it is better to omit needless words?
Discuss.

(c) Poor Sentence Structure

Poor sentence structure often leads to fragmented writing and choppy sentences that impede understanding. Try to keep your sentence(s) short and concise to ensure that they are correct, logical and easy to understand.

Word order is important for meaning. Remember that words should be structured in such a way that those which precede should be in accordance with those that follow.

ACTIVITY 1.5

The following examples have misplaced modifiers*. Re-order the words to make them acceptable, presentable and grammatically correct.

- For sale. Antique desk suitable for lady with thick legs and large drawers.
- Enraged cow injures farmer with an axe.

(Ratner, B.D., 2004)

(*A modifier is an adjective or adverb that changes the meaning of a noun or verb. It is an optional element in a sentence.)

(d) Information Overload

Information overload means giving so much information till you feel overwhelmed and confused. This may cause frustration and cast doubts on the writer's credibility. Therefore, as a writer, you must decide on the type of information required and present this to produce a clear, concise and relevant piece of written work.

ACTIVITY 1.6

Tell me and I'll forget.

*Show me and I may not remember.
Involve me and I'll understand.*

In your opinion, how does this saying relate to the art of written communication?

CHALLENGES IN WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

Although some people are intimidated by writing, there are times when writing is perceived as the best way to communicate and to get your message across.

Some people consider written communication to be more concrete and „solid%, as there is less room for errors and mistakes when compared with other forms of communication like oral communication.

1.5.1 New Technologies

Written communication, however, poses challenges such as spelling, grammar, punctuation, style of writing, and actual wording. Thankfully, today's technology makes writing memos, reports, letters, and proposals a breeze by providing tools that can check and even correct misspelt words and incorrect grammar.

Unfortunately, these tools are not foolproof and will require your attention, thus making knowledge in this area important. Currently, you can even send messages electronically via e-mails or networking technologies such as SMS.

Irrespective of the form that written communication takes, you need to adhere to certain accepted norms when communicating; otherwise, others might not be able, or want to, communicate with you.

1.5.2 When Others Fail to Respond

In order to get messages conveyed effectively, you must understand what your message is, who you are sending it to, and how it will be perceived. You must also be able to carefully consider the circumstances surrounding your communication such as the situation, context, culture, and whether it is formal or informal.

Sometimes, people may not respond to your communication for the following reasons:

- Their own poor writing skills (for example, language deficiencies).
- Too much information in the text/message.
- Too many grammatical errors and mistakes.
- Barriers between the sender and receiver (cultural, status, role).
- Message is not clear or precise.
- Wrong choice of delivery channel/ format.
- Past experiences (e.g. treatment received).
- Documents not structured, messy or not laid out well.

1.5.3 Asking the Right Questions

If a channel of communication is blocked or has come to a standstill, you may need to pause a moment, and re-evaluate the situation. You have to find out where things have gone wrong. One way to start doing this is by posing questions to yourself:

- Where did it go wrong?
- Why was the message not understood or misinterpreted by the receiver?
- Was the timing bad?
- Did I use the correct channel to deliver the message?
- Are there many errors or mistakes in the document?

The answers to these questions may shed some light on where the communication had gone wrong.

In order to make it easy for others to understand your communication and respond accordingly, you should make sure that you provide the following:

- A clear indication of your purpose.
- Accurate and objective information.
- Appropriate headings and sub-headings.
- A suitable order of information.
- Concise and precise instructions.
- Desired action clearly spelled out.

ACTIVITY 1.7

Think of possible reasons why people have failed to respond to your written communication in the past. Share this with your friends at the next tutorial session.

Upon receiving the written communication or report, the reader should understand the contents of the report clearly; know precisely what action needs to be taken; how to do it; when to do it; and in what manner it should be done.

SUMMARY

- This topic highlights the importance of communication, its meaning, and the relationship between the message, sender and receiver.
- Communication is defined as the giving, receiving or exchanging of information, opinions or ideas so that the message is completely understood by everybody involved.
- A two-way process, communication comprises the following elements – the sender, message, channel, receiver, feedback, and context.
- Barriers to effective communication include status and roles, cultural differences, choice of communication channel, length of communication, disabilities, use of language, individual perceptions, noise and distraction, clarity of message, and feedback.
- There are three important stages to producing good written communication:
 - ✓ Planning;
 - ✓ Writing; and
 - ✓ Editing.
- The pitfalls to avoid in written communication are using confusing language, verbosity, poor sentence structure, and information overload.
- All borrowed materials must be cited.
- People sometimes fail to respond to written forms of communication for various reasons, for instance, the message is not clear, the language is weak or there is too much information.
- The receiver of any written report should be able to understand the contents of the report, know precisely what action needs to be taken, how to do it and in what manner it should be done.

CHAPTER TWO

COMMUNICATION THEORY

What is Communication?

- “The process by which people interactively create, sustain and manage meaning” (D&Z, p 2),
- It is how we plan, control, manage, persuade, understand, lead, love, and so on,
- Competent communication: both *effective* (achieving goal) and *appropriate* (follow social expectation).

What is Theory?

Theory is about *what* we know and *how* we know it.

- Theories provide an abstract understanding of the communication process (Miller, 2002),
- A lens through see the world, which highlights some things (and ignores others!) (D&Z, 3),
- A systematic summary about the nature of the communication process.

There are 3 types of theories:

1. Commonsense theory
 - Created by an individual’s own personal experience,
 - Useful to us and are often a basis for our decisions about how to communicate,
 - These theories are not supported by research.
2. Working theory
 - Generalizations made in particular professions about the best techniques doing something,
 - Practical and more systematic than commonsense theory.
3. Scholarly theory
 - The theory has undergone systematic research,
 - Provides more thorough accurate and abstract explanations for communication,
 - They are often more complex and difficult to understand.

Evaluating theory;

These are some criteria for evaluating the usefulness of the theory. Not good or bad.

	What to look for?
Accuracy	Has the research supported that the theory works the way it says it does? Look at the research studies that have sued the theory
Practicality	Have real-world applications been found for the theory?
Succinctness	Has the theory been formulated with the appropriate number (fewest) of concepts or steps?
Consistency	Does the theory demonstrate coherence within its own premises and with other theories? <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Internal: ideas of the theory are logically built on one another- External: refers to the theory's consistency with other widely held theories
Acuity	To what extent does the theory make clear an otherwise complex experience?(The 'wow-factor')

CHAPTER THREE

THEORY DEVELOPMENT

Theory-research link;

There are different ways of looking to this link:

- Inductive: theory development (grounded theory): Research comes before theory. Study on a particular topic and based on the results of the research, develop a theory,
- Deductive: theory development: A hypothesis, or a working theory must be developed before any research is conducted. The resulting theory is called a 'law'.

Both approaches are dynamic: they suppose that theories will change if the data is changed

What is Research?

The methodical gathering of data as well as the careful reporting of the results of the data analysis. There are two categories of reporting research:

- Primary research: research reported by the person who conducted it. Often academic journals,
- Secondary research: research reported by someone other than the person who conducted it. This is published in newspapers or textbooks.

Research Methods;

Subjectivity: one's own interpretation of interest, Objectivity: a central feature of social science.

Quantitative: rely on numbers of statistics, Qualitative: individual interpretation.

There are different research methods in communication. These are explained below:

- Experiments,
- Survey Research,
- Textual analysis,
- Ethnography.

Experiments

Experimentation is ultimately concerned with causation and control. An experiment is the only research method that allows researchers to conclude that one thing causes another.

There are 2 variables within a research. (concepts that can take 2 or more values, such as gender)

- Independent variable: presumed cause (causes the change of dependent),
- Dependent variable: presumed effect (cause by independent).

If you are interested in knowing whether bright colors in advertisements cause increased sales, your independent variable is the color and the dependent variable is the amount of sales dollars. *Manipulation* is carefully controlling the participants exposure to the independent variable.

There are 2 possible settings for an experiment, a laboratory experiment or a field experiment.

- Laboratory experiment: takes place in a controlled setting, so that the researcher might better control his or her efforts at manipulations,
- Field experiments: take place in participants' natural surroundings.

Survey research

The most common means of studying communication is through the use of surveys. Market research and other surveys are an example of this. It's the only way to find out what people think, feel, or intends to behave. In general, there are 2 types of surveys.

- Interviews: participants respond orally,
- Questionnaires: respond in writing.

There are two types of questions:

- Open-ended questions: answer in their own words,
- Closed-ended questions: Only a few possible answers.

To commit a survey, you need sampling (small number of people in the population of interest). If the sample is well selected, the results of the survey are likely also to hold true for the entire group.

- Random samples: every member of the target group has an equal chance of being selected,
- Non-random samples: volunteers,

Random are more likely to use, because they give a more representative view of the population.

Textual Analysis Is used to uncover the content, nature or structure of messages. Or it can be used to evaluate messages on their strengths, weaknesses, effectiveness, or even equality. There are 3 distinct forms that textual analyses take in the communication discipline:

- Rhetorical criticism: a systematic method for describing, analyzing, interpreting and evaluating the persuasive force of messages,
- Content analysis: identify, classify and analyze the occurrence of particular types of messages. Developed to study mass mediated messages,
- Interaction analysis (conversation analysis): focus on interpersonal or group communication interactions that have been recorded, with specific emphasis on the nature or structure of interaction.

Ethnography

Used by scholars of communication. The researcher must place him or herself into a particular culture or context to understand the communication rules and meanings for that culture or context.

- Complete participants: researcher is fully involved in social setting and participants don't know that someone is studying them,
- Participant – observer: researcher becomes fully involved with the culture or contexts, but has admitted the research agenda before entering the environment. Are more frequently chosen.
- Complete observers: do not interact with the members of the culture or context.

Methods	What It Reveals	What It Conceals
Experiment	Cause and Effect	Whether the cause-effect relationship holds true in less controlled environments
Survey	Thoughts, Feelings and Intentions	Can't establish causality, can't predict real behavior
Textual Analysis	Content, nature, structure messages	The effect of the message on the receiver
Ethnography	Rules and meanings of communication in a culture or context	May provide a highly subjective (and therefore biased) view of the culture and context

Social science and the humanities;

There are two approaches to communication:

	Social Science	Humanities
Central Feature	Standardization and generalization because of objectivity	Meaning is subjective and unique to individuals
Belief about Human Nature	Determinism, experiences of past make people behave a certain way	Pragmatism, people are dynamic actors
Goal of Theory	Understand and predict	Understand only, can't predict because everyone is different
Theory Development	Deductive	Inductive
Focus of Research	Particularism, study narrowly defined areas, eventually big picture reveals	Holism, looking at the big picture
Research Methods	Experiments, quantitative survey, textual analysis	Ethnography, qualitative survey, textual analysis

Development and change of theories;

Once theories have been developed, they continue change and grow.

- Extension: means that the theory adds more concepts and builds upon what already established,
- Intension: scholars gain a deeper and more nuanced understanding of original concepts.

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CHAPTER FOUR

EXPLAINING THEORIES OF COGNITION AND INTRAPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Intrapersonal communication: individuals internally drive process to bring individual meaning to various messages. There are 4 theories that examine the intrapersonal aspects of communication.

Message Design Logic's (MDL), <i>O'keefe (1988)</i>	Your belief about communication links thoughts to the construction of messages.
Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT), <i>Giles & Coupland (1991)</i>	Explains and predicts speech convergence through perception of cultural and social identities
Uncertainty Reduction Theory (URT), <i>Berger and Calabrese's (1975)</i>	Explain and predict when, why and how individuals use communication to minimize their doubts
Expectancy Violations Theory (EVT), <i>Judee Burgoon (1978, 1994)</i>	Predicts and explains people's behavior when their personal space is violated

Message Design Logics (MDL);

Because people think differently about communication, they will construct very different types of messages. 3 types of Message Design Logics::

1. Expressive message logic: a person using this pattern is concerned with primarily self-expression.
Communication is viewed as a means for delivering the sender's thoughts and feelings. Values like openness, honesty and clarity are important. Such communicators pay little attention to context en appropriateness. If it's in their head, it's in their mouth,
2. Conventional design logic: a person using this pattern sees communication as a rule-based game that is played cooperatively. They primarily concern is appropriateness and 'doing the right thing',

3. Rhetorical message design logic: a person using this pattern sees communication as the means to create situations and negotiate multiple goals. They are primarily concerned with flexibility, sophistication and depth of communication skills. Those using this pattern pay close attention to other peoples' communication in an effort to figure out others' points of view. Adapting to the situation.

Note that diversity between strategy is half the battle, meaning there is no best strategy. MDL are not personality traits, they can change and develop over an individual's lifespan.

Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT);

Provides an informative platform from which to understand cultural differences and similarities with regard to speech and language. Social identity groups:

- *In groups*: social affiliations to which an individual feels that he or she belongs,
- *Out groups*: those social affiliations to which a person feels he or she does not belong.

Ways to assimilate with or to deviate from others:

- Convergence: altering your speech and behaviour, that it matches that of your conversational partner,
Positive effects: increased attraction, social approval and increased persuasion,
Negative eff.: incorrect stereotypes of out-groups, perceived condescension, loss of personal identity,
- Divergence: to make your speech or behaviour different from that of your conversational partner,
Positive eff.: protects cultural identity, asserts power differences, increased sympathy,
Neg. eff.: perceived disdain for out-groups, perceived lack of effort, increased psychological distance.

Uncertainty Reduction Theory (URT);

Seeks to explain and predict when, why and how individuals use communication to minimize their doubts when interacting with others. There are three assumptions used in this theory:

- Primary goal of communication is to minimize uncertainties that human have about the world,

- Individuals experience uncertainty on regular basis and this is unpleasant,
- Communication is the primary vehicle to reduce uncertainty.

Individuals are motivated to reduce uncertainty under one of three specific conditions:

- *Anticipation of future interaction*: when you are likely to see someone again,
- *Incentive value*: when the other has the potential to provide you with rewards or punishments,
- *Deviance*: when a person is odd, or unusual in some way that encounters your expectations.

There are 2 different types of uncertainty;

- *Behavioural* uncertainty: how to act appropriate,
- *Cognitive* uncertainty: how to think about someone or something,

Table 3.3 on page 45 provides 8 axioms for URT to supply the backbone of the theory. There are 3 strategies:

1. Passive strategy: looking in your surroundings for what is appropriate behaviour as well as which beliefs and attitudes others hold (playing detective, observing),
2. Active strategy: seeking information from a third party,
3. Interactive strategy: going straight to the source to ask for information.

Expectancy Violations Theory (EVT);

Explains the various meanings that people attribute to the violation of their personal space. Personal space can also refer to psychological or emotional space. Most central to EVT is the assumption that humans have competing needs for personal space and affiliation.

When you perceive that one of your needs has been compromised, EVT predicts that you will try to do something about it. You can *reciprocate* (moving closer) or *compensate* (counteract).

The 3 core concepts of UVT:

- Expectancy: refers to what an individual anticipates will happen in a given situation, based on three primary factors: context, relationship, communicator's characteristics,

- Violation valence: positive/negative evaluation you make about a behavior that you didn't anticipate,
- Communicator reward valence: an evaluation you make about the person who committed the violation.

(Does this person have the ability to reward or punish you in the future?).

After assessing these factors you can predict whether a person will reciprocate (match the behaviour) or compensate (acting opposite) the behaviour in question.

CHAPTER FIVE

EXPLAINING THEORIES OF INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Interpersonal communication messages are offered to initiate, define, maintain or further a relationship. It refers both to content and quality of messages relayed and the possibility of further relation development. There are 4 theories that are critical to current understandings of interpersonal communication.

Politeness Theory (PT), <i>Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987)</i>	Clarifies individuals' strategies to maintain their "face" or sense of desired public image
Social Exchange Theory (SET), <i>Thibaut and Kelley (1959)</i>	Evaluates relationships on basis of rewards and costs; explains whether relationship will continue as well as whether partners will feel satisfied
Dialectic Perspective, <i>Baxter and Montgomery (1996)</i>	Describes contradictions individuals inevitably face within their personal relationships and explains how management of contradictions can predict relationship's success or failure
Communication Privacy Management Theory (CPM), <i>Petronio's (2002)</i>	Builds on these earlier theories, and focuses on the decision we make to reveal or conceal information

Politeness Theory (PT);

Clarifies how we manage our own and others' identities through interaction, in particular through the use of politeness strategies. There are three assumptions within this theory:

- Individuals are concerned with maintaining face.
 - *Positive face*: a person's need to be liked, appreciated and admired.
 - *Negative face*: a person's desire to act freely, without constraints or imposition from others,
- Individuals have choices and make communicative decisions to achieve relational and task-oriented goals within the context of maintaining face,
- Some behavior is face threatening. Face threatening acts include common behaviors such as apologies, compliments, criticism, requests and threats.

Face-work; specific messages that minimize face-threatening acts (FTAs).

- *Preventive face-work*: communications that a person can use to help oneself or another avert FTAs. (avoiding certain topics, changing the subject, pretending not to notice),
- *Corrective face-work*: consists of messages that an individual can use to restore one's own face or to help another restore face after an FTA has occurred. (avoidance, humor, apologies).

5 supra-strategies when communicating in a manner that could threaten face:

1. Avoidance: choosing not to communicate in a way that causes FTAs,
2. Going off record: the speaker subtly hints or indirectly mentions the FTA,
3. Negative politeness: when the speaker makes an effort to recognize the other's negative face needs,
4. Positive politeness: when the speaker emphasizes the receiver's need for positive face,
5. Bald on record: when the speaker makes no attempt to protect the other's face.

Factors influencing Politeness Theory:

- *Social distance*: If the person has more prestige than you, you will be more polite and vice versa,
- *Power*: Whether the person has power over you,
- *Risk*: Whether there is a risk of hurting the other person.

Social Exchange Theory (SET);

Is intended to explain why and when people maintain or end relationships and is based on three assumptions:

- Personal relationships are a function of assessing benefits and costs,
- People want to maximize benefits and lessen costs (mini-max principle),
- Humans are selfish.

Three Core Components

- Social relationships bring rewards and costs. $\text{Rewards} - \text{Costs} = \text{Outcome (OC)}$,
- Comparison level (CL): what a person expects to receive in a given relationship,
- Comparison level of alternatives (CL_{alt}): alternatives to the relationship.

Predictions made by SET:

- OC > CL = Satisfied, OC < CL = Dissatisfied
- OC > CL_{alt} = Stay, OC < CL_{alt} = Terminate

Dialectical Perspective;

Useful for explaining and understanding how individuals sustain interpersonal relationships. 4 assumptions:

- *Praxis*: relationship development are neither linear nor repetitive (circling),
- *Change*: the only guarantee in a relationship is that it will change,
- *Contradiction*: in every relationship both partners have essentials, yet opposing needs,
- *Totality*: interdependence between relationship partners.

Between partners, three internal tensions are thought to exist:

- *Autonomy – Connection*: independence vs connection,
- *Openness – Closedness*: opening up versus privacy,
- *Predictability – Novelty*: stability versus opportunities for spontaneity.

Between a relationship in the environment there are external tensions:

- *Inclusion – Seclusion*: alone time versus time with friends, family, ect,
- *Revelation – Concealment*: private information versus desiring to tell others,
- *Conventionality – Uniqueness*: traditional versus unique.

For an overview of corresponding tensions (dialects), DP are identified with 4 strategies to handle the internal and external tensions:

1. Selection: choosing one pole at the expense of the other,
2. Cyclic alteration: fulfill one pole now and shift to fulfill the other pole later,
3. Segmentation: certain issues coincide with one pole or need and other issues are appropriate for the opposite pole. (be close about politics, but open about the rest),
4. Integration: includes several variations. Ex: Every Friday (predictable), new restaurant (novelty).

Communication Privacy Management theory (CPM);

The basic premise of the theory is that people create decision-making rules to help them determine when to reveal and when to conceal information. The theory allows us to better understand what individuals disclose, keep private and how private information is handled among people. There are 6 major principles of CPM:

1. Public-private dialectical tension: refers to competing demands in a relationship,
2. Private information: information that is inaccessible to others, (can be information about another),
3. Privacy rules: cultural, gender, motivational, contextual and risk-benefit criteria.
4. Boundaries: personal boundaries contain individual information, collective contain shared information.
5. Boundary coordination: refers to collective boundaries,

Boundary linkage: refer to alliances between owners of information,

Boundary ownership: refers to the rights and responsibilities borne by the owners of information,

Boundary permeability: how much information is easily passed through the boundary.

6. Boundary turbulence: occurs when rules for privacy management or not clear.

CHAPTER SIX

EXPLAINING THEORIES OF GROUP COMMUNICATION

Group: three or more individuals who focus on achieving common purpose and who influence and are influenced by each other. Not aggregate (people waiting for train) or organizations (formal hierarchies).

Team: an ongoing, coordinated group of people working together and are empowered to complete tasks from start to finish (self-directed and self-regulating). Not all groups are teams, but all teams are qualified as group.

System Perspective	Provides an overarching view of how interdependence creates and affects the communication in groups.
Interaction Process Analysis (IPA), <i>Bales (1953)</i>	Provides means to create descriptive typography of the types of messages sent in groups and how they are perceived
Symbolic Convergence Theory (SCT) <i>Bormann (1982)</i>	Explains development of group consciousness, including shared emotions, motives and means
Functional group decision-making, <i>Gouran and Hirokwawa (1983, 1986, 1996)</i>	Centers on tasks that communication achieves in the decision-making process

Systems Perspective;

A focus on the interdependence that develops whenever people interact with each other. A system is a group of individuals who interrelate to be a whole. (sports club). A smaller part of the system is a subsystem (sports team). A supra-system is the larger system within which the system operates (league).

Assumptions of systems perspective:

- Believe in *non-summativity*: the whole is greater than the sum of its parts, *Positive synergy* is when the group achievement is higher than individuals, *Negative synergy* is when individuals would have achieved more than the group.

- *Interdependence*: all system parts depend on each other, like brains and heart in 'body system',
- *Homeostasis*: the natural balance within groups. This is not meant systems can't change, but they adapt to new situations naturally,
- *Equifinality*: there are multiple ways to achieve the same goal.

According to the Palo Alto group, there are 5 axioms of communication:

- The impossibility of not communicating: all behavior has the potential to be communicative. Being silent is also a form of communicating (angry, shy, etc.),
- Content and relationship levels: besides the content (the message), you send additional information.

How you say what you say will affect your partners' interpretations and will also give others clues about the relationships between the interactants,

- The problem of punctuation: what you view as the cause and effect is not necessarily how an interactional partner will view it. To resolve the problem, forget about assigning blame,
- Digital & analogic communication: digital communication express detailed meaning if interactants share the same set of symbols; analogic communication can express power full feelings directly,
- Complementary and symmetrical communication: within systems, patterns of interaction develop such that people behave differently or similarly. Pattern particularly illustrates power in the relationship.

Interaction Process Analysis (IPA);

A classic theory developed to explain patterns of group discussion, particularly in terms of leadership.

Developed as a way of analyzing group communication. Groups seek to accomplish two goals.

1. *Task*: productivity,
2. *Maintenance*: cohesion.

Groups have to balance task, and maintenance needs. Therefore groups might have a task leader and a socio-emotional leader.

System for Multiple Level Observation of Groups (SYMLOG): theory of group dynamics and way to measure and change group behavior.

- Forward vs. Backward: authority,
- Positive vs. Negative: friendliness,
- Upward vs. Downward: dominance/submissive.

Asks people to rate themselves and each other on these three dimensions by answering a series of questions such as their commitment to organizational goals, level of trust in colleagues etc. So you can study the role that individuals have in groups.

Symbolic Convergence Theory (SCT);

Founded on the idea that group members cooperatively create and sustain a shared consciousness, including shared meaning, through interaction. Focus on:

- The creation of group identity,
- The ways that group identity influence norms for behaviour.

Symbolic Convergence Process:

- “Fantasy Theme” may start with a “Dramatizing Message” *Fantasy*: creative understanding of events that fulfils a psychological or rhetorical need,
- “Fantasy Chain”: theme develops through group interaction and enters group consciousness,
- Symbolic convergence: if fantasy chains transforms group from collection of individuals to identifiable group with group consciousness,
- Rhetorical Vision: unified way of seeing the world. Various fantasy chains combine within a group.

A rhetorical vision might start in a group and spread out to other parts of an organization.

Functional group decision making;

A more specific focus on decision-making: ‘Why do some groups make good decisions while others make bad ones?’ Function refers to what communication does. A group has to successfully fulfill 4 requisite functions to achieve good decisions:

1. Problem analysis: focus on the nature, extent, and likely causes of the problem. Be careful to differentiate between problems and symptoms of problems,

2. Goal setting: identify what an ideal solution would 'look like'. What are the necessary elements, and what would be ideal but not necessary?
3. Identify alternatives: generate large number of possible solutions: Quantity matters more than quality.
4. Evaluate and select: Evaluate each alternative using established goals.

3 types of communication exist in small groups:

- Promotive communication: communication geared toward one of the requisite functions.
- Disruptive comm.: diverts, retards or frustrates ability of the group to achieve the requisite functions.
- Counteractive comm.: messages that return a disrupted group back to the requisite functions.

CHAPTER SEVEN

EXPLAINING THEORIES OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Organization: a group of people who coordinate activities to achieve individual and collective goals.

Communication within organizations typically serves three functions or purposes:

- *Relationship:* socializing organizational and integrate workers in the work environment,
- *Organizing:* communication guides, directs and controls organizational activity,
- *Change:* organizational members analyzes, problem-solve, adapt and innovate.

Most communication theories see organizational culture as emerging from interaction, not easily manipulated.

Organizational Culture	3 levels of culture (artifacts, values, basic assumption) and basic assumptions are heart of organizational culture
Organizational assimilation theory <i>Jablin (1987, 2001)</i>	Four stages of becoming part of an organization
Organizational Identification and Control (OIC), <i>Barker (1999)</i>	When organizational members identify with values of an organization, they can be controlled through self-discipline and peer pressure
Organizing Theory, <i>Weick (1969)</i>	Organizations must process equivocal information to succeed

Organizational Culture:

Focused on the elements that compromise an organizational culture and how organizational culture assist individuals in making sense of their experiences.

Culture: refers to a pattern of shared assumptions that have been invented, discovered or developed by a given group and are taught to new members as the corrective way to think, perceive and behave.

Four cultures (Deal and Kennedy, 1982): Based on Values, heroes, rites & rituals and cultural network.

	Risk Low	Risk High
<i>Feedback & Reward Rapid</i>	Work Hard-Play Hard - Fun and action - Lots of activity, but certainty	Tough-Guy Macho - Quickly taking gamble
<i>Feedback & Reward Slow</i>	Process - Focus on how, not what	Bet-the-Company -High stake gamble over years

Three levels of culture (Schein, 1992):

- Level 1 – Artifacts: refer to observable evidence of culture. It may take the forms of physical entities, such as architecture, technology, dress, forms of address, decision making style and communication patterns. Observing only these artifacts is not enough because the meaning isn't clear,
- Level 2 – Values: preferences about how situations should be handled. They represent shared beliefs about how things ought to happen. Organizational leaders are frequently the source of values,
- Level 3 – Basic assumptions: refers to the viewpoints organizational members hold about the world, including perceptions, thoughts, feelings and beliefs. These basic assumptions are subconscious because they have been reinforced over and over again as the organization faces challenges. Basic assumptions are at the heart of the organization culture, because such presumptions are made uniformly, throughout the organization.

Organizational Assimilation Theory.

A way to explain how individuals become integrated into the culture of an organization. This can be planned and don't have to take years. The theory identifies four stages:

- Vocational Anticipatory Socialization: Developing a set of expectations and beliefs about the nature of work and work settings,
- Anticipatory Socialization: Learning about a particular vocation, position, and organization,
- Encounter: Making sense of the organizational culture,
- Metamorphosis: Turning from outsider to insider.

Organizational Identification and Control (OIC);

Centers on the way that an individual's connection to the organization influences behaviour and decision making in team-based structured. 3 main concepts tie the theory together:

- Identification: the sense of oneness or belongingness to an organization.
- Control: an organization needs control to get things done.
 - *Simple*; direct, authoritarian control (classic),
 - *Technological*; technology to manage what can('t) be done (assembly line, limitation computer),
 - *Bureaucratic*; A hierarchical system of rules (employee handbooks),
 - *Unobtrusive*; based on shared values within the organization (Identification),
 - *Concertive*; based on interpersonal relationships and teamwork (coworker pressure),
- Discipline: achieved through a sense of responsibility to the work group members.

Organizing Theory

This theory is stating that communication is the organization. This theory is concerned with the massive amount of information that organizations have available to them. Communication is what constitutes an organization; concerned with information environment.

Equivocality: ambiguity of information available to organizations. There may be multiple understandings of the information. Individual's decides which of multiple interpretations is the best fit. 2 ways reducing equivocality

1. Rules/recipes: However, rules don't always work and there isn't a rule for every situation,
2. double interacts: to engage in communication cycles,
 - *Act* a communication behavior initiated by one person or group of people,
 - *Response* the receivers of the message communicate in return. This 2 way exchange of message is the one most typically used to understand the communication process,
 - *Adjustment* communication requires a third step, adjustment to the information that was originally received. It might be a confirmation that the information has been understood.

Sociocultural evolution for organizations

1. Enactment: organization members take note of equivocal information in their information environment,
2. Selection: members must choose how to response,
3. Retention: a form of organizational memory. What was done and how it was done is stored so that organizational members can refer to it again.

CHAPTER EIGHT

EXPLAINING THEORIES OF PERSUASION

Persuasion: human communication that is designed to influence others by modifying their beliefs, values or attitudes. Persuasion involves:

- A goal and the intent to achieve that goal on the part of the message sender,
- Communication is the means to achieve that goal,
- The message recipient must have free will.

Attitude: relatively enduring predisposition to respond favorably or unfavorably toward something. We have attitudes toward people. Places, events and so forth.

Social Judgment Theory (SJT), <i>Sherif</i>	Focuses on people's assessment (anchors, latitudes of acceptance/rejection/ non-commitment) of persuasive messages
Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM), <i>Petty and Cacioppo's (1986)</i>	Targets of persuasive messages use mental processes of motivation and ability to process to accept/reject messages
Theory of planned behavior (TPB), <i>Azjen (1988)</i>	Not changing behavior intention, but changing the actual behavior
Theory of reasoned action (TRA), <i>Fishbein & Ajzen (1975)</i>	
Inoculation theory, <i>Pfau (1997)</i>	Is about not persuading someone, to resist persuasion

Social Judgment Theory (SJT);

Suggest that knowing a person's attitudes on subjects can provide you with clues about how to approach a persuasive effort. People make judgments about the content of messages based on anchors, on a particular topic message. In addition to an individual's anchor, each person's attitude can be placed into 3 categories:

- Latitude of acceptance: all those ideas that a person finds acceptable,
- Latitude of rejection: all those ideas that a person finds unacceptable,
- Latitude of non-commitment: ideas for which you have no opinion.

A person's reaction to a persuasive message depends on his or her position to the topic:

1. Map receiver's attitude toward topics. This can be done through ordered alternative questionnaire,
2. How ego involved that individual is about a certain topic. When an individual is highly ego involved with a topic, she or he believes that the issue is important,
 - The more ego involved a person is, the larger the latitude of rejection that person will have,
 - The more ego involved a person is, the smaller the latitude of non-commitment.

Effects of messages sent in different latitudes:

- Contrast effect: when a message is perceived as further away from that person's anchor that it really is.

This response happens when the message falls within an individual's latitude of rejection,

- Assimilation effect: when a message falls within the individuals latitude of acceptance, receivers minimizes the difference between the message's position and his own position,
- Boomerang effect: when the message actually causes a person to change his or her mind in the direction opposite that desired.

Note: If you send a message that's in the latitude of acceptance, it's not persuading, you are only *reinforcing*.

True persuasion can only occur, if the message falls within the latitude of non-commitment or at the edges of the latitude of acceptance.

Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM);

Depicts persuasion as a process in which the success of influence depends largely on the ways the receiver makes sense of a message. There are 2 routes in this model.

Central route: These messages include a wealth of information, rational arguments and evidence to support a particular conclusion. These messages are designed to create a long-term change. However, not all individuals are capable of receiving centrally routed messages. These messages will only succeed when:

- The target must be highly motivated to process all of the information being given.
- The target must be able to process the message cognitively.

Types of elaborated arguments:

- *Strong* arguments create a positive cognitive response in the minds of receivers,
- *Neutral* arguments create a noncommittal cognitive response from the receiver. No attitude change,
- *Weak* arguments produce a negative cognitive response to the persuasive message.

Peripheral route: Rely on a receiver's emotional involvement and persuade through more superficial means. This route leads to only short-term change, if any change at all. Types of peripheral cues:

- *Authority*: persuader uses authority to convince audience accepting beliefs or behaviors presented,
- *Commitment*: a person's dedication to a product, social cause, political party,
- *Persuading through contrast*: the communicator needs to set up uneven points of comparison,
- *Liking messages*: stress affinity toward a person, place or object. If we like you, we will like your ideas,
- *Messages of reciprocation*: try to influence by emphasizing a give-and-take relationship,
- *Scarcity*: message that preys people's worry of missing something. Example: Quick! Buy before gone,
- *Social proof*: the age old notion of peer pressure. Everyone is doing it.

Types of peripheral messages:

- *Positive* peripheral messages: perceived favorably by the audience and create a positive affective state.

They want to make a positive change in attitude,

- *Neutral* peripheral message: leave the receivers feeling emotionally ambivalent, they don't know or care about the cue used to capture their interest,
- *Negative* peripheral message: produce negative/disapproving emotional responses within receiver.

Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB);

Is an addition to Theory of Reasoned Action. Both of these theories are describing how to change people's behavior, not just the behavior intention.

Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA);

is the theory which TPB is based on. *An overview: figure 7.3, page 134.* Behavior will happen when behavior intention is provided. Within the TRA behavior intention contains two predictors:

Attitude is made up by two components:

- *Evaluation of the object*: how do you grade the object,
- *Belief strength*: how strongly do you feel its important.

Normative beliefs are also made up on two components:

- *Valued other beliefs*: what's the opinion of the environment,
- *Motivation to comply*: peer pressure.

In order to persuade somebody, the sender has to affect the proper predictor. Persuaders can also try to change the relative weights of the predictors.

In addition to TRA, a third predictor, called perceived behavioral control, is added the name changed to TPB.

Perceived behavioral control contains two components:

- *Self-efficacy*: refers to an individuals belief that he can actually perform behavior,
- *Controllability*: recognizes (or perceived) that sometimes things are simply out of control.

Inoculation theory;

Is about not persuading someone, but to resist a person from persuasion. An inoculation message presents a weaker form of a contrary argument. Once exposed to this new argument, people are less likely to change their attitudes. They have, in essence, developed a formidable defense system. Research has proven that people are more resistant to persuasion when an inoculation process takes place. There are two major components to an inoculation message:

1. Threat: involves a simple forewarning of a potential persuasive attack. The treat needs not to be a strong warning,
2. Refutational preemption: raising own challenges and then contesting them. Interesting is that counter arguments are unnecessary. More important is how strong the refutational message should be: Not too strong to overwhelm.

Prior to the film Da Vinci Code, the church took measures to inoculate Catholics from the persuasive appeal of the film, indicating the film threatened the Catholic faith.

CHAPTER NINE

EXPLAINING THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

Management: Formal position in an organizational hierarchy, *Leadership* is not based on a structural position.

Challenge of management: Managers need planning skills, Budgetary skills and Organizational skills.

Major challenge of leadership is to cope with change. Leaders must: Demonstrate vision, Motivate people and Empower people to accomplice what is necessary to achieve the vision.

Likert's four systems, <i>Likert (1961)</i>	Proposes one style is superior to others
Transformational leadership, <i>Bass (1997)</i>	Focuses on leaders that inspire others through communication
Contingency model, <i>Fiedler (1967)</i>	Different organizational needs can be met by differing leadership styles
Leadership-member exchange (LMX), <i>Graen</i>	How same leader can have dissimilar relationships with different followers

Likert's Four Systems;

Suggest that there are 4 distinct leadership systems within an organization.

- System 1: "Tells" Exploitative authoritative system,
- System 2: "Sells" benevolent authoritative system; Classical thinking about organizations.,
- System 3: "Consults" consultative system,
- System 4: "Joins" participative system; *Best system*.

Although system 4 is the best system for organizations, in some cases individual leaders might use another.

Transformational Leadership

This theory is about the contrast between two leadership styles, transactional and transformational. Both can assist organizations in achieving goals, but transformational leadership is superior for today's businesses. Transactional

leaders seek to achieve solid, consistent performance from subordinates. A transactional leader is responsive to employees and is clear and structured in terms of expectations. There are 3 primary characteristics:

1. Work with subordinates to develop clear and specific objectives and promise rewards.
2. Exchange rewards and promises of rewards for employee effort,
3. Responsive to immediate self-interests of workers, particularly if combined with getting the job done.

Transformational leaders

Transformational leadership is founded on particular attitudes and behaviors that support organizational change.

These leaders seek to inspire exceptional performance. At the center of transformational leadership is the ability to use subordinates' ideas and actions as a catalyst for transformation. There are 4 facets:

1. *Idealized influence*: establish positive attitudes among employees towards each other and the work. Idealized influence involves taking risks, establishing trust.
2. *Inspirational motivation*: present employees with a clear vision and a desirable future. Followers are motivated by the attainment of this vision and receive encouragement and support.
3. *Intellectual stimulation*: challenge their own assumptions and encourage new approaches. Differences of opinion are addressed openly and without fear.
4. *Individualized consideration*: the leader considers each individual's needs and abilities, while supporting development and mentoring efforts.

Research established a strong link between transformational leadership and Emotional intelligence (EQ), which refers to beliefs and skills that facilitate organizational performance. Several components of EQ at work:

Component	Definition
Self-awareness	The ability to recognize and understand own emotions and how your mood affect others
Self-regulation	The ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods; think before acting
Motivation	A passion for work for reasons beyond money or status
Empathy	The ability to understand the emotional makeup of others;
Social skills	Skill in managing relationships and building network

Contingency model:

Suggest that leaders should adapt their behavior to situational constraints.

2 Distinct Leadership:

- Task leader: focuses primarily on accomplishing organizational goals. Associated with productivity,
- Relationship leader: emphasizes positive relations between all members of the group. These leaders are more concerned with satisfaction, focusing on maintaining group harmony.

According to this theory there are 3 facets to rely on:

1. *Leader-member relations*: refers to the degree of trust and support followers provide to the leader. If the relation is good, the leader can expect members to comply with directions,
2. *Task structure*: has 4 dimensions:
 - Clarity of *group's goals*,
 - *Path multiplicity*, number of potential courses of action available to the group,
 - *Effect verifiability*, the extent to which the effects of decisions are clear,
 - *Specificity of decisions* to be made,
3. *Formal leader-position power*: a hierarchical difference.

Based on these 3 facets, there are different leadership styles: either task, relation or both.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX);

Was developed in response to the majority of traditional leadership models that typically focused on leadership traits (enduring qualities that make a good leader) and leadership states (particular styles that can be developed by leaders to match particular situations). This theory suggests that leaders actually treat each of their subordinates differently. However, the theory recognizes that leadership consist of an interpersonal relationship between a superior and a subordinate and that not all relationships are created equally.

- Leader member exchange: in-group relationships. Characterized by mutual trust, social support and liking. There is much more interaction between organizational members,
- Supervisory exchange: out-group relationships. Impersonal in nature, with little superior-subordinate interaction taking place,
- Middle-group relationship: interaction often impersonal, but occasional provisions of social support.

CHAPTER TEN

EXPLAINING THEORIES OF MEDIATED COMMUNICATION

Mediated: any communication in which some thing (phone, computer, etc.) exists between source and receiver

Mass: mediated communication between source and a large audience that is often unknown by the source

All mass communication is mediated, but the reverse is not true

Media Richness Theory <i>Lengel & Daft (1988)</i>	Focus on the choices a communicator must make about the proper channel
Uses and Gratification Theory (UGT), <i>Katz, Blumler & Gurevitch (1973)</i>	Audience members use media forms that will provide them with individual gratification they seek
Agenda-setting theory, <i>McCombs and Shaw (1972)</i>	Media does not tell us what to think but tell us what to think about
Cultivation theory, <i>Gerbner (1998)</i>	Social perceptions of heavy TV viewers skewed to reality presented on TV

Media richness theory;

The central argument is that the communication channel matches to the content of the information. There are two major considerations:

- Media Richness: refers tot the information carrying capacity of the medium. Face-to-face is very 'rich', while a flyer is very 'lean'. See table 9.1, page 164. This is assessed by four characteristics:
 1. *Speed of feedback*; changing way of explaining,
 2. *Ability to personalize the message*; talking to who?,
 3. *Availability of multiple cues*; verbal or non-verbal expressions,
 4. *Language variety*; vocabulary or jargon.
- Ambiguity: refers to the possibility of multiple interpretations. Ambiguous messages are those that run a greater risk of being misunderstood/are unclear.

The more ambiguous a message is, the more rich the medium should be. Communication effectiveness is assumed to occur because of a match between ambiguity of a message and the richness of the media.

Uses and Gratification Theory (UGT);

Focuses on *why* people use particular media outlets. There are 3 primary assumptions:

- Media use is *active and goal driven* based on individuals needs,
- A person must identify his or her needs and make a media *choice*,
- Media outlets *compete* with other available means of satisfying personal needs.

Reasons why individuals use the media:

1. Entertainment: umbrella for: relax, escape daily life, excitement, emotional, pass time, enjoy.
2. Information: learn, obtain advice, curiosity,
3. Personal identity: develop your own attitudes or beliefs,
4. Personal Relationships and social interaction: connect to others, creating sense of community.

UGT takes the perspective that individuals actively make specific media choices based on 4 common needs.

Agenda-Setting Theory

Focus on media effects of 'news'. Public opinion is shaped, in part, by media coverage. News media presents audience with an 'agenda' for what events public 'should' consider as important. Two key assumptions:

- News media have an agenda and tells people what 'news' is important,
- Most people would like help in understanding and evaluating politics and public reality.

Because researcher shown that what news media presents as important is perceived as important by the public this kind of agenda setting is developed through "Framing the News":

1. Selection: What stories are chosen?,
2. Emphasis: What particular focus is taken?,
3. Elaboration: What is added to 'beef up' the story?,

4. Exclusion: What stories are not covered because of selection, emphasis and elaboration?.

Certain topics are more likely to influence audience thought and certain individuals are more likely to be influenced by these issues.

Need for orientation: depends both on a topic's relevance as well as on a person's uncertainty. Thus, the news media influence their audience to think about selected issues in a certain light.

Cultivation Theory

CT is also emphasizing media effects but almost exclusively on TV violence. CT predicts that viewers who watch lots of TV will overestimate the occurrence of real-life violence. Three main assumptions:

- TV is central to life and culture in USA.
- TV influences audiences' perception of reality, thereby shaping how people interact with others.
- TV's effects are limited, it's not the only factor.

From a research is concluded that minority audience worry the most about being victimized as a result of TV. A *symbolic double jeopardy* exist in which minority persons are significantly less visible on TV than real life. The more TV you watch, the more likely you are to view the world in a way consistent with TV reality.

There is also research that proves there is a link between other media and cultivation effects. Viewers' attitudes are cultivated in two ways:

- Mainstreaming: viewers develop a common view of social reality based on frequent exposures,
- Resonance: congruency between viewers' violent experience and what they see on TV amplifies that such behavior on TV is the social norm.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

EXPLAINING THEORIES OF CULTURE

Culture is one's identification with and acceptance into a group that shares symbols, meanings, experiences and behavior. *Cross-cultural communication* is comparison of two or more cultural communities. **Intercultural** communication involves the actual interaction between members of different cultures.

Hofstede's dimensions of culture, <i>Hofstede (1980)</i>	Useful for assessing cultural differences across social contexts
Gender and communication: a two-culture Perspective	Three perspectives that view gender as culture
Generations and communication: workplace implications	Workplace generations as culture
Face Negotiation Theory, <i>Ting-Toomy (1988)</i>	How cultural difference with face concern influence conflict management

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions;

Hofstede described 5 dimensions that can be used to differentiate and rate various cultures.

- Individualism–collectivism: how people define themselves and their relationships with others,

Individual culture:

1. Individual is most important entity in social setting,
2. Individual's desire to be independent,
3. reward individual achievement, 4. Values individuals uniqueness,

Collective culture:

1. views, needs and goal of group are important,
2. behavior is guided by duty,
3. self is defined in relation to others, not as distinct, 4. focus on cooperation rather than competition.

An individual culture uses *low-context communication* (direct and explicit), collective culture uses *high-context communication* (indirect).

- Uncertainty avoidance: people made nervous by unstructured, unclear or unpredictable situations.

High uncertainty avoidance: cultures that seek to avoid ambiguity (by rules, precision, punctuality).

Low uncertainty avoidance: cultures that more inclined to take risks, innovate, think outside the box,

- Power distance: to which extent people with little power consider inequity normal and acceptable,

High power distance: accept power as a scarce resource, power differences as natural and inevitable.

Low power distance: value the minimization of power differences.

- Masculinity – femininity: focuses on the relationship between sex and what is appropriate,

Masculine cultures: those cultures that use the reality of biological sex in the creation of distinct roles for men (assertive, ambitious, competitive) and women (supportive, nurturing).

Feminine Cultures: those cultures that gave fewer rigid roles for behavior based on biological sex.

- Long-term and short-term orientation: orientation toward long or short term,

Long-term orientation: associated with thrift, savings, perseverance, strong work ethics,

Short-term orientation: focus on immediate gratification.

Gender and communication: a two-culture perspective:

Sex: genetically determined, **Gender:** the psychological and social manifestations of what one believes to be male or female. (a way of behaving). Three theories helps create a macro-perspective of understanding communication based on gender as a cultural viewpoint.

- Standpoint theory: men and women have different experiences that shape the way they view the world. Because of these variations, men and woman communicate differently.

- Tannen's gender styles: women use communication to establish connections with others, whereas men use communication to establish or maintain power over others.
- Muted group theory: because men have more power in society, language and meaning is biased toward a male perspective on life. Women must adapt and use male language or go unheard.

Generations and communication: workplace implications:

Different generation have different values, beliefs, ways of behaving and ways of communicating. In other words: different cultures. There is only documentation of the difference in generations. Note that, not everyone born in this particular time-frame conform to this norms. An overview:

Characteristics	Veterans	Baby Boomer	Generation X	Millennials (Y)
Date of Birth	1922-1945	1946-1964	1965-1980	1981-2000
Core Values	Respect, discipline	Optimism, involvement	Cynicism, informality	Clarity, flexibility
View of Work	An obligation	Self-fulfillment	Entrepreneurship	Mechanism for success
Satisfaction	Job well done	Making difference	Changing rules	Lots of recognition
Communication	Formal	Face-to-face	Direct	Constant
Leadership	Autoric	Consensual	Confrontational	Passive aggressive
Loyalty	High	High	Low	Low

Face Negotiation Theory (FNT);

Explain cultural differences in conflict as the result of combining different face needs and conflict styles.

Builds on Hofstede's dimensions (individualism-collectivism and power distance) and self- and others face concerns predicts conflict responses. There are five approaches to conflict:

1. Avoiding: little concern for self and others,
2. Accommodating: conceding to the partners' request,
3. Competing: pushing your viewpoints on others,
4. Compromising: moderate concern for self and others,
5. Collaborating: high regard for self and others.

These 5 approaches are not a personal trait, but differ depending the partner involved. Conflict styles have to be viewed on a dual dimension (self and other):

1. *Self-face concern*: considering your positive and negative face needs
2. *Others-face concern*; considering your partners positive and negative face needs
3. *Mutual face concern*: recognition of both self- and others-face concerns.

By this dual view, 3 Additions to the five conflict styles:

1. Emotionally expressive: emphasizes a person's desire to react to his or her feelings,
2. Passive-aggressive: attempting to making your partner feel guilty,
3. Third-party help: asking a person outside the relationship to help manage the conflict.

CHAPTER TWELVE

WHAT SHOULD A COMMUNICATOR DO?

Theories are not specific templates, but guidelines. (Compass, not a GPS). There are 2 points of discussion:

1. Does communication has to be direct or indirect,
2. Should you communicate in a similar fashion or a different fashion to previous messages.

Conclusions about influences and effects;

There are many variables that influence or are affected by the communication process. An explanation for the influences and effects:

Influence or Effects	Explanation
Cohesion, Connection and In-Groups	The degree to which individuals are connected with others is a function. One's connection to an in-group will influence that individual's communication.
Context	The context influences communication
Expectations	Expectations plays a role in the evaluation of communication events
Face and self-versus other orientation	Understanding both yourself and others implicitly recognizes the importance of sustaining individual's desired image.
Individual qualities	You need to tailor your communication to match the qualities of the interactants
Interest and involvement	You cannot presume that interactional partners or audience members will naturally be engaged in a given topic.
Needs	Meeting your own needs is not enough, you also have to recognize the needs of the receiver.
Power and control	Recognize and are aware of not only obvious examples of power enactment, but also be aware of the less obvious examples.
Relationship	It should be mindful of existing relationships and monitor the relationship levels of messages to gauge how an interaction is proceeding.

Rewards	People will make choices on perceived reward power
Rules	Rules are used to guide communication practices.
Uncertainty and ambiguity	Uncertainty is often perceived as problematic and can drive a person to send or seek specific messages
Values and beliefs	Values and beliefs are related to communication in a complex fashion. Understand others' values and beliefs and recognize the difficulty in asking people to change them.

Returning to communication competence;

The development of communication competence is contingent on three elements:

1. Motivation: knowing what you want, what's the reason for doing something,
2. Knowledge: knowing how to act,
3. Skill: the actual behavior. This requires practice.