Chapter 1: Introduction to 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 individuals own personal experience,
   - Useful to us and are often a basis for our decisions about how to communicate,
   - These theory’s 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What to look for</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>Has the research supported that the theory works the way it says it does? Look at the research studies that have sued the theory.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Practicality</td>
<td>Have real-world applications been found for the theory?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Succinctness</td>
<td>Has the theory been formulated with the appropriate number (fewest) of concepts or steps?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency</td>
<td>Does the theory demonstrate coherence within its own premises and with other theories?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Internal: ideas of the theory are logically built on one another</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- External: refers to the theory's consistency with other widely held theories</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acuity</td>
<td>To what extent does the theory make clear an otherwise complex experience?(The ‘wow-factor’)</td>
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Chapter 2: 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 researches to conclude that one thing causes another.

There are 2 variables within a research. (concept 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>What it reveals</th>
<th>What it conceals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>Cause and effect</td>
<td>Whether the cause-effect relationship holds true in less controlled environments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Thoughts, feelings, intentions</td>
<td>Can’t establish causality, can’t predict real behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textual analysis</td>
<td>Content, nature, structure messages</td>
<td>The effect of the message on the receiver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnography</td>
<td>Rules and meanings of communication in a culture or context</td>
<td>May provide a highly subjective (and therefore biased) view of the culture and context</td>
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**Social science and the humanities;**
There are two approaches to communication:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Social Science</th>
<th>Humanities</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central feature</td>
<td>Standardization and generalization because of objectivity</td>
<td>Meaning is subjective and unique to individuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief about human nature</td>
<td>Determinism, experiences of past make people behave a certain way</td>
<td>Pragmatism, people are dynamic actors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal of theory</td>
<td>Understand and predict</td>
<td>Understand only, can’t predict because everyone is different</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory development</td>
<td>Deductive</td>
<td>Inductive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus of research</td>
<td>Particularism, study narrowly defined areas, eventually big picture reveals</td>
<td>Holism, looking at the big picture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research methods</td>
<td>Experiments, quantitative survey, textual analysis</td>
<td>Ethnography, qualitative survey, textual analysis</td>
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**Development and change of theories;**
Once theories has been developed, they continue change and grow.
- **Extension**: means that the theory add more concepts and builds upon what already established,
- **Intension**: scholars gain a deeper and more nuanced understanding of original concepts.
Chapter 3: 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Message Design Logic's (MDL), O’keefe (1988)</td>
<td>Your belief about communication links thoughts to the construction of messages.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT), Giles &amp; Coupland (1991)</td>
<td>Explains and predicts speech convergence through perception of cultural and social identities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty Reduction Theory (URT), Berger and Calabrese’s (1975)</td>
<td>Explain and predict when, why and how individuals use communication to minimize their doubts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectancy Violations Theory (EVT), Judee Burgoon (1978, 1994)</td>
<td>Predicts and explains people’s behavior when their personal space is violated</td>
</tr>
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**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 and 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 deph of communication skills. Those using this pattern pay close attention to other people’s 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 individuals 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 form others:

- **Convergence**: altering your speech and behaviour, that it matches that of your conversational partner,
  - Positive eff.: 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. See also figure 3.1 on page 50.
Chapter 4: 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 relationship development. There are 4 theories that are critical to current understandings of interpersonal communication.

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

**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. Rewards – Costs = Outcome (OC),
- Comparison level (CL): what a person expects to receive in a given relationship,
- Comparison level of alternatives (CLalt): alternatives to the relationship.

Predictions made by SET:
- OC > CL = Satisfied, OC < CL = Dissatisfied
- OC > CLalt = Stay, OC < CLalt = Terminate
Dialectical Perspective:
Useful for explaining and understanding how individuals sustain interpersonal relationships. 4 assumptions:
- **Praxis:** relationship development are neither linear nor repetitive (circeling).
- **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 and the environment there are external tensions:
- **Inclusion – Exclusion:** alone time versus time with friends, family, etc,
- **Revelation – Concealment:** private information versus desiring to tell others,
- **Conventionality – Uniqueness:** traditional versus unique.

For an overview of corresponding tensions (dialect), see table 4.3 on page 67.

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 (table 4.4, page 70),
4. **Boundaries:** personal boundaries contain individual information, collective contain shared information,
5. **Boundary coordination:** refers to collective boundaries,
   - **Boundary linkage:** refers 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 5: 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.

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

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 suprasystem is the larger system within which the system operates(league).
Assumptions of systems perspective:
- Believe in nonsummationity: the whole is greater than the sum of it’s 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 adept 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 illustrate 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.
Groups has to balance task, and maintenance needs. Therefore groups might have a task leader and a socio-emotional leader. Figure 5.1, page 86 gives a method for analyzing functions of group communication. 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 fulfills 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 exists 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 6: 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.

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

**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 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feedback &amp; reward</th>
<th>Risk Low</th>
<th>Risk High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rapid</td>
<td>Work Hard-Play Hard</td>
<td>Tough-Guy Macho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Fun and action</td>
<td>-Quickly taking gamble</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-lots of activity, but certainty</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slow</td>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Bet-the-Company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Focus on how, not what</td>
<td>-High stake gamble over years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 individuals 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 organisation,
- Control: an organization needs control to get things done (table 6.4, page 111),
  - 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. Individuals decide 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 respond,
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 7: 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Judgment Theory (SJT), <em>Sherif</em></th>
<th>Focuses on people’s assessment (anchors, latitudes of acceptance/rejection/non-commitment) of persuasive messages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM), <em>Petty and Cacioppo’s (1986)</em></td>
<td>Targets of persuasive messages use mental processes of motivation and ability to process to accept/reject messages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory of planned behavior (TPB), <em>Azjen (1988)</em></td>
<td>Not changing behavior intention, but changing the actual behavior.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory of reasoned action (TRA), <em>Fishbein &amp; Ajzen (1975)</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**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 individuals 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 receivers 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 individuals 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 make 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 the 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.

Also see figure 7.2, page 131.

**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 have 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 need 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 to strong to overwhelm.

Example (more in figure 7.1, page 137): 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 8: 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.

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

Likert’s four systems;
Suggest that there are 4 distinct leadership systems within an organization. Table 8.1, page 145!
- 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 individuals 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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-awareness</td>
<td>The ability to recognize and understand own emotions and how your mood affect others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-regulation</td>
<td>The ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods; think before acting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>A passion for work for reasons beyond money or status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>The ability to understand the emotional makeup of others;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social skills</td>
<td>Skill in managing relationships and building network</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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. *Table 8.3, page 153*

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 suggest 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 9: Explaining Theories of Mediated Communication

Mediated: any communication in which something (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

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

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 to 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 win 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 10: 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.

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

**Hofstede’s cultural dimensions:**
Hofstede described 5 dimensions that can be used to differentiate and rate various cultures. Table 10.1 on page 188 plots eight countries on the 5 dimensions.

- **Individualism–collectivism:** how people define themselves and their relationships with others,
  - *Individual culture:* 1. Individual is most important entity in social setting, 2. individuals 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 power and authority are unbalanced, how much power is perceived as legitimate 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 help 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. See table 10.3, page 196. Note that not everyone born in this particular time frame conform to this norms. An overview:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Veterans</th>
<th>Baby Boomers</th>
<th>Generation X</th>
<th>Millennials (Y)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Core Values</td>
<td>Respect, discipline</td>
<td>Optimism, involvement</td>
<td>Cynicism, informality</td>
<td>Clarity, flexibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>View of work</td>
<td>An obligation</td>
<td>Self-fulfillment</td>
<td>Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>Mechanism for success</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Job well done</td>
<td>Making difference</td>
<td>Changing rules</td>
<td>Lots of recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>Face-to-face</td>
<td>Direct</td>
<td>Constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>Authoric</td>
<td>Consensual</td>
<td>Confrontational</td>
<td>Passive aggressive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 has to be viewed on a dual dimension (self and other): See table 10.1, page 201
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 make your partner feel guilty,
3. Third-party help: asking a person outside the relationship to help manage the conflict.
Chapter 11: 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. Table 11.1, page 211-212. An explanation for the influences and effects:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence or effect</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cohesion, Connection and In-Groups</td>
<td>The degree to which individuals are connected with others is a function. One’s connection to an in-group will influence that individuals communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context</td>
<td>The context influences communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectations</td>
<td>Expectations plays a role in the evaluation of communication events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face and self versus other orientation</td>
<td>Understanding both yourself and others implicitly recognizes the importance of sustaining individuals desired image.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual qualities</td>
<td>You need to tailor your communication to match the qualities of the interactans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest and involvement</td>
<td>You can not presume that interactional partners or audience members will naturally be engaged in a given topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needs</td>
<td>Meeting your own needs is not enough, you also have to recognize the needs of the receiver.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power and control</td>
<td>Recognize and are aware of not only obvious examples of power enactment, but also be aware of the less obvious examples.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td>It should be mindful of existing relationships and monitor the relationship levels of messages to gauge how an interaction is proceeding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewards</td>
<td>People will make choices on perceived reward power.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>Rules are used to guide communication practices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty and ambiguity</td>
<td>Uncertainty is often perceived as problematic and can drive a person to send or seek specific messages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values and beliefs</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.