

**VIỆN ĐÀO TẠO MỞ VÀ CÔNG NGHỆ THÔNG TIN  
ĐẠI HỌC HUẾ**



**HÀ THỊ THANH THÚY**

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>CHAPTER 1: FUNDAMENTALS OF HUMAN COMMUNICATION.....</b>	<b>2</b>
1.1 The nature of communication .....	2
1.1.1 Defining Communication.....	2
1.1.2 The types of human communication .....	2
1.1.3 The benefits of studying Human Communication .....	4
1.1.4 Elements of Human Communication.....	4
1.1.5 Principles of Human Communication.....	9
1.2 Perception: The process of understanding .....	10
1.2.1 Defining Perception .....	10
1.2.2 Stages of perception .....	10
1.3. Self-concept, Self-awareness and Self –Esteem .....	12
1.3.1 Self-concept.....	12
1.3.2 Self-awareness.....	13
1.3.3 Self-esteem .....	15
1.3.4 Self-Disclosure .....	15
1.4. Listening and critical thinking .....	17
1.4.1 Defining Listening and Process of Listening.....	17
1.4.2 Listening Barriers.....	21
1.4.3 Styles of effective listening.....	22
1.5. Nonverbal codes: sharing with others .....	24
1.5.1 The principles governing nonverbal messages .....	24
1.5.2 Channels of Nonverbal Communication.....	27
1.6. Verbal messages.....	36
1.6.1 Principles of verbal messages .....	36
1.6.2 Using verbal messages effectively.....	40
<b>CHAPTER 2: INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION .....</b>	<b>44</b>
2.1 Interpersonal relationships .....	44
2.1.1 Advantages and disadvantages of interpersonal relationships.....	44
2.1.2 Relationship stages.....	46
2.2. Intercultural and co-cultural communication.....	50
2.3. Interviewing for information and employment.....	53

2.4. The dynamics of small group discussion .....	55
2.5. Group leadership .....	58
2.5.1 Defining leadership .....	58
2.5.2 Approaches to Leadership.....	59
<b>CHAPTER 3: MASS COMMUNICATION.....</b>	<b>61</b>
3.1. Defining Mass Communication .....	61
3.2. Functions of Mass Communication .....	62
3.3. Media Literacy .....	64
3.4. Mass Communication and Popular Culture .....	65
<b>REFERENCES .....</b>	<b>66</b>

## **INTRODUCTION**

Competent communication is a necessary component in achieving goals in all areas of life. Whether we are chatting with a stranger while waiting for a bus, solving a problem with a group of coworkers, or sharing our dreams and goals with our best friend, the principles and practices of human communication are at the foundation of each of these human transactions. This course will introduce you to communication principles, common communication practices, and a selection of theories to better understand the communication transactions that you experience in your daily life. The principles and practices that you study in this course will provide the foundation for further study in communications.

This course begins with an overview of communication as a process along with basic principles and theories. Subsequent units in the course examine specific applications of human communication in your personal and professional life. These include interpersonal communication, small group communication, decision-making, and organizational communication.

By the end of this course, you will be able to identify the process of human communication in a number of settings that affect your daily activities. Additionally, you will be able to use the principles and theories to improve communication transactions in your life and understand how communication adds to the success of professional and personal relationships.

## **CHAPTER 1: FUNDAMENTALS OF HUMAN COMMUNICATION**

Human communication is a vast subject area and one that is likely new to you. In this chapter, we look at the nature of human communication and its elements.

### **1.1 The nature of communication**

#### **1.1.1 Defining Communication**

The need for communication began at the beginning. The comprehension of the importance of human communication is essential to exchange thoughts in addition to feelings adequately. In the book, *Essentials of Human Communication* written by Joseph A. DeVito (2018), he defines human communication as “the act, by one or more persons, of sending and receiving messages that are distorted by noise, occur within a context, have some effect, and provide some opportunity for feedback.”

#### **1.1.2 The types of human communication**

Communication has been classified into several types depending upon the number of persons involved from one (in intrapersonal communication) to thousands and millions (in mass communication).

##### **a. Intrapersonal communication**

Intrapersonal communication is the process by which an individual communicates within themselves, acting as both sender and receiver of messages, and encompasses the use of unspoken words to consciously engage in self-talk and inner speech. (Cunningham, 1989)

##### **b. Interpersonal communication**

Joseph DeVito (2018) defines it as a form of communication that takes place between two persons or among a small group of persons. The communication emphasized in the study of interpersonal communication is communication of a continuing personal nature; it's communication between or among intimates or those involved in close relationships –friends, romantic partners, family and coworkers, for example.

##### **c. Interviewing**

Interviewing is communication that proceeds by question and answer. Through interviewing you learn about others and what they know; you counsel or get counseling

from others; or you get or don't get the job you want and ultimately the career you are preparing for in college.

#### **d. Small group communication**

Small group communication is communication among members of groups of about five to ten people. Small group communication serves relationship needs such as those for companionship, affection, or support as well as task needs such as balancing the family budget, electing a new chairperson or designing a new ad campaign.

#### **e. Organizational communication**

Organizational communication is communication that takes place within an organization among members of the organization. Conferencing with colleagues, working in teams, talking with a supervisor, or giving employees directions are just a few examples of organizational communication.

#### **f. Public speaking**

Public speaking also termed *public communication* or *presentational speaking*, is communication between a speaker and an audience, which may range in size from several people to hundreds, thousands, and even millions. Through public communication, others inform and persuade you. And you, in turn, inform and persuade others – to act, to buy, or to think in a particular way.

#### **g. Mass communication**

Mass communication is a process in which a person, group of people, or an organization sends a message through a channel of communication to a large group of anonymous and heterogeneous people and organizations. You can think of a large group of anonymous and heterogeneous people as either the general public or a segment of the general public. Channels of communication include broadcast television, radio, social media, and print.

#### **h. Computer-mediated Communication (CMC)**

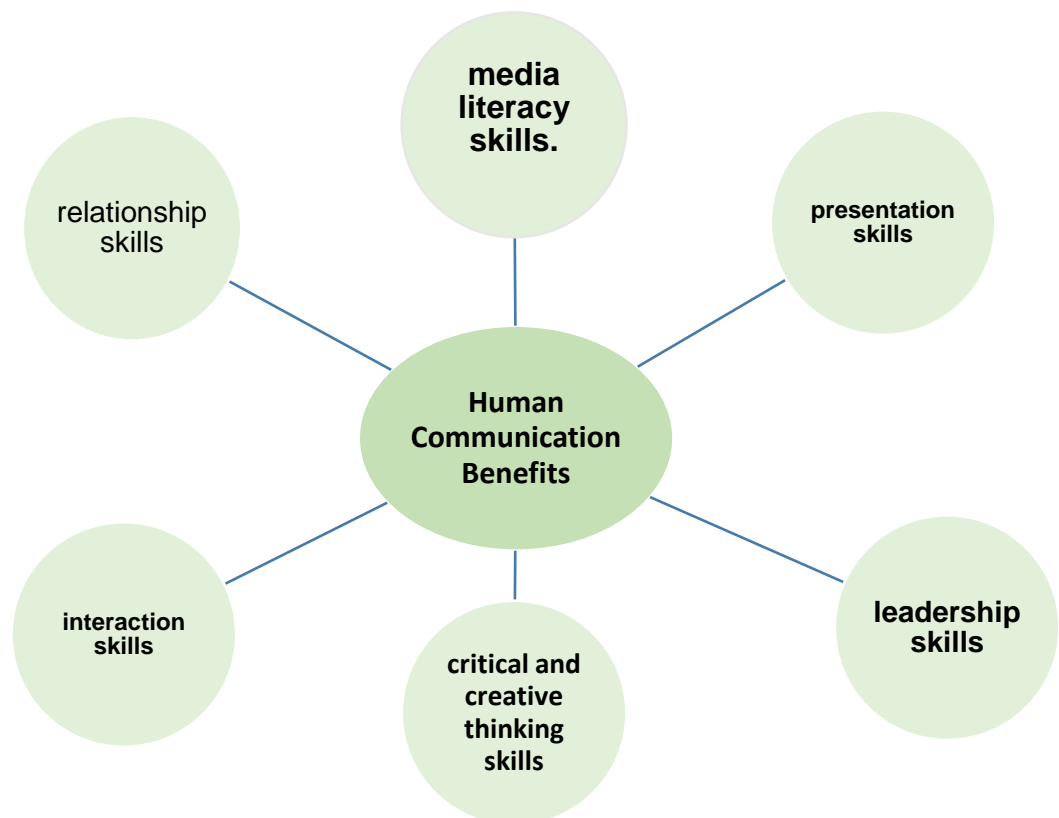
CMC is a general term that includes all forms of communication between people that take place through some computer, electronic, or Internet connection, for example,

email, texting, blogging, instant messaging, tweeting, networking on LinkedIn, or connecting on social network sites such as Facebook or Instagram.

### **1.1.3 The benefits of studying Human Communication**

Good communication plays an essential role in your success in the workplace and in your personal life. Your knowledge of human communication and your mastery of many of its skills will enable you to improve a variety of abilities that will prove vital to your success. Here are some of the skills you'll acquire or improve as you study human communication to give some idea of how important this study of human communication is: critical and creative thinking skills, interaction skills, relationship skills, leadership skills, presentation skills and media literacy skills.

**Figure 1.1 The benefits of studying Human Communication**

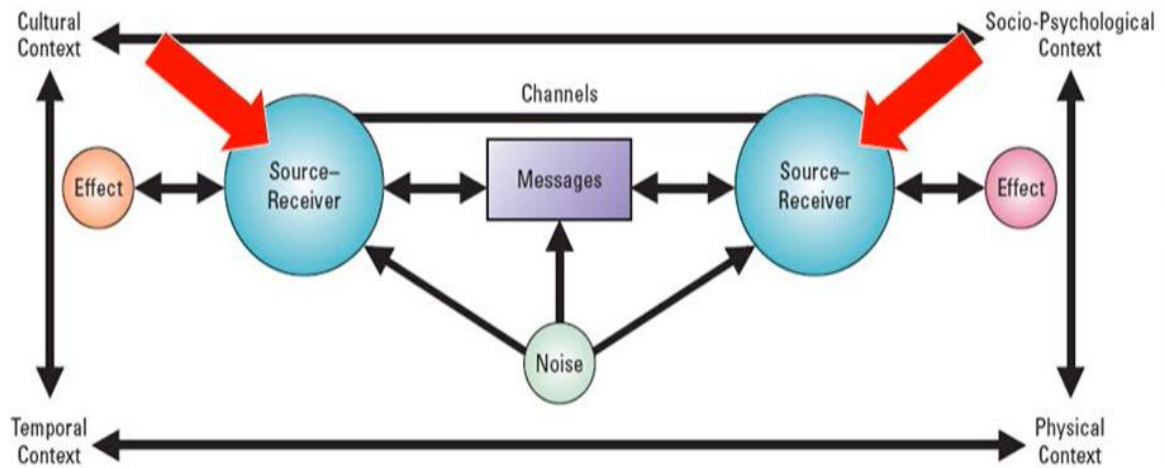


### **1.1.4 Elements of Human Communication**

Communication occurs when one person (or more) sends and receives messages that are distorted by noise, occur within a context, have some effect, and provide some opportunity for feedback. Figure 1.2 illustrates the elements present in all communication acts, whether intrapersonal, interpersonal, small group, public speaking,

or mass communication – or whether face-to-face, by telephone or over the Internet: context, sources and receivers, messages, channels, noise, and effects.

**Figure 1.2 The elements of human communication**



This is simplified view of the elements of human communication and their relationship to one another. Messages (including feedforward and feedback) are sent simultaneously through a variety of channels from one source –receiver to another. The communication process takes place in a context and is subjected to interference by noise. The interaction of messages with each source-receiver leads to some effect.

#### 1.1.4.1 Communication contexts

All communication takes place in a context that has at least four dimensions: physical context, social-psychological context, temporal context, and cultural context. These four dimensions of context interact with one another.

- **The physical context:** the physical context is the tangible or concrete environment in which communication takes place.
- **The social-psychological context:** the social-psychological context focuses on the relationships among the communicators.
- **The temporal context or time context:** the temporal context includes the time of day, the time in history in which the communication takes place and how a message fits into the sequence of communication events.
- **The cultural context:** the cultural context has to do with your culture. Cultural factors affect every interaction and influence what you say, how you say it, and how you respond to what others say.



#### 1.1.4.2 Source-Receiver

According to the transactional model, each person involved in communication is both a *source* (speaker) and a *receiver* (listener); hence the term sources–receivers. You send messages when you speak, write, gesture, or smile. You receive messages in listening, reading, seeing, smelling, and so on. At the same time that you send messages, you’re also receiving messages: You’re receiving your own messages (you hear yourself, feel your own movements, see many of your own gestures), and, at least in face-to-face communication, you’re receiving the messages of the other person—visually, auditorily, or even through touch or smell. As you speak, you look at the person for responses—for approval, understanding, sympathy, agreement, and so on. As you decipher these nonverbal signals, you’re performing receiver functions. When you write to or text someone with video; the situation is very similar to the face-to-face situation. Without video, you might visualize the responses you expect/want the person to give.

When you put your ideas into speech, you’re putting them into a *code*; hence you’re *encoding*. When you translate the sound waves (the speech signals) that impinge on your ears or read the words on a screen, into ideas, you take them out of the code they’re in; hence you’re *decoding*. Thus, speakers or writers are often referred to as *encoders*, and listeners or readers as *decoders*. The linked term encoding–decoding emphasizes the fact that you perform these functions simultaneously.

#### 1.1.4.3 Messages

Communication messages take many forms and are transmitted or received through one or more sensory organs or a combination of them. You communicate verbally (with words) and nonverbally (without words). Your meanings or intentions are conveyed with words and with the clothes you wear, the way you walk, and the way you smile. Everything about you communicates a message. Three special types of messages include metamessages, feedback messages and feedforward messages.

- **Metamessages**

A metamessage is a message that refers to another message; it is communication about communication. For example, remarks such as “This statement is false” or “Do you understand what I am trying to tell you?” refer to communication and are therefore “metacommunicational.” Nonverbal behavior may also be metacommunicational.

Obvious examples include crossing your fingers behind your back or winking when telling a lie.

- **Feedback messages**

Throughout the listening process, a listener gives a speaker feedback message sent back to the speaker reacting to what is said. Feedback tells the speaker what effect he or she is having on listeners. On the basis of feedback, the speaker may adjust, modify, strengthen, deemphasize, or change the content or form of the messages. This feedback can take many forms. A frown or a smile, a yea or a nay, a returned poke or a retweet, a pat on the back or a punch in the mouth are all types of feedback.

- **Feedforward messages**

Feedforward is information you provide before sending your primary messages (Richards, 1968). It reveals something about the messages to come and includes, for example, the preface or table of contents of a book, the opening paragraph of a chapter, movie previews, magazine covers, and introductions in public speeches.

Feedforward may be verbal (“Wait until you hear this one”) or nonverbal (a prolonged pause or hands motioning for silence to signal that an important message is about to be spoken). Or, as is most often the case, it is some combination of verbal and nonverbal. Feedforward may refer to the content of the message to follow (“I’ll tell you exactly what they said to each other”) or to the form (“I won’t spare you the gory details”). In e-mail, feedforward is given in the header, where the name of the sender, the date, and the subject of the message are identified.

#### **1.1.4.4 Channels**

The communication channel is the vehicle or medium through which messages pass. Communication rarely takes place over only one channel. Rather, two, three, or four channels may be used simultaneously. In face-to-face conversations, for example, you speak and listen (vocal channel), but you also gesture and receive signals visually (visual channel). You also emit and smell odors (olfactory channel) and often touch one another; this tactile channel, too, is communication.

Another way to classify channels is by the means of communication. Thus, face to-face contact, telephones, e-mail, movies, television, smoke signals, and telegraph all are types of channels.

#### **1.1.4.5 Noise**

Noise is anything that interferes with your receiving a message. At one extreme, noise may prevent a message from getting from source to receiver. A roaring noise or line static can prevent entire messages from getting through to your phone receiver. At the other extreme, with virtually no noise interference, the message of the source and the message received are almost identical. Most often, however, noise distorts some portion of the message a source sends as it travels to a receiver. Just as messages may be auditory or visual, noise comes in both auditory and visual forms. Four types of noise are especially relevant:

- **Physical noise**

Physical noise is interference that is external to both speaker and listener; it interferes with the physical transmission of the signal or message and would include the screeching of passing cars, the hum of a computer, sunglasses, blurred type or fonts that are too small or difficult to read, misspellings and poor grammar, and popup ads.

- **Physiological noise**

Physiological noise is created by barriers within the sender or receiver and would include visual impairments, hearing loss, articulation problems, and memory loss.

- **Psychological noise**

Psychological noise refers to mental interference in the speaker or listener and includes preconceived ideas, wandering thoughts, biases and prejudices, close-mindedness, and extreme emotionalism.

- **Semantic noise**

Semantic noise is interference that occurs when the speaker and listener have different meaning systems; it would include language or dialectical differences, the use of jargon or overly complex terms, and ambiguous or overly abstract terms whose meanings can be easily misinterpreted. You see this type of noise regularly in the medical doctor who uses “medicalese” without explanation or in the insurance salesperson who speaks in the jargon of the insurance industry.

As you can see from these examples, noise is anything that distorts your receiving the messages of others or their receiving your messages.

#### **1.1.4.6 Effects**

Communication always has some effect on those involved in the communication act. For every communication act, there is some consequence. For example, you may gain knowledge or learn how to analyze, synthesize, or evaluate something. These are intellectual or cognitive effects. You may acquire new feelings, attitudes, or beliefs or change existing ones (affective effects). You may learn new bodily movements, such as how to throw a curve ball, paint a picture, give a compliment, or express surprise (behavioral effects). These effects are not separate; rather, they interact.

#### **1.1.5 Principles of Human Communication**

Several principles are essential to an understanding of human communication in all its forms. These principles, as you'll see throughout the text, also have numerous practical implications to help you increase your own communication effectiveness.

You communicate for a purpose; some motivation leads you to communicate. When you speak or write, you're trying to send some message and to accomplish some goal. Although different cultures emphasize different purposes and motives (Rubin, Fernandez-Collado, & Hernandez-Sampieri, 1992), five general purposes seem relatively common to most, if not all, forms of communication:

- **to learn:** to acquire knowledge of others, the world, and yourself
- **to relate:** to form relationships with others, to interact with others as individuals
- **to help:** to assist others by listening, offering solutions
- **to influence:** to strengthen or change the attitudes or behaviors of others
- **to play:** to enjoy the experience of the moment

Here, in brief, are the seven principles of human communication, their basic ideas and implications.

**Table 1.1 A Summary of Some Principles of Human Communication**

Principles	Basic Ideas	Skill Implications
<i>Communication is purposeful.</i>	Communication may serve a variety of purposes—for example, to learn, to relate, to help, to influence, to play.	Use your purposes to guide your verbal and nonverbal messages. Identify the purposes in the messages of others.
<i>Communication involves choices.</i>	In all communication situations you're confronted with choices as to what to say and how you say it. Communication training enlarges the number of choices.	Realize that you have choices in your communications and you don't have to say the first thing that comes into your head.
<i>Communication is ambiguous.</i>	All messages and all relationships are potentially ambiguous.	Use clear and specific terms, ask if you're being understood, and paraphrase complex ideas.
<i>Communication involves content and relationship dimensions.</i>	Messages may refer to the real world, to something external to both speaker and listener (the content) <i>and</i> to the relationships between the parties.	Distinguish between content and relationship messages and deal with relationship issues as relationship issues.
<i>Communication has a power dimension.</i>	Through verbal and nonverbal communication, you establish your power.	Follow the guidelines for effective ethical communication.
<i>Communication is punctuated.</i>	Communication events are continuous transactions, punctuated into causes and effects for convenience.	See alternative punctuations when trying to understand another's point of view.
<i>Communication is inevitable, irreversible, and unrepeatable.</i>	Messages are (almost) always being sent, can't be uncommunicated, and are always unique, one-time occurrences.	Be careful of what you say; you won't be able to take it back.

## **1.2 Perception: The process of understanding**

### **1.2.1 Defining Perception**

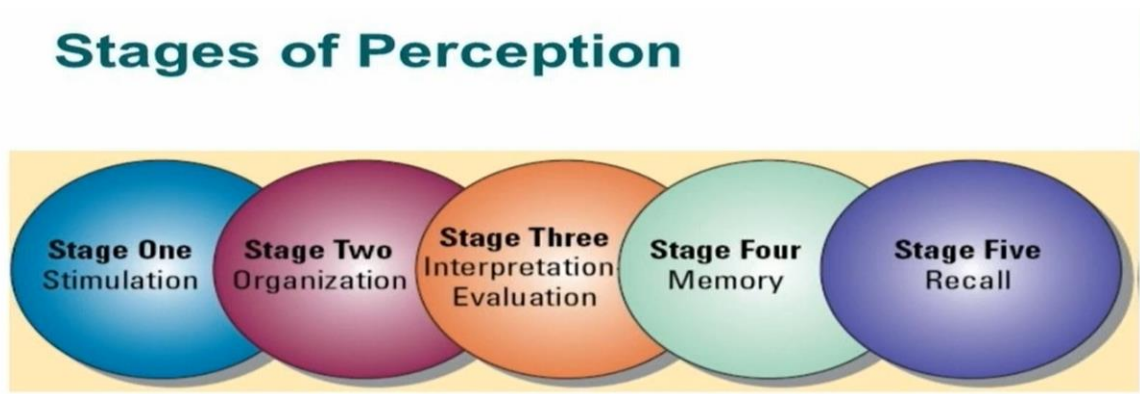
Perception is the process by which you become aware of objects, events, and especially people through your senses: sight, smell, taste, touch, and hearing.

Perception is an active, not a passive, process. Your perceptions result from what exists in the outside world and from your own experiences, desires, needs and wants, loves and hatreds.

### **1.2.2 Stages of perception**

Perception is a continuous series of processes that blend into one another. We can separate perception into five stages: (1) You sense, you pick up some kind of stimulation; (2) you organize the stimuli in some way; (3) you interpret and evaluate what you perceive; (4) you store your perception in memory; and (5) you retrieve/recall it when needed (Figure 1.3)

**Figure 1.3 Stages of Perception**



### **Stage 1: Stimulation**

At the first stage of perception, your sense organs are stimulated. Naturally, you don't perceive everything; rather you engage in selective perception, which includes selective attention and selective exposure.

**Selective attention** occurs by anticipating fulfill needs and prove enjoyable (Rooks & Willson, 2000, Devito, 2009). For example, friends talking to you but you were daydreaming. You won't hear what they are saying until they called out your name.

**Selective exposure** occurs by exposing information that will confirm an existing beliefs, contributing to objectives and having a state of satisfaction. As we are not able to percept everything that is happening around us simultaneously, we tend to engage in selective perception; perceiving only positive things. For example, after buying a laptop, one's tend to read more online or asked people around that the product one's bought is good because we want to tell ourselves that we make the right decision and avoid negative feedback.

### **Stage 2: Organization**

At the second stage of perception, you organize the information your senses pick up. Three interesting ways in which you organize your perceptions are (1) by rules, (2) by schemata, and (3) by scripts.

Organized by rules, people perceive things that are physically close together constitute a unit. People developed schemata from actual experiences as well as vicarious experience from daily activities or from television, reading or hearsay. Some familiarity represented in mind will be some kind of schema. This would help one's perception to

categories into number of categories. However, it may cause perception errors as it influences one's to perceive non-existence things or miss seeing things in presence. A script is a form of schema that focuses on action, event or procedure. It is a process of how we behaved and how we organized it with our own action which organized by a pattern (Rookes & Willson, 2000; Devito, 2009).

### **Stage 3: Interpretation-Evaluation**

In this interpretation-evaluation stage it is two process of stimuli by individual experiences, needs, wants, values, expectations, physical and emotional state, gender and beliefs meaning based on by individual's rules, schemata and scripts. For example, meeting a new person who is a doctor, one's tend to view this person as someone serious, successful, health conscious, academic strong. In other words, evaluating individuals depending on one's own script the way individual behave and perform the action appropriate or inappropriate.

### **Stage 4: Memory**

After undergoing the stages of stimulation, organization and interpretation-evaluation, this leads us to another stage called memory. It is a storage of both perception and interpretation-evaluation that are kept according to scripts and schemas, events or experiences is not the objective of recollection but is more likely heavily influenced by individual preconceptions and individual schemata (Russell, 1976).

### **Stage 5: Recall**

After some time, the memory that are stored individuals want to recall certain information. Recall stage reconstruct what individual heard in a way that are meaningful. Recall information that consistent with schemas. However, failure to do so, it is inconsistent with schemas. Recall information drastically contradicts one's schema because it forces individual to think or even rethink.

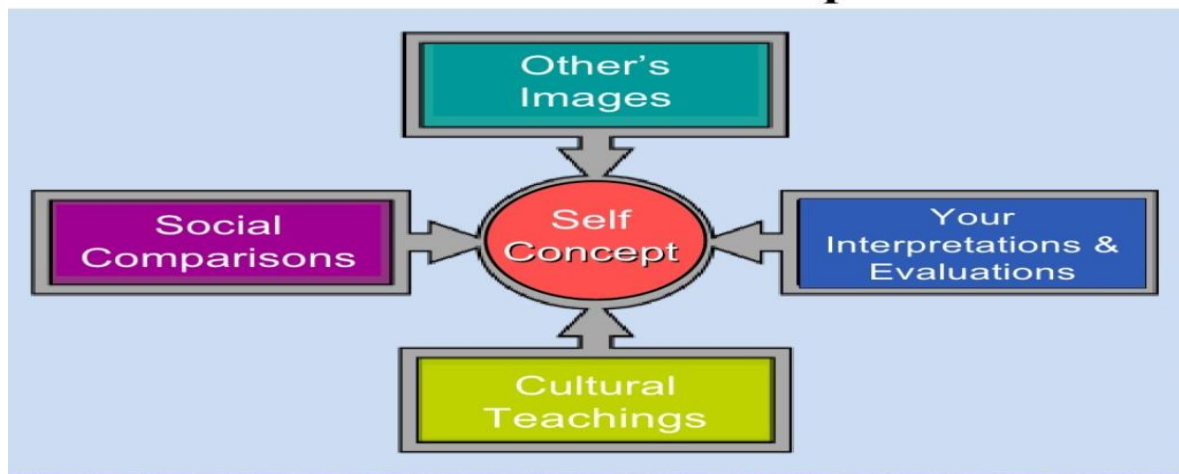
## **1.3. Self-concept, Self-awareness and Self –Esteem**

### **1.3.1 Self-concept**

Your self-concept is your image of who you are. Your image of who you are. It is how you perceive yourself, your feeling and thoughts about your strengths and weaknesses, abilities and limitations. Self-concept develops from the image that others have of you,

comparisons between yourself and others, your cultural experiences, your evaluation of your own thoughts and behaviors (Figure 1.4)

**Figure 1.4 Sources of Self Concept**



- **Others' images of you**

According to the concept of the *Looking- Glass Self* (Cooley, 1922), you'd look at the image of yourself that others reveal to you by the way they communicate with you.

- **Comparisons with others**

Another way you develop self-concept is by comparing yourself with others, most often with your peers. You gain a different perspective when you see yourself in comparison to your peers.

- **Cultural teaching**

Your cultural instills in your beliefs, values, and attitudes about things like success against which you measure yourself.

- **Self-interpretations and self-evaluations**

Your reconstruction and understanding of your behavior in any given event and the value (good or bad) that you place on your behavior.

### **1.3.2 Self-awareness**

**Self-awareness-** your knowledge of who you are, of your traits, your strengths and limitations, your emotions and behaviors, your individuality- is basic to all communication. You can achieve self-awareness when you examine the aspects of yourself as they appear to others as well as to yourself. One tool that is commonly used for this examination is called the Johari Window, a metaphoric division of the self into



four areas or "panes". The Johari Window shows four versions of the self: open self, blind self, unknown self and hidden self.

**Figure 1.5 The Johari Window**



- **Open self**

The open self represents all the information, behaviors, attitudes and feelings about yourself that you know and that others know (like you name, skin color, political beliefs).

- **Blind self or blind spot**

Information about yourselves that others know in a group but you will be unaware of it. Others may interpret yourselves differently than you expect. The blind spot is reduced for an efficient communication through seeking feedback from others.

- **Hidden self**

Information that is known to you but will be kept unknown from others. This can be any personal information which you feel reluctant to reveal. This includes feelings, past experiences, fears, secrets etc. we keep some of our feelings and information as private as it affects the relationships and thus the hidden area must be reduced by moving the information to the open areas.

- **Unknown area**

The Information which are unaware to yourselves as well as others. This includes the information, feelings, capabilities, talents etc. This can be due to traumatic past

experiences or events which can be unknown for a lifetime. The person will be unaware till he discovers his hidden qualities and capabilities or through observation of others. Open communication is also an effective way to decrease the unknown area and thus to communicate effectively.

Because self-awareness is so important in communication, try to increase awareness of your own needs, desires, habits, beliefs, and attitudes. You can do this in various ways.

- listen to others and notice their feedback,
- increase your open self by revealing yourself to others,
- seek information about yourself to reduce your blind self,
- dialogue with yourself through journal writing, meditation, contemplation.

### **1.3.3 Self-esteem**

Self-Esteem is a measure of how valuable you think you are; how good you feel about your perception of yourself. If you have high self-esteem, you think highly of yourself; if you have low self-esteem, you tend to view yourself negatively. Self-esteem includes cognitive or thinking, affective or emotional, and behavioral components. Increasing self-esteem leads to a better personal and professional life. Suggestions for increasing self-esteem include:

- attack self-destructive beliefs such as the belief that you must be perfect at everything, loved by everyone, succeed at everything,
- seek out nourishing people who are positive and optimistic,
- work on projects that will result in success rather than projects that may be impossible to complete,
- remind yourself of your successes rather than dwelling on your failures,
- secure affirmation both through self-affirmation and affirmation from others with whom you identify.

### **1.3.4 Self-Disclosure**

One of the most important forms of interpersonal communication that you can engage in is talking about yourself, or self-disclosure.

**Self-disclosure** means communicating information about yourself to another person. Although we often limit the term to revealing information that you normally keep hidden, it can also refer to information that you would share with just about anyone: your likes and dislikes (as you do on Facebook); your brief tweets that say something about what you like or don't like; simply what you're thinking about; or your preferences for foods, books, or music that you reveal when you post a photo on Pinterest or Instagram (Greene, Derlega, & Mathews, 2006). It may involve information about (1) your values, beliefs, and desires ("I believe in reincarnation"); (2) your behavior ("I shoplifted but was never caught"); or (3) your self-qualities or characteristics ("I'm dyslexic").

#### **1.3.4.1 Influences on Self-Disclosure**

Many factors influence whether or not you disclose, what you disclose, and to whom you disclose. Among the most important factors are who you are, your culture, your gender, who your listeners are, and what your topic and channel is.

- **Who you are:** Highly sociable and extroverted people self-disclose more than those who are less sociable and more introverted. People who are apprehensive about talking in general also self-disclose less than do those who are more comfortable in communicating.
- **Your culture:** Different cultures view self-disclosure differently.
- **Your gender:** research suggests women may engage in self-disclosure more than men although exceptions to this generalization exist.
- **Your listeners:** self-disclosure occurs more readily in small groups than in large groups; people are more likely to disclose when they interact with people who self-disclose (dyadic effect).
- **Your topic and channel:** generally, the more personal and negative the topic, the less likely people are to self-disclose; people may be more willingly to self-disclose on-line than in face-to-face interactions due to a disinhibition effect grounded in perceptions of anonymity and invisibility.

#### **1.3.4.2 Rewards and Dangers of Self-Disclosure**

Research shows that self-disclosure has both significant rewards and dangers. In making choices about whether or not to disclose, consider both. The rewards of self-

disclosure include increased self-knowledge, ability to cope with problems, communication efficiency, more meaningful relationships and prevention of faulty assumptions. The dangers of self-disclosure include personal and social rejection and professional or material losses.

#### **1.3.4.3 Guidelines for Self-Disclosure**

Because self-disclosure is so important and so delicate a matter, guidelines are offered here for (1) deciding whether and how to self-disclose, (2) responding to the disclosures of others, and (3) resisting pressures to self-disclose.

##### **Guidelines for your own self-disclosure**

The following guidelines will help you ask yourself the right questions before you make a choice that must ultimately be your own.

- Consider the motivation for the self-disclosure
- Consider the appropriateness of the self-disclosure.
- Consider the disclosures of the other person.
- Consider the possible burdens self-disclosure might entail.

##### **Guidelines for facilitating and responding to self-disclosure**

- Practice the skills of effective and active listening.
- Support and reinforce the discloser.
- Be willing to reciprocate.
- Keep the disclosures confidential.
- Don't use the disclosures against the person.

##### **Guidelines for resisting pressure to self-disclosure**

- Don't be pushed.
- Be indirect and move to another topic.
- Be assertive in your refusal to disclose.

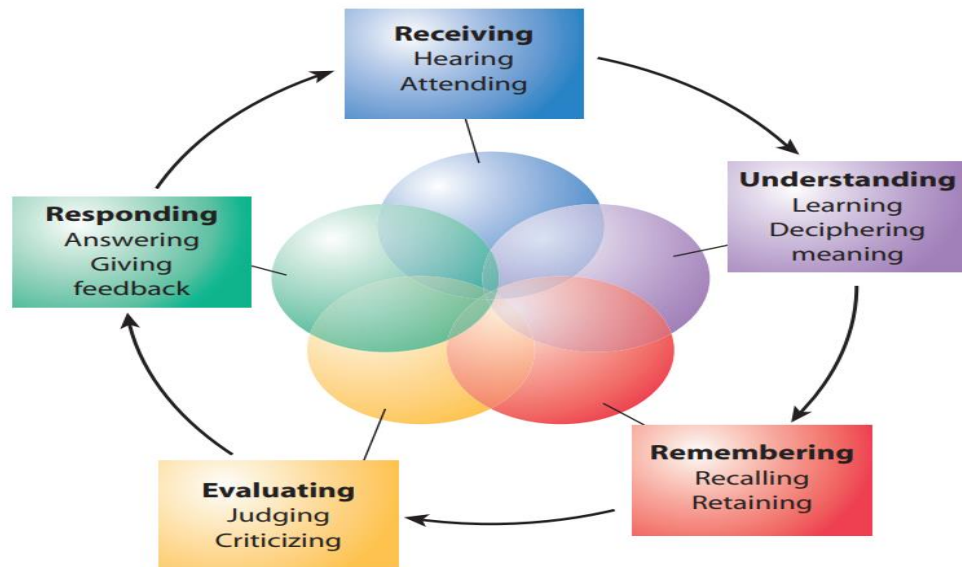
#### **1.4. Listening and critical thinking**

##### **1.4.1 Defining Listening and Process of Listening**

Listening, then, may be defined as the process of receiving, understanding, remembering, evaluating, and responding to verbal [spoken or written] and/or nonverbal messages.

We can look at listening as a process occurring in five stages: (1) receiving (hearing and attending to the message), (2) understanding (deciphering meaning from the message you hear), (3) remembering (retaining what you hear in memory), (4) evaluating (thinking critically about and judging the message), and (5) responding (answering or giving feedback to the speaker). This five-step process is visualized in Figure 1.6.

**Figure 1.6 Process of Listening**



All five listening stages overlap; when you listen, you're performing all five processes at essentially the same time. For example, when listening in conversation, you're not only remaining attentive to what the other person is saying but also critically evaluating what he or she just said and perhaps giving feedback.

Listening is never perfect. There are lapses in attention, misunderstandings, lapses in memory, inadequate critical thinking, and inappropriate responding. The goal is to reduce these obstacles as best you can.

Note that the listening process is circular. The responses of Person A serve as the stimuli for Person B, whose responses in turn serve as the stimuli for Person A, and so on. As will become clear in the following discussion of the five steps, listening is not a process of transferring an idea from the mind of a speaker to the mind of a listener. Rather, it is a process in which speaker and listener work together to achieve a common understanding.

Figure 1.6 emphasizes that listening involves a collection of skills: attention and concentration (receiving), learning (understanding), memory (remembering), critical thinking (evaluation), and competence in giving feedback (responding). Listening can

go wrong at any stage—but you can improve your listening ability by strengthening the skills needed at each step of the listening process. Consequently, suggestions for listening improvement are offered with each of the five stages.

- **Stage 1: Receiving**

Listening begins with hearing, the process of receiving the messages the speaker sends. One of the great myths about listening is that it's the same as hearing. It isn't. Hearing is just the first stage of listening; it's equivalent to receiving. Hearing (and receiving) is a physiological process that occurs when you're in the vicinity of vibrations in the air and these vibrations impinge on your eardrum. Hearing is basically a passive process that occurs without any attention or effort on your part; hearing is mindless. Listening, as you'll see, is very different; listening is mindful.

- **Stage 2: Understanding**

Understanding is the stage at which you learn what the speaker means—the stage at which you grasp both the thoughts and the emotions expressed. Understanding one without the other is likely to result in an unbalanced picture. Understanding is not an automatic process; it takes effort.

- **Stage 3: Remembering**

Effective listening depends on remembering. For example, when Susan says that she is planning to buy a new car, the effective listener remembers this and at a later meeting asks about the car. Perhaps the most important point to understand about memory is that what you remember is not what was said but what you remember was said. Memory for speech is not reproductive; you don't simply reproduce in your memory what the speaker said. Rather, memory is reconstructive; you actually reconstruct the messages you hear into a system that makes sense to you.

If you want to remember what someone says or the names of various people, this information needs to pass from your short-term memory (the memory you use, say, to remember a phone number just long enough to write it down) into long-term memory. Short-term memory is very limited in capacity - you can hold only a small amount of information there. Long-term memory is unlimited.

- **Stage 4: Evaluating**

Evaluating consists of judging the messages in some way. At times you may try to evaluate the speaker's underlying intentions or motives. Often this evaluation process goes on without much conscious awareness. For example, Elaine tells you that she is up

for a promotion and is really excited about it. You may then try to judge her intention: perhaps she wants you to use your influence with the company president, or maybe she's preoccupied with the promotion and so she tells everyone, or possibly she's looking for a compliment.

### • Stage 5: Responding

Responding occurs in two phases: responses you make while the speaker is talking (immediate feedback) and responses you make after the speaker has stopped talking (delayed feedback). These feedback messages send information back to the speaker and tell the speaker how you feel and what you think about his or her messages. When you nod or smile in response to someone you're interacting with face-to-face, you're responding with immediate feedback. When you comment on a blog post, poke a person on Facebook who has poked you, or say you like a photo or post on Facebook, you're responding with delayed feedback. In face-to-face communication, supportive responses made while the speaker is talking are particularly effective; they acknowledge that you're listening and that you're understanding the speaker. These responses include what nonverbal researchers call back-channeling cues—comments such as “I see,” “yes,” “uh-huh,” and similar signals.

**Table 1.2 Listening Stages and Effectiveness**

Listening Stage	Effective Listening
<b>Receiving:</b> You note not only what is said (verbally and nonverbally) but also what is omitted.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <b>Focus your attention</b> on the speaker's verbal and nonverbal messages.</li> <li>2. <b>Avoid distractions</b> in the environment.</li> <li>3. <b>Maintain your role as listener</b> and avoid interrupting.</li> </ol>
<b>Understanding:</b> You learn what the speaker means, the stage at which you grasp both the thoughts and the emotions expressed.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <b>Avoid assuming you understand</b> what the speaker is going to say before he or she actually says it.</li> <li>2. <b>See the speaker's messages from the speaker's point of view.</b></li> <li>3. <b>Ask questions</b> for clarification.</li> <li>4. <b>Rephrase (paraphrase)</b> the speaker's ideas in your own words.</li> </ol>
<b>Remembering:</b> You put the information into short-term memory and rehearse it so that it is stored in long-term memory.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <b>Focus</b> your attention on the central ideas.</li> <li>2. <b>Organize</b> what you hear.</li> <li>3. <b>Unite</b> the new with the old.</li> <li>4. <b>Rehearse;</b> repeat names and key concepts to yourself or, if appropriate, aloud.</li> </ol>
<b>Evaluating:</b> You judge or evaluate the messages in some way.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <b>Resist evaluation</b> until you fully understand the speaker's point of view.</li> <li>2. <b>Distinguish facts from opinions</b> and personal interpretations by the speaker.</li> <li>3. <b>Identify any biases,</b> self-interests, or prejudices in the speaker.</li> <li>4. <b>Recognize some of the popular but fallacious forms of “reasoning”</b> that speakers may employ, such as <b>name-calling, testimonial, and bandwagon.</b></li> </ol>
<b>Responding:</b> You may respond immediately as well as at some later time.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <b>Support the speaker.</b></li> <li>2. <b>Own your responses.</b></li> <li>3. <b>Resist “responding to another's feelings” with “solving the person's problems.”</b></li> <li>4. <b>Focus on the other person.</b></li> <li>5. <b>Avoid being a thought-completing listener.</b></li> </ol>

### **1.4.2 Listening Barriers**

In addition to practicing the various skills for each stage of listening, consider some of the common general barriers to listening. Here are five such barriers and some suggestions for dealing with them as both listener and speaker—because both speaker and listener are responsible for effective listening.

- **Physical and Mental distractions**

Physical barriers to listening may include, for example, hearing impairment, a noisy environment, or loud music. Multitasking (watching TV while listening to someone with the aim of being supportive, say) simply doesn't work. As both listener and speaker, try to remove whatever physical barriers can be removed; for those that you can't remove, adjust your listening and speaking to lessen the effects as much as possible. As a listener, focus on the speaker; you can attend to the room and the other people later.

Mental distractions are in many ways similar to physical distractions; they get in the way of focused listening. Typical mental distractions, for example, are thinking about your upcoming Saturday night date or becoming too emotional to think (and listen) clearly. In listening, recognize that you can think about your date later. In speaking, make what you say compelling and relevant to the listener.

- **Biases and prejudices**

Biases and prejudices against groups, or against individuals who are members of such groups, will invariably distort listening. For example, a gender bias that assumes that only one sex has anything useful to say about certain topics will likely distort incoming messages that contradict this bias. As a listener, be willing to subject your biases and prejudices to contradictory information; after all, if they're worth having, they should stand up to differences of opinion.

- **Lack of appropriate focus**

Focusing on what a person is saying is obviously necessary for effective listening. And yet there are many influences that can lead you astray. For example, listeners often get lost because they focus on irrelevancies, say, on an especially vivid example that conjures up old memories. As a listener, try not to get detoured from the main idea; don't get hung up on unimportant details. Try to repeat the idea to yourself and see the details



in relation to this main concept. As a speaker, try to avoid language or examples that may divert attention from your main idea.

- **Premature judgement**

Perhaps the most obvious form of premature judgment is assuming you know what the speaker is going to say—so there's no need to really listen. Let the speaker say what he or she is going to say before you decide that you already know it. As a speaker, of course, it's often wise to assume that listeners will do exactly this, so it may be helpful to make clear that what you're saying will be unexpected.

A common listener reaction is to draw conclusions or judgments on incomplete evidence. Sometimes listeners stop listening after hearing a speaker, for example, express an attitude they disagree with or make some sexist or culturally insensitive remark. Instead, this is a situation that calls for especially concentrated listening so that you don't rush to judgment. Wait for the evidence or argument; avoid making judgments before you gather all the information. Listen first; judge second.

- **Hearing impairment**

People with hearing loss differ greatly in their hearing ability. Although people with profound hearing loss can speak, their speech may appear labored and may be less clear than the speech of those with unimpaired hearing.

### **1.4.3 Styles of effective listening**

Effective listening is listening that is tailored to the specific communication situation. Listening is situational; your style of listening should vary with the situation, and each situation calls for a somewhat different combination of listening styles. You do (and should) listen differently depending on your purpose, your conversational partners, and the type of message; in some situations, you'll need to be especially critical and in others especially supportive.

Visualize each listening situation as one in which you have to make choices among the five dimensions of listening discussed in this section. Each listening situation should call for a somewhat different configuration of listening responses. The art of effective listening is largely one of making appropriate choices along the following five dimensions: (1) empathic versus objective listening, (2) nonjudgmental versus critical

listening, (3) surface versus depth listening, (4) polite versus impolite listening, and (5) active versus inactive listening. Let's take a look at each of these dimensions.

- **Empathic Listening**

If you're going to understand what a person means and what a person is feeling, you need to listen with some degree of empathy, the feeling of another's feelings (Rogers, 1970; Rogers & Farson, 1981). To empathize with others is to feel with them, to see the world as they see it, to feel what they feel. Only when you achieve this can you fully understand another person's meaning. Empathic listening also helps you to enhance your relationships (Barrett & Godfrey, 1988; Snyder, 1992). Although for most communication situations, empathic listening is the preferred mode of responding, you sometimes need to engage in objective listening - to go beyond empathy and measure meanings and feelings against some objective reality.

- **Polite Listening**

Politeness is often thought of as the exclusive function of the speaker, as solely an encoding or sending function. But politeness (or impoliteness) may also be signaled through listening (Fukushima, 2000).

Sometimes, of course, you do not want to listen politely, for example, if someone is being verbally abusive or condescending or using racist or sexist language. In these cases, you might want to show your disapproval by showing that you're not even listening. But most often you'll want to listen politely and you'll want to express this politeness through your listening behavior.

- **Critical Listening**

In many listening situations, you need to listen critically—with a view toward making some kind of evaluation or judgment. Clearly, engage in nonjudgmental listening first; listen for understanding while suspending judgment. Only after you've fully understood the relevant messages should you evaluate or judge. Supplement open-minded listening with critical listening. Listening with an open mind helps you understand messages better; listening with a critical mind helps you analyze and evaluate the messages.

- **Active listening**

One of the most important communication skills you can learn is that of active listening (Gordon, 1975). Active listening is a process of sending back to the speaker what you as a listener think the speaker meant—both in content and in feelings. Active listening, then, is not merely repeating the speaker's exact words but rather putting together your understanding of the speaker's total message into a meaningful whole.

Active listening serves several important functions. First, it helps you as a listener to check your understanding of what the speaker said and, more important, of what he or she meant. Reflecting back perceived meanings to the speaker gives the speaker an opportunity to offer clarification and correct any misunderstandings. Second, through active listening you let the speaker know that you acknowledge and accept his or her feelings. In the sample responses given, the first two listeners challenged your feelings. Suzanne, the active listener, accepted what you were feeling. In addition, she also explicitly identified your feelings: "You sound angry and frustrated," allowing you an opportunity to correct her interpretation if necessary. Third, active listening stimulates the speaker to explore feelings and thoughts.

Three simple techniques will prove useful as you learn to practice active listening: Paraphrase the speaker's meaning, express understanding of the speaker's feelings, and ask questions.

### **1.5. Nonverbal codes: sharing with others**

Nonverbal communication is communication without words. You communicate nonverbally when you gesture, smile or frown, widen your eyes, move your chair closer to someone, wear jewelry, touch someone, raise your vocal volume, or even when you say nothing. The crucial aspect of nonverbal communication is that the message you send is in some way received by one or more other people. If you gesture while alone in your room and no one is there to see you, then, most theorists would argue, communication has not taken place. The same, of course, is true of verbal messages: if you recite a speech and no one hears it, then communication has not taken place.

#### **1.5.1 The principles governing nonverbal messages**

- **Nonverbal messages interact with verbal messages:**

Verbal and nonverbal messages interact with each other in six major ways: to accent, to complement, to contradict, to control, to repeat, and to substitute for each other. When

you communicate electronically, of course, your message is communicated by means of typed letters without facial expressions or gestures that normally accompany face-to-face communication and without the changes in rate and volume that are part of normal telephone communication. To compensate for this lack of nonverbal behavior, emoticons were created. An emoticon or smiley is a typed symbol that communicates through a keyboard the nuances of the message normally conveyed by nonverbal expression.

- **Nonverbal messages help manage impressions:**

It is largely through the nonverbal communications of others that you form impressions of them. Based on a person's body size, skin color, and dress, as well as on the way the person smiles, maintains eye contact, and expresses him- or herself facially, you form impressions—you judge who the person is and what the person is like. And, at the same time that you form impressions of others, you are also managing the impressions they form of you, using different strategies to achieve different impressions.

- **Nonverbal messages help form relationship:**

Much of your relationship life is lived nonverbally. You communicate affection, support, and love, in part at least, nonverbally (Floyd & Mikkelsen, 2005). At the same time, you also communicate displeasure, anger, and animosity through nonverbal signals. You also use nonverbal signals to communicate the nature of your relationship to another person, and you and that person communicate nonverbally with each other. These signals that communicate your relationship status are known as tie signs: they indicate the ways in which your relationship is tied together (Afifi & Johnson, 2005; Goffman, 1967; Knapp & Hall, 2009). Tie signs are also used to confirm the level of the relationship; for example, you might hold hands to see if this is responded to positively.

- **Nonverbal messages help structure conversation:**

When you're in conversation, you give and receive cues—signals that you're ready to speak, to listen, to comment on what the speaker just said. These cues regulate and structure the interaction. These turn-taking cues may be verbal (as when you say, "What do you think?" and thereby give the speaking turn over to the listener). Most often, however, they're nonverbal; a nod of the head in the direction of someone else, for

example, signals that you're ready to give up your speaking turn and want this other person to say something. You also show that you're listening and that you want the conversation to continue (or that you're not listening and want the conversation to end) largely through nonverbal signals of posture and eye contact (or the lack thereof).

- **Nonverbal messages can influence and deceive:**

You can influence others not only through what you say but also through your nonverbal signals. A focused glance that says you're committed; gestures that further explain what you're saying; appropriate dress that says, "I'll easily fit in with this organization"—these are just a few examples of ways in which you can exert nonverbal influence. Gesturing even seems to help learning and memory (Dean, 2010). Apparently, gesturing helps reinforce the message or activity in one's memory.

And with the ability to influence, of course, comes the ability to deceive—to mislead another person into thinking something is true when it's false or that something is false when it's true. One common example of nonverbal deception is using your eyes and facial expressions to communicate a liking for other people when you're really interested only in gaining their support in some endeavor. Not surprisingly, you also use nonverbal signals to detect deception in others. For example, you may well suspect a person of lying if he or she avoids eye contact, fidgets, and conveys inconsistent verbal and nonverbal messages.

- **Nonverbal messages are crucial for emotional expression:**

Although people often explain and reveal emotions verbally, nonverbal signals communicate a great part of your emotional experience. For example, you reveal your level of happiness or sadness or confusion largely through facial expressions. Nonverbal messages often help people communicate unpleasant messages that they might feel uncomfortable putting into words (Infante, Rancer, & Avtgis, 2010). For example, you might avoid eye contact and maintain large distances between yourself and someone with whom you didn't want to interact or with whom you want to decrease the intensity of your relationship. You also use nonverbal messages to hide your emotions. You might, for example, smile even though you feel sad to avoid dampening the party spirit. Or you might laugh at someone's joke even though you think it is silly. At the same time that you

express emotions nonverbally, you also use nonverbal cues to decode or decipher the emotions of others.

## 1.5.2 Channels of Nonverbal Communication

Nonverbal communication involves a variety of channels. Here we look at: (1) body messages, (2) facial communication, (3) eye communication, (4) touch communication, (5) paralanguage, (6) silence, (7) spatial messages and territoriality, (8) artifactual communication, (9) olfactory messages, and (10) temporal communication. As you'll see, nonverbal messages are heavily influenced by culture (Matsumoto, 2006; Matsumoto & Yoo, 2005; Matsumoto, Yoo, Hirayama, & Petrova, 2005).






### 1.5.2.1 Body communication

In much interpersonal interaction, it's the person's body that communicates most immediately. Here we look at body gestures and body appearance—two main ways the body communicates.

- **Body gestures**

An especially useful classification in kinesics—or the study of communication through body movement—identifies five types: emblems, illustrators, affect displays, regulators, and adaptors (Ekman & Friesen, 1969). Table 1.3 summarizes and provides examples of these five types of movements.

**Table 1.3 Types of Body Movements**

	Movement and Function	Examples
	<b>Emblems</b> directly translate words or phrases.	"Okay" sign, "Come here" wave, hitchhiker's sign
	<b>Illustrators</b> accompany and literally "illustrate" verbal messages.	Circular hand movements when talking of a circle, hands far apart when talking of something large
	<b>Affect displays</b> communicate emotional meaning.	Expressions of happiness, surprise, fear, anger, sadness, disgust, contempt and interest
	<b>Regulators</b> monitor, maintain, or control the speaking of another.	Facial expressions and hand gestures indicating "Keep going," "Slow down," or "What else happened?"
	<b>Adaptors</b> satisfy some need.	Scratching head, chewing on pencil, adjusting glasses

- **Body appearance**

The body communicates even without movement. For example, others may form impressions of you from your general body build; from your height and weight; and from your skin, eye, and hair color. Assessments of your power, attractiveness, and suitability as a friend or romantic partner are often made on the basis of your body appearance (Sheppard & Strathman, 1989)

#### **1.5.2.2 Facial communication**

Throughout your interpersonal interactions, your face communicates - especially signaling your emotions. In fact, facial movements alone seem to communicate the degree of pleasantness, agreement, and sympathy a person feels; the rest of the body doesn't provide any additional information. For other aspects - for example, the intensity with which an emotion is felt - both facial and bodily cues are used (Graham & Argyle, 1975; Graham, Bitti, & Argyle, 1975).

Some nonverbal communication researchers claim that facial movements may communicate at least the following eight emotions: happiness, surprise, fear, anger, sadness, disgust, contempt, and interest (Ekman, Friesen, & Ellsworth, 1972). Others propose that, in addition, facial movements may communicate bewilderment and determination (Leathers & Eaves, 2008). And, to complicate matters just a bit, biological researchers, from an analysis of the 42 facial muscles and their expressions, argue that there are four basic emotions (anger, fear, happiness, and sadness) and that other emotions are combinations of these four (Jack, Garrod, & Schyns, 2014; Dean, 2014).

#### **1.5.2.3 Eye communication**

Research on the message communicated by the eyes shows that these messages vary depending on the duration, direction and quality of the eye behavior.

You use eye contact to serve several important functions (Knapp & Hall, 2009; Malandro, Barker, & Barker, 1989; Richmond, McCroskey, & Hickson, 2012):

- **To monitor feedback**

For example, when you talk with others, you look at them and try to understand their reactions to what you're saying. You try to read their feedback, and on this basis you

adjust what you say. As you can imagine, successful readings of feedback help considerably in your overall effectiveness when it comes to communication.

- **To secure attention**

When you speak with two or three other people, you maintain eye contact to secure the attention and interest of your listeners. When someone fails to pay you the attention you want, you probably increase your eye contact, hoping that this will increase attention. When online dating profile photos were analyzed, those women who made eye contact with the camera received significantly more responses than did those who looked away. Men, on the other hand, did better when they looked away from the camera (Dean, 2010b).

- **To regulate the conversation**

Eye contact helps you regulate, manage, and control the conversation. With eye movements, you can inform the other person that she or he should speak. A clear example of this occurs in the college classroom, where the instructor asks a question and then locks eyes with a student. This type of eye contact tells the student to answer the question.

- **To signal the nature of the relationship**

Eye communication can also serve as a tie sign or signal of the nature of the relationship between two people—for example, to indicate positive or negative regard.

- **To signal status**

Eye contact is often used to signal status and aggression. Among many younger people, prolonged eye contact from a stranger is taken to signify aggressiveness and frequently prompts physical violence—merely because one person looked perhaps a little longer than was considered normal in that specific culture (Matsumoto, 1996).

- **To compensate for physical distance**

Eye contact is often used to compensate for increased physical distance. By making eye contact, you overcome psychologically the physical distance between yourself and another person. When you catch someone's eye at a party, for example, you become psychologically closer even though you may be separated by considerable physical distance.







### 1.5.2.4 Space communication

Space is an especially important factor in interpersonal communication, although we seldom think about it. Edward T. Hall (1959, 1963, 1966), who pioneered the study of spatial communication, called this area proxemics. We can examine this broad area by looking at proxemic distances, the theories about space, and territoriality.

- **Proxemic distances**

Four proxemic distances, the distances we maintain between each other in our interactions, correspond closely to the major types of relationships. They are intimate, personal, social, and public distances, as depicted in Table 1.4.

**Table 1.4: Relationships and Proxemic Distances**

Relationship		Distance
	Intimate relationship	Intimate distance 0 _____ 18 in close phase far phase
	Personal relationship	Personal distance 1½ _____ 4 feet close phase far phase
	Social relationship	Social distance 4 _____ 12 feet close phase far phase
	Public relationship	Public distance 12 _____ 25+ feet close phase far phase

Another type of communication having to do with space is territoriality, the possessive reaction to an area or to particular objects. You interact basically in three types of territories (Altman, 1975):

- primary territories, or home territories, are areas that you might call your own; these areas are your exclusive preserve and might include your room, your desk, or your office.
- secondary territories are areas that don't belong to you but that you have occupied; thus, you're associated with them. Secondary territories might include the table in

the cafeteria that you regularly eat at, your classroom seat, or your neighborhood turf.

- public territories are areas that are open to all people; they may be owned by some person or organization, but they are used by everyone. Examples include a movie house, a restaurant, or a shopping mall.

#### **1.5.2.5 Artifactual communication**

Artifactual communication consists of messages conveyed by objects that are made by human hands. Thus, aesthetics, color, clothing, jewelry, and hairstyle, as well as scents such as perfume, cologne, or incense, all are considered artifactual.

- **Space decoration**

That the decoration or surroundings of a place exert influence on perceptions should be obvious to anyone who has ever entered a hospital, with its sterile walls and furniture, or a museum, with its imposing columns, glass-encased exhibits, and brass plaques.

- **Color communication**

Color communication takes place on many levels. For example, there is some evidence that colors affect us physiologically. Respiratory movements increase in the presence of red light and decrease in the presence of blue light. Similarly, eye blinks increase in frequency when eyes are exposed to red light and decrease when exposed to blue. This seems consistent with our intuitive feelings that blue is more soothing and red more provocative. At the same time, blue light has been found to increase alertness (Rahman et al., 2014; Dean, 2014).

Color also seems to influence the expectation of taste sensation (Srivastava & More, 2011). For example, people expect pink pills to be sweeter than red pills, yellow pills to be salty, white and blue pills to be bitter, and orange pills to be sour.

- **Clothing and body adornment**

Clothing serves a variety of functions. It protects you from the weather and, in sports like football, from injury. It helps you conceal parts of your body and so serves a modesty function. In the business world, it may communicate your position within the hierarchy and your willingness and desire to conform to the clothing norms of the organization. It may also communicate your professionalism, which seems to be the

reason why some organizations favor dress codes (M. H. Smith, 2003). Clothing also serves as a form of cultural display (Morris, 2002). It communicates your cultural and subcultural affiliations. In the United States, where there are so many different ethnic groups, you regularly see examples of dress that indicate what country the wearers are from. Today, wearable technology has added a new dimension of the messages clothing communicates. Google glasses, watches that function as computers, and cameras built into ties or jewelry are among the “clothing” that communicates something about who you are and, perhaps, where you’re going.

#### **1.5.2.6 Touch Communication**

Tactile communication, or communication by touch, also referred to as haptics, is perhaps the most primitive form of communication. Developmentally, touch is probably the first sense to be used; even in the womb, the child is stimulated by touch. Touch may communicate at least five major meanings (Jones, 2005; Jones & Yarbrough, 1985):

- **Emotions**

Touch often communicates emotions, mainly between intimates or others who have a relatively close relationship. Among the most important of these positive emotions are support, appreciation, inclusion, sexual interest or intent, and affection. Additional research found that touch communicated positive feelings such as composure, immediacy, trust, similarity and equality, and informality (Burgoon, 1991).

- **Playfulness**

Touch often communicates a desire to play, either affectionately or aggressively. When touch is used in this manner, the playfulness deemphasizes the emotion and tells the other person that it’s not to be taken seriously. Playful touches lighten an interaction.

- **Control**

Touch also may seek to control the behaviors, attitudes, or feelings of the other person. Such control may communicate various different kinds of messages.

- **Ritual**

Much touching centers on performing rituals, for example, in greetings and departures. Shaking hands to say hello or goodbye is perhaps the clearest example of ritualistic touching, but we might also hug, kiss, or put an arm around another’s shoulder.

- **Task-related**

Touching is often associated with the performance of a function, such as removing a speck of dust from another person's face, helping someone out of a car, or checking someone's forehead for fever. Task-related touching seems generally to be regarded positively.

### **1.5.2.7 Paralanguage**

Paralanguage is the vocal but nonverbal dimension of speech. It has to do with the manner in which you say something rather than with what you say. An old exercise used to increase a student's ability to express different emotions, feelings, and attitudes was to have the student say the following sentence while accenting or stressing different words: "Is this the face that launched a thousand ships?" Significant differences in meaning are easily communicated, depending on where the stress is placed.

In addition to stress, paralanguage includes vocal characteristics such as rate and volume. Paralanguage also includes the vocalizations that we make when laughing, yelling, moaning, whining, and belching; vocal segregates—sound combinations that aren't words—such as "uh-uh" and "shh"; and pitch, the highness or lowness of vocal tone (Argyle, 1988; Trager, 1958, 1961).

### **1.5.2.8 Silence**

Like words and gestures, silence, too, communicates important meanings and serves important functions:

- To provide time to think. Silence allows you time to think, time to formulate and organize your verbal communications.
- To hurt. Some people use silence as a weapon to hurt others. We often speak of giving someone the silent treatment. After a conflict, for example, one or both individuals may remain silent as a kind of punishment.
- To respond to personal anxiety. Sometimes silence is used as a response to personal anxiety, shyness, or threats. You may feel anxious or shy among new people and prefer to remain silent.
- To prevent communication. Silence may be used to prevent communication of certain messages. In conflict situations, silence is sometimes used to prevent certain topics from surfacing or to prevent one or both parties from saying things they may later regret.

- To communicate emotions. Like the eyes, face, or hands, silence can also be used
- to communicate emotions (Ehrenhaus, 1988; Lane, Koetting, & Bishop, 2002). Sometimes silence communicates a determination to be uncooperative or defiant; by refusing to engage in verbal communication, you defy the authority or the legitimacy of the other person's position.
- To achieve specific effects. Silence may also be used strategically, to achieve specific effects. The pause before making what you feel is an important comment or after hearing about some mishap may be strategically positioned to communicate a desired impression—to make your idea stand out among others or perhaps to give others the impression that you care a lot more than you really do.

### 1.5.2.9 Time communication

The study of temporal communication, known technically as chronemics, concerns the use of time—how you organize it, react to it, and communicate messages through it (Bruneau, 1985, 1990, 2009/2010). Here we'll look at psychological, interpersonal, and cultural time. Time and its effective management are important, and Table 1.5 offers some suggestions for effective time management.

**Table 1.5 Suggestions for Effective Time Management.**

Principle	Suggestion
<b>Understand your use of time.</b>	Take a look at what takes up most of your time. In a 24-hour day, what takes up the largest block of time (aside from sleeping)? Once you know how you spend your time, you'll be able to see what can be and should be cut back.
<b>Attack your time-wasters.</b>	Begin by getting rid of the one time-waster that you can do without most easily.
<b>Avoid procrastination.</b>	It's highly unlikely that you will do a better job when you're rushed
<b>Use tools.</b>	Everyone needs help and you can't keep everything in short-term memory. Twitter can easily be used for jogging your memory, as can the various online calendars.
<b>Prioritize.</b>	Put some order into your list
<b>Break up large tasks.</b>	Most large tasks can be divided into small steps to accomplish during the workday.
<b>Set realistic time limits.</b>	It often helps to set time limits, especially when the task is unpleasant, like doing your income taxes or reading a boring but important textbook.
<b>Reward yourself.</b>	Rewarding yourself, after completing a unit of work often makes unpleasant tasks a bit easier to accomplish.
<b>Do things once rather than twice.</b>	For example, one of the popular rules for time management is to look only once at a piece of paper, act on it, and then file or get rid of it.
<b>Avoid distractions.</b>	Minimize whatever distractions you can control. You're not going to be able to control all of them.

Interpersonal time refers to a wide variety of time-related elements that figure into interpersonal interaction. Here are several of the more important (Burgoon, Guerrero, & Floyd, 2010; Andersen & Bowman, 1999; DeVito, 2013):

- Punctuality refers to being on time for a variety of occasions - for company meetings, class, teacher-student appointments, a ballgame, a movie or television show, and completing assignments, to name just a few examples.
- Wait time refers to the amount of time it's considered appropriate to wait for someone. Generally, the rule is that you'd wait longer for higher-status people than for lower-status people. You'd wait a long time if your supervisor is late, but you may wait only a few minutes for a colleague.
- Duration refers to the length of time that a particular interaction will take. When you go to the doctor or dentist, you're likely given a specific amount of time.
- Talk time refers, for example, to who initiates and who terminates a conversation, who talks more, who selects and directs the topics for discussion. As with so many such factors, status plays an important role here.
- Work time refers to the time schedule of your working life.
- Relationship time is similar to work time but refers to the time one gives or should give to the various people with whom he or she has a relationship.
- Response time refers to the time it takes you to respond. Response time is observed in both synchronous and asynchronous communication. For example, in face-to-face communication, the response time to some statements and questions must be immediate.

All of these types of interpersonal time are influenced by a variety of factors involved in the interpersonal communication process.

#### **1.5.2.10 Smell communication**

Smell is a peculiar aspect of nonverbal communication and is discussed in widely different ways by different writers. Here, because the emphasis is on using scents (for example, perfume or cologne), it's grouped with artifactual communication. But recognize that body odor also communicates, and perhaps that part of smell is best thought of as a form of body communication. Some of the most important messages that scent seems to communicate involve attraction, taste, memory, and identification.

- To attract others. In many animal species, the female gives off a scent that draws males, often from far distances, and thus ensures the continuation of the species. Humans, too, emit sexual attractants called sex pheromones, body secretions that arouse sexual desire (Kluger, 2008). Humans, of course, supplement pheromones with perfumes, colognes, after-shave lotions, powders, and the like, to enhance attractiveness and sexuality and, at the same time, to cover up any unpleasant body odor.
- To aid taste. Without smell, taste would be severely impaired. For example, it would be extremely difficult to taste the difference between a raw potato and an apple without the sense of smell. Street vendors selling hot dogs, sausages, and similar foods are aided greatly by the smells that stimulate the appetites of passersby.
- To aid memory. Smell is a powerful memory aid; you can often recall situations from months and even years ago when you happen upon a similar smell. One reason smell can help you recall a previous situation so effectively is that it's often associated with significant emotional experiences (Rubin, Groth, & Goldsmith, 1984; Malandro, Barker, & Barker, 1989).
- To create an image. Smell is often used to create an image or an identity for a product. Advertisers and manufacturers spend millions of dollars each year creating scents for cleaning products and toothpastes, for example. These scents have nothing to do with the products' cleaning power. Instead, they function solely to help create product images or identities.

## **1.6. Verbal messages**

Verbal messages are messages sent with words. It's important to remember that the word *verbal* refers to words, not to orality; verbal messages consist of both oral and written words.

### **1.6.1 Principles of verbal messages**

To clarify the nature of verbal messages and the meanings they create in the minds of listeners, let's examine some specific principles: (1) meanings are in people, (2) meanings are denotative and connotative, (3) meanings depend on context, (4) messages vary in politeness, (5) messages can be onymous or anonymous, (6) messages vary in assertiveness and (7) messages can deceive. Throughout this discussion you'll find lots of useful suggestions for more effective interpersonal communication.

- **Meanings are in people**

Meaning depends not only on the packaging of messages (the combined verbal and nonverbal elements) but also on the interaction of these messages and the receiver's own thoughts and feelings. You don't "receive" meaning; you create meaning. You construct meaning out of the messages you receive combined with your own social and cultural perspectives (beliefs, attitudes, and values, for example) (Berger & Luckmann, 1980; Delia, 1977; Delia, O'Keefe, & O'Keefe, 1982). Words don't mean; people mean.

Because meanings are in people—and each person is unique and different from every other person—no word or message will mean the same thing to two different people. And this is why, for example, the same message may be perceived as controlling by one person and as a simple request by another. As you can appreciate, this type of misunderstanding can easily lead to interpersonal conflict if we fail to recognize that the meaning is not in the words; it's in the person. As a result, check your perceptions of another's meanings by asking questions, echoing what you perceive to be the other person's feelings or thoughts, and seeking elaboration and clarification.

- **Meanings are denotative and connotative**

Consider a word such as death. To a doctor, this word may mean the moment at which the heart stops beating. This is denotative meaning—a rather objective description of an event. To a mother whose son has just died, however, the word means much more. It recalls the son's youth, his ambitions, his family, his illness, and so on. To her, the word is emotional, subjective, and highly personal. These emotional, subjective, and personal associations are the word's connotative meaning. The denotation of a word is its objective definition; the connotation is its subjective or emotional meaning.

Now consider a simple nod of the head in answer to the question, "Do you agree?" This gesture is largely denotative and simply says yes. But what about a wink, a smile, or an overly rapid speech rate? These nonverbal expressions are more connotative; they express your feelings rather than objective information. The denotative meaning of a message is universal; most people would agree with the denotative meanings and would give similar definitions. Connotative meanings, however, are extremely personal, and few people would agree on the precise connotative meaning of a word or nonverbal behavior. Understanding



the distinction between denotation and connotation should encourage you to clarify connotative meanings (or ask for clarification) when you anticipate potential misunderstandings; misunderstandings are almost always centered on connotative differences.

- **Meanings depend on context**

Verbal and non-verbal communications exist in a context and that context to a large extent determines the meaning of any verbal and nonverbal behavior. The meaning of a given signal depends on the other behavior it accompanies or is close to in time. Pounding a fist on the table during a speech in support of a politician means something quite different from that same gesture in response to news of a friend's death. Of course, even if you know the context in detail, you still may not be able to decipher the meaning of the message as the speaker intended. But understanding the context helps and also raises the chances of our understanding the speaker's message accurately. The most important contexts to consider are the cultural and the gender contexts. Your culture teaches you that certain ways of using verbal messages acceptable and certain ways are not. When you follow such cultural principles in communicating, you're seen as a properly functioning member of the culture. When you violate the principles, you risk being seen as deviant or perhaps as insulting. Gender also influences our verbal communication. For example, studies from different cultures show that women's speech is generally more polite than men's speech, even on the phone.

- **Messages vary in politeness**

Messages are greatly in their degree of politeness. One of the best ways to look at politeness (consideration, respect, etc.) in interpersonal communication is in terms of both positive and negative politeness. Both of these forms of politeness are responsive to two needs that each person has: (1) the need to be viewed positively by others, to be thought of favorably (that is, to maintain positive face) and (2) the need to be autonomous, to have the right to do as we wish (that is, to maintain negative face). Politeness in interpersonal communication, then, involves behavior that allows others to maintain both positive and negative face. Culture is not the only factor influencing politeness. Your personality and your professional training influence your degree of politeness and how you express politeness (Edstrom, 2004). And the context of

communication influences politeness; formal situations in which there is considerable power difference call for greater politeness than informal circumstances in which the power differences are minimal (Mullany, 2004).

- **Messages can be onymous or anonymous**

Some messages are onymous or “signed”; that is, the author of the message is clearly identified, as it is in your textbooks, news-related editorials, feature articles, and, of course, when you communicate face-to-face and, usually, by phone or chat. In many cases, you have the opportunity to respond directly to the speaker/writer and voice your opinions, for example, your agreement or disagreement. Other messages are anonymous: the author is not identified. For example, on faculty evaluation questionnaires and on RateMyProfessor.com, the ratings and the comments are published anonymously.

The Internet has made anonymity extremely easy and there are currently a variety of websites that offer to send your e-mails to your boss, your ex-partner, your secret crush, your noisy neighbors, or your inadequate lawyer—all anonymously. Thus, your message gets sent but you are not identified with it. For good or ill, you don’t have to deal with the consequences of your message.

- **Messages vary in assertiveness**

If you disagree with other people in a group, do you speak your mind? Do you allow others to take advantage of you because you’re reluctant to say what you want? Do you feel uncomfortable when you have to state your opinion in a group? Questions such as these speak to your degree of assertiveness.

Assertive people operate with an “I win, you win” philosophy; they assume that both parties can gain something from an interpersonal interaction, even from a confrontation. Assertive people are more positive and score lower on measures of hopelessness than do nonassertive people (Velting, 1999). Assertive people are willing to assert their own rights. Unlike their aggressive counterparts, however, they don’t hurt others in the process. Assertive people speak their minds and welcome others to do likewise. Do realize that, as with many other aspects of communication, there are wide cultural differences when it comes to assertiveness. For example, the values of assertiveness are

more likely to be extolled in individualist cultures than in collectivist cultures. Assertiveness is valued more by those cultures that stress competition, individual success, and independence.

- **Messages can deceive**

It comes as no surprise that some messages are truthful and some are deceptive. Although we operate in interpersonal communication on the assumption that people tell the truth, some people do lie. High school students, for example, reported lying about four times in the last 24 hours (Levine, Serota, Carey, & Messer, 2013). College students seem to lie less, about twice per day (DePaulo, et al, 1996). Other research puts the figure a bit lower, from .6 to 1.6 lies per day (George & Robb, 2008). In fact, many view lying as common, whether in politics, business, or interpersonal relationships (Amble, 2005; Knapp, 2008). Lying also begets lying; when one person lies, the likelihood of the other person lying increases (Tyler, Feldman, & Reichert, 2006). Furthermore, people like people who tell the truth more than they like people who lie. So lying needs to be given some attention in any consideration of interpersonal communication.

### **1.6.2 Using verbal messages effectively**

Our examination of the principles governing the verbal messages system has suggested a wide variety of ways to use language more effectively. Avoiding these distortions and substituting a more critical to make your own verbal messages more effective and a more accurate reflection of the world in which we live.

- **Intensional orientation**

The term *intensional orientation* refers to a tendency to view people, objects, and events in terms of how they're talked about or labeled rather than in terms of how they actually exist. *Extensional orientation* is the opposite: it's a tendency to look first at the actual people, objects, and events and then at the labels -a tendency to be guided by what you see happening rather than by the way something or someone is talked about or labeled. Intensional orientation occurs when you act as if the words and labels were more important than the things they represent—as if the map were more important than the territory. In its more common form, intensional orientation occurs when you see people through your schemata instead of on the basis of their specific behaviors. For example, it

occurs when you think of a professor as an unworldly egghead before getting to know the specific professor.

The corrective to intensional orientation is to focus first on the object, person, or event and then on the way in which the object, person, or event is talked about. Labels are certainly helpful guides, but don't allow them to obscure what they're meant to symbolize.

- **Allness**

The world is infinitely complex, and because of this you can never say all there is to say about anything - at least not logically. This is particularly true when you are dealing with people. You may think you know all there is to know about certain individuals or about why they did what they did, yet clearly you don't know all. You can never know all the reasons you do something, so there is no way you can know all the reasons your parents, friends, or enemies did something. When you assume you can say all or have said all that can be said, you are into the pattern of illogical thinking called **allness**. To avoid allness, recognize that language symbolizes only a part of reality, never the whole.

- **Fact-Inference confusion**

Language enables us to form statements of facts and inferences without making any linguistic distinction between the two. Similarly, when we listen to such statements, we often don't make a clear distinction between statements of fact and statements of inference. Yet there are great differences between the two. Barriers to clear thinking can be created when inferences are treated as facts - a hazard called fact - inference confusion. There's no problem with making inferential statements; you must make them if you're to talk about much that is meaningful. The problem arises when you act as though those inferential statements are factual statements. You may wish to test your ability in distinguishing facts from inferences by carefully reading the following account, modeled on a report developed by William Haney (1973), and the observations based on it.

- **Static evaluation**

Language changes very slowly, especially when compared to the rapid pace at which people and things change. When you retain an evaluation of a person, despite the inevitable changes in the person, you're engaging in static evaluation.

- **Indiscrimination**

Nature seems to abhor sameness at least as much as vacuums because nowhere in the universe can you find identical entities. Everything is unique. Language, however, provides common nouns - such as teacher, student, friend, enemy, war, politician, liberal, and the like - that may lead you to focus on similarities. Such nouns can lead you to group together all teachers, all students, and all friends and perhaps divert attention from the uniqueness of each individual, object, and event. The misevaluation known as indiscrimination - a form of stereotyping - occurs when you focus on classes of individuals, objects, or events and fail to see that each is unique and needs to be looked at individually.

- **Polarization**

Polarization, often referred to as the fallacy of either/or, is the tendency to look at the world and to describe it in terms of extremes - good or bad, positive or negative, healthy or sick, brilliant or stupid, rich or poor, and so on. Most people exist somewhere between the extremes of good and bad, healthy and sick, brilliant and stupid, rich and poor. Yet there seems to be a strong tendency to view only the extremes and to categorize people, objects, and events in terms of these polar opposites.

These six guidelines will not solve all problems in verbal communication—but they will help you to align your language more accurately with the real world, the world of words and not words; infinite complexity; facts and inferences; sameness and difference; extremes and middle ground; and, perhaps most important, constant change.

## DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Define human communication and explain the nature of communication.
2. Explain the principles of human communication?
3. Define self-concept, self-awareness, and self-esteem and identify the suggestions for increasing awareness and esteem.
4. What are the five stages of perception and how do they influence the way you receive messages?
5. Describe the five stages of listening.
6. Explain the major barriers to effective listening.
7. Paraphrase the principles of verbal messages that define how verbal messages work in interpersonal communication.
8. Explain, and apply in your own communication, the guidelines for avoiding the major misuses of verbal language: intensional orientation, allness, fact-inference confusion, indiscrimination, polarization, and static evaluation.
9. What are the principles governing nonverbal messages?
10. Non-verbal messages may help you manage impressions, consider how you would manage yourself nonverbally in the following situations. For each of these situations, indicate (1) the impressions you'd want to create; (2) the nonverbal cues you'd use to create these impressions; and (3) the nonverbal cues you'd be especially careful to avoid.
  - a. You want a job at a conservative, prestigious law firm and are meeting for your first face-to-face interview.
  - b. You want a part in a movie in which you'd play a homeless drug addict.
  - c. You're single and you're applying to adopt a child.
  - d. You want to ask another student to go out with you.

## CHAPTER 2: INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

### 2.1 Interpersonal relationships

#### 2.1.1 Advantages and disadvantages of interpersonal relationships

Contact with other human beings is so important that when you're deprived of it for long periods, depression sets in, self-doubt surfaces, and you may find it difficult to manage even the basics of daily life. Research shows clearly that the most important contributor to happiness—outranking money, job, and sex—is a close relationship with one other person (Freedman, 1978; Laroche & deGrace, 1997; Lu & Shih, 1997). The desire for relationships is universal; interpersonal relationships are important to men and to women, to gay men and lesbians and to heterosexuals, to young and to old (Huston & Schwartz, 1995). A good way to begin the study of interpersonal relationships is by examining your relationship advantages and disadvantages by asking yourself what your relationships (past, present, or those you look forward to) do for you. What are the advantages and the disadvantages? Focus on your own relationships in general (friendship, romantic, family, and work), on one particular relationship (say, your life partner or your child or your best friend), on one type of relationship (say, friendship), and respond to the following statements by indicating the extent to which your relationship(s) serve each of these functions. Visualize a 10-point scale on which 1 indicates that your relationship(s) never serves this function, 10 indicates that your relationship(s) always serves this function, and the numbers in between indicate levels between these extremes. You may wish to do this twice—once for your face-to-face relationships and once for your online relationships.

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. My relationships help to lessen my loneliness.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. My relationships help me gain in self-knowledge and in self-esteem.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. My relationships help enhance my physical and emotional health.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. My relationships maximize my pleasures and minimize my pains.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. My relationships help me to secure stimulation (intellectual, physical, and emotional).

Let's elaborate just a bit on each of these commonly accepted advantages of interpersonal communication. One of the major benefits of relationships is that they help

to lessen loneliness (Rokach, 1998; Rokach & Brock, 1995). They make you feel that someone cares, that someone likes you, that someone will protect you, that someone ultimately will love you.

2. Through contact with others you learn about yourself and see yourself from different perspectives and in different roles—as a child or parent, as a coworker, as a manager, as a best friend, for example. Healthy interpersonal relationships help enhance self-esteem and self-worth. Simply having a friend or romantic partner (at least most of the time) makes you feel desirable and worthy.

3. Research consistently shows that interpersonal relationships contribute significantly to physical and emotional health (Goleman, 1995a; Pennebaker, 1991; Rosen, 1998; Rosengren, 1993) and to personal happiness (Berscheid & Reis, 1998). Without close interpersonal relationships, you're more likely to become depressed—and this depression, in turn, contributes significantly to physical illness. Isolation, in fact, contributes as much to mortality as high blood pressure, high cholesterol, obesity, smoking, or lack of physical exercise (Goleman 1995a).

4. The most general function served by interpersonal relationships, and the function that encompasses all the others, is that of maximizing pleasure and minimizing pain. Your good friends, for example, will make you feel even better about your good fortune and less hurt when you're confronted with hardships.

5. Just as plants are heliotropic and orient themselves to light, humans are stimulotropic and orient themselves to sources of stimulation (Davis, 1973). Human contact is one of the best ways to secure this stimulation—intellectual, physical, and emotional. Even an imagined relationship seems better than none.

Now, respond to these sentences as you did to the sentences above.

\_\_\_\_ 6. My relationships put uncomfortable pressure on me to expose my vulnerabilities

\_\_\_\_ 7. My relationships increase my obligations.

\_\_\_\_ 8. My relationships prevent me from developing other relationships.

\_\_\_\_ 9. My relationships scare me because they may be difficult to dissolve.

\_\_\_\_ 10. My relationships hurt me.



These statements express what most people would consider disadvantages of interpersonal relationships.

6. Close relationships put pressure on you to reveal yourself and to expose your vulnerabilities. While this is generally worthwhile in the context of a supporting and caring relationship, it may backfire if the relationship deteriorates and these weaknesses are used against you.

7. Close relationships increase your obligations to other people, sometimes to a great extent. Your time is no longer entirely your own. And although you enter relationships to spend more time with these special people, you also incur time (and perhaps financial) obligations with which you may not be happy.

8. Close relationships can lead you to abandon other relationships. Sometimes the other relationship involves someone you like, but your partner can't stand. More often, however, it's simply a matter of time and energy; relationships take a lot of both, and you have less to give to these other and less intimate relationships.

9. The closer your relationships, the more emotionally difficult they are to dissolve -a feeling which may be uncomfortable for some people. If a relationship is deteriorating, you may feel distress or depression. In some cultures, for example, religious pressures may prevent married couples from separating. And if lots of money is involved, dissolving a relationship can often mean giving up the fortune you've spent your life accumulating.

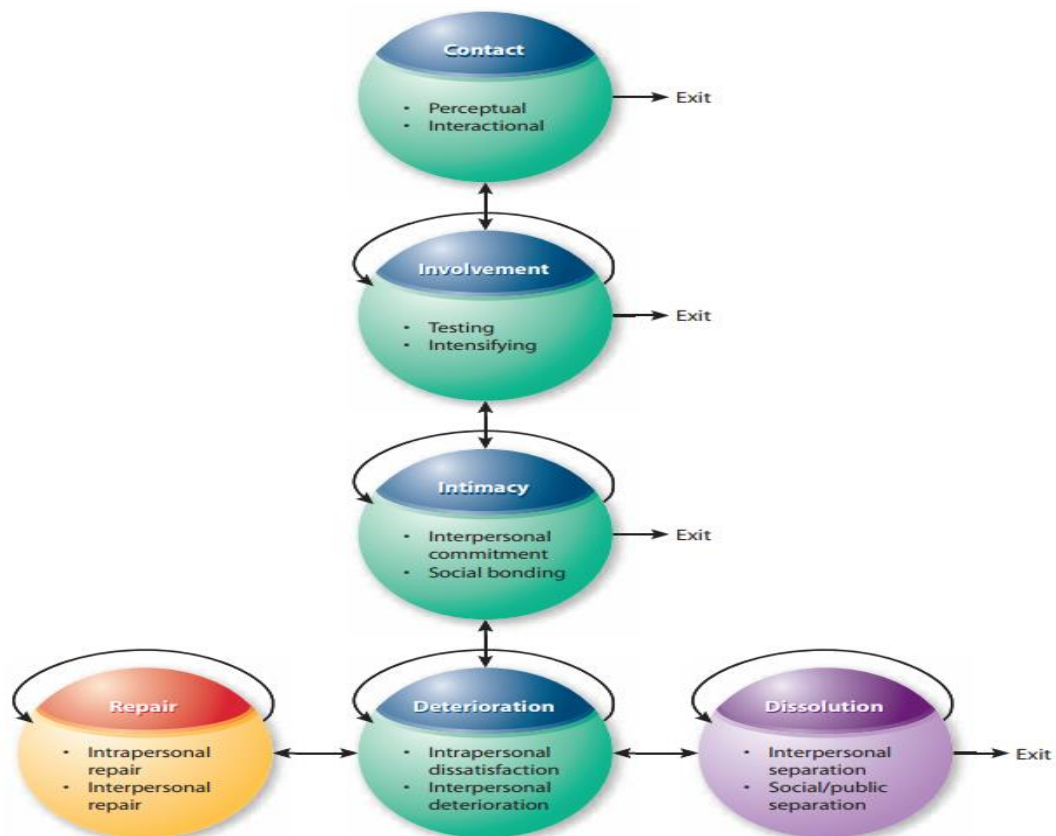
10. And, of course, your partner may break your heart. Your partner may leave you - against all your pleading and promises. Your hurt will be in proportion to how much you care and need your partner. If you care a great deal, you're likely to experience great hurt. If you care less, the hurt will be less—it's one of life's little ironies.

### **2.1.2 Relationship stages**

One of the most obvious characteristics of relationships is that they occur in stages, moving from initial contact to greater intimacy and sometimes to dissolution. You and another person don't become intimate friends immediately upon meeting. Rather, you build an intimate relationship gradually, through a series of steps or stages. The same is true of most relationships (Mongeau & Henningsen, 2008).

The six-stage model presented in Figure 2.1 describes the main stages in most relationships. As shown in the figure, the six stages of relationships are contact, involvement, intimacy, deterioration, repair, and dissolution, with each stage having an early and a late phase. The arrows represent the movements that take place as relationships change. Let's first examine the six stages, and then we'll look at the types of relationship movements.

**Figure 2.1 Stages of Relationships**



- **Contact**

At the initial phase of the contact stage, there is some kind of perceptual contact—you see, hear, read a message from, view a photo or video, read a person's profile, or perhaps smell the person. From this you form a mental and physical picture—gender, approximate age, beliefs and values, height, and so on. After this perception, there is usually interactional contact. Here the contact is superficial and relatively impersonal. This is the stage at which you exchange basic information that is preliminary to any, more intense involvement (*"Hello, my name is Joe"*), or you might send someone a request to be a friend. Here you initiate interaction (*"May I join you?"*) and engage in

invitational communication (“*May I buy you a latté?*”). The contact stage is the time of “first impressions.” According to some researchers, it’s at this stage—within the first four minutes of initial interaction—that you decide whether you want to pursue the relationship (Zunin & Zunin, 1972)

- **Involvement**

At the involvement stage of a relationship, a sense of mutuality, of being connected, develops. Here you experiment and try to learn more about the other person. At the initial phase of involvement, a kind of testing goes on. You want to see whether your initial judgment proves reasonable. So you may ask questions: “*Where do you work?*” “*What are you majoring in?*” If you want to get to know the person even better, you might continue your involvement by intensifying your interaction and by beginning to reveal yourself, though in a preliminary way.

- **Intimacy**

At the intimacy stage, you commit yourself still further to the other person and establish a relationship in which this individual becomes your best or closest friend, lover, or companion. Both the quantity and the quality of your interpersonal exchanges increase (Emmers-Sommer, 2004) and, of course, you also talk more and in greater detail about the relationship (Knobloch, Haunani, & Theiss, 2006). You also come to share each other’s social networks—a practice followed by members of widely different cultures (Gao & Gudykunst, 1995). Your relationship satisfaction also increases with the move to this stage (Siavelis & Lamke, 1992).

The intimacy stage usually divides itself into two phases. In the interpersonal commitment phase the two people commit themselves to each other in a private way. In the social bonding phase the commitment is made public—perhaps to family and friends, perhaps to the public at large. Here you and your partner become a unit, an identifiable pair.

- **Deterioration**

Although many relationships remain at the intimacy stage, some enter the stage of relationship deterioration – the stage that sees the weakening of the bonds between the parties and represents the downside of the relationship progression. The first phase of deterioration

is usually intrapersonal dissatisfaction: you begin to experience personal dissatisfaction with everyday interactions and begin to view the future with your partner more negatively. If this dissatisfaction grows, you pass to the second phase, interpersonal deterioration. You withdraw and grow further and further apart. You share less of your free time.

- **Repair**

Some relationship partners, sensing deterioration, may pursue the relationship repair stage. Others, however, may progress - without stopping, without thinking - to dissolution. At the first repair phase, intrapersonal repair, you may analyze what went wrong and consider ways of solving your relational difficulties. You might, at this stage, consider changing your behaviors or perhaps changing your expectations of your partner. You might also evaluate the rewards of your relationship as it is now and the rewards to be gained if your relationship ended.

Should you decide that you want to repair your relationship, you might discuss this with your partner at the interpersonal repair phase—you might talk about the problems in the relationship, the changes you want to see, and perhaps what you are willing to do and what you want your partner to do. This is the stage of negotiating new agreements and new behaviors. You and your partner might try to repair your relationship by yourselves, or you might seek the advice of friends or family or perhaps go for professional counseling.

- **Dissolution**

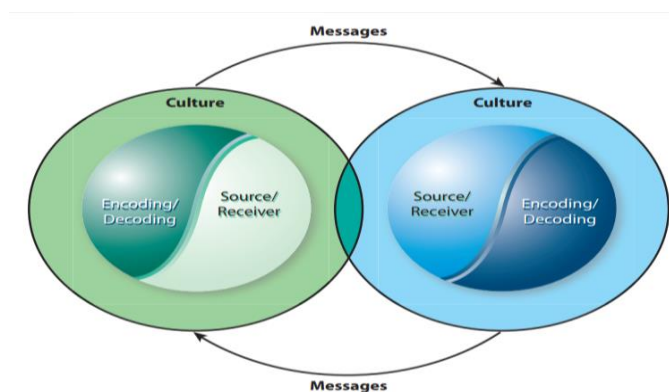
At the relationship dissolution stage, the bonds between the individuals are broken. In the beginning, dissolution usually takes the form of interpersonal separation, in which you may move into separate apartments and begin to lead lives apart from each other. If this separation proves acceptable and if the original relationship isn't repaired, you enter the phase of social or public separation. If the relationship is a marriage, this phase corresponds to divorce. Avoidance of each other and a return to being "single" are among the primary characteristics of dissolution. On Facebook, this would be the stage where you defriend the person and/or block that person from accessing your profile.

## 2.2. Intercultural and co-cultural communication

Intercultural communication refers to communication between persons who have different cultural beliefs, values, or ways of behaving. The model in Figure 2.2 illustrates this concept. The circles represent the cultures of the individual communicators. The inner circles identify the communicators (the sources and receivers). In this model, each communicator is a member of a different culture. In some instances, the cultural differences are relatively slight - say, between persons from Toronto and New York. In other instances, the cultural differences are great—say, between persons from Borneo and Germany, or between persons from rural Nigeria and industrialized England.

Regardless of your own cultural background, you will surely come into close contact with people from a variety of other cultures—people who speak different languages, eat different foods, practice different religions, and approach work and relationships in very different ways. It doesn't matter whether you're a longtime resident or a newly arrived immigrant: you are or soon will be living, going to school, working, and forming relationships with people who are from very different cultures. Your day-to-day interpersonal interactions on social media have become increasingly intercultural as have your face-to-face interactions.

**Figure 2.2 A Model of Intercultural Communication**



This model of intercultural communication illustrates that culture is part of every communication act. More specifically, it illustrates that the messages you send and the messages you receive are influenced by your cultural beliefs, values, and attitudes. Note also that the circles overlap to some degree, illustrating that no matter how different the cultures of the two individuals are, there will always be some commonalities, some similarities, along with differences.

The following types of communication may all be considered “intercultural” and more important, subject to the varied barriers and gateways to effective communication identified in this chapter.

- Communication between people of different national cultures.
- Communication between people of different races.
- Communication between people of different ethnic groups.
- Communication between people of different religions.
- Communication between nations.
- Communication between genders.
- Communication between smaller cultures existing within the larger culture.

The following guidelines can help you improve your intercultural communication:

- **Prepare yourself**

There’s no better preparation for intercultural communication than learning about the other culture. Fortunately, there are numerous sources to draw on. View a documentary or movie that presents a realistic view of the culture. Read material about the culture by persons from that culture as well as by outsiders (e.g., Foster, 2004). Scan magazines and websites from the culture. Talk with members of the culture. Chat in international chat rooms. Another fun way to educate yourself is with geotagging, which enables you to access tweets from the part of the world you’re interested in to see what the people are doing and thinking about. Another way is to join a Facebook group focusing on the culture in which you’re interested. Read materials addressed to people who need to communicate with those from other cultures.

- **Reduce your ethnocentrism**

Ethnocentrism is the tendency to see others and their behaviors through your own cultural filters, often as distortions of your own behaviors. It’s the tendency to evaluate the values, beliefs, and behaviors of your own culture as superior—as more positive, logical, and natural than those of other cultures. For example, highly ethnocentric individuals think that other cultures should be more like theirs, that people from other cultures often don’t know what’s good for them, that the lifestyles of people in other countries are not as good as theirs, and that people from other cultures are not as smart or trustworthy as people from their own culture (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). To achieve effective interpersonal communication, you need to see yourself and others as

different but as neither inferior nor superior. You need to become aware of the potential blinders that ethnocentrism might impose—admittedly, not a very easily accomplished task.

- **Confront your stereotypes**

Stereotypes, especially when they operate below the level of conscious awareness, can create serious communication problems (Lyons & Kashima, 2003). Originally, the word stereotype was a printing term that referred to the plate that printed the same image over and over. A sociological or psychological stereotype is a fixed impression of a group of people. Everyone has attitudinal stereotypes—images of national groups, religious groups, or racial groups or perhaps of criminals, prostitutes, teachers, or plumbers. Consider, for example, if you have any stereotypes of, say, bodybuilders, the opposite sex, a racial group different from your own, members of a religion very different from your own, hard drug users, or college professors. It is very likely that you have stereotypes of several or perhaps even all of these groups. Although we often think of stereotypes as negative (“They’re lazy, dirty, and only interested in getting high”), stereotypes also may be positive (“They’re smart, hardworking, and extremely loyal”).

- **Be mindful**

Being mindful rather mindless is generally helpful in intercultural communication situations. When you’re in a mindless state, you behave on the basis of assumptions that would not normally pass intellectual scrutiny when in a mindful state.

- **Avoid overattribution**

Overattribution is the tendency to attribute too much of a person’s behavior or attitudes to one of that person’s characteristics. In intercultural communication situations, overattribution appears in two ways. First, it’s seen in the tendency to see too much of what a person believes or does as caused by the person’s cultural identification. Second, it’s seen in the tendency to see a person as a spokesperson for his or her particular culture – to assume that because a person is, say, African American, he or she is therefore knowledgeable about the entire African American experience or that the person’s thoughts are always focused on African American issues.

- **Recognize differences**

To communicate interculturally, you need to recognize the differences between yourself and people from other cultures; the differences within the other cultural group; and the numerous differences in meaning, and in dialect and accent.

- **Adjust your communication**

Intercultural communication takes place only to the extent that you and the person you're trying to communicate with share the same system of symbols. Your interaction will be hindered to the extent that your language and nonverbal systems differ, as it often is in intercultural situations. Therefore, it's important to adjust your communication to compensate for cultural differences.

Furthermore, it helps if you share your own system of signals with others so they can better understand you. Although some people may know what you mean by your silence or by your avoidance to eye contact, others may not. Generally, avoid expecting others to decode your behaviors accurately without help.

### **2.3. Interviewing for information and employment**

An interview is a structured interaction conducted for a specific purpose and focused on defined content. Interviewing can provide a means for gathering general or specific details, data, ideas, concepts, feedback, concerns, or history. The format of an interview depends on the nature, purpose and goal, the time constraints, styles of the participants – interviewer and interviewee. In other words, the interview is a conversation which has a purpose and is directed towards its object by the interviewer. The interview is a face-to-face meeting and discussion between two or more people for a specific purpose.

- **Initial contact**

Any first interview between two or more people contains potential difficulties. One such problem area is the effect of first impressions. The initial assumptions, perceptions, and inferences made by both you and the interviewee are often inaccurate yet lasting. It is difficult for an individual to discard preconceived or immediately framed impressions and then allow either of you to receive more information before making a decision or passing judgment.

One of the most effective means of managing this issue is to discuss the accuracy of initial impressions with the individual under consideration and to allow enough time for the absorption of information beyond that received in the first few minutes of contact. The impact of expectations must also be taken into consideration. Unrealistic expectations on the part of you or the interviewee most often lead to disappointment and



frustration. Destructive expectations can be avoided if both parties state clearly their agendas and needs.

- **Setting the climate**

A responsive interview does not just happen; it is created out of a specific design that lends itself to maximum benefits for you and the interviewee. The lighting, the placement of chairs, the use and type of background music, the organization of meeting space, and the degree of privacy all have a bearing upon the initial receptivity of the information being passed between participants. However, the most important consideration in establishing the proper climate is your attitude and the interviewee's. If both parties are willing to listen without bias, are open to the other person's perceptions, allow enough time to foster accurate understanding, and show a respect for each other's self-worth, then they themselves create a responsive environment.

- **Conducting the interview**

It is important for you to work into the body of the interview as smoothly as possible. You should look for a natural break in the general conversation. However, if a natural break does not appear, you should take the initiative in beginning a directed exchange. The difficulties most commonly encountered during the course of an interview are the result of poor questions and ineffective listening. A good question has a specific purpose. By asking the right questions and listening attentively, you can be assured of obtaining the information you need or of avoiding wasted time when the information is unavailable. It is important that you listen "between the lines" and, of course, observe interviewee's nonverbal behavior.

- **Concluding the interview**

Before concluding, you should make sure that the interviewee has had ample opportunity to ask questions and share perceptions. Then, when the entire interview has been completed, you should thank the interviewee, when appropriate, for his or her cooperation. If there is to be another meeting, you should be certain that the interviewee understands when and where the next interview will take place.

## 2.4. The dynamics of small group discussion

- **A small group** is a collection of individuals, who are connected to one another by some common purpose, are interdependent, have some degree of organization among them, and see themselves as a group. In our daily life, no matter in university or working places, we tend to form a small group to complete a task. For instance, students will form group to do the assignment given by the lecturer in university so that the assignment can be submitted on time due to their efficiency. Small groups are normally formed according to several principles, such as common purpose, interdependence, organization of rules and self-perception as a group.
- **The team** : A team is a particular kind of small group. As such it possesses all of the characteristics of the small group as well as some additional qualities. Teams are interacting either face-to-face or through a virtual world such as video conference or online calling. A team can be very effective if it contains good qualities, like specific purpose, clearly defined roles, goal directed and content focused.
  - Specific purpose: A team is often constructed for a specific task. After the task is completed, the members may be assigned to other teams or go their separate ways.
  - Clearly defined roles: in a team, a member's roles are rather clearly defined.
  - Goal directed: in a team all members are committed to achieving the same, clearly identified goal.
  - Content focused: teams are generally more content focused and their communication proceeds largely through the exchange of content messages than they are on exchanging messages about the relationships among members.
- **Virtual groups and teams**

Small groups and teams use a wide variety of channels. Nowadays, much small group and team interaction also takes place online, among geographically separated members who communicate as a group via computer or phone connections. These virtual groups and teams serve both relationship and social purposes on the one hand and business and professional purposes on the other.

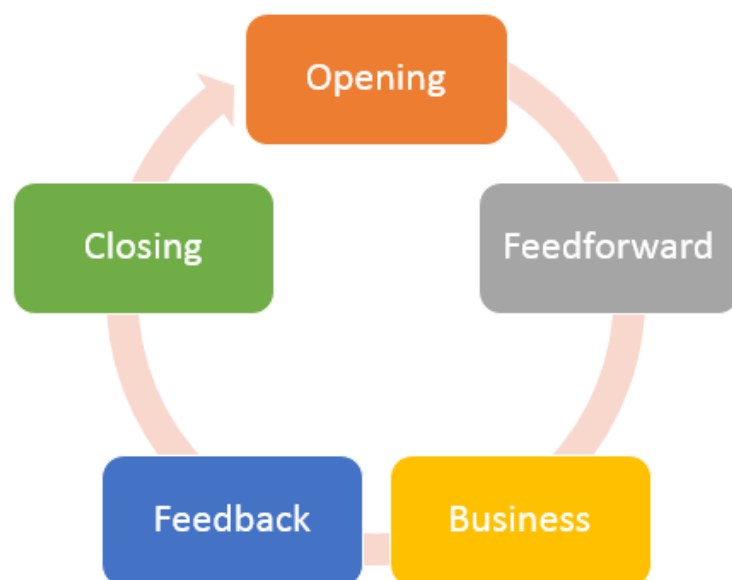
### 2.4.1 Advantages and disadvantages of groups

Groups have both advantages and disadvantages. Perhaps the most important advantage of the small group is that it brings different perspectives, resources and knowledge to an issue. In this regard, groups are perfect learning environments; we teach others, and we learn from others. Group interaction also helps members feel they are part of the solution and increases commitment to decisions. One disadvantage of groups is that they can be time consuming. It's not always easy to find the right time for all six or more people to interact. Another potential disadvantage is that members may feel the pressure to agree with the majority or with the supervisor or senior member of the group and not to voice any disagreements or alternatives. Still another possible disadvantage is that it's easy for perspective overload to occur.

### 2.4.2 Small group stages

Small group stage develops in much the same way that a conversation develops. As in conversation, there are five small group stages: opening, feedforward, business, feedback and closing as in Figure 2.3

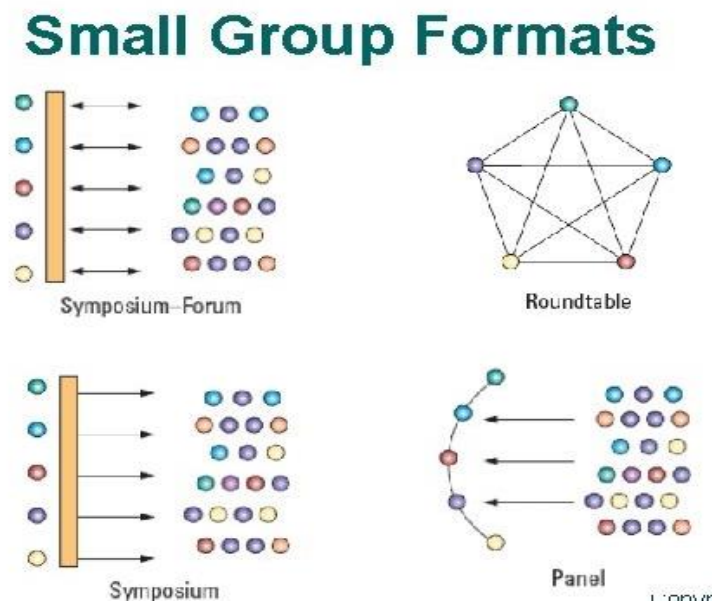
**Figure 2.3 Small Group stages**



There are various types of small group formats, such as the round table, the panel, the symposium and the symposium-forum (Figure 2.4) We involve distinctively in the small group formats based on the situations we faced. As an example, we use the round table

format to form a small group when we discuss group project or group assignment and this format consists of informal group interaction. On the other hand, when in the symposium format, every member will deliver speeches according to different aspects of a single topic, such as a public speaking or group presentation in university.

**Figure 2.4 Small Group Formats**



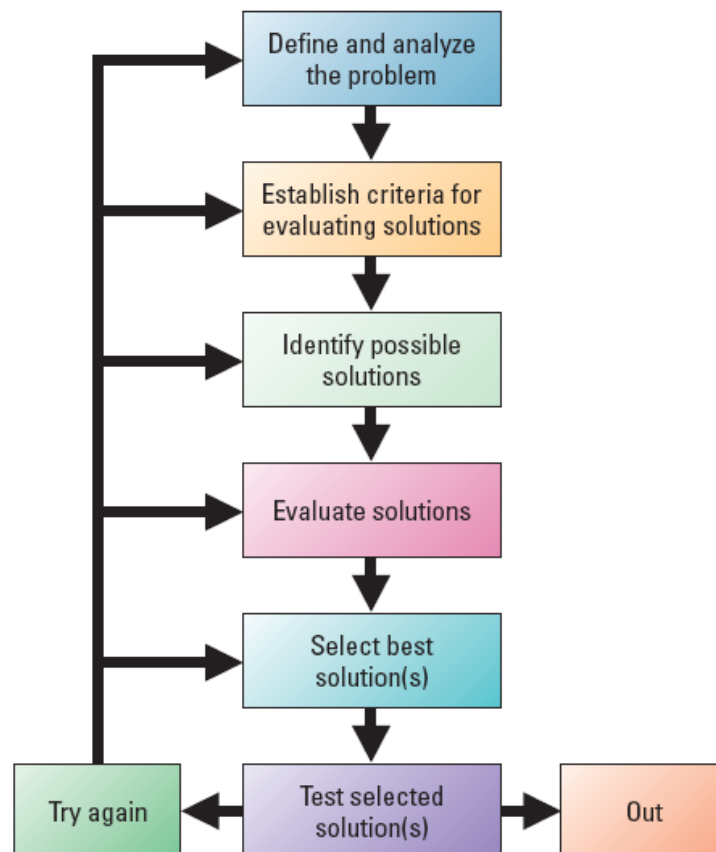
Different individuals will play a different role in a small group. Hence, there will be various powers hold by every member in a small group. The powers include:

- Legitimate power - by rules
- Referent power - by agreement
- Reward power - by positive reinforcement
- Coercive power - by negative reinforcement
- Expert power - by establishing someone as the expert in the context
- Information power - by establishing someone as the person can communicate the best

Small group is categorized into four types, such as idea-generation group, personal-growth group, information-sharing group and problem-solving group. Every types of small group will be carried out with different purposes. Idea-generation group is where the group members first time to meet up and brainstorm on the potential issues and solutions. Personal-growth group sometimes refer as support group with the objective to help members to cope with particular difficulties. It consists of encounter group, assertiveness training group and consciousness-raising group. The members of

information-sharing group think out ideas and share information with one another. This type of small group categorizes into educational group and focus group. Problem-solving group consists of six stages of solving issues: define and analyze the problem, establish criteria for evaluating solutions, identify possible solutions, evaluate solutions, select solutions and test solutions as in Figure 2. 5:

**Figure 2.5 Stages of Problem-Solving Group**



## **2.5. Group leadership**

### **2.5.1 Defining leadership**

Leadership is defined in two different ways in research and theory. (1) Leadership is a process of influencing the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of group members and establishing the direction that others follow; leadership and influence are parts of the same skill. (2) Leadership is a process of empowering others; person who helps other maximize their potential and to take control of their lives. These two definitions are not mutually exclusive; in fact, most effective leaders do both; they influence and they empower.

### **2.5.2 Approaches to Leadership**

Leadership has been the focus of considerable attention from theorists and researches, who have used numerous approaches to understand this communication behavior.

- **Traits approach**

The traits approach to leadership argues that leaders must possess certain qualities if they're to function effectively. Some of the traits found to be associated with leadership are intelligence, dominance, honesty, foresight, altruism, popularity, sociability, cooperativeness, knowledge and dependability. The problem with the traits approach is that the specific qualities called for vary with the situation, with the members, and with the culture in which the leader functions.

- **Functional approach**

The functional approach to leadership focuses on what the leader should do in a given situation. Some of these functions were considered in the discussion of group membership, which identified group roles. Other functions found to be associated with leadership are setting group goals, giving direction to group members, and summarizing the group's progress.

- **Transformational approach**

In the transformational approach to leadership, the leader elevates the group's members, enabling them not only to accomplish the group task but also to emerge as more empowered individuals.

- **Situational approach**

The Situational approach to leadership focuses on two major responsibilities of leader: accomplishing the task at hand and ensuring satisfaction of the members; leadership style must vary on the basis of the specific situation.

### **DISCUSSION QUESTIONS**

1. Explain the advantages and disadvantages of relationships and stages relationships go through.
2. Intercultural communication is especially important in political discussions between members of widely differing cultures. Takes a look at one of the online

- news pages, especially the “world” section. How many news items can you identify that would profit from an understanding of intercultural communication? In what specific ways might intercultural communication competence be of value?
3. Define small group, team and virtual group and explain the advantages and disadvantages of groups.
  4. How would you characterize the leadership style of one of your college instructors or talk show hosts? How would you characterize your own leadership style? For example, are you usually more concerned with people or with tasks?

## CHAPTER 3: MASS COMMUNICATION

### 3.1. Defining Mass Communication

Littlejohn and Foss (2005) define mass communication as “the process whereby media organizations produce and transmit messages to large publics and the process by which those messages are sought, used, and consumed by audiences” (p. 273). McQuail (1994) states that mass communication is, “only one of the processes of communication operating at the society-wide level, readily identified by its institutional characteristics” (p. 7). Simply put, mass communication is the public transfer of messages through media or technology driven channels to a large number of recipients from an entity, usually involving some type of cost or fee (advertising) for the user. “The sender often is a person in some large media organization, the messages are public, and the audience tends to be large and varied” (Berger, 2002, p.121). However, with the advent of outlets like YouTube, MySpace, FaceBook, and text messaging, notice that these definitions do not account for the increased opportunities individuals now have to send messages to large audiences through mediated channels.

To understand mass communication, it is important to be aware of some of the key factors that distinguish it from other forms of communication. First, is the dependence on a media channel to convey a message to a large audience. Second, the audience tends to be distant, diverse, and varying in size depending on the medium and message. Third, mass communication is most often profit driven, and feedback is limited. Fourth, because of the impersonal nature of mass communication, participants are not equally present during the process.

Mass communication continues to become more integrated into our lives at an increasingly rapid pace. This “metamorphosis” is representative by the convergence occurring (Fidler, 1997) between ourselves and technology, where we are not as distanced from mass communication as in the past. Increasingly we have more opportunities to use mediated communication to fulfill interpersonal and social needs. O’Sullivan (2003) refers to this new use of mass communication to foster our personal lives as “masspersonal communication” where (a) traditional mass communication channels are used for interpersonal communication, (b) traditionally interpersonal communication channels are used for mass communication, and (c) traditional mass communication and traditional interpersonal communication occur simultaneously.



Over time, more and more overlap occurs. “Innovations in communication technologies have begun to make the barriers between mass and interpersonal communication theory more permeable than ever” (O’Sullivan, 2003). Sites such as Myspace, Facebook, Xanga, Couchsurfing, YouTube, and Bebo are classic examples of masspersonal communication where we use mass communication to develop and maintain interpersonal relationships.

### **3.2. Functions of Mass Communication**

Wright (1960) characterizes seven functions of mass communication that offer insight into its role in our lives.

- **Surveillance**

The first function of mass communication is to serve as the eyes and ears for those of us seeking information about our world. When we want to find out the latest news about what’s happening, we can turn on the television, surf the internet, or read a newspaper or magazine. We rely on mass communication for news and information about our daily lives such as the weather, stock reports, or the start time for a game. What was one of the first things you did after you heard about the terrorist attack on the World Trade Center? More than likely, you were glued to the Internet or your television waiting for details about the disaster.

- **Correlation**

Correlation addresses how the media present facts that we use to move through the world. The information we get through mass communication is not objective and without bias. The grandmother of a friend of your authors stated that the information she heard on the radio, “had to be true” because it was on the radio. This statement begs the question, how credible are the media? Can we consume media without questioning motive and agenda? Someone selects, arranges, interprets, edits, and critiques the information we see. A friend of your authors’ has a brother who edits for a major reality TV show. When asked if what we see is a fair representation of what really happens, the person who does the editing simply laughed and said “no.”

- **Sensationalization**

There is an old saying in the news industry-“if it bleeds, it leads” that highlights the idea of sensationalization. Sensationalization is when the media puts forward the most sensational messages to titillate consumers. Elliot poses some interesting food for

thought: “Media managers think in terms of consumers rather than citizens. Good journalism sells, but unfortunately, bad journalism sells as well. And, bad journalism-stories that simply repeat government claims or that reinforce what the public wants to hear instead of offering independent reporting -is cheaper and easier to produce” (2004, p.35).

- **Entertainment**

Mass media provide us with an escape from daily routines and problems by entertaining us (Zillmann & Bryant, 1986, p. 303). Media like People Magazine and E-TV keep us up to date on the doings of our favorite celebrities. We watch sports on television, go to the movies, play video games, and listen to our ipods and radios. Most mass communication simultaneously entertains and informs. We often turn to media in our leisure time to provide an escape from our boredom and relief from the predictability of our everyday lives. We rely on media to take us places we could not afford to go or imagine, acquaint us with bits of culture, and make us laugh or cry. Entertainment can have the secondary effect of providing companionship and/or catharsis through the media we consume.

- **Transmission**

Mass media is a vehicle to transmit cultural norms, values, rules, and habits. Consider how you learned about what is fashionable to wear or what music to listen to. Mass media plays a significant role in the socialization process. We look for role models to display appropriate cultural norms, but all too often, we do not recognize inappropriate or stereotypical behavior. We start shopping, dressing, smelling, walking, and talking like the person in the music video, commercial, or movies. Obviously, culture, age, type of media, and other cultural variables factor into how mass communication influences how we learn and perceive our culture.

- **Mobilization**

Mass communication functions to mobilize people during times of crisis (McQuail, 1994). Think back to 9/11. Regardless of your political preferences, we mourned as a nation and rallied around national pride and patriotism during this time of crisis. Using our earlier example, your authors’ campus decided to suspend classes to allow the campus community time to mourn the loss of fellow citizens. With instant access to

media and information, we can collectively witness the same events taking place in real time somewhere else, thus mobilizing a large population of people around a particular event. The rising popularity of political websites such as moveon.org is another key example of the use of mass communication to mobilize people for political action.

- **Validation**

Mass communication functions to validate the status and norms of particular individuals, movements, organizations, or products. The validation of particular people or groups serves to enforce social norms (Lazarsfeld & Merton, 1971). If you think about most television dramas and sitcoms, who are the primary characters? What gender and ethnicity are the majority of the stars? What gender and ethnicity are those that play criminals or those considered abnormal? The media validates particular cultural norms while diminishing differences and variations from those norms. A great deal of criticism focuses on how certain groups are promoted, and others marginalized by how they are portrayed in mass media.

### **3.3. Media Literacy**

Studying how we use and consume mass communication allows us to scrutinize the conflicts, contradictions, problems, or even positive outcomes in our use of mass communication. With so much to learn about mass communication, how informed are you? Our consciousness of our media consumption is vital to understanding its effects on us as members of society. Media Literacy is our awareness regarding our mediated environment or consumption of mass communication. It is our ability to responsibly comprehend, access, and use mass communication in our personal and professional lives. Potter (1998) states that we should maintain cognitive, emotional, aesthetic, and moral awareness as we interact with media. Stanley J. Baran (2002) suggests a number of skills we can develop in order to be media literate.

- Understand and respect the power of mass communication messages. An important skill for media literacy is to acknowledge just how dominant mass communication is in our lives and around the globe. Through mass communication, media shape, entertain, inform, represent, reflect, create, move, educate, and affect our behaviors, attitudes, values, and habits in direct and indirect ways. Virtually everyone in the world has been touched in some way by mass communication, and has made personal and professional

decisions largely based on representations of reality portrayed through mass communication. We must understand and respect the power media have in our lives and understand how we make sense of certain meanings.

### **3.4. Mass Communication and Popular Culture**

Culture is comprised of shared behaviors, values, beliefs, and attitudes that are learned through socialization. As Brummett explains, “popular culture are those systems or artifacts that most people share or know about” (2006, p. 27). Using Brummett’s ideas, in order for mass communication to be popular all forms do not have to be consumed or used by everyone. Instead, its place in culture is so pervasive that we at least have some familiarity with it. You may not watch the shows like *Survivor*, *Scrubs*, or *Lost* but chances are you know something about them. In contrast to popular culture, high culture consists of those media that are generally not produced for the masses, require a certain knowledge base, and typically require an investment of time and money to experience them. Examples of high culture include opera, poetry, theater, classical music, and the arts. While we generally do not use the term low culture, “Pop culture refers to mass-mediated kinds of ‘low’ art such as television commercials, television programs, most films, genre works of literature, and popular music” (Berger, 2002, p. 118). Keep in mind that popular culture does not necessarily mean poor quality. Popular is not always bad and is often relative to the times. For example, think about baby boomers. Their parents said rock-n-roll music was going to ruin their generation. However, today that very same music is considered classic. In the 1950’s it was said that comic books would corrupt children, and jazz was sinful. Regardless of how mass communication is perceived, it implants words, behaviors, trends, icons, and patterns of behaviors that show up in our culture. Or, as some ask, is it the other way around?

### **DISCUSSION QUESTIONS**

1. What is the role of the oral tradition in today’s society?
2. Does media directly influence individuals?
3. What determines what media an individual will use?
4. Is it the form of the media or its content that most deeply influences us?

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