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# Principles of Communication Theory

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Навчально-методичний посібник знайомить студентів англійських відділень з основними принципами теорії комунікації. Розглядаються різні види, моделі та рівні комунікації. Описуються комунікативні бар'єри та визначаються шляхи ефективної комунікації. Для кращого засвоєння матеріалу подані блоки з питанням для самоперевірки та тестові завдання.

# HISTORY AND FRAMEWORK OF COMMUNICATION THEORY

- 1. Communication as a Process and an Academic Discipline*
- 2. History of Communication Theory.*
- 3. Communication Theory Framework*

**Scan the code and watch for introduction:**



## **1. Communication as a Process and an Academic Discipline**

Communication as an academic discipline relates to all the ways we communicate, so it embraces a large body of study and knowledge. The communication discipline includes both verbal and nonverbal messages. Communication happens at many levels, in many different ways, and for most beings. When speaking about communication it is very important to be sure about what aspects of communication one is speaking about. Definitions of communication range widely, some recognizing that animals can communicate with each other as well as human beings, and some are narrower, only including human beings within the parameters of human symbolic interaction.

Communication studies often borrow theories from other social sciences. The study of communication while occurring within departments of psychology, sociology, linguistics, and anthropology, generally developed from schools of rhetoric and from schools of journalism. There are two trends in the discipline: speech communication and mass communication and a number of smaller sub-areas of communication research,

including intercultural and international communication, small group communication, communication technology, policy and legal studies of communication, telecommunication.

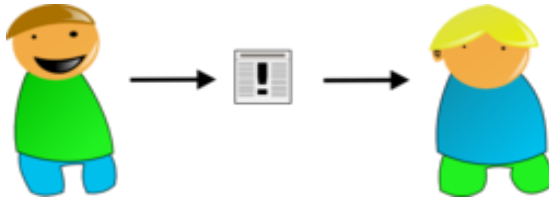
There are seven "traditions" of communication theory that tend to reinforce one another, and they include:

- rhetorical – a practical art of discourse;
- semiotic – an intersubjective mediation through signs in order to mediate between different perspectives;
- phenomenological – an experience of otherness, a dialogue;
- cybernetic – an information processing; it explains how all kinds of complex systems, whether living or nonliving, macro or micro, are able to function, and why they often malfunction;
- sociopsychological – expression, interaction and influence;
- critical – a discursive reflection;
- sociocultural – a reproduction of social order.

There is much discussion in the academic world of communication as to what actually constitutes communication. Currently, many definitions of communication are used in order to conceptualize the processes by which people navigate and assign meaning.

Communication is also understood as the exchanging of understanding. Additionally the biocommunication theory investigates communicative processes within and among non-humans such as bacteria, animals, fungi and plants.

We might say that communication consists of transmitting information from one person to another. In fact, many scholars of communication take this as a working definition, and try to investigate "who says what to whom in what channel with what effect," as a means of circumscribing the field of *communication theory*.



A simple communication model with a sender transferring a message containing information to a receiver.

Communication stands so deeply rooted in human behaviors and the structures of society that scholars have difficulty thinking of it while excluding social or behavioral events. Because communication theory remains a relatively young field of inquiry and integrates itself with other disciplines such as philosophy, psychology, and sociology, one probably cannot yet expect a consensus conceptualization of communication across disciplines.

## **2. History of Communication Theory**

**Scan the code and watch for introduction:**



Communication as a named and unified discipline has a history of contestation that goes back to the Socratic dialogues, in many ways making it the first and most contestatory of all early sciences and philosophies.

Aristotle first addressed the problem of communication and attempted to work out a theory of it in "The Rhetoric". He was primarily focused on the art of persuasion. A monologue (speak to self) is also a method of communication even if the person involved does not have any audience but himself. Humanistic and rhetorical viewpoints and theories dominated the discipline prior to the twentieth century, when more scientific methodologies and insights from psychology, sociology,

linguistics and advertising began to influence communication thought and practice.

### **3. Communication Theory Framework**

It is helpful to examine communication and communication theory through one of the following viewpoints:

- **Mechanistic:** This view considers communication to be a perfect transaction of a message from the sender to the receiver.
- **Psychological:** This view considers communication as the act of sending a message to a receiver, and the feelings and thoughts of the receiver upon interpreting the message.
- **Social Constructionist (Symbolic Interactionist):** This view considers communication to be the product of the interactants sharing and creating meaning.
- **Systemic:** This view considers communication to be the new messages created via “through-put”, or what happens as the message is being interpreted and re-interpreted as it travels through people.
- **Critical:** This view considers communication as a source of power and oppression of individuals and social groups.

Communication is the process whereby information is imparted by a sender to a receiver via a medium. Communication requires that all parties have an area of communicative commonality. There are auditory means, such as speaking, singing and sometimes tone of voice, and nonverbal, physical means, such as body language, sign language, paralanguage, touch, eye contact, by using writing. Communication is defined as a process by which we assign and convey meaning in an attempt to create shared understanding. This process requires a vast amount of skills in intrapersonal and interpersonal processing, listening, observing, speaking, questioning, analyzing, and evaluating.

Communication is the articulation of sending a message through different media, whether it be verbal or nonverbal, so long as a being transmits a thought provoking idea, gesture,

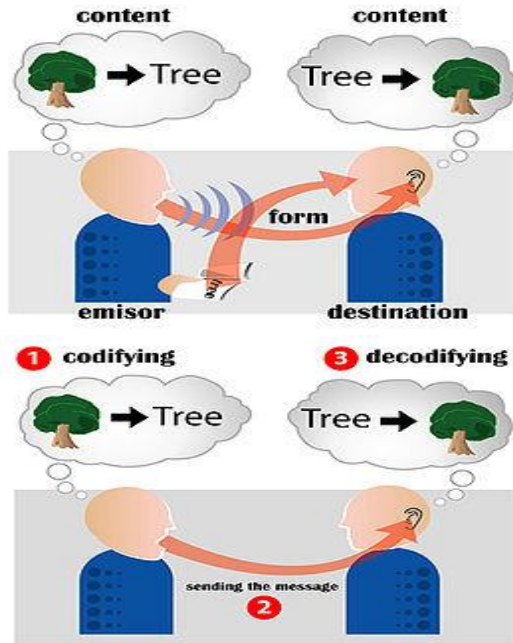
action, etc. Communication is a learned skill. Most babies are born with the physical ability to make sounds, but must learn to speak and communicate effectively. Speaking, listening, and our ability to understand verbal and nonverbal meanings are skills we develop in various ways. We learn basic communication skills by observing other people and modeling our behaviors based on what we see. We also are taught some communication skills directly through education, and by practicing those skills and having them evaluated.

Nonetheless, communication is usually described along a few major dimensions: Content (what type of things are communicated), source, emitter, sender or encoder (by whom), form (in which form), channel (through which medium), destination, receiver, target or decoder (to whom), and the purpose or pragmatic aspect. Between parties, communication includes acts that confer knowledge and experiences, give advice and commands, and ask questions. These acts may take many forms, in one of the various manners of communication. The form depends on the abilities of the group communicating. Together, communication content and form make messages that are sent towards a destination. The target can be oneself, another person or being, another entity (such as a corporation or group of beings).

Communication can be seen as processes of information transmission governed by three levels of semiotic rules:

1. syntactic (formal properties of signs and symbols),
2. pragmatic (concerned with the relations between signs/expressions and their users) and
3. semantic (study of relationships between signs and symbols and what they represent).

Therefore, communication is social interaction where at least two interacting agents share a common set of signs and a common set of semiotic rules.



In a simple model, information or content (e.g. a message in natural language) is sent in some form (as spoken language) from an emisor/ sender/ encoder to a destination / receiver / decoder. In a slightly more complex form a sender and a receiver are linked reciprocally. A particular instance of communication is called a speech act. In the presence of "communication noise" on the transmission channel (air, in this case), reception and decoding of content may be faulty, and thus the speech act may not achieve the desired effect. One problem with this encode-transmit-receive-decode model is that the processes of encoding and decoding imply that the sender and receiver each possesses something that functions as a code book, and that these two code books are, at the very least, similar if not identical. Although something like code books is implied by the model, they are nowhere represented in the model, which creates many conceptual difficulties.



There are only 3 major parts in any communication which are *body language, voice tonality, and words*. According to the research 55% of impact is determined by body language – postures, gestures, and eye contact, 38% by the tone of voice, and 7% by the content or the words used in the communication process. Human spoken and written languages can be described as a system of symbols (sometimes known as lexemes) and the grammars (rules) by which the symbols are manipulated. The word "language" is also used to refer to common properties of languages. Language learning is normal in human childhood. Most human languages use patterns of sound which enable communication with others around them. There are thousands of human languages, and these seem to share certain properties, even though many shared properties have exceptions.

### **Check Yourself:**

1. What are the trends in the discipline of communication:
  - a. speech communication
  - b. mass communication
  - c. intercultural communication
  - d. all of the above
2. Semiotic tradition of communication deals with:
  - a. signs
  - b. words
  - c. figures
  - d. speech
3. This tradition of communication explains the functioning of different complex systems.
  - a. rhetorical
  - b. cybernetic
  - c. semiotic
  - d. critical
4. What does biocommunication investigate?
  - a. communication between humans
  - b. communication between animals
  - c. communication through telephone

- e. mass communication
- 5. Who is considered to be a pioneer in addressing the problem of communication
  - a.Socrates
  - b.Demosthenes
  - c.Aristotle
  - d.Sophocles
- 6. There are the following means of communication
  - a.auditory
  - b.nonverbal
  - c.physical
  - d.variants a,b
  - e.variants b, c
- 7. Communication is usually described through the following dimensions:
  - a.content, source/sender, form,channel, destination/receiver, pragmatic aspect
  - b.message, sender, encoder, channel, decoder
  - c.source, form, channel, destination, pragmatic aspect, purpose
  - d.all the variants are incorrect
- 8. The levels of semiotic rules that govern the process of communication are the following:
  - a.syntactic
  - b.pragmatic
  - c.semiotic
  - d. all of the above
- 9. A speech act is...
  - a. a particular instance of communication
  - b. a process of communication
  - c. a result of communication
  - d. a type of communication
- 10. Communication is an inborn skill
  - a. true
  - b. false

### *Questions for self-control*

1. From what social sciences do Communication Studies borrow theories?
2. What are the seven "traditions" of communication theory?
3. How is the field of communication theory described by the scientists?
4. What is the most common definition of "communication"?
5. What are the dimensions of communication?
6. By what semiotic rules is the processes of information transmission governed?
7. What can make a communication process faulty?
8. What factors have the greatest impact on the communication process?
9. What does the simplest model of communication include?

### *Recommended Literature*

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## MODERN COMMUNICATION THEORIES

1. *Speech Act*
2. *Language Expectancy Theory*
3. *Psycho-Linguistics Theory*
4. *Framing*
5. *Network Theory and Analysis*
6. *Conceptual Model (of a network society)*
7. *Social Cognitive Theory*

### 1. **Speech Act**

The speech act theory considers language as a sort of action rather than a medium to convey and express. The contemporary Speech act theory developed by J. L. Austin a British philosopher of languages, he introduced this theory in 1975 in his well-known book of 'How do things with words'. Later John Searle brought the aspects of theory into much higher dimensions. This theory is often used in the field of philosophy of languages. Austin is the one who came up with the findings that people not only use that language to assert things but also to do things. And people who followed him went to greater depths based on this point.

*Core Assumptions and Statements.* All sort of linguistic communication is comprised of linguistic actions. Previously it was conceived that the very basic unit of communication is words, Symbols, sentences or some kind of token of all of these, but it was speech act theory which suggested that production or issuances of words, symbols are the basic units of communication. This issuance happens during the process of performance of speech act. The meaning of these basic units was considered as the building blocks of mutual understanding between the people who intend to communicate.

“ *A theory of language is a theory of action*”- Greig E. Henderson and Christopher Brown.

The theory emphasises that the utterances have a different or specific meaning to the user and listener other than the meaning according to the language. The theory further identifies that there are two kinds of utterances, they are called *constative* and *performative* utterances. In his book of ‘How do things with words’ Austin clearly talks about the disparities between the constative and performative utterances.

A constative utterance is something which describes or denotes the situation, in relation with the fact of true or false.

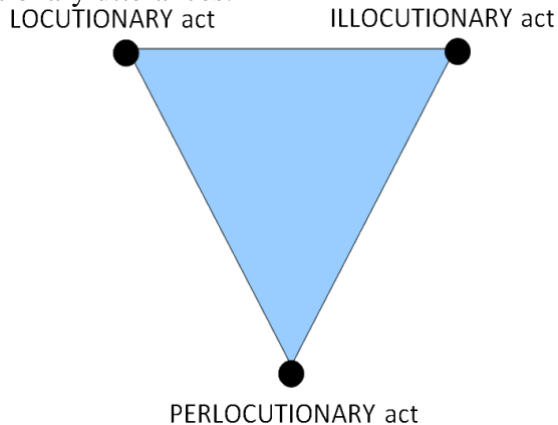
**Example:** The teacher asked Olivia whether she had stolen the candy. Olivia replies “mmmmmm”. Here the utterances of Olivia describes the event in fact of answering her teacher whether the situation was true or false.

The performative utterance is something which doesn’t describe anything at all. The utterances in the sentences or in the part of sentences are normally considered as having a meaning of their own. The feelings, attitudes, emotions and thoughts of the person performing linguistic act are much of a principal unit here.

**Example:** Bane and Sarah have been dating for the past four years. One fine evening Bane took Sarah to the most expensive restaurant in town. And he ordered the most expensive wine available in the restaurant. Then he moved closer to her and asked her “ will you marry me?”. Sarah burst with contentment and replied “I will”. Here the “I will” of Sarah express her feelings, attitudes and emotions towards the context. These utterances have their specific meaning only in relation to the specific context.

**Further Austin divides his linguistic act into three different categories.** They are:

1. **Locutionary act** – this is the act of saying something. It has a meaning and it creates an understandable utterance to convey or express.
2. **Illocutionary act** – it is performed as an act of saying something or as an act of opposed to saying something. The illocutionary utterance has a certain force of it. It is well-versed with certain tones, attitudes, feelings, or emotions. There will be an intention of the speaker or others in illocutionary utterance. It is often used as a tone of warning in day today life
3. **Perlocutionary act** – It normally creates a sense of consequential effects on the audiences. The effects may be in the form of thoughts, imaginations, feelings or emotions. The effect upon the addressee is the main charactership of perlocutionary utterances.



Example: “It is cold in here.” Its locutionary act is the saying of it with its literal meaning the weather is cold in here. Its illocutionary act can be a request of the hearer to shut the window. Its perlocutionary act can be the hearer’s shutting the window or his refusal to comply with the request.

## 2. Language Expectancy Theory

*History and Orientation.* In 1975 Burgoon, Jones and Stewart proposed Language Expectancy Theory, inspired from the book called “Brooks”. The language expectancy theory is a model

about communication strategies, attitude and behavioral change. How the expectancies about the language affect in the process of persuasion. The book which they published regarding the language expectancy theory is titled “An empirical test of a model of resistance to persuasion”. Later in 1995 Burgoon reworked “Language Expectancy Theory” and presented the full version.

*Core Assumptions and Statements.* Language expectancy theory assumes that language has a certain pattern of rules which developed from the specific context and other factors. Theory views that the anticipated communication behavior is grounded in the psychological and cultural norms of the society. And this anticipated communication behavior acts as a pattern in language expectancies, where language has a rule governed system.

The expectations are the various kinds of cultural norms and preferences which arise from the context and other personal and environmental factors. People react at some specific language expectation based on the pattern when they receive messages, which are employed in a persuasive manner. In a way it can be said that we all have our expectation when we talk with other people, about the do says and do not says, these do says and do not says are based on an enduring pattern as explained earlier. And when people use the languages which are not expected in the common pattern there will be positive or negative responses of persuasion.

**The expectations of communication are said to be derived from the following three factors:**

1. The Communicator
2. The Relationship
3. Context of the Situation

**The Communicator** – his personal factors such as credibility, social status, appearances and gender. Even if what he said is based on the basis of norms these factors play significant role in the process of persuasion.

**The Relationship** between the sender and receiver or listener and communicator

**Context of the Situation** – The communication might have taking place in office, home, train. The emotional status of the listener and other environments are included in the context.

As per the Language expectancy theory, the responses may be of positive or negative in nature. And also the deviation can be accidental or intentional. If the behavior is preferred than the expected language, then the persuasion level will increase but it is believed that the expectations developed from socio-cultural norms are much better and ideal for a perfect communication. And if the language we used was not acceptable to other people, their responses will be in negative manner.

**E. g.:** Robert is a manager of a leading company and he is known for his ability to complete the task before the deadline. He has rescued the company many times from difficulties. And he is often appreciated for his talents. On a fine day the general meeting was in process, and as usual Robert was listening to the presentations. Suddenly Robert moves towards the lady sitting next to him and says “I am bored let’s go out and have some fun”. She was shocked to observe such behavior from him.

Here everybody is expected to follow formal language if there are expected things to be discussed. When Robert said something, which was not expected to be said, the language expectancy theory is debased. It depends upon the lady: to give a positive or negative response to Robert based on various factors such as credibility, context, and appearance and so on.

### **3. Psycho-Linguistics Theory**

*Core Assumptions and Statements.* Language is a product of reasoning and therefore accessible to general, rational analysis, i.e. in analogy to other cognitive functions. Cognitive linguistics can be seen as the modern instantiation of this view, regarding language-bound functionality of the brain as incorporated and inextricably linked with other functions of the brain and being a learned ability, biologically / genetically

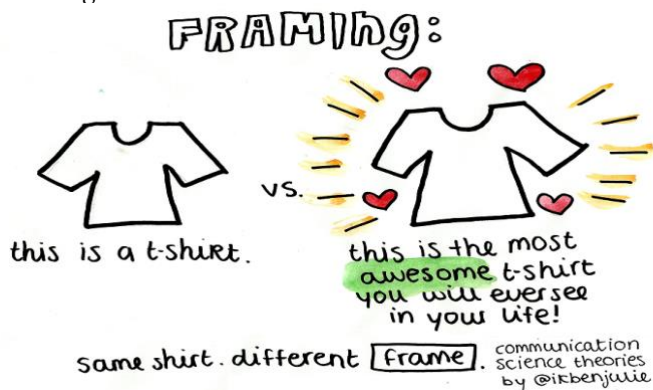


based only on general-purpose "reasoning-mechanisms" of the brain. Applied in communication science this theory means that a particular use of language in messages has more or less persuasive power depending on the value system, the effort and the motivation of receivers (N.Chomsky, J.Piaget, L.S.Vygotsky).

#### 4. Framing

Framing is a concept which is commonly used to understand the media effects. It is regarded as the extension of agenda setting theory which prioritize an issue and makes the audience think about its effects. The framing is based on the idea of how media base an event or an issue within a particular field of meaning which plays an important role in people's decision making procedure.

Framing is used to represent the communication aspect which leads to the people's preference by consenting one meaning to another. Framing stimulates the decision making process by highlighting particular aspects by eliminating the others. *For e.g. the newspaper frames the news within a particular viewpoint. This can change the perception of the issue among the readers.*



Framing is an important aspect where an issue can be highlighted to make sense of the events. It can regulate the audience's perception and also the acceptance of a particular meaning. As media plays an important role in the people's perceptions, the negative framing can create a huge impact

upon the people. For e.g. the sensitive issues that are coming in the media have been framed diplomatically by not supporting any principles and thus people can make their own decisions. But a biased media can frame an issue negatively and can influence the mass. Intuition and careful interpretation of the audience are inevitable when it comes to framing. Media is a powerful tool and so the content must be framed with values as it influences and controls the audience.

The journalists select the news stories influenced by many factors such as news values, editorial policies, and interaction with the creamy layer of the society. These factors build the frame. With the interaction between the media and the preconceptions of the people, Framing plays an important role in how the particular issue is being presented before the people and how they perceive it.

Framing can be used for effective communication in all fields of media and other organizations. It is mainly applied in understanding media effects. Effective communication among a mass can be done with well-organized framing of meanings and issues. Politicians can frame their vision effectively so that the public can understand its significance and accept it.

### **5. Network Theory and Analysis**

*History and Orientation.* The idea of social networks and the notions of sociometry and sociograms appeared over 50 years ago. J.A.Barnes is credited with coining the notion of social networks, an outflow of his study of a Norwegian island parish in the early 1950s.

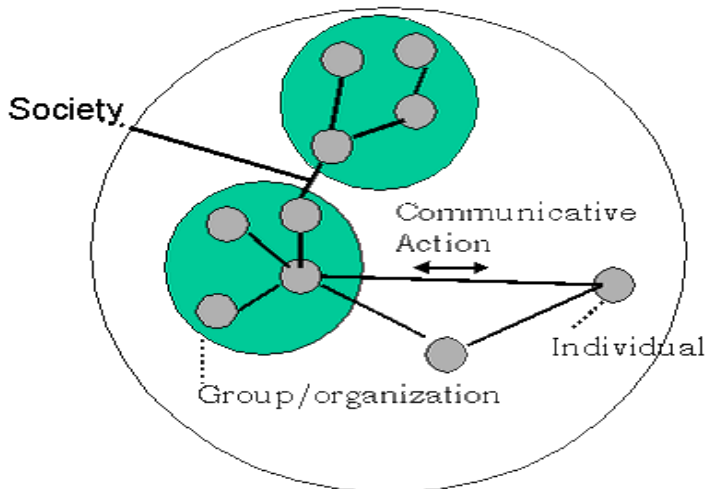
*Core Assumptions and Statements.* Network analysis (social network theory) is the study of how the social structure of relationships around a person, group, or organization affects beliefs or behaviors. Causal pressures are inherent in social structure. Network analysis is a set of methods for detecting and measuring the magnitude of the pressures. The axiom of every network approach is that reality should be primarily conceived and investigated from the view of the properties of relations between and within units instead of the properties of

these units themselves. It is a relational approach. In social and communication science these units are social units: individuals, groups/ organizations and societies.

In general, network analysis focuses on the relationships between people, instead of on characteristics of people. These relationships may comprise the feelings people have for each other, the exchange of information, or more tangible exchanges such as goods and money. By mapping these relationships, network analysis helps to uncover the emergent and informal communication patterns present in a group or organization, which may then be compared to the formal communication structures.

Network analysis techniques focus on the communication structure of an organization, which can be operationalized into various aspects. Structural features that can be distinguished and analyzed through the use of network analysis techniques are for example the (formal and informal) *communication patterns* in an organization or the identification of *groups* within an organization (cliques or functional groups). Also communication-related *roles* of employees can be determined (e.g., stars, gatekeepers, and isolates). Special attention may be given to specific aspects of communication patterns: communication *channels and media* used by employees, the relationship between *information types* and the resulting communication networks, and the amount and possibilities of *bottom-up communication*. Additional characteristics that could, in principle, be investigated using network analysis techniques are the *communication load* as perceived by employees, the *communication styles* used, and the *effectiveness of the information flows*.

## **6. Conceptual Model (of a network society)**



Thinking in terms of networks and the method of network analysis have gained ground in many disciplines, including social psychology, anthropology, political science, and mathematics, as well as communication. Network analysis generates information about the following types of network roles: the membership role, the liaison role, the star role, the isolate role, the boundary-spanning role, the bridge role, and the non-participant role. Network analysis is done in organizations, society, groups, etc. The network model encourages communication planners and researchers to use new cause/effect variables in their analysis. For example, properties of the very communication network, such as connectedness, integration, diversity, and openness.

### **7. Social Cognitive Theory**

*History and Orientation.* In 1941 N.Miller and J.Dollard proposed the theory of social learning. In 1963 A.Bandura and R.Walters broadened the social learning theory with the principles of observational learning and vicarious reinforcement. A.Bandura provided his concept of self-efficacy in 1977, while he refuted the traditional learning theory for understanding learning.

The Social Cognitive Theory is relevant to health communication. First, the theory deals with cognitive, emotional aspects and aspects of behavior for understanding behavioral change. Second, the concepts of the SCT provide ways for new behavioral research in health education. Finally, ideas for other theoretical areas such as psychology are welcome to provide new insights and understanding.

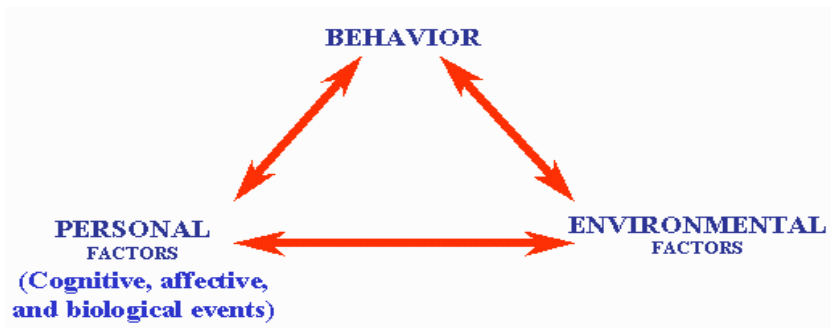
*Core Assumptions and Statements.* The social cognitive theory explains how people acquire and maintain certain behavioral patterns, while also providing the basis for intervention strategies. Evaluating behavioral change depends on the factors environment, people and behavior. SCT provides a framework for designing, implementing and evaluating programs.

*Environment* refers to the factors that can affect a person's behavior. There are social and physical environments. Social environment includes family members, friends and colleagues. Physical environment is the size of a room, the ambient temperature or the availability of certain foods. Environment and *situation* provide the framework for understanding behavior. The situation refers to the cognitive or mental representations of the environment that may affect a person's behavior. The situation is a person's perception of the place, time, physical features and activity.

The three factors environment, people and behavior are constantly influencing each other. Behavior is not simply the result of the environment and the person, just as the environment is not simply the result of the person and behavior. The environment provides models for behavior.

*Observational learning* occurs when a person watches the actions of another person and the reinforcements that the person receives. The concept of behavior can be viewed in many ways.

*Behavioral capability* means that if a person is to perform a behavior he must know what the behavior is and have the skills to perform it.



The Social Cognitive Theory is relevant for designing health education and health behavior programs. This theory explains how people acquire and maintain certain behavioral patterns. The theory can also be used for providing the basis for intervention strategies.

### *Check Yourself*

1. According to the Speech Act theory, language is
  - a. an action
  - b. a medium
  - c. a source
  - d. none of the above
2. Within the Speech Act Theory, utterances are divided into:
  - a. locutionary and illocutionary
  - b. locutionary and perlocutionary
  - c. performative and constative
  - d. performative and locutionary
3. What is framing commonly used to understand?
  - a. Language Expectancy
  - b. Media effects
  - c. Psycho-Linguistics
  - d. Cognitive functions
4. How does framing influence people's decision-making process?
  - a. By providing multiple perspectives
  - b. By eliminating certain aspects and highlighting others
  - c. By avoiding media effects

- d. By prioritizing issues without influencing perception
5. According to the Psycho-Linguistics Theory, what is language considered?
    - a. A product of reasoning
    - b. A product of emotions
    - c. A product of culture
    - d. A product of instinct
  6. How does Psycho-Linguistics Theory view the functionality of the brain in relation to language?
    - a. Language is biologically/genetically based only on language-specific mechanisms.
    - b. Language is learned and based on general-purpose reasoning mechanisms of the brain.
    - c. Language is not related to brain functionality.
    - d. Language is only accessible to rational analysis.
  7. When was Language Expectancy Theory proposed?
    - a. 1995
    - b. 1975
    - c. 1985
    - d. 2005
  8. What inspired the Language Expectancy Theory?
    - a. "An empirical test of a model of resistance to persuasion"
    - b. "Framing"
    - c. "Brooks"
    - d. "Psycho-Linguistics Theory"
  9. What did Burgoon, Jones, and Stewart publish regarding the Language Expectancy Theory?
    - a. "Language Expectancy Theory: A Comprehensive Guide"
    - b. "An empirical test of a model of resistance to persuasion"
    - c. "Language Expectancy: Origins and Development"
    - d. "Communicative Patterns in Language"
  10. According to the Core Assumptions and Statements of the theory, where is the anticipated communication behavior grounded?
    - a. In legal norms

- b. In psychological and cultural norms
- c. In linguistic norms
- d. In ethical norms

### ***Questions for self-control***

1. What is a speech act?
2. What are the four types of speech acts?
3. What does Language Expectancy Theory explain?
4. What role does a language play in the Language Expectancy?
5. How is language-bound function of the brain regarded by Cognitive Linguistics?
6. Define Framing?
7. What are the elements of Framing?
8. Name the main possibilities to frame situations?
9. How is Network Theory connected to communication?
10. In what way is Social Cognitive Theory relevant to communication?
11. What types of the *environment* does the Social Cognitive Theory differentiate?
12. What is meant by *behavioral capability* in the Social Cognitive Theory?
13. What elements does the Conceptual Model (of a network society) include?
14. Name the elements of Framing.

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## ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS

### *1. The Components of the Communication Process*

*1.1. The Sender and the Encoding,*

*1.2. The Medium of Transmission*

*1.3. The Receiver and the Decoding Process*

*1.4. Feedback*

### *2. The Role of the Media in the Field of Communication*

*2.1. People as the Medium*

*2.2. Language as the Medium*

### **1. The Components of the Communication Process**

The communication process is the guide toward realizing effective communication. It is through the communication process that the sharing of a common meaning between the sender and the receiver takes place. Individuals that follow the communication process will have the opportunity to become more productive in every aspect of their profession. Effective communication leads to understanding.

The communication process is made up of four key components. Those components include encoding, medium of transmission, decoding, and feedback. There are also two other factors in the process, and those two factors are present in the form of the sender and the receiver. The communication process begins with the sender and ends with the receiver.

**1.1. The Sender and the Encoding.** The sender is an individual, group, or organization who initiates the communication. This source is initially responsible for the success of the message. The sender's experiences, attitudes, knowledge, skill, perceptions, and culture influence the message. The written words, spoken words, and nonverbal language selected are paramount in ensuring the receiver interprets the message as intended by the sender. All communication begins with the sender.

The first step the sender is faced with involves the encoding process. In order to convey meaning, the sender must begin

encoding, which means translating information into a message in the form of symbols that represent ideas or concepts. This process translates the ideas or concepts into the coded message that will be communicated. The symbols can take on numerous forms such as, languages, words, or gestures. These symbols are used to encode ideas into messages that others can understand.

When encoding a message, the sender has to begin by deciding what he/she wants to transmit. This decision by the sender is based on what he/she believes about the receiver's knowledge and assumptions, along with what additional information he/she wants the receiver to have. It is important for the sender to use symbols that are familiar to the intended receiver. A good way for the sender to improve encoding their message, is to mentally visualize the communication from the receiver's point of view.

**1.2. The Medium/Channel of Transmission.** To begin transmitting the message, the sender uses some kind of channel (also called a medium). The channel is the means used to convey the message. Most channels are either oral or written, but currently visual channels are becoming more common as technology expands. Common channels include the telephone and a variety of written forms such as memos, letters, and reports. The effectiveness of the various channels fluctuates depending on the characteristics of the communication. For example, when immediate feedback is necessary, oral communication channels are more effective because any uncertainties can be cleared up on the spot. In a situation where the message must be delivered to more than a small group of people, written channels are often more effective. Although in many cases, both oral and written channels should be used because one supplements the other.

If a sender relays a message through an inappropriate channel, its message may not reach the right receivers. That is why senders need to keep in mind that selecting the appropriate channel will greatly assist in the effectiveness of the receiver's

understanding. The sender's decision to utilize either an oral or a written channel for communicating a message is influenced by several factors. The sender should ask him or herself different questions, so that they can select the appropriate channel. Is the message urgent? Is immediate feedback needed? Is documentation or a permanent record required? Is the content complicated, controversial, or private? Is the message going to someone inside or outside the organization? What oral and written communication skills does the receiver possess? Once the sender has answered all of these questions, they will be able to choose an effective channel.

**1.3. The Receiver and the Decoding Process.** After the appropriate channel or channels are selected, the message enters the decoding stage of the communication process. Decoding is conducted by the receiver. Once the message is received and examined, the stimulus is sent to the brain for interpreting, in order to assign some type of meaning to it. It is this processing stage that constitutes decoding. The receiver begins to interpret the symbols sent by the sender, translating the message to their own set of experiences in order to make the symbols meaningful. Successful communication takes place when the receiver correctly interprets the sender's message.

The receiver is the individual or individuals to whom the message is directed. The extent to which this person comprehends the message will depend on a number of factors, which include the following: how much the individual or individuals know about the topic, their receptivity to the message, and the relationship and trust that exists between sender and receiver. All interpretations by the receiver are influenced by their experiences, attitudes, knowledge, skills, perceptions, and culture. It is similar to the sender's relationship with encoding.

**1.4. Feedback.** Feedback is the final link in the chain of the communication process. After receiving a message, the receiver responds in some way and signals that response to the sender. The signal may take the form of a spoken comment, a long

sigh, a written message, a smile, or some other action. Even a lack of response, is in a sense, a form of response. Without feedback, the sender cannot confirm that the receiver has interpreted the message correctly.

Feedback is a key component in the communication process because it allows the sender to evaluate the effectiveness of the message. Feedback ultimately provides an opportunity for the sender to take corrective action to clarify a misunderstood message. Feedback plays an important role by indicating significant communication barriers: differences in background, different interpretations of words, and differing emotional reactions.

The communication process is the perfect guide toward achieving effective communication. When followed properly, the process can usually assure that the sender's message will be understood by the receiver. Although the communication process seems simple, it in essence is not. Certain barriers present themselves throughout the process. Those barriers are factors that have a negative impact on the communication process. Some common barriers include the use of an inappropriate medium (channel), incorrect grammar, inflammatory words, words that conflict with body language, and technical jargon. Noise is also another common barrier. Noise can occur during any stage of the process. Noise essentially is anything that distorts a message by interfering with the communication process. Noise can take many forms, including a radio playing in the background, another person trying to enter your conversation, and any other distractions that prevent the receiver from paying attention.

Successful and effective communication within a group stems from the implementation of the communication process. All members within a group will improve their communication skills if they follow the communication process, and stay away from the different barriers. It has been proven that individuals that understand the communication process will blossom into

more effective communicators, and effective communicators have a greater opportunity for becoming a success.

## **2. The Role of the Media in the Field of Communication**

A medium of communication is, in short, the product of a set of complex interactions between its primary constituents: messages, people (acting as creators of messages, consumers of messages, and in other roles), languages, and media. Three of these constituents are themselves complex systems and the subject of entire fields of study, including psychology, sociology, anthropology (all three of which study people), linguistics (language), media ecology (media., and communication (messages, language, and media.. Even messages can be regarded as complex entities, but its complexities can be described entirely within the scope of languages, media, and the people who use them. Messages are the central feature of the communication model and the most fundamental product of the interaction of people, language, and media.

Our communication is not produced within any single system, but in the intersection of several interrelated systems, each of which is self-standing necessarily described by dedicated theories, but each of which is both the product of the others and, in its own limited way, an instance of the other. The medium is a message that is inherent to every message that is created in or consumed from a medium. The medium is, to the extent that we can select among media, also a language such that the message of the medium is not only inherent to a message, but often an element of its composition. In what may be the most extreme view enabled by the processing of messages within media, the medium may also be a person and consumes messages, recreates them, and makes the modified messages available for further consumption. A medium is really none of these things. It is fundamentally a system that enables the construction of messages using a set of languages such that they can be consumed. But a medium is also both all of these things and the product of their interaction. People learn, create,

and evolve media as a vehicle for enabling the creation and consumption of messages.

**2.1. People as the Medium.** People can be, and often are, the medium (insofar as they act as messengers), the language (insofar as different people can be selected as messengers), or the message (one's choice of messenger can be profoundly meaningful). Fundamentally a person is none of these things, but people can be used as any of these things and are the product of the experience of all of these things. Our experience of messages, languages, media, other people, is fundamental in shaping who we become and how we think of ourselves and others. We invent ourselves, and others work diligently to shape that invention, through our consumption of messages, the languages we master, and the media we use.

**2.1. Language as the Medium.** Language can be, and often are, the message (that is inherent to every message constructed with it), the medium (but only trivially), the person (both at the level of the "language instinct" that is inherent to people and a socialized semiotic overlay on personal experience), and even "the language" (insofar as we have a choice of what language we use in constructing a given message). Fundamentally a language is none of these things, but it can be used as any of these things and is the product of our use of media to construct messages. We use language, within media, to construct messages, such as definitions and dictionaries that build up language. We invent and evolve language as a product of our communication.

As for messages, they reiterate all of these constituents. Every message is a partial and incomplete precis of the language that it is constructed with, the medium it is created in and consumed from, and the person who created it. Every message we consume allows us to learn a little more about the language that we interpret with, the medium we create and consume messages in, and the person who created the message. Every message we create is an opportunity to change and extend the language we use, evolve the media we use, and

influence the perspective that consumers of our messages have of us. Yet fundamentally, a message is simply a message, an attempt to communicate something we imagine such that another person can correctly interpret the message and thus imagine the same thing.

**Scan the code and watch to sum up the material**



*Questions for self-control*

1. What are four key components of the communication process?
2. Define a "sender", his role in the communication process.
3. Describe the encoding process in communication.
4. What symbols can a sender use in translating information into a message?
5. Define a channel/medium and its role in the communication process.
6. Who is decoding conducted by?
7. Define a "receiver" and his/her role in the communication process.
8. Why is a feedback a key component in the communication process?
9. How can an effective communication be achieved?
10. Why are primary constituents of communication process (messages, people, languages, and media. complex systems)?
11. Why is communication produced by the intersection of several interrelated systems?
12. What is the relation between a language and a message?
13. How can people serve as a medium?
14. How can a language serve as a medium?
15. What factors influence the encoding and decoding process?



16. Scan the code and watch the video to define all the components of the communication.



### **Check Yourself**

1. A sender in communication can be
  - a. a person
  - b. an organization
  - c. a group of people
  - d. all of the above
2. The sender's first step in communication is
  - a. to send the message
  - b. to encode the message
  - c. to decode the message
  - d. to send the feedback
3. Channel or in other words:
  - a. a medium
  - b. a way
  - c. route
  - d. all of the above
4. A face-to face communication often presupposes
  - a. written channel
  - b. oral channel
  - c. cybernetic channel
  - d. audio-visual channel
5. The decoding process is the matter of
  - a. sender
  - b. receiver
  - c. channel
  - d.all of the above
6. The final link in the communication process is
  - a. message

- b. receiver
  - c. feedback
  - e. source
7. Noise can occur
- a. in the beginning of communication
  - b. in the middle of communication
  - c. throughout communication
  - d. in the end of communication
  - e. all of the above
8. Message is the product of interaction between
- a. people and media
  - b. people and language
  - c. people, language and media
9. An individual in communication can act as
- a. medium
  - b. source
  - c. sender
  - d. all of the above
10. The choice of language is an example of
- a. language as medium
  - b. language as noise
  - c. language as barrier
  - e. all of the above

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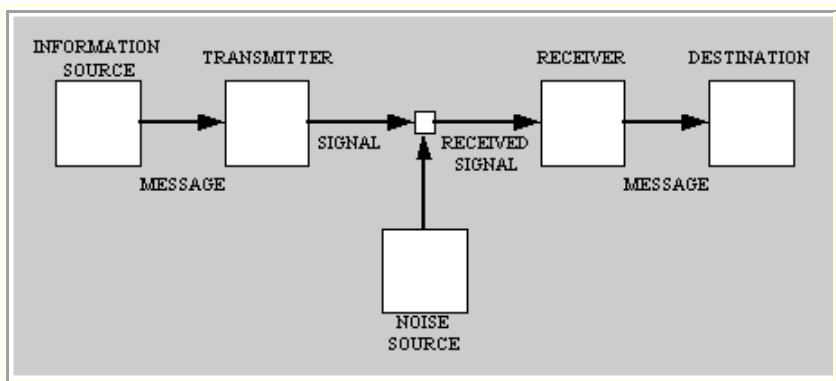
# MODELS OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS

1. *Shannon's Model of Communication*
2. *The Gatekeeper Model*
3. *The Interactive Model*
4. *The Transactional Model*

The communication models that are taught in introducing students to interpersonal communication and mass communication include Shannon's information theory model (the active model), Weiner's cybernetic model, the interactive model, the transactive model, the gatekeeper model, and the new ecological model of communication.

## 1. Shannon's Model of Communication

Shannon's model of the communication process is, in important ways, the beginning of the modern field of communication science. It provided, for the first time, a general model of the communication process that could be treated as the common ground of such diverse disciplines as journalism, rhetoric, linguistics, and speech and hearing sciences. Part of its success is due to its structuralist reduction of communication to a set of basic constituents that not only explain how communication happens, but why communication sometimes fails. Good timing played a role as well.



**Figure 1: Shannon's Model of the communication process.**

Shannon's model, as shown in Figure 1, breaks the process of communication down into eight discrete components:

1. An information **source**. Presumably a person who creates a message.
2. The **message**, which is both sent by the information source and received by the destination.
3. A **transmitter**. For Shannon's immediate purpose a telephone instrument that captures an audio signal, converts it into an electronic signal, and amplifies it for transmission through the telephone network. Transmission is readily generalized within Shannon's information theory to encompass a wide range of transmitters. The simplest transmission system, that associated with face-to-face communication, has at least two layers of transmission. The first, the mouth (sound) and body (gesture), create and modulate a signal. The second layer, which might also be described as a channel, is built of the air (sound) and light (gesture) that enable the transmission of those signals from one person to another. A television broadcast would obviously include many more layers, with the addition of cameras and microphones, editing and filtering systems, a national signal distribution network (often satellite), and a local radio wave broadcast antenna.
4. The **signal**, which flows through a channel. There may be multiple parallel signals, as is the case in face-to-face interaction where sound and gesture involve different signal systems that depend on different channels and modes of transmission. There may be multiple serial signals, with sound and/or gesture turned into electronic signals, radio waves, or words and pictures in a book.
5. A carrier or **channel**, which is represented by the small unlabeled box in the middle of the model. The most commonly used channels include air, light, electricity, radio waves, paper, and postal systems. Note that there

may be multiple channels associated with the multiple layers of transmission, as described above.

6. **Noise**, in the form of secondary signals that obscure or confuse the signal carried. Given Shannon's focus on telephone transmission, carriers, and reception, it should not be surprising that noise is restricted to noise that obscures or obliterates some portion of the signal within the channel. Today we have at least some media which are so noise free that compressed signals are constructed with an absolutely minimal amount information and little likelihood of signal loss. In the process, Shannon's solution to noise, redundancy, has been largely replaced by a minimally redundant solution: error detection and correction. Today we use noise more as a metaphor for problems associated with effective listening.
7. A **receiver**. In Shannon's conception, it is the receiving telephone instrument. In face to face communication it is a set of ears (sound) and eyes (gesture). In television there are several layers of receiver, including an antenna and a television set.
8. A **destination**. Presumably a person who consumes and processes the message.



Shannon's model isn't really a model of communication, however. It is, instead, a model of the flow of information through a medium, and an incomplete and biased model that is far more applicable to the system it maps, a telephone or telegraph, than it is to most other media. It suggests, for instance, a "push" model in which sources of information can inflict it on destinations. In the real world of media, destinations are more typically self-selecting "consumers" of information who have the ability to select the messages they are most interested in, turn off messages that don't interest them, focus on one message in preference to other in message rich environments,

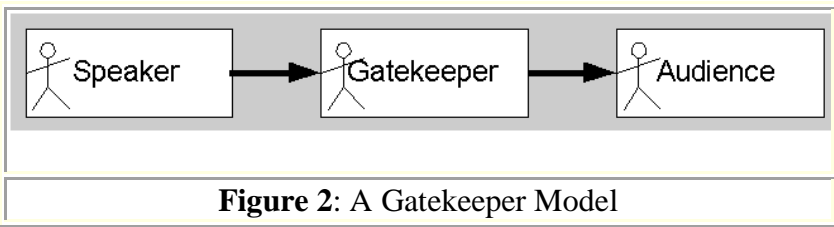
and can choose to simply not pay attention. Shannon's model depicts transmission from a transmitter to a receiver as the primary activity of a medium. In the real world of media, messages are frequently stored for elongated periods of time and/or modified in some way before they are accessed by the "destination". The model suggests that communication within a medium is frequently direct and unidirectional, but in the real world of media, communication is almost never unidirectional and is often indirect.

### **Scan the code and check yourself**

## **2. The Gatekeeper model**

This model focuses on the important role that intermediaries often play in the communication process. Mass communication texts frequently specifically associate editors, who decide what stories will fit in a newspaper or news broadcast, with this intermediary or gatekeeper role.

There are, however, many intermediary roles associated with communication. Many of these intermediaries have the ability to decide what messages others see, the context in which they are seen, and when they see them. They often have the ability, moreover, to change messages or to prevent them from reaching an audience (destination). In extreme variations we refer to such gatekeepers as censors. Under the more normal conditions of mass media, in which publications choose some content in preference to other potential content based on an editorial policy, we refer to them as editors (most mass media., moderators (Internet discussion groups), reviewers (peer-reviewed publications), or aggregators (clipping services), among other titles . Delivery workers (a postal delivery worker, for instance) also act as intermediaries, and have the ability to act as gatekeepers, but are generally restricted from doing so as a matter of ethics and/or law.



Variations of Figure 2 gatekeeper model are also used in teaching organizational communication, where gatekeepers, in the form of bridges and liaisons, have some ability to shape the organization through their selective sharing of information. These variations are generally more complex in depiction and often take the form of social network diagrams that depict the interaction relationships of dozens of people. The network diagrams often presume, or at least allow, bi-directional arrows such that they are more consistent with the notion that communication is most often bidirectional.

**Scan the code and watch for better understanding**



### **3. The Interactive Model**

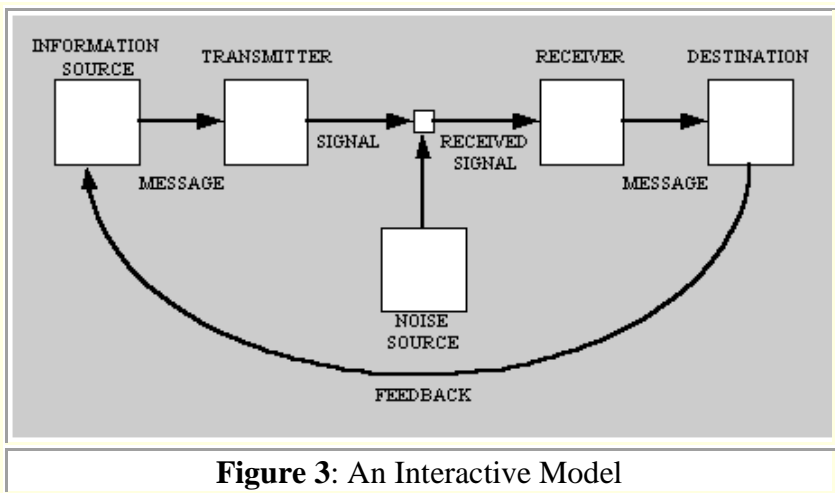
The interactive model elaborates Shannon's model with the cybernetic concept of feedback, often without changing any other element of Shannon's model. The key concept associated with this elaboration is that destinations provide feedback on the messages they receive such that the information sources can adapt their messages, in real time. This is an important elaboration, and as generally depicted, a radically oversimplified one.

Feedback is a message (or a set of messages). The source of feedback is an information source. The consumer of feedback is a destination. Feedback is transmitted, received, and potentially disruptable via noise sources. None of this is visible in the typical depiction of the interactive model. This doesn't diminish the importance of feedback or the usefulness of elaborating



Shannon's model to include it. People really do adapt their messages based on the feedback they receive. It is useful, however, to notice that the interactive model depicts feedback at a much higher level of abstraction than it does messages.

**Scan the code and watch for better understanding**



**Figure 3: An Interactive Model**

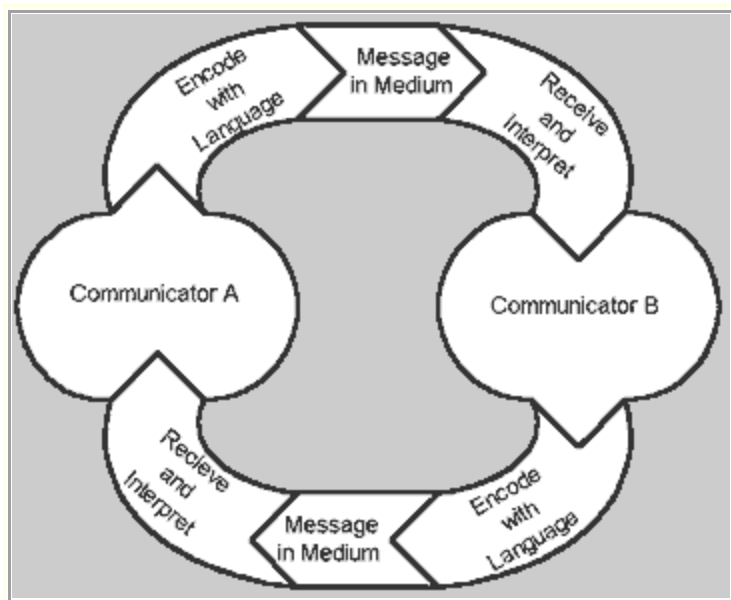
#### **4. The Transactional Model**

The difference in the level of abstraction is addressed in the transactional model of communication. This model acknowledges neither creators nor consumers of messages, preferring to label the people associated with the model as communicators who both create and consume messages. The model presumes additional symmetries as well, with each participant creating messages that are received by the other communicator. This is, in many ways, an excellent model of the

face-to-face interactive process which extends readily to any interactive medium that provides users with symmetrical interfaces for creation and consumption of messages, including notes, letters, electronic mail, and the radio. It is, however, a distinctly interpersonal model that implies an equality between communicators that often doesn't exist, even in interpersonal contexts.

The caller in most telephone conversations has the initial upper hand in setting the direction and tone of a telephone call than the receiver of the call. In face-to-face head-complement interactions, the boss (head) has considerably more freedom (in terms of message choice, media choice, ability to frame meaning, ability to set the rules of interaction) and power to allocate message bandwidth than does the employee (complement).

The model certainly does not apply in mass media contexts.



**Figure 4: A Transactional Model**



**Scan the code and watch for better understanding**

*Summary:* Models are a fundamental building block of theory. They are also a fundamental tool of instruction. Shannon's information theory model, and Weiner's Cybernetic model allowed scholars decompose the process of communication into discrete structural elements. Each provides the basis for considerable bodies of communication theory and research. Each model also provides teachers with a powerful pedagogical tool for teaching students to understand that communication is a complex process in which many things can, and frequently do, go wrong; for teaching students the ways in which they can perfect different skills at different points in the communication process to become more effective communicators. But while Shannon's model has proved effective across the primary divisions in the field of communication, the other models have not. Indeed, they in many ways exemplify the differences in what is taught in

courses oriented to interpersonal communication and mass communication.

### *Check Yourself*

1. Which model of communication is considered to be classical?
  - a. Shannon's model
  - b. Transactional model
  - c. Gatekeeper model
  - d. Interactive model
2. How many components construct the Shannon's model of communication?
  - a. 6
  - b. 7
  - c. 8
  - d. 9
3. The Gatekeeper model of communication presupposes the presence of:
  - a. social media
  - b. intermediary
  - c. editor
  - d. channel
4. In most extreme cases a gatekeeper can be named as
  - a. censor
  - b. source
  - c. message
  - d. channel
5. The Interactive model of communication is an elaborated variant of Shannon's model in terms of
  - a. message
  - b. audience
  - c. feedback
  - d. information
6. In terms of Transactional model of communication people are labeled as:
  - a. communicators

- b. creators
  - c. sources
  - d. media
7. The Transactional model of communication presupposes
- a. equality between communicators
  - b. inequality between communicators
  - c. biased communicators
  - d. unbiased communicators
8. In terms of Shannon's model of communication the receiver in face-to-face communication can be
- a. ears
  - b. eyes
  - c. nose
  - d. all of the above
9. The most common examples of channel are:
- a. air, electricity, light
  - b. radio waves, paper
  - c. postal systems
  - d. all of the above
10. Noise in communication is
- a. primary signal to obscure communication
  - b. secondary signal to obscure communication
  - c. inevitable

### *Questions for self-control*

1. What are the classic communication models?
2. What are eight discrete components in Shannon's model?
3. Describe the communication process according to Shannon's model.
4. What is the main focus of the gatekeeper model?
5. What are the elements of the gatekeeper model?
6. Who can serve as a gatekeeper?

7. What is the difference between the interactive model and Shannon's model?
8. Give the definition of a feedback.
9. Describe the principles of the transactional model of communication.
10. Name the elements of the ecological model.
11. Why are different models important in the Communication Theory?

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## **VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION**

*1. Verbal Communication*

*2. Non-verbal Communication*

*3. Categories and Features of Non-verbal Communication*

*4. Static and Dynamic Features of Non-verbal*

*Communication*

*5. Analyze yourself*

### **1. Verbal Communication**

The basis of communication is the interaction between people. Verbal communication is one way for people to communicate face-to-face. Some of the key components of verbal communication are sounds, words, speaking, and language.

At birth, most people have vocal cords, which produce sounds. As a child grows it learns how to form these sounds into words. Some words may be imitative of natural sounds, but others may come from expressions of emotion, such as laughter or crying. Words alone have no meaning. Only people can put meaning into words. As meaning is assigned to words, language develops, which leads to the development of speaking.

The actual origin of language is subject to considerable speculation. Some theorists believe it is an outgrowth of group activities such as working together or dancing. Others believe that language developed from basic sounds and gestures.

Over 3,000 languages and major dialects are spoken in the world today. The development of languages reflects class, gender, profession, age group, and other social factors. The huge variety of languages usually creates difficulties between different languages, but even within a single language there can be many problems in understanding.

Through speaking we try to eliminate this misunderstanding, but sometimes this is a very hard thing to do. Just as we assume that our messages are clearly received, so we assume that because something is important to us, it is important to others. As time has proven this is not at all true. Many problems can arise in speaking and the only way to solve these problems is through experience.

Speaking can be looked at in two major areas: interpersonal and public speaking. Since the majority of speaking is an interpersonal process, to communicate effectively we must not simply clean up our language, but learn to relate to people.

In interpersonal speaking, etiquette is very important. To be an effective communicator one must speak in a manner that is not offending to the receiver. Etiquette also plays an important role in an area that has developed in most all business settings: hierarchical communication. In business today, hierarchical communication is of utmost importance to all members involved.

The other major area of speaking is public speaking. From the origin of time, it has been obvious that some people are just better public speakers than others. Because of this, today a good speaker can earn a living by speaking to people in a public setting. Some of the major areas of public speaking are speaking to persuade, speaking to inform, and speaking to inspire or motivate.

## **2. Non-verbal Communication**

When Demosthenes was asked what was the first part of oratory he answered, "action"; and which was the second, he replied, "action"; and which was third he still answered, "action". People tend to believe actions more than words!

Today, many researchers are concerned with the information sent by communication that is independent of and different from verbal information; namely, the non-verbal communication. Verbal communication is organized by language; non-verbal communication is not.



Communication is the transfer of information from one person to another. Most of us spend about 75 percent of our waking hours communicating our knowledge, thoughts, and ideas to others. However, most of us fail to realize that a great deal of our communication is of a non-verbal form as opposed to the oral and written forms. Non-verbal communication includes facial expressions, eye contact, tone of voice, body posture and motions, and positioning within groups. It may also include the way we wear our clothes or the silence we keep.

In person-to-person communications our messages are sent on two levels simultaneously. If the nonverbal cues and the spoken message are incongruous, the flow of communication is hindered. Right or wrong, the receiver of the communication tends to base the intentions of the sender on the non-verbal cues he receives.

### **3. Categories and Features of Non-verbal Communication**

Non-verbal communication is divided into four broad categories:

*Physical.* This is the personal type of communication. It includes facial expressions, tone of voice, sense of touch, sense of smell, and body motions.

*Aesthetic.* This is the type of communication that takes place through creative expressions: playing instrumental music, dancing, painting and sculpturing.

*Signs.* This is the mechanical type of communication, which includes the use of signal flags, the 21-gun salute, horns, and sirens.

*Symbolic.* This is the type of communication that makes use of religious, status, or ego-building symbols.

### **4. Static and Dynamic Features of Non-verbal Communication**

Static Features of Non-verbal Communication:

*Distance.* The distance one stands from another frequently conveys a non-verbal message. In some cultures it is a sign of

attraction, while in others it may reflect status or the intensity of the exchange.

*Orientation.* People may present themselves in various ways: face-to-face, side-to-side, or even back-to-back. For example, cooperating people are likely to sit side-by-side while competitors frequently face one another.

*Posture.* Obviously one can be lying down, seated, or standing. These are not the elements of posture that convey messages. Are we slouched or erect? Are our legs crossed or our arms folded? Such postures convey a degree of formality and the degree of relaxation in the communication exchange.

*Physical Contact.* Shaking hands, touching, holding, embracing, pushing, or patting on the back all convey messages. They reflect an element of intimacy or a feeling of (or lack of) attraction.

#### Dynamic Features of Non-verbal Communication:

*Facial Expressions.* A smile, frown, raised eyebrow, yawn, and sneer all convey information. Facial expressions continually change during interaction and are monitored constantly by the recipient. There is evidence that the meaning of these expressions may be similar across cultures.

*Gestures.* One of the most frequently observed, but least understood, cues is a hand movement. Most people use hand movements regularly when talking. While some gestures (e.g., a clenched fist) have universal meanings, most of the others are individually learned and idiosyncratic.

*Looking.* A major feature of social communication is eye contact. It can convey emotion, signal when to talk or finish, or aversion. The frequency of contact may suggest either interest or boredom.

The above list shows that both static features and dynamic features transmit important information from the sender to the receiver.

*Summary.* We can define non-verbal communication as: the exchange of messages primarily through non-linguistic means, including: kinesics (body language), facial expressions and eye

contact, tactile communication, space and territory, environment, paralanguage (vocal but non-linguistic cues), and the use of silence and time.

### **5. Analyze yourself**

A new behavioral science "movement analysis" believes the best way to access a speaker's potential is not to listen to what he has to say, but to observe what he does when he is saying it. Some of the movements and gestures can be analyzed as follows:

**Forward and Backward Movements.** If you extend a hand straight forward during an interview or tend to lean forward, you seem to be an "operator" – good for an organization requiring an infusion of energy or dramatic change of course.

**Vertical Movements.** If you tend to draw yourself up to your tallest during the handshake, you are a "presenter." You are a master at selling yourself or the organization in which you are employed.

**Side-to-Side Movements.** If you take a lot of space while talking by moving your arms about, you are a good informer and good listener. You are best suited for an organization seeking a better sense of direction. There is a relationship between positioning of the body and movements of the limbs and facial expressions. There is harmony between the two. On the other hand, if certain gestures are rehearsed, such as those made to impress others, there is a tendency to separate the posture and the movements. The harmony disappears.

Communication comes about through our degree of body flexibility. If you begin a movement with considerable force and then decelerate, you are considered a "gentle-touch". By contrast, if you are a "pressurizer", you are firm from beginning to end.

**Facial Expressions.** Facial expressions usually communicate emotions. The expressions tell the attitudes of the communicator. Researchers have discovered that certain facial areas reveal our emotional state better than others. For example, the eyes tend to reveal happiness or sadness, and even surprise.

The lower face also can reveal happiness or surprise; the smile, for example, can communicate friendliness and cooperation. The lower face, brows, and forehead can also reveal anger. It is believed that verbal cues provide 7 percent of the meaning of the message; vocal cues, 38 percent; and facial expressions, 55 percent. This means that, as the receiver of a message, you can rely heavily on the facial expressions of the sender because his expressions are a better indicator of the meaning behind the message than his words.

**Eye Contact.** Eye contact is a direct and powerful form of non-verbal communication. The superior in the organization generally maintains eye contact longer than the subordinate. The direct stare of the sender of the message conveys candor and openness. It elicits a feeling of trust. Downward glances are generally associated with modesty. Eyes rolled upward are associated with fatigue.

**Tactile Communication.** Communication through touch is obviously non-verbal. Used properly it can create a more direct message than dozens of words; used improperly it can build barriers and cause mistrust. You can easily invade someone's space through this type of communication. If it is used reciprocally, it indicates solidarity; if not used reciprocally, it tends to indicate differences in status. Touch not only facilitates the sending of the message, but the emotional impact of the message as well.

**Personal Space.** Personal space is your "bubble" – the space you place between yourself and others. This invisible boundary becomes apparent only when someone bumps or tries to enter your bubble.

How you identify your personal space and use the environment in which you find yourself influences your ability to send or receive messages. How close do you stand to the one with whom you are communicating? Where do you sit in the room? How do you position yourself with respect to others at a meeting? All of these things affect your level of comfort, and the level of comfort of those receiving your message.

The impact of use of space on the communication process is related directly to the environment in which the space is maintained.

**Environment.** How do you arrange the objects in your environment – the desks, chairs, tables, and bookcases? The design of your room/office, according to researchers, can greatly affect the communications within it. Your packing-order is frequently determined by such things as the size of your desk, square feet in your office, number of windows in the office, quality of the carpet, and type of paintings (originals or copies) on the wall. It is obvious that your personal space and environment affect the level of your comfort and your status and facilitate or hinder the communication process.

**Paralanguage.** Is the content of your message contradicted by the attitude with which you are communicating it? Researchers have found that the tone, pitch, quality of voice, and rate of speaking convey emotions that can be accurately judged regardless of the content of the message. The important thing to gain from this is that the voice is important, not just as the conveyor of the message, but as a complement to the message. As a communicator you should be sensitive to the influence of tone, pitch, and quality of your voice on the interpretation of your message by the receiver.

**Silence and Time.** Silence can be a positive or negative influence in the communications process. It can provide a link between messages or sever relationships. It can create tension and uneasiness or create a peaceful situation. Silence can also be judgmental by indicating favor or disfavor – agreement or disagreement.

### ***Check Yourself:***

1. What are some key components of verbal communication mentioned in the passage?
  - a. Facial expressions, eye contact, gestures
  - b. Sounds, words, speaking, language
  - c. Tactile communication, space, environment

- d. Distance, orientation, posture, physical contact
- 2. According to the passage, how does language develop?
  - a. Through imitating natural sounds
  - b. From basic sounds and gestures
  - c. Both a and b
  - d. Through hierarchical communication
- 3. How many languages and major dialects are spoken in the world today?
  - a. Over 500
  - b. Around 1,000
  - c. Over 3,000
  - d. Exactly 2,500
- 4. What is emphasized as important in interpersonal speaking?
  - a. Facial expressions
  - b. Public speaking
  - c. Etiquette
  - d. Non-verbal communication
- 5. In which major area of speaking is etiquette mentioned as crucial?
  - a. Interpersonal speaking
  - b. Public speaking
  - c. Non-verbal communication
  - d. Both a and b
- 6. What is considered a challenge in communication?
  - a. Assuming messages are clearly received
  - b. Cleaning up language
  - c. Speaking in a formal manner
  - d. Avoiding hierarchical communication
- 7. What are the major areas of public speaking?
  - a. Speaking to persuade, speaking to inform, speaking to inspire
  - b. Speaking to entertain, speaking to educate, speaking to criticize
  - c. Speaking to imitate, speaking to analyze, speaking to evaluate
  - d. Speaking to dictate, speaking to argue, speaking to condemn

8. What is the basis of communication?
  - a. Non-verbal cues
  - b. Interaction between people
  - c. Written forms of communication
  - d. Physical contact
9. Why is etiquette important in interpersonal speaking?
  - a. To offend the receiver
  - b. To be an effective communicator
  - c. To hinder communication flow
  - d. To avoid hierarchical communication
10. How can problems in speaking be solved?
  - a. Through static features
  - b. Through hierarchical communication
  - c. Through experience
  - d. Through dynamic features

### *Questions for self-control*

1. What does non-verbal communication include?
2. What are four broad categories of non-verbal communication?
3. What are the static features of non-verbal communication?
4. What are the dynamic features of non-verbal communication?
5. What is the role of kinesics in the non-verbal communication?
6. What is a tactile communication?
7. Why is eye contact important in communication?
8. How do you understand "personal space" in communication?
9. Give the definition of verbal communication.
10. Define the role of a language in communication.
11. What emotions can you read on your interlocutor's face?
12. Why is "eye contact" important in the communication process?

13. What can the speaker's movements communicate to the listener?

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## FORMS OF VERBAL COMMUNICATION

### *1. The Definition of a Monologue*

#### *1.1. The Classification of a Monologue*

#### *1.2. Methods of Material Representation in a Monologic Speech.*

### *2. The Definition of a Dialogue*

#### *2.1. The Question-Answer Structure of a Dialogue*

#### *2.2. General Rules and Laws of a Dialogue*

Public communication, like not any other type of communication requires a tolerant behavior toward the recipients as it aims to reach an agreement in a group of people at different levels: general knowledge (scientific and educational public speaking), common opinion (journalistic speech) or joint actions (business speech). A dialogic speech takes its growing place in oral public communication genres. Experts in communication technologies divide all communicative systems on monologic (focused on a monologue) and dialogic (focused on a dialogue) genres of communication.

### **1. The Definition of a Monologue**

*A monologue is a form of speech that appears as a result of active speaking accounted at a passive and mediated perception and is not connected with a speech of the interlocutor.* Sometimes a monologue is defined as an intrapersonal speech act. A monologue is inconsistent: on the one hand, once a person has started talking, it means that a person expects a dialogue; on the other hand, a monologue does not conform to a direct dialogue, it assumes, that the listener only listens and does not answer.

The basic communicative situations to use a monologue are: art sphere, oratorical performances, shows on TV and radio, training situation (a speech of the teacher in class, etc.). In home communication monologic speech is found extremely seldom.

Big fragments of text consisting of structurally connected statements are typical for a monologue. A structure of a monologue depends on a genre (an artistic monologue, an oratorical speech, a home conversation, etc.) and on its functional-communicative features (narration, reasoning, belief).

In comparison with remarks in a dialogue, monologic speech is marked by more complex syntactic structure, much more difficult structural organisation of language.

The main features of a monologue are as follows:

- lengthy remarks;
- composition complexity;
- addressed not to the interlocutor, but to the speaker himself.

**1.1. The Classification of a Monologue.** The classification of a monologue is based on the purpose of the utterance (V.V. Vinogradov):

- a convincing monologue – an elemental form of oratorical speech;
- a lyrical monologue – a speech form to express emotions;
- a dramatic monologue – a speech is accompanied by mimicry, gestures, movements, etc.;
- a generalizing monologue, which is subdivided into a monologue-reasoning and a monologue-message.

Another classification of a monologue is based on the following principles:

- On time of preparation – monologic messages can be prepared in advance (time for preparation practically is unlimited), and can be unprepared;
- On the content of the message – monologues are divided into: the messages transferring a detailed content of the text; the messages transferring a brief content of text; the messages compiled of several texts; the messages in which the speaker

shares his mind on a definite question; the messages with the implicit content;

- On the form of the message – monologues are divided into the messages having the ready form; the messages having the fixed form; the messages made spontaneously.

The obligatory feature of any monologic speech is a coherency of phrases, word combinations and sentences that make a united text. There are two types of coherent relations: constructed as *linking* and constructed as *repetition*.

*Linking* is such a form of communication in which one element of a sentence indicates the element in the other sentence creating a link between sentences. In such a way a meaning is transmitted from one sentence to another.

There are following types of linking: grammatical linking and lexical linking; anaphora and cataphora.

Grammatical linking is a substitute, reference, ellipsis, etc. Lexical linking – parenthesis (*first, secondly, etc.*) and addressed references (not to a phrase, but to a text part).

Anaphora – the reference to something told earlier; it is achieved by repetitions of lexical units, use of the conjunctions (*so, in other words, along with*), demonstrative and possessive pronouns (*this, these, so, such*).

Cataphore – the reference to the subsequent elements of the text; it is provided by numerals (*firstly, secondly*), interrogative words, and statements like this "*I am going to tell you something...*"

*Repetition* is the second type of interphrase communications. Repetitions can be lexical, grammatical, syntactic or semantic. In classical rhetoric such types of repetitions are allocated: multiconjunctive, without conjunctions, chiasmus (*I am in the world and the world is in me*), parallelism, gradation.

**1.2. Methods of Material Representation in a Monologic Speech.** *The composite complexity* of a monologue is usually characterised by the method a material is presented. The following methods are distinguished:

- Inductive method – a material is presented from the particular to the general (this method is quite often used in propaganda performances);
- Deductive method – a material is presented from the general to the particular (the orator in the beginning of his speech puts forward some assumptions, and then explains their sense on concrete examples);
- An analogy method – comparison of the various phenomena, events, the facts;
- Concentric method – an arrangement of material round the main problem raised by the orator (the speaker goes from the general consideration of a central question to a more concrete problem and its profound analysis);
- Step method – a consecutive answering the questions – one after another (having considered a problem, the orator does not touch upon it again);
- Historical method – a material is presented in a chronological sequence with the description and analysis of the undergone changes.

The learning process to achieve an effective monologic speech is conscious and task-oriented whereas a person seizes dialogical speech spontaneously. Rhetoric was one of the first sciences to deal with the problems of a monologue construction. Having studied the rules of text construction, rhetoric allocated five elements of the monologic speech creation: *invention* – the invention, *disposition* – an arrangement, *elocution* – verbal embodiment, *memoria* – storing, *pronuntiatio* – the pronunciation.

Any monologic oratorical speech should consist of the following parts: address; naming of the theme; narration (brief history of the problem/question); description – a current matter

of the problem; proof; refutation (possible arguments of the opponent); appeal; conclusion.

Classical rhetoric paid great attention to the logic alignment of speeches, persuasiveness of the arguments. A speech was suited for orators' public performances. A subject of interest of modern rhetoric becomes not only tribune speeches, but also a wide spectrum of forms of communications: public performances at the meetings, participation in a television and radio shows, performances at business meetings and scientific conferences. Therefore, a speech cannot be estimated from the point of view of argumentation and logicity, its communicative potential should be taken into consideration.

## **2. The Definition of a Dialogue**

A speech stream in communication is divided into dialogic and monologic speech. In a unidirectional speech stream of communication only one speaker is active. Such speech is called monologic. Speech is considered dialogic if the information transfer is directed in two or more vectors, and the speakers' periods of speech activity are replaced by the periods of perception and processing of the received information.

*A dialogue (from Greek dialogos – conversation) is a form of speech consisting of an exchange of statements-remarks, characterised by situationality (dependence on conversation conditions), contextuality (presupposition by the previous statements), involuntariness and small degree of organisation (not planned character).* A dialogue is usually opposed to a monologue. A subkind of a dialogue is a polylogue arising when a number of speech participants are more than two.

A dialogue is considered a primary natural form of language communication. Originally it goes back to colloquial speech where the principle of economy of verbal means is characteristic. The informative completeness of a dialogic speech is provided by intonation, mimicry and gestures.

A dialogue is characterized by polyfunctionality of forms, semantic expressiveness and word creation. A dialogue is built

according to the rules of oral speech (incomplete style of pronunciation, original syntax, situational lexical coinings).

Basic language features of a dialogue are as follows:

- repetitions and a negative acknowledgement in reacting remarks;
- syntactic incompleteness of remarks that can be compensated by the previous statements;
- abundance of interrogative sentences and commands among remarks.

The following types of a dialogue are differentiated: an informative dialogue; a prescriptive dialogue; a dialogue-exchange of opinions for taking a decision/finding-out the truth; a dialogue aimed at the establishment/regulation of interpersonal relations; a solemn dialogue in which emotional, artistic and intellectual dialogues are allocated as subtypes.

An informative dialogue usually consists of the question-answer pairs, though it can also include a curtailed monologue or a rhetorical question. The purpose of an informative dialogue is the information reception.

A prescriptive dialogue contains a request, a command and a promise or refusal to fulfil an offered action. Thus, it is meant that the speaker suggests the program of actions, and the listener undertakes its execution.

A dialogue-exchange of opinions is usually a dispute, a discussion. Both interlocutors, as a rule, are experts in a discussed question. For the given type of a dialogue the thematic unity at various viewpoints of the speakers is characteristic.

A dialogue conducted for the establishment/ regulation of interpersonal relations, is subdivided into a dialogue-unison and a dialogue-discord. The maintenance of the first is a sincere acknowledgement, the second — mutual clarification of relations.

A solemn dialogue is reflected either in emotional dialogues (complaints, boasting, admiration, fear), artistic

genres (a short story, a joke, a witty remark, an anecdote), intellectual conversations.

**2.1. The Question-Answer Structure of a Dialogue.** In a dialogue the question-answer structures are mostly realised. *Questions* are classified as: specifying, recouping; simple and complicated; correct and incorrect; neutral, benevolent and provocative.

*Specifying* questions are directed to finding-out validity or falsity. They demand "yes" or "no" answer.

*Recouping* questions are connected with gaining new knowledge concerning events, phenomena, subjects, and their distinctive features. These questions start with the interrogative words: "who", "that", "where", "when", "how", "why".

*Simple* questions cannot be subdivided into more simple statements. *Complicated* questions include two or more simple questions.

*Correct* questions are based on true judgements. *Incorrect* questions are based on false or uncertain judgements.

*Neutral* questions do not contain emotional colouring and do not influence the personality of the interlocutor.

*Benevolent* questions underline positive attitude to the interlocutor. *Provocative* questions have a negative shade of meaning and contain a latent or obvious hint of the interlocutor's incorrect actions.

The answers are classified into: correct, wrong and "off the point"; positive and negative.

*Correct* answers give a chance to specify the point of view, to receive additional data and contain true judgements logically connected with the question. *Wrong* answers are connected with the question, but incorrectly reflect the validity. *Answers "off the point"* can be true, but they are not logically connected with the question and consequently are not considered. *Positive* answers contain aspiration to solve a problem posed by the question. *Negative* answers express

refusal to answer the question for some reasons (incompetence, reasons of ethical character and so forth).

A dialogue is an organised complex complete structure, a product of joint activity of the interlocutors. Even a change or introduction of new participants in the course of conversation does not bring distortion or pauses. Interlocutors perfectly understand each other: foresee the termination of remarks, prevent failures in the conversation development and correct disorder. Coordination of actions and statements of interlocutors is provided by special rules familiar to the speakers and are regularly used in conversation.

Any speech fragment must be completed according to the rules. If the first remark is a question, the second necessarily is an answer; the greeting is accompanied by a welcoming address, the request is accompanied by acceptance or deviation, etc. This organizational principle (a principle of sequence) sets the elementary scheme of the conversation construction, which forms the basis for more difficult variants of communication. The principle assumes relevance of response, i.e. the remark of corresponding type is expected, though can be delayed.

**2.2. General Rules and Laws of a Dialogue.** The general rules of a dialogue are:

- the addressee of the message is required to listen to the directed to him statement;
- the question demands the answer;
- the command demands the answer (an action or a remark);
- the narration demands the answer (a narration or attentive silence, the absence of speech when listening informs the speaker that his narration is accepted and understood with the help of non verbal communication – a look, a gesture, an interjection).

While choosing the answer it is necessary to remember, that narrative statements are opposed to questions but are similar to them in the structurally functional relation as narrative statements do not have to be obligatory answered in



the form of any remark or action. The questions, on the contrary, strictly demand a reciprocal remark.

A dialogue is a joint activity of the participants who have some common aims. A dialogue assumes the compliance of standard principles regulating interlocutors' behaviour, the so-called communicative maxim of H.P.Grice:

- Maxim of cooperation makes the basis of communication. It assumes readiness of partners for cooperation. Interlocutors can express disagreement, argue, but they should join the conversation in a way that corresponds to its general line and purpose.
- Maxim of quantity. Everyone should bring in to the conversation enough information, but not too much of it.
- Maxim of quality identifies truthfulness of the statement. This maxim is broken if the person intentionally lies.
- Maxim of relevance. According to it, remarks should be relevant and correspond to a context of the conversation.
- Maxim of manner of communications demands avoiding ambiguity, double meaning or destructive actions.

The violation of communicative maxims is always connected with the intention to have a certain influence on the listener. When any maxim is broken, the interlocutor attributes to the message some additional value. This mechanism provides usage of indirect statements, which are important from the point of view of conversation tactics, in particular keeping the rules of politeness. So, to the question "*How many gryvnias did it cost to you?*" it is possible to hear "*Enough*". The answer breaks maxim of quantity and the direct meaning of the statement is "*It does not concern you*".

H.P.Grice's maxims are not unique rules for a dialogue construction. A well-known author of the textbook "The Theory of Rhetoric" Yu.V.Rozhdestvenskiy suggests the following laws for a dialogue construction:

- law of time — endless continuation of a dialogue in one type of speaking destroys the information value of speech;
- law of audience — endless expansion of an audience in one type of speaking destroys the information value of speech;
- law of the audience competence — a lack of knowledge in the subject of the conversation destroys the information value of speech;
- law of relevance — the dialogue taking place untimely (or the subject of it is uninteresting) destroys the information value of a dialogue.

Social characteristics of participants influence the character of a dialogue: their social status, profession, ethnic origin, age. They affect a choice of theme, language means, position in the conversation. When the communicators in a dialogue belong to certain social group they participate in specific types of dialogues — medical, theatrical, academic, women's and men's, "German", "Swiss" etc.

***Check Yourself:***

1. What is the main purpose of public communication?
  - a. To engage in a monologue
  - b. To express emotions
  - c. To reach an agreement in a group of people
  - d. To conduct a polylogue
2. What is the primary classification of communicative systems in public communication?
  - a. Monologic and Dialogic
  - b. Informative and Persuasive
  - c. Lyrical and Dramatic
  - d. Generalizing and Convincing
3. In the classification of a monologue based on time of preparation, what distinguishes monologic messages?
  - a. Prepared in advance and unprepared
  - b. Time for preparation is unlimited
  - c. Messages made spontaneously

- d. Both a and c
- 4. What are the two types of coherent relations in a monologue?
  - a. Grammar and Syntax
  - b. Constructed as linking and Constructed as repetition
  - c. Lexical linking and Anaphora
  - d. Cataphora and Lexical linking
- 5. What is the primary goal of an informative dialogue?
  - a. To express emotions
  - b. To find out the truth
  - c. To regulate interpersonal relations
  - d. To persuade the audience
- 6. How is a dialogue defined?
  - a. A form of speech consisting of a monologue
  - b. A one-directional speech stream
  - c. An exchange of statements, characterized by situationality
  - d. A polylogue with multiple participants
- 7. What are the basic language features of a dialogue?
  - a. Repetitions and Acknowledgement
  - b. Complex syntax and Original lexicon
  - c. Correctness and Incorrectness
  - d. Simple questions and Complex questions
- 8. According to the general rules of a dialogue, what is required of the addressee of the message?
  - a. Ask a question
  - b. Listen to the directed statement
  - c. Respond with a command
  - d. Provide a narration
- 9. What are H.P.Grice's maxims, which form the basis of communication in a dialogue?
  - a. Maxim of Quantity, Maxim of Quality, Maxim of Relevance, Maxim of Manner
  - b. Maxim of Cooperation, Maxim of Quantity, Maxim of Relevance, Maxim of Manner
  - c. Maxim of Cooperation, Maxim of Time, Maxim of Audience, Maxim of Relevance

- d. Maxim of Quantity, Maxim of Time, Maxim of Audience,  
Maxim of Manner
10. What do H.P.Grice's maxims aim to achieve in a dialogue?
- Encourage disagreement and arguments
  - Promote ambiguity and double meaning
  - Ensure truthfulness, relevance, and clarity in communication
  - Prioritize quantity and verbosity in conversation

### *Questions for self-control*

- Give a definition of a dialogue.
- According to what speech (oral or written) is a dialogue built? Explain your answer.
- What are the basic language features of a dialogue?
- Name the types of a dialogue.
- How are the questions in a dialogue classified?
- Dwell upon types of questions in a dialogue.
- What is the classification of answers in a dialogue?
- State the general rules of a dialogue.
- Explain communicative maxims of a dialogue.
- Speak of Yu.V.Rozhdestvensk's laws for a dialogue construction.
- Give a definition of a monologue.
- What are the main features of a monologue?
- Speak of V.Vinogradov's classification of monologues
- What are the principles of monologue classification?
- State the types of coherency in a monologic speech.
- Explain the methods of material presentation in a monologue.
- Name five elements of the monologic statement creation.

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# INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

1. *The Definition of Interpersonal Communication*
2. *Four Principles of Interpersonal Communication*
3. *Interpersonal Communication Styles*
4. *The Process of Interpersonal Communication*
5. *Interpersonal Space*
6. *Difficult Situations in Interpersonal Communication.*
7. *The Axioms of Interpersonal Communication*

## **1. The Definition of Interpersonal Communication**

Interpersonal communication is defined by the scholars in numerous ways, usually describing participants who are dependent upon one another and have a shared history. Communication channels take two distinct forms: direct and indirect. *Direct channels* are obvious and easily recognized by the receiver. Both verbal and non-verbal information is completely controlled by the sender. *Verbal channels* rely on words, as in written or spoken communication. *Non-verbal channels* encompass facial expressions, controlled body movements (police present hand gestures to control traffic., color (red signals 'stop', green signals 'go'), and sound (warning sirens). *Indirect channels* are usually recognized subconsciously by the receiver, and are not always under direct control of the sender. Body language, comprising most of the indirect channel, may inadvertently reveal one's true emotions, and thereby either unintentionally taint or bolster the believability of any intended verbal message.

Context refers to the conditions that precede or surround the communication. It consists of present or past events from which the meaning of the message is derived, though it may also, in the case of written communications, depend upon the statements preceding and following the quotation in question. Immediate surroundings may also color the perceived meaning of words; normally safe discourse may easily become contextually ambiguous or offensive in a restroom or shower

hall. These influences do not constitute the message by themselves, but rather these extraneous nuances subtly change the message's effective meaning. Ultimately, context includes the entire world, but usually refers to salient factors such as the following:

- Physical milieu: the season or weather, current physical location and environment;
- Situational milieu: classroom, military conflict, supermarket checkout;
- Cultural and linguistic backgrounds;
- Developmental progress (maturity) or emotional state;
- Complementary or contrasting roles: boss and employee; teacher and student; parent, child, and spouse; friend or enemy; partner or competitor.

## **2. Four Principles of Interpersonal Communication**

These principles underlie the workings in real life of interpersonal communication. They are basic to communication. We can't ignore them.

1. Interpersonal communication is inescapable.

We can't but communicate. The very attempt not to communicate communicates something. Through not only words, but through tone of voice and through gesture, posture, facial expression, etc., we constantly communicate to those around us. Through these channels, we constantly receive communication from others. Even when you sleep, you communicate.

2. Interpersonal communication is irreversible.

You can't really take back something once it has been said. The effect must inevitably remain. Despite the instructions from a judge to a jury to "disregard that last statement the witness made," the lawyer knows that it can't help but make an impression on the jury.

3. Interpersonal communication is complicated.

No form of communication is simple. Because of the number of variables involved, even simple requests are

extremely complex. Theorists note that whenever we communicate there are really at least six "people" involved:

- 1) who you think you are;
- 2) who you think the other person is;
- 3) who you think the other person thinks you are;
- 4) who the other person thinks he/she is;
- 5) who the other person thinks you are; and
- 6) who the other person thinks you think he/she is.

We don't actually swap ideas, we swap symbols that stand for ideas. This also complicates communication. Words (symbols) do not have inherent meaning; we simply use them in certain ways, and no two people use the same word exactly alike.

4. Interpersonal communication is contextual.

In other words, communication does not happen in isolation.

There is:

- *Psychological context*, which is who you are and what you bring to the interaction. Your needs, desires, values, personality, etc., all form the psychological context. ("You" here refers to both participants in the interaction.)
- *Relational context*, which concerns your reactions to the other person.
- *Situational context* deals with the psycho-social "where" you are communicating. An interaction that takes place in a classroom will be very different from one that takes place in a bar.
- *Environmental context* deals with the physical "where" you are communicating. Furniture, location, noise level, temperature, season, time of day, all are examples of factors in the environmental context.
- *Cultural context* includes all the learned behaviors and rules that affect the interaction. If you come from a culture (foreign or within your own country) where it is considered rude to make long, direct eye contact, you will out of politeness avoid eye contact. If the other person comes from a culture where long, direct eye contact



signals trustworthiness, then we have in the cultural context a basis for misunderstanding.

### **3. Interpersonal Communication Styles**

In general terms, interpersonal communication can be classified as either *one-way* or *two-way*. *Oneway communication* occurs when the sender transmits information in the form of direction, without any expectation of discussion or feedback. For example, a manager may stop by an employee's desk to inform him that a certain project will be due the following day. One-way communication is faster and easier for the sender – because he or she does not have to deal with potential questions or disagreement from the receiver – but tends to be overused in business situations.

In contrast, *two-way communication* involves the sharing of information between two or more parties in a constructive exchange. For example, a manager may hold a staff meeting in order to establish the due dates for a number of projects. Engaging in two-way communication indicates that the sender is receptive to feedback and willing to provide a response. Although it is more difficult and time-consuming for the sender than one-way communication, it also ensures a more accurate understanding of the message.

In addition to being classified as one-way or two-way, interpersonal communication can also be broken down into a variety of styles, or specialized sets of behaviors. There are six main styles of interpersonal communication: controlling, egalitarian, structuring, dynamic, relinquishing, and withdrawal.

*The controlling style* is a form of one-way communication that is used to direct others and gain their compliance. The controlling style can be effective when it is used on occasion by respected individuals, particularly in times of crisis, it can also alienate workers. In contrast, *the egalitarian style* is a form of two-way communication that involves sharing information rather than directing behavior. It is used to stimulate others to express their ideas and opinions in order to reach a mutual

understanding. In most situations – particularly when cooperation is needed – it is more effective than the controlling style.

*The structuring style* of interpersonal communication is used to establish schedules or impose organization. The structuring style may be necessary to inform others of goals or procedures when complex tasks must be performed by a group, it should usually be counterbalanced with the egalitarian style. *The dynamic style* is a high-energy approach that uses inspirational pleas to motivate another person to take action. This style can be effective in crisis situations, but it is generally ineffective when the receivers do not have enough knowledge or experience to take the required action.

*The relinquishing style* of interpersonal communication is deferential rather than directive. It is highly receptive to the ideas of others, to the point of shifting responsibility for communication to the receiver. For example, a manager employing this style might allow her staff to discuss and develop the final solution to a problem while making little comment. This style is particularly effective when the receivers have the knowledge, experience, and willingness to assume responsibility. *The withdrawal style* is more like a lack of communication. Managers using this style try to avoid using their influence and may indicate a disinterest or unwillingness to participate in the discussion.

Finally, an often overlooked element of interpersonal communication is being a good receiver, which involves developing listening skills. Good listening skills can be vital in finding a solution to grievances or even in making sales calls. Listening involves showing an interest in the speaker, concentrating on the message, and asking questions to ensure understanding. One useful listening technique is reflection, or attempting to repeat and clarify the other person's message rather than immediately responding to it with a message of your own. Used correctly, reflection can allow managers to view issues from their employees' point of view.

Some other keys to effective listening include: keeping an open mind rather than allowing emotions to intervene; finding a part of the subject that may have application to your own experience; and resisting distractions such as the speaker's mannerisms or clothing. It also helps to be prepared for the discussion, to take notes as needed, and to summarize the speaker's statements.

#### **4. The Process of Interpersonal Communication**

Although interpersonal communication can encompass oral, written, and nonverbal forms of communication, the term is usually applied to spoken communication that takes place between two or more individuals on a personal, face-to-face level. Some of the types of interpersonal communication that are commonly used within a business organization include staff meetings, formal project discussions, employee performance reviews, and informal chats. Interpersonal communication with those outside of the business organization can take a variety of forms as well, including client meetings, employment interviews, or sales visits. In order to understand the principles of effective interpersonal communication, it is helpful to look at the basic process of communication.

The basic process of communication begins when a fact is observed or an idea formulated by one person. That person (the sender) decides to translate the observation into a message, and then transmits the message through some communication medium to another person (the receiver). The receiver then must interpret the message and provide feedback to the sender indicating that the message has been understood and appropriate action taken.

Unfortunately, errors can be introduced during any phase of the communication process. For example, misunderstandings can occur when the sender does not possess a clear idea of the message he or she is trying to communicate, or has a clear idea but is not able to express it well. Errors in the process can also occur when the receiver does not listen carefully, infers a

different meaning than what was intended by the sender, or fails to provide feedback.

### **5. Interpersonal Space**

In order to choose a required behavioural pattern and a form of address to another person, it is necessary to look into the situation, to understand a context in which the interaction takes place. Determination of the situation that functions as human orientation in a social environment is also an important forming element of the interpersonal interaction. Conditions of a successful communication are connected with the creation of "common social reality", common "here and now" by its participants, where the message exchange may take place, and, therefore, beyond which communication is not possible at all. Sometimes researchers call this precondition as a conventional aspect of interpersonal communication. The interpersonal interaction is a concerted action of communication performed by two partners, who are socially and psychologically different but at the same time interdependent in the realization of their intentions. The communicative situation is initially unbalanced and psychologically tense. Some critical moments always arise when it comes to the choice of the interaction aims for the communicants and this turns the communication process into the subject of negotiations. The result of these "negotiations", according to I.Hoffman (1922-1982), creates a "working agreement", which means that the participants form a common view on the situation that suggests not only a common consent to the existing circumstances, but also the consensus as to whose claims will be accepted by all the participants. Having identified the type of a social situation, the interaction participants start developing their grounds, which will allow them to prevail in the given circumstances.

The interpersonal interaction can be understood as a construction or formation of the interpersonal space (the organization of all the elements of interaction in a certain order). It includes:

- a choice of the attitude to another person, an adjustment to the attitudes of each other;
- a clear definition of spatial and time boundaries of the interaction situation, outside of which a chosen attitude becomes unsuitable;
- a demonstration of the chosen attitude by using verbal and non-verbal means of communication.

Spatial structuring of the interaction is accompanied with symbolic marking of the structure reflected in "body language" symbols (mimics, looks, gestures etc.), and in the personalization of space. *Vertical* and *horizontal* spatial characteristics of the interpersonal interaction are specified by E.L.Dotsenko.

A vertical component is reflected in the conventional mutual positioning of the communication partners: looking down on the partner; being on a level with the partner; being submissive to the partner; being isolated from the partner's position. The position when the partner looks down on his interlocutor may take a form of teaching, blaming, censuring, rebuking, haughty or condescending intonations, backslapping, giving a hand palm down etc. The position of a subordinate partner presupposes a certain behavioral stereotype. In this position a person demonstrates dependence, need for protection, and lack of initiative and power. A submissive position of the partner is expressed in a request, apology, justifying oneself, a guilty or ingratiating intonation, bending of the body, lowering one's head etc. The position of equality of sides also requires appropriate verbal and non-verbal forms of behavior: a calm look into the interlocutor's eyes, a frank expression of feelings and desires, well-grounded statements and readiness to listen to criticism with the discussion to follow, etc. The ability to change modes of interaction according to the situation and the aims, the repertoire of the positions, which a person is able to use, is one of the important characteristics of the competent communicator.

A horizontal component of the interpersonal interaction is reflected in the usage (or in the refusal to use) interpersonal barriers, which stand on the way when people's relations become closer, and a definite interpersonal distance is supposed. The obstacles in such communication may be external physical barriers and some psychological obstacles: a table, a chair, arms crossed on the breast, a position when one leg is crossed over the other, pauses, stops, changing the subject of the conversation. The reticence of any of the interlocutors may also be an obstacle and create a certain distance between people (for example, in the expression of emotions, moral or religious value orientation, erudition etc.). According to the social psychologists, a total absence of interpersonal distance (intimate, personal area. is abnormal. Spatial characteristics of the interpersonal interaction include the ways of marking out and defining the territory considered by an individual "his/her own". It may be a physical territory: an office, a working table, a patch under his legs in a crowded bus; on the emotional level it is the right for his own mood, his own attitude towards something or somebody; on the role level it is the right to choose a profession, an individual way to fulfilling his/her work.

Thus, space created in the process of interpersonal interaction with its horizontal, vertical and territorial changes becomes a factor that influences the success or failure of the interaction, its character and perspectives.

### **6. Difficult Situations in Interpersonal Communication**

Among typical social situations of interpersonal interaction the so-called difficult or stressful ones are defined. A stressful situation is a situation which causes some stress or alarm in a person who experiences or perceives it. M. Argyle (1981) gives the following definition of a stressful situation: "A given situation makes us feel a certain anxiety or discomfort either because we don't know how to act, or because it makes us experience fear, confusion or uneasiness" [M.Argyle,

1981:220]. Such elements and stages of a stressful situation develop in order to help people to behave more successfully.

The following situations of interpersonal interaction are defined to be stressful:

- 1) situations of disapproval or criticism from other people;
- 2) situations of public speech and social activity;
- 3) situations of confrontation and expression of dissatisfaction;
- 4) situations of sexual contact;
- 5) situations of intimacy in communication;
- 6) situations of conflict or reject from the parents;
- 7) situations of loss of a dear person or some important relations.

A source of alarm or anxiety in the given situations may be connected with the subjective conditions in communication between the participants, and with the parameters of the situation itself. Stress may create difficulties in the situation orientation: a target structure of the situation is sometimes very difficult; a person may be unconscious of his/her basic aims or the aims of his/her interaction partner, or may pursue objectives inappropriate in the given situation; this may lead to an inner conflict or a conflict with other people. Stress may be caused by strict or unclear rules which must be followed. Some situations turn out to be difficult as they require knowledge of concepts specific for this situation. It may happen, for example, during debates, auctions, funerals, fights, which involve certain concepts, and in order to take part in them, one should understand these concepts. Situations reflecting certain rituals are estimated as difficult in case people are not acquainted with the consequences, meaning or the aims of the ritualized acts or when they don't know how to behave themselves.

### **7. The Axioms of Interpersonal Communication**

An American psychologist P.Watzlawick (1967) described some pragmatic features of communication which are important in the context of interpersonal interaction. He deduced axioms of human communication. The recognition of pragmatic

features makes it possible to explain the notion of 'pathological communication' introduced by the scholar. Pathological communication is caused by the complications that can lead to deadlocks in interpersonal communication. The most important axioms of interpersonal communication are:

Axiom 1. *The impossibility of absence of communication.*

If we agree that any behavior in the interaction situation has some informational value it becomes obvious that no matter how hard one can try he/she cannot but enter the communication process. Our active or passive actions, uttering the words or keeping silent are the ways to transfer information. While transferring information we influence other people who in their turn cannot avoid answering and consequently enter communication themselves. If people keep silent or seem indifferent to each other it doesn't show they are not communicating. For example, a man at a bar counter looking straight forward or a passenger sitting in a plane his eyes closed – both of them inform clearly about their unwillingness to talk to anyone and people around them usually understand these messages and leave them alone. Evidently these situations are the examples of the same communication as lively discussions.

A range of *escape-from-communication strategies* (or messages about the unwillingness to enter communication) can be distinguished:

- A direct demonstration (more or less rude) of unwillingness to communicate. Such behavior doesn't correspond to the norms of politeness and requires certain courage from the side of communicators as it creates tense and leads to awkward silence that by itself is a sort of communication.
- A strategy of minimal resistance when one of the communicators assents unwillingly or admits everything.
- A communication disqualification when the actions of one of the communicators nullify his own messages and the messages of other person. A wide range of communication phenomena belongs to this technique:



contradictory statements, inconsistency, incomplete sentences, misunderstanding, obscure or affected speech, literal interpretation of metaphors or metaphorical understanding of literal remarks, etc.

- An acceptable for the interlocutor reasons for undesirable at the moment communication. A person can pretend to be asleep, deaf, drunk, not understanding the language of the interlocutor or find some other ways to indicate that communication is impossible. In all these cases the message remains the same: “I wouldn’t mind talking to you but there is something that prevents communication, something in which I am not to blame”.

*Axiom 2. Any communication has the content level and the relation level.*

In the process of communication the information is transferred and simultaneously a type of relations between communicators is identified. The content is determined level by the information transferred in a message no matter whether the information is true, false, reliable, wrong or problematic. The level of relations sets the way a message should be received. An attitude toward the message can be expressed by verbal and non-verbal means (a cry, a smile, etc.. A character of relations can be clearly understood from the context in which the communication takes place. For example, the content of a phrase “Close the door” is an expectation of a definite action. But this phrase can be pronounced differently: as an order, as a request, as an offer, etc. A chosen way of conveying a message contains information about how the partners see their relations: benevolent or hostile; socially equal or subordinate; whether they feel at ease and comfortably or excited and worried.

In the interpersonal communication the expressiveness of a message is often more important than its content. Researchers believe, the more spontaneous and congenial relations are, the more insignificant the aspect of relations is. On the contrary, uncongenial relations are characterized by a constant struggle for the nature of relations and the content of communication

becomes less and less important. The shift of content and relation levels often leads to communication derangement.

*Axiom 3. The punctuation of the sequence of events.*

People organize their communication relying on their own understanding of what is important or insignificant, what are the causes and effects of their actions, how they interpret the events. These person attitudes establish the behavioral patterns and influence the undergoing interaction (like punctuation symbols set a sentence sense).

Discrepancy in punctuating the sequence of events leads to endless problems in relationships. We are not sure that our interlocutor keeps the same information scope and will draw the same conclusion from this information. The choice of what is important and insignificant varies with different people. In all cases of uncoordinated communicational organization a conflict concerning the cause and the effect of communication arises. An example of a pathological communication with the discrepancy of causes and sequences is an effect of a “self-fulfilling prophecy”. For example, a person building his/her behavior on condition “nobody loves me” will behave suspiciously demonstrating lots of defense reactions or aggression. Such behavior will hardly stir up sympathy and positive emotions in the people around. At the same time a person erroneously thinks that he/she simply reacts to the attitude of the people but doesn’t provoke it. In this case that is a problem of punctuation.

*Axiom 4. Symmetrical and complementary interaction.*

Relations among people are based either on parity or on difference. In the first case partners try to copy the behaviour of each other. Then their relations are called symmetrical. Weakness or strength, morality or immorality do not matter here as parity or equality can be maintained in any of these spheres. In the second case the behaviour of one of the partners is supplement to the behaviour of the other. This type of interaction is called complementary. Symmetrical relations are characterized by equality and difference minimization when the

peculiarity of the complementary interaction is difference maximization.

Two different positions can be distinguished in complementary relations. One partner takes a chief, higher, primary position and another takes a subordinate, lower, secondary position. These notions are not to be compared to words “good” or “bad”, “strong” or “weak”. Complementary relations are influenced by social or cultural environment (a doctor and a patient or a teacher and a pupil relation) or they can present a characteristic style of relations of a certain dyad. An interdependent character of these relations must be emphasized, as different types of behaviour are mutually complemented. It is faulty to think that one of partners has established complementary relations; most likely each of the interlocutors behaves in such a way that it determines and causes the behaviour of the opposite side.

Symmetry and complementarity aren't good or bad, normal or abnormal by themselves. Both types of relations perform important functions. But they are fraught with pathologies. In symmetrical relations there is always a risk of competitiveness, escalation of parity in the interaction, which leads to instability and communication failure resulting in fights and conflicts between the communicators. Thus, pathology in symmetrical relations is accompanied by more or less open hostility.

In congenial symmetrical relations partners treat each other with respect which results in trust and confidence. When symmetrical relations are broken we observe reprobation rather than ignoring of the other individual. Pathological changes of complementary relations in their turn show themselves in ignoring but not reprobating of the other communicator (for example, a mother who continues talking with her grown-up son like with a child).

*Axiom 5. Communication can be intentional and unintentional, efficient and inefficient.*

It is not right to consider that communication occurs only when it is unconditioned and conscious, i.e. when some mutual

understanding is achieved. As a rule people are careful in their behavior (speech, manners) especially in non-casual situations. However, people often act hastily and later regret of the action: a person sitting next can hear a remark pronounced in a low voice hoping a remark is not heard; people can fly into temper paying no attention to how a remark will be interpreted. Undesirable consequences to which unintentional communication may lead require a so-called “face saving”. A sociologist I.Hoffmann says that a member of any group is expected to have not only self-respect but also certain sensitivity. A person witnessing humiliation of the others and remaining calm has a reputation of “heartless”. A person calmly enduring actions that jeopardize his own grace and honour is considered “barefaced”.

*Axiom 6. Communication is irreversible.*

Sometimes communicators wish to turn time back, to correct words or actions but unfortunately it is not possible. The explanations, apology or corrections can moderate offence but it is very difficult to change the impression.

### ***Check Yourself:***

1. What is the primary distinction between direct and indirect channels in interpersonal communication?
  - a. Direct channels are subconscious and not controlled by the sender.
  - b. Indirect channels are easily recognized by the receiver.
  - c. Direct channels involve controlled body movements.
  - d. Indirect channels consist of verbal and non-verbal information.
2. Which of the following is a principle underlying interpersonal communication that emphasizes the complexity of the process?
  - a. Communication is irreversible.
  - b. Communication is inescapable.
  - c. Communication is contextual.
  - d. Communication is complicated.

3. In interpersonal communication, what does the relational context refer to?
  - a. The psychological background of participants.
  - b. The immediate surroundings of communication.
  - c. Reactions to the other person.
  - d. The physical environment during communication.
4. What characterizes the controlling style of interpersonal communication?
  - a. It involves a constructive exchange of information.
  - b. It is used for motivational purposes.
  - c. It is effective in crisis situations.
  - d. It directs others and seeks compliance.
5. What is a crucial aspect of being a good receiver in interpersonal communication?
  - a. Demonstrating a lack of interest.
  - b. Expressing disagreement promptly.
  - c. Developing listening skills.
  - d. Avoiding open-mindedness.
6. Which term is used to describe spoken communication that takes place on a personal, face-to-face level in interpersonal communication?
  - a. Nonverbal communication.
  - b. Oral communication.
  - c. Informal communication.
  - d. Written communication.
7. What is the term for the organization of all elements of interaction in a certain order in interpersonal interaction?
  - a. Environmental context.
  - b. Relational context.
  - c. Interpersonal space.
  - d. Communication space.
8. According to the axioms of interpersonal communication, what is Axiom 3 about?
  - a. The punctuation of the sequence of events.
  - b. Any communication has the content and relation level.
  - c. The impossibility of absence of communication.

- d. Symmetrical and complementary interaction.
- 9. What type of communication involves copying the behavior of each other, resulting in equality and minimized differences?
  - a. Symmetrical.
  - b. Controlling.
  - c. Relinquishing.
  - d. Egalitarian.
- 10. Why is unintentional communication significant in interpersonal interactions?
  - a. It always leads to efficient outcomes.
  - b. It ensures conscious and intentional understanding.
  - c. People often act hastily, leading to regrettable consequences.
  - d. It is reversible and easily corrected.

### *Questions for self-control*

1. How is interpersonal communication defined by communication scholars?
2. Name and explain two distinct forms of communication channels.
3. What does context of communication refer to?
4. Name and explain four principles of interpersonal communication.
5. Why is interpersonal communication contextual?
6. When does oneway communication occur?
7. What is meant by two-way communication?
8. Speak of main styles of interpersonal communication.
9. Why is a good receiver an important element of interpersonal communication?
10. Describe the basic process of interpersonal communication?
11. What does the interpersonal space include?
12. What is a vertical component of a spatial structuring of the interaction?
13. What makes a horizontal component of the interpersonal interaction?

14. Give the definition of a stressful situation. What can cause a stressful situation?
15. What situations are defined to be stressful?
16. What can cause 'pathological communication'?
17. Dwell upon the axioms of interpersonal communication.

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# CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

- 1. The Definition of Cross-Cultural Communication*
- 2. Cross-Cultural Communication Strategies*
- 3. Time and Space*
- 4. Fate and Personal Responsibility*
- 5. Face and Face-Saving*
- 6. Nonverbal Communication Across Cultures*
- 7. Levels of Cross-Cultural Communication*
- 8. Hints of Successful Cross-Cultural Communication*

## **1. The Definition of Cross-Cultural Communication**

Cross-cultural communication (intercultural communication) is a field of study that looks at how people from differing cultural backgrounds endeavour to communicate. The study of cross-cultural communication was originally found within businesses and the government both seeking to expand globally. Businesses began to offer language training to their employees. Businesses found that their employees were ill equipped for overseas work in the globalizing market. Programs developed to train employees to understand how to act when abroad. Current cross-cultural training in businesses does not only focus on language training but also includes focus on culture training.

Cross-cultural communication tries to bring together such relatively unrelated areas as cultural anthropology and established areas of communication. Its core is to establish and understand how people from different cultures communicate with each other. Its charge is to also produce some guidelines with which people from different cultures can better communicate with each other.

Cross-cultural communication, as in many scholarly fields, is a combination of many other fields. These fields include anthropology, cultural studies, psychology and communication. The field has also moved both toward the treatment of



interethnic relations, and toward the study of communication strategies.

As the application of cross-cultural communication theory to foreign language education is increasingly appreciated around the world, cross-cultural communication classes can be found within foreign language departments of some universities, while other schools are placing cross-cultural communication programs in their departments of education.

## **2. Cross-Cultural Communication Strategies**

The key to effective cross-cultural communication is knowledge. First, it is essential that people understand the potential problems of cross-cultural communication, and make a conscious effort to overcome these problems. Second, it is important to assume that one's efforts will not always be successful, and adjust one's behavior appropriately. For example, one should always assume that there is a significant possibility that cultural differences are causing communication problems, and be willing to be patient and forgiving, rather than hostile and aggressive, if problems develop.

Often intermediaries who are familiar with both cultures can be helpful in cross-cultural communication situations. They can translate both the substance and the manner of what is said. For instance, they can tone down strong statements that would be considered appropriate in one culture but not in another, before they are given to people from a culture that does not talk together in such a strong way. They can also adjust the timing of what is said and done. Some cultures move quickly to the point; others talk about other things long enough to establish rapport or a relationship with the other person. If discussion on the primary topic begins too soon, the group that needs a "warm up" first will feel uncomfortable. A mediator or intermediary who understands this can explain the problem, and make appropriate procedural adjustments.

Yet sometimes intermediaries can make communication even more difficult. If a mediator is the same culture or nationality as one of the disputants, but not the other, this gives

the appearance of bias, even when none exists. Even when bias is not intended, it is common for mediators to be more supportive or more understanding of the person who is of his or her own culture, simply because they understand them better. Yet when the mediator is of a third cultural group, the potential for cross-cultural misunderstandings increases further. In this case engaging in extra discussions about the process and the manner of carrying out the discussions is appropriate, as is extra time for confirming and re-confirming understandings at every step in the dialogue or negotiating process.

All communication is cultural – it draws on ways we have learned to speak and give nonverbal messages. We do not always communicate the same way from day to day, since factors like context, individual personality, and mood interact with the variety of cultural influences we have internalized that influence our choices. Communication is interactive, so an important influence on its effectiveness is our relationship with others.

The challenge is that even with all the good will in the world, miscommunication is likely to happen, especially when there are significant cultural differences between communicators. Miscommunication may lead to conflict, or aggravate conflict that already exists. We make -- whether it is clear to us or not -- quite different meaning of the world, our places in it, and our relationships with others. In this course, cross-cultural communication will be outlined and demonstrated by examples of ideas, attitudes, and behaviors involving four variables:

- Time and Space
- Fate and Personal Responsibility
- Face and Face-Saving
- Nonverbal Communication

As our familiarity with these different starting points increases, we are cultivating cultural fluency – awareness of the ways cultures operate in communication and conflict, and the ability to respond effectively to these differences.

### **3. Time and Space**

Time is one of the most central differences that separate cultures and cultural ways of doing things. In the West, time tends to be seen as quantitative, measured in units that reflect the march of progress. It is logical, sequential, and present-focused, moving with incremental certainty toward a future the ego cannot touch and a past that is not a part of now. The United States can be called a "chronocracy," in which there is such reverence for efficiency and the success of economic endeavors that the expression "time is money" is frequently heard. This approach to time is called monochronic – it is an approach that favors one event at a time.

In the East, time feels like it has unlimited continuity, an unraveling rather than a strict boundary. Birth and death are not such absolute ends since the universe continues and humans, though changing form, continue as part of it. People may attend to many things happening at once in this approach to time, called polychronous. This may mean many conversations in a moment (such as a meeting in which people speak simultaneously, "talking over" each other as they discuss their subjects).

Differences over time can play out in painful and dramatic ways in negotiation or conflict-resolution processes. As people from different cultural backgrounds work together to design a process to address the issues that divide them, they can ask questions about cultural preferences about time and space and how these may affect a negotiation or conflict-resolution process, and thus inoculate against the use of culture as a tactic or an instrument to advance power.

### **4. Fate and Personal Responsibility**

Another important variable affecting communication across cultures is fate and personal responsibility. This refers to the degree to which we feel ourselves the masters of our lives, versus the degree to which we see ourselves as subject to things outside our control. Another way to look at this is to ask how

much we see ourselves able to change and maneuver, to choose the course of our lives and relationships.

Some scientists have drawn a parallel between the emphasis on personal responsibility in North American settings and the landscape itself. The North American landscape is vast, with large spaces of unpopulated territory. The frontier mentality of "conquering" the wilderness, and the expansiveness of the land stretching huge distances, may relate to generally high levels of confidence in the ability to shape and choose our destinies. In this expansive landscape, many children grow up with an epic sense of life, where ideas are big, and hope springs eternal. When they experience setbacks, they are encouraged to redouble their efforts, to "try, try again."

Now consider places in the world with much smaller territory, whose history reflects repeated conquest and harsh struggles: Northern Ireland, Mexico, Israel, Palestine. In these places, there is more emphasis on destiny's role in human life. In Mexico, there is a legacy of poverty, invasion, and territorial mutilation. Mexicans are more likely to see struggles as inevitable or unavoidable. Their fatalistic attitude is expressed in their way of responding to failure or accident by saying "ni modo" ("no way" or "tough luck"), meaning that the setback was destined.

This variable is important to understanding cultural conflict. If someone invested in free will crosses paths with someone more fatalistic in orientation, miscommunication is likely. The first person may expect action and accountability. Failing to see it, they may conclude that the second is lazy, obstructionist, or dishonest. The second person will expect respect for the natural order of things. Failing to see it, they may conclude that the first is coercive or irreverent, inflated in his ideas of what can be accomplished or changed.

### **5. Face and Face-Saving**

.Another important cultural variable relates to face and face-saving. Face is important across cultures, yet the dynamics of face and face-saving play out differently. Face is defined in

many different ways in the cross-cultural communication literature. It is the value or standing a person has in the eyes of others...and that it relates to pride or self-respect." It is also defined as "the negotiated public image, mutually granted each other by participants in [communication]. In this broader definition, face includes ideas of status, power, courtesy, insider and outsider relations, humor, and respect. In many cultures, maintaining face is of great importance, though ideas of how to do this vary.

The starting points of individualism and communitarianism are closely related to face. If I see myself as a self-determining individual, then face has to do with preserving my image with others and myself. I can and should exert control in situations to achieve this goal. I may do this by taking a competitive stance in negotiations or confronting someone who I perceive to have wronged me. I may be comfortable in a mediation where the other party and I meet face to face and frankly discuss our differences. If I see my primary identification as a group member, then considerations about face involve my group. Direct confrontation or problem-solving with others may reflect poorly on my group, or disturb overall community harmony. I may prefer to avoid criticism of others, even when the disappointment I have concealed may come out in other, more damaging ways later. When there is conflict that cannot be avoided, I may prefer a third party who acts as a shuttle between me and the other people involved in the conflict. Since no direct confrontation takes place, face is preserved and potential damage to the relationships or networks of relationships is minimized.

## **6. Nonverbal Communication Across Cultures**

Nonverbal communication is hugely important in any interaction with others; its importance is multiplied across cultures. This is because we tend to look for nonverbal cues when verbal messages are unclear or ambiguous, as they are more likely to be across cultures (especially when different languages are being used). Since nonverbal behavior arises

from our cultural common sense – our ideas about what is appropriate, normal, and effective as communication in relationships – we use different systems of understanding gestures, posture, silence, spacial relations, emotional expression, touch, physical appearance, and other nonverbal cues. Cultures also attribute different degrees of importance to verbal and nonverbal behavior.

Low-context cultures like the United States and Canada tend to give relatively less emphasis to nonverbal communication. This does not mean that nonverbal communication does not happen, or that it is unimportant, but that people in these settings tend to place less importance on it than on the literal meanings of words themselves. In high-context settings such as Japan or Colombia, understanding the nonverbal components of communication is relatively more important to receiving the intended meaning of the communication as a whole.

Some elements of nonverbal communication are consistent across cultures. For example, research has shown that the emotions of enjoyment, anger, fear, sadness, disgust, and surprise are expressed in similar ways by people around the world. Differences surface with respect to emotions, acceptable to display in various cultural settings. For instance, it may be more socially acceptable for women to show fear, but not anger, and for men to display anger, but not fear. At the same time, interpretation of facial expressions across cultures is difficult. In China and Japan, for example, a facial expression that would be recognized around the world as conveying happiness may actually express anger or mask sadness. These differences of interpretation may lead to conflict, or escalate existing conflict. Suppose a Japanese person is explaining her absence from negotiations due to a death in her family. She may do so with a smile, based on her cultural belief that it is not appropriate to inflict the pain of grief on others. For a Westerner who understands smiles to mean friendliness and happiness, this smile may seem incongruous and even cold, under the circumstances. Even though some facial expressions

may be similar across cultures, their interpretations remain culture-specific. It is important to understand something about cultural starting-points and values in order to interpret emotions expressed in cross-cultural interactions.

Another variable across cultures has to do with proxemics, or ways of relating to space. Crossing cultures, we encounter very different ideas about polite space for conversations and negotiations. North Americans tend to prefer a large amount of space, perhaps because they are surrounded by it in their homes and countryside. Europeans tend to stand more closely with each other when talking, and are accustomed to smaller personal spaces. In a comparison of North American and Ukrainian children on a beach, we notice that the Ukrainian children tend to stay in a relatively small space near their parents, while the U.S. children rang up and down a large area of the beach.

The difficulty with space preferences is not that they exist, but the judgments that get attached to them. If someone is accustomed to standing or sitting very close when they are talking with another, they may see the other's attempt to create more space as evidence of coldness, condescension, or a lack of interest. Those who are accustomed to more personal space may view attempts to get closer as pushy, disrespectful, or aggressive. Neither is correct – they are simply different.

Also related to space is the degree of comfort we feel moving furniture or other objects. It is said that a German executive working in the United States became so upset with visitors to his office moving the guest chair to suit themselves that he had it bolted to the floor. Contrast this with U.S. and Canadian mediators and conflict-resolution trainers, whose first step in preparing for a meeting is not infrequently a complete rearrangement of the furniture.

These examples of differences related to nonverbal communication are only the tip of the iceberg. Careful observation, ongoing study from a variety of sources, and cultivating relationships across cultures will all help develop

the cultural fluency to work effectively with nonverbal communication differences.

*Summary.* Each of the variables discussed – time and space, personal responsibility and fate, face and face-saving, and nonverbal communication – are much more complex than it is possible to convey. Each of them influences the course of communications, and can be responsible for conflict or the escalation of conflict when it leads to miscommunication or misinterpretation. A culturally-fluent approach to conflict means working over time to understand these and other ways communication varies across cultures, and applying these understandings in order to enhance relationships across differences.

### **7. Levels of Cross-Cultural Communication**

The cross-cultural communication appears either on the group level or on the individual level. It is possible to study a communicative process among different cultural groups (small and big) or among individuals. The majority of researches carried on the group level bears the character of cultural-anthropological and social studies that view a cultural group as a collective unity and try to comprehend it integrally.

*Interpersonal level of communication.* A final subject of cross-cultural communication is a person himself. Individuals enter a direct interaction with each other. At the same time voluntarily or not, people form public groups marked by cultural peculiarities. Behavior of every person is determined by a system of public relations and culture. Every member of intercultural communication possesses his/her own system of rules conditioned by his/her socio-cultural membership. Differences in these rules are viewed as the differences of verbal and non-verbal codes in a specific context of the intercultural communication. In a direct communication the representatives of different cultures must overcome not only the language barriers, but also the barriers of non-linguistic character, which reflect ethno-national and socio-cultural specifics of the world perception, national peculiarities of



thinking, specific mimic and pantomimic codes used by representatives of different linguo-cultural communities. The success or failure in communication depends whether the members of communication trust each other. Such confidence is determined by two factors – a personality of the interlocutor and his specific knowledge. It should be taken into consideration, that the process of communication and message interpretation in cross-cultural communication (except cultural differences) are also influenced by age, sex, profession, a social status of communicants.

*Cross-cultural communication in small groups* assumes different forms: planned negotiations, for example, between the representatives of governmental institutions or business organizations from the countries with different cultures; unplanned communication, for example, during a tourist trip, conferences or academic seminars. In the last case the representatives of one culture try to hold together, and the harmonization of the relations between two cultural groups requires much time and effort.

Communication in a small group, which consists of the representatives of different cultures, may be fruitful only in case when its participants are able to adapt their communicative actions to the specific conditions of a given group. Members of monocultural groups usually follow general group regulations, while the members of intercultural groups act as the representatives of their own cultures, and their specific values influence greatly the character of communication. In order to achieve an effective communication in small groups, communicators must adapt the cultural values and beliefs of the foreign members of the group. In the intercultural groups the participants express stereotypes of their culture unintentionally (from force of habit), and their behavior in communication are influenced by many cultural factors. It does not mean that the communicants should try to change their cultural values or the cultural values of their partners in order to achieve consensus. Just the other way round, it is more reasonable to solve the

problems when nobody goes beyond the scope of his own culture. Sometimes a cultural system does not allow introducing changes recommended by rational projects and programs. In this case a practical solution which requires no sweeping of cultural changes must be found.

*Cross-cultural communication in large groups.* When cross-cultural communication takes place among large groups of people, the ethnic and national levels of communication are emphasized.

Ethnic cross-cultural interaction takes place among local ethnic groups, ethno-linguistic, historical and ethnographic (on the common spiritual culture), ethno-confessional and other communities. In modern ethnology, an ethnic group is a historically rooted in a particular area group of people sharing common culture, self-consciousness and business administration. The ethnic unity is based on blood ties among groups of people forming an ethnic group. Ethnic culture shows itself in everyday life and includes ethnic language, manners, customs, common laws, values, knowledge, beliefs, forms of folk art, tools, clothing, food, buildings, vehicles, etc.

Like any other culture, ethnic culture exists as a unity of succession and renewal. The renewal of culture can be endogenous (arising within the culture without outside influence) and exogenous (which is the result of cross-cultural communication). Mutual assimilation of culture contributes to the integration process, cross-cultural exchange and enrichment, and the increasing ethnic identity strives to consolidate the ethnic peculiarity. Culture of an ethnic group provides not only its integration and stability as a system; it also distinguishes "familiar" and "strange". Every ethnic group perceives the existence of other ethnic groups as an external phenomenon and differentiates their lifestyle and cultural dissimilarities. Due to cultural contacts the interethnic culture is formed. The elements of interethnic culture primarily include languages of interethnic communication, not necessarily having a clear national attachment.

National peculiarities in cross-cultural communication are possible when the national unity exists. The national unity emerges on mono-ethnic and multi-ethnic bases of a common business activity and public-political union. This process is complemented by the formation of culture.

National culture is a set of traditions, norms, values and rules of behavior common for people of one nation or state. Any nation implies a state-organized society; a society is characterized by some stratification and social structure, so the notion of a national culture includes the subculture of social groups, which ethnic culture may not have.

Ethnic cultures may be parts of a national culture, as well as cultures of other nations. Thus, the American national culture is extremely heterogeneous, it includes Irish, German, Italian, Chinese, Japanese, Mexican and other cultures. Most of the national cultures are multiethnic, but unlike ethnic cultures, the national cultures unite people living on large territories and do not necessarily involve kinship relations.

This prompts the variety of cross-cultural communication at the national level: the communication between subcultures within a single national culture and communication between the proper national cultures. Such communications are often of a dual character. They lead, on the one hand, to the national unity (and sometimes supranational consolidation, which the nations of Europe demonstrate today), and, on the other hand, to conflicts within a state or between states. For example, in India any ethnic, language and religious consolidation cause clashes between members of different ethno-linguistic and religious groups. Many Indian scientists and politicians believe local nationalism causes conflicts and tension, leading to disintegration of the national unity.

Governmental measures to strengthen a territorial and national unity often provoke restriction of rights of the non-indigenous groups and their expatriation. Resorting to such measures aims to reduce competition for the titular ethnic group, to provide access to local resources. These actions often

cause a great economic loss because of the outflow of the active population and the hostility to the neighbors.

### **8. Hints of Successful Cross-Cultural Communication**

The following are suggestions for facilitating the cross-cultural communication process. The suggestions are broad enough to be applicable to a number of situations.

#### **Provide a safe environment:**

- Be aware of situations and settings that are uncomfortable.
- Reduce power dynamics.
- Informal settings usually allow more open communication because it makes people feel more at ease.
- Private settings generally contribute to feelings of safety.

#### **Focus on understanding:**

- Ask open-ended questions.
- Be nonjudgmental.
- Do not express disagreement or conflicting perceptions immediately.

#### **Explore the possibility that what is presented may not be the main issue:**

- Listen to others and give them time to tell their story in their own way and words.
- Trust must develop before others share their vulnerability.
- Trust is earned so it develops over time.
- Root or underlying issues may not surface for weeks, months, or years.

#### **Focus on similarities or common ground:**

- Work
- Families
- Leisure
- Basic human concerns

#### **Be aware of differences in nonverbal communication patterns:**

- Eye contact
- Space
- Touching
- Tone of voice
- Facial expressions

**Treat all people with dignity and respect regardless of diversity issues:**

- Keep an open mind
- Keep it simple
- Speak to the person in a polite manner
- Avoid making judgments and assumptions
- Avoid ethnic, racial and gender jokes

**Respect all people as adults who have the right to make decisions freely:**

- Avoid dictating and giving orders
- Avoid giving commands
- Avoid using slang terms
- Some words are considered “privileged” and only members of that group can respectfully use them

### *Questions for self-control*

1. In what sphere is cross-cultural communication important?
2. What scholarly fields is cross-cultural communication connected with?
3. What is the key to effective cross-cultural communication? Explain your point.
4. What are the reasons of miscommunication?
5. Dwell upon cross-cultural perception of Time and Space.
6. Speak of Fate and Personal Responsibility in different cultures.
7. Explain the understanding of Face and Face-Saving by different nations.

8. Analyze the role of Nonverbal Communication within cross-cultural interactions.
9. How to make a cross-cultural communication successful?
10. What are the levels of cross-cultural communication?
11. What makes the interpersonal level of cross-cultural communication difficult?
12. What are the peculiarities of cross-cultural communication in small groups?
13. When does ethnic cross-cultural interaction take place?
14. What is the difference between ethnic culture and national culture?
15. Give the definition of ethnic culture.
16. Define the term "national culture".

### *Check Yourself*

1. The Definition of Cross-Cultural Communication:
  - a. Cross-cultural communication emerged in response to a globalizing market.
  - b. Language training is the sole focus of cross-cultural training in businesses.
  - c. Culture training is no longer a part of cross-cultural communication.
  - d. Intercultural communication originated solely in government initiatives.
2. Cross-Cultural Communication Strategies involve:
  - a. Cultural knowledge is irrelevant for effective cross-cultural communication.
  - b. Mediators can complicate cross-cultural communication situations.
  - c. Adjusting behavior based on cultural differences is unnecessary.
  - d. Knowledge is crucial for effective cross-cultural communication.
3. Choose the correct option:

- a. Time in the West is polychronic and focused on the present.
  - b. Time in the East is monochronic, linear, and logical.
  - c. Fate and personal responsibility do not influence communication.
  - d. North Americans prefer smaller personal spaces in conversations.
4. Choose the option that is true about Fate and Personal Responsibility:
- a. Personal responsibility is irrelevant in North American settings.
  - b. There is no parallel between landscapes and cultural emphasis on personal responsibility.
  - c. The landscape influences personal responsibility attitudes.
  - d. The emphasis on personal responsibility is consistent globally.
5. Choose the correct option:
- a. Face has a universal definition across cultures.
  - b. Face is not important in maintaining relationships.
  - c. Individualism and communitarianism are unrelated to face.
  - d. Face involves maintaining one's image in the eyes of others.
6. Nonverbal Communication Across Cultures:
- a. Nonverbal communication is less important in low-context cultures.
  - b. Interpretation of facial expressions is consistent across cultures.
  - c. Different cultures use the same systems for understanding nonverbal cues.
  - d. Understanding nonverbal communication is crucial, especially in high-context cultures.
7. Levels of Cross-Cultural Communication
- a. Communication at the group level is more significant than at the individual level.
  - b. Ethnic cross-cultural interaction is solely based on blood ties.
  - c. National culture excludes subcultures.
  - d. National cultures always lead to conflicts within a state.
8. Choose the correct option:

- a. Miscommunication is less likely in the presence of significant cultural differences.
  - b. Conflict is always avoided in cross-cultural communication.
  - c. Communication challenges arise due to cultural differences.
  - d. Cultural fluency has no impact on resolving communication issues.
9. Choose the correct option:
- a. Cultural fluency is irrelevant in cross-cultural communication.
  - b. Understanding cultural variations is only essential for language teachers.
  - c. Cultural fluency enhances relationships across cultural differences.
  - d. Cultural differences should be ignored for effective communication.
10. Choose the correct option:
- a. Ethnic culture has no role in cross-cultural communication among large groups.
  - b. National culture is solely defined by blood ties.
  - c. Cross-cultural communication at the national level always leads to unity.
  - d. National cultures do not involve subcultures.

### ***Recommended Literature***

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## **FORMS OF CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION**

- 1. Acculturation as a Form of Cross-Cultural Communication*
- 2. Cultural Expansion as a Form of Cross-Cultural Communication*
- 3. Cultural Diffusion as a Form of Cross-Cultural Communication*
- 4. Cultural Conflict as a Form of Cross-Cultural Communication*
- 5. Linguistic Aspects of Cross-Cultural Communication*

### **1. Acculturation as a Form of Cross-Cultural Communication**

Cultural contacts are important components in communication among nations. In culture studies the term "acculturation" is used to describe the interaction and reciprocal influence of cultures. Acculturation includes both, the process and the result of mutual influence of different cultures, in which all or some representatives of one culture (the recipients' culture) adopt norms, values and traditions of another culture (the donors' culture). In fact, the notion 'acculturation' is a synonym to the notion 'cross-cultural communication'. It reflects various forms of communication among cultures, where acculturation emerges as a meta form.

In the process of acculturation two or more interacting cultures serve as the donors' culture and the recipients' culture, though the degree of their influence on each other can be uneven. The representatives of one culture can fully accept the values of another culture, reject them or approach them selectively.

Acculturation refers to the processes by which individuals, families, communities, and societies react to inter-cultural contact. Advances in communication and transportation technologies, and increasing migration pressures due to demographic, economic, environmental, human rights, and security disparities, make acculturation one of the most

important topics for applied research in cross-cultural psychology. However, progress in acculturation research has been frustrated by our inability to pit theories against each other in meaningful ways, to summarize results by meta-analytic methods, or to improve constructs and scales all because we have been unaware of the interdisciplinary breadth of acculturation research and its historical depth. This annotated bibliography of acculturation taxonomies presents an accessible historical foundation to the literature on acculturation. The most ancient psychological discussion of acculturation appears to be that of Plato in 348 BC. In the early 19th century, DeTocqueville speculated about acculturation processes in Europe and America. The word "acculturation" was first used in 1880, and by 1900 scholars were already writing histories of acculturation theory. G.Stanley Hall was the first psychologist to write about acculturation, and W.Thomas and F.Znaniecki presented the first full psychological theory in 1918.

Initially acculturation was considered to be the result of a prolonged contact among groups representing different cultures, which resulted in changes of their original cultural patterns. It was believed that cultures got mixed and the cultural and ethnic homogeneity was reached. A less-developed culture was more influenced by the more advanced, but not vice versa.

Within this approach a famous American concept of the "melting pot" originated. According to the concept, cultures of all nations, living in the United States, are mixed and as a result a new homogeneous American culture appears.

In 1935, R.Redfield, R.Linton and M.Herskovits suggested to investigate acculturation through the description of contacts between the recipients' culture and the donors' culture.

The scientists elaborated a classification of the results of interaction among cultures based on the analysis of the contact situations, the involvement into the interaction process separate groups of population or all the population, the causes of involvement, the nature of the borrowed elements, the

resistance to innovations, etc. The classification includes three main types:

- *an assimilation* – a complete replacement of the old culture by the new one;
- *an adaptation* – a partial change of the old culture;
- *a reaction* – a complete rejection of the new culture.

Acculturation is no longer regarded as exclusively a group phenomenon; it is studied at the level of individual behavior, taking into account the change in values orientations, attitudes, role behavior of the individuals. It was found that in the process of acculturation every person solves two major problems: seeks to preserve his cultural identity and to be involved in a foreign culture. The combination of possible solutions of these problems gives four key strategies of acculturation:

- *An assimilation* – a variant of acculturation, in which an individual fully accepts the norms and values of other cultures, giving up his/her values.
- *A separation* – the rejection of a foreign culture while preserving native culture identification. In this case, the representatives of non-dominant groups prefer some isolation from the dominant culture. If such isolation is imposed by the representatives of the dominant culture it is called a *segregation*.
- *A marginalization* – is a loss of identity with the native culture and a lack of identity with the culture of majority. This happens because the individuals are unable to maintain their own cultural identity (usually because of some external reasons), and lack the commitment to obtain a new identity (because of the discrimination or segregation).
- *An integration* – the recognition of the old and the new culture [Grushevitskaya, 2002: 254].

Immigrants who arrive in a foreign country for the permanent residence usually are oriented to assimilation, but as the refugees, forced to leave their motherland, are

psychologically resistant to break ties with it, so the assimilation process in their case is much longer and harder.

The interaction of cultures is not only complementary, but the cultures enter into complex relationships, revealing at the same time their identity and peculiarity. Therefore, a real interaction of cultures reveals both positive (the enrichment of cultures) and negative (the repression or erosion of cultures) consequences.

History of the human society development witnessed many examples of a positive and negative interaction of cultures. For example, culture of Spain, which is located at the crossroads of Christian and Muslim worlds, combines European and Mauritanian elements, manifested in music and architecture. The erosion of ethnic cultures usually takes place, when cultures suffer from a massive impact from the outside; they are not sufficiently stable and able to confront cultural expansion.

Among the factors influencing the nature of acculturation are the following:

- the degree of differentiation of the recipients' culture – it happens in the society with the developed systems of morality, law, art, aesthetics, and philosophy, able to adapt functionally acceptable innovations without undermining the basic cultural structure;
- the duration of the interaction – a prolonged impact, which does not provoke shock and rejection, but habitual and gradual acceptance;
- the political and economic conditions of the interaction – a situation of political and economic domination or dependence, which determines the content of cultural communication. The dependence develops cultural resistance to cultural integration of the oppressed people, when the society mobilizes its spiritual forces for the consolidation of its unity and resistance to oppression [Yerasov, 1998: 425].

Each of these factors modifies the process of acculturation, forming a cultural penetration, cultural diffusion or cultural conflict.

## **2. Cultural Expansion as a Form of Cross-Cultural Communication**

Cultural expansion is defined as a widening of influencing sphere of the dominant culture beyond its initial boundaries or state borders. It is mainly a process of unidirectional cross-cultural communication. Cultural expansion appeared in the period of colonial division of Asia and Africa. A political-economic colonialism provoked a cultural colonialism when some nations and their cultures prevailed over the other. The colonial management policy set limits for autochthonous cultures (prohibiting local languages in the colonial government). This led to the narrowing of the indigenous cultures functioning sphere and slowed down their development.

In the countries where local cultures resisted cultural expansion, a language of the metropolitan country was ousted from all the communication spheres and replaced by an autochthonous language very quickly and easily, or it took some time. Different cultural resistive capacity depends not only on the duration of the colonial supremacy, but also on the national consolidation and the national culture formation.

At the same time the evolution of colonial regimes allowed their people to join the achievements of European civilizations. A cultural policy asserted the European culture universalism, European norms and values, and the necessity to spread European culture in the world, especially among 'undeveloped' races and nations. The 'undeveloped' nations had to impart gradually new principles and mode of live. This policy exercised a "humanistic" approach: the criterion of civilization was not a color of skin or the eyes shape; any nation can be civilized if it quits its national traditions in the process of cultural development. Until the collapse of colonial regimes the aim to civilize "undeveloped" countries served the expansion of

western countries to get advantages in trade, political and cultural spheres.

### **3.Cultural Diffusion as a Form of Crosss-Cultural Communication**

Cultural Diffusion is a reciprocal penetration of culture peculiarities from one society into another during their close cultural contact. Unlike cultural expansion, which has a unidirectional character, cultural diffusion is a double or multi directional process, which depends on the number of interacting cultures expanding their values upon other cultures. The mechanisms of this process are: migration, tourism, missionaries' activity, wars, trade, exhibitions, scientific conferences, students and specialists exchange, etc.

Nations exposed to cultural diffusion are selective in their borrowings from other cultures. Firstly, they borrow something similar to their culture, something that can be understood, evaluated and properly used; secondly, they borrow something that will give benefit, enhance their prestige, advance progress; thirdly, they borrow something that will correspond to their inner needs.

When a society adopts some values, scientific achievements, cultural models, social institutes, it considers all advantages and disadvantages. If profits of the introduced innovation gained by a culture-recipient exceed the expenditures the society will continue cultural borrowings. If the innovation brings no improvement, it has

In this case a cultural borrowing is a purposeful regulated process of cultural diffusion. But cultural diffusion can be spontaneous and uncontrollable; then there is no conscious selection of cultural innovations.

Cultural diffusion can take place not only between two countries and nations, but also among groups (social, demographic, professional, confessional), which are subculture representatives. Then two directions of cultural diffusion are distinguished:

- *a horizontal* distribution of cultural innovations is observed among equal in status groups. It is called an intergroup cultural diffusion (for example, the penetration of urban culture into rural areas);
- *a vertical* distribution of culture elements is possible among individuals of unequal status. It is called a stratificational cultural diffusion (for example, borrowed elements of common people dialects used by the aristocracy).

The result of cultural diffusion is a cultural integration when the interacting cultures combine into one solid unity that provides their interconnection.

#### **4. Cultural Conflict as a Form of Cross-Cultural Communication**

Cultural conflict as a form of intercultural communication assumes a collision between subjects of culture, who are the bearers of different cultural values and norms. The cause of cultural conflicts is a cultural difference between nations or differences inside the society, which can lead to antagonisms or even a direct collision. A modern society is heterogeneous in its cultural aspect that is why tensions and conflicts of different values systems will always occur.

We distinguish several types of cultural conflicts:

- conflicts among different ethnic groups and their cultures (the Russians and the Caucasian, the Americans and the Indians, etc.);
- conflicts among religious groups, representatives of different religions (religious wars in Europe, a conflict between Catholics and Protestants in Northern Ireland, between Catholics and Uniates in western Ukraine, etc.);
- conflicts among generations, representatives of different subcultures (a conflict between parents and children);



- conflicts among various parts of one dominating culture (for example, in one society there exist different attitudes toward divorce, abortions, etc.);
- conflicts among traditions and innovations in culture (such conflicts appear in the societies undergoing changes, for example, in Ukraine. A transfer to the market economy needs new values orientations, which are in conflict with the socialistic values of the greater part of the Ukrainian population);
- conflicts among different linguo-cultural societies and their representatives that are the result of language barriers and interpretative errors.

Cultural conflicts appear on a group level, but they also take place on an individual level, as a carrier of culture is an individual. The most obvious example of a cultural collision is observed in the communication with foreigners.

The prevention of conflicts, the effective intercultural communication, the intercommunication among people of different cultures (subcultures, nationalities, etc.) are inseparable from knowledge of the partner's language and understanding of sociocultural factors. Causes of conflicts in cross-cultural communication are not only cultural differences. An actual interaction implies various interpenetrating factors, such as authority and status, social stratification, generation gap, ownership differentiation, etc. A lack of knowledge of cultural peculiarities of the interlocutors is not the only reason of intercultural conflicts.

### **5. Linguistic Aspects of Cross-Cultural Communication**

Cross-cultural communication implies communication between representatives of different cultures, in the course of which at least one representative speaks a foreign language. In our global village the English language is an international language of communication; very often both sides of communication do not speak their native languages, but use English bringing into

it their own cultural shades.

A verbal supply of cross-cultural communication proves to be the most important (the establishment of personal contacts, phone communication, correspondence exchange, negotiations, meetings, conferences, seminars, etc.). A language is a major distinctive character of culture and a major medium in the cross-cultural communication process.

A successful cross-cultural communication depends not only on language knowledge but on the ability to interpret adequately a communicative behavior of a foreign representative and the readiness to acceptance it; the understanding of all differences in the cultures is of vital importance too.

The major problem of cross-cultural communication is understanding. To solve it one has to remember that a language is only a device for conveying the information, it creates the communication environment. Understanding in cross-cultural communication is a complex interpretation process depending on several linguistic and non-linguistic factors. To achieve understanding in cross-cultural communication its participants must not only know grammar and lexicology of a language but be aware of the cultural component of the word-meaning. Thus, an acquisition of a foreign language, which allows a successful intercultural interaction, assumes a study of culture peculiarities, which establish a specific character of partner's behavior determined by traditions and customs, his/her life style, etc. A foreign language as a device of communication between representatives of different nations and cultures has to be taught in combination with some knowledge of the world and culture of people speaking the language.

### ***Check Yourself:***

1. What does acculturation refer to in cross-cultural communication?
  - a. Unidirectional cultural penetration
  - b. Reciprocal influence of cultures

- c. Cultural diffusion
  - d. Cultural expansion
2. Which classification did Redfield, Linton, and Herskovits propose for acculturation results?
    - a. Assimilation, separation, and adaptation
    - b. Conformity, resistance, and integration
    - c. Melting pot, salad bowl, and mosaic
    - d. Acculturation, assimilation, and separation
  3. Cultural expansion involves:
    - a. A narrowing of the indigenous cultures' functioning sphere
    - b. Unidirectional cross-cultural communication
    - c. Cultural penetration
    - d. A widening of the dominant culture's influencing sphere
  4. What is cultural diffusion characterized by?
    - a. Unidirectional process
    - b. Selective borrowing from other cultures
    - c. Complete rejection of a foreign culture
    - d. Assimilation and adaptation
  5. Cultural conflict arises due to:
    - a. Homogeneity in cultural values
    - b. A lack of language knowledge
    - c. Differences in cultural values and norms
    - d. Complete acceptance of foreign culture
  6. What is a possible outcome of cultural diffusion?
    - a. Cultural isolation
    - b. Cultural integration
    - c. Cultural conflict
    - d. Cultural homogeneity
  7. What major factor influences the nature of acculturation?
    - a. The degree of differentiation of the recipients' culture
    - b. The duration of cultural isolation
    - c. Cultural homogeneity
    - d. Political and economic independence
  8. How is cultural expansion related to colonialism?
    - a. It promotes indigenous culture
    - b. It is a result of autochthonous resistance

- c. It emerged during the colonial division of Asia and Africa
  - d. It encourages cultural diffusion
9. Linguistic aspects of cross-cultural communication emphasize:
- a. The dominance of native languages
  - b. The importance of linguistic barriers
  - c. The role of a common global language
  - d. Understanding communicative behavior in a foreign language
10. What is crucial for successful cross-cultural communication?
- a. Cultural homogeneity
  - b. Language knowledge only
  - c. Adequate interpretation of communicative behavior
  - d. Resistance to cultural change

### ***Questions for self-control***

- 1. What does the process of acculturation include?
- 2. What are results of interaction among cultures?
- 3. Name the strategies of acculturation.
- 4. What are the factors influencing the nature of acculturation?
- 5. Give the definition of cultural expansion.
- 6. What do cultures exposed to cultural diffusion usually borrow?
- 7. In what directions does cultural diffusion develop?
- 8. Why do cultural conflicts arise?
- 9. Enumerate types of cultural conflicts.
- 10. What measures can cultural conflicts?
- 11. Why language is a major device in cross-cultural communication?

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# MASS COMMUNICATION AND PUBLIC SPEAKING

- 1. The Definition of Mass Communication*
- 2. The Terms 'Mass' and 'Communication'*
- 3. Characteristics of Mass Communication*
- 4. Public Communication*
- 5. Genres of Public Communication*
- 6. Public Speaking*
- 7. How to Make Your Public Speaking Successful*
- 8. How to Make a Successful Classroom Presentation*

## **1. The Definition of Mass Communication**

The term "mass communication" is a term used in a variety of ways which are usually clear from the context. These include (1) reference to the activities of the mass media, (2) the use of criteria of a concept "massiveness" to distinguish among media and their activities, and (3) the communication as applied to the activities of the mass media. Significantly only the third of these uses does not take the actual process of communication for granted. "Mass communication" is often used loosely to refer to the distribution of entertainment, arts, information, and messages by television, radio, newspapers, magazines, movies, recorded music, and associated media. This general use of the term is only appropriate as designating the most commonly shared features of such otherwise disparate phenomena as broadcast television, cable, video playback, theater projection, recorded song, radio talk, advertising, and the front page, editorial page, sports section, and comics page of the newspaper. In this usage "mass communication" refers to the activities of the media as a whole and fail to distinguish among specific media, modes of communication, genres of text or artifact, production or reception situations, or any questions of actual communication. The only analytic purpose this use of the term serves is to distinguish mass communication from interpersonal, small-group, and other face-to-face communication situations. A second use of the term involves

the various criteria of massiveness which can be brought to bear in analyses of media and mass communication situations. These criteria may include size and differentiation of audience, anonymity, simultaneity, and the nature of influences among audience members and between the audience and the media.

Live television spectaculars of recent decades may be the epitome of mass communication. These may include such events as the Olympic games, the Superbowl, and the Academy Awards. These transmissions are distributed simultaneously and regardless of individual or group differences to audience members numbering in several tens or even a few hundreds of millions. Outside of their own local groups, these audience members know nothing of each other. They have no real opportunities to influence the television representation of the events or the interpretation of those representations by other audience members.

By contrast the audience for most cable television channels is much smaller and more differentiated from other audience groups. The audience for newspapers, magazines, and movies is less simultaneous, again smaller and more differentiated, and there is the potential for a flow of local influences as people talk about articles and recommend movies. But compared to a letter, phone call, conversation, group discussion, or public lecture all of these media produce communication immensely more massive on every criterion. All of the criteria used in defining mass communication are potentially confused when one is engaged in a specific research project or critical examination.

Radio provides an excellent example of the importance of the criteria. Before television, network radio was the epitome of mass communication; it was national, live, available and listened to everywhere. Today it is difficult to think of radio this way because the industry no longer works in the same manner. Commercial radio stations depend on local and regional sources of advertising income. Essentially all radio stations are programmed to attract a special segment of a local

or regional audience, and even when programming national entertainment materials such as popular songs, stations emphasize local events, personalities, weather, news, and traffic in their broadcast talk. Radio is an industry characterized by specialized channels each attracting relatively small, relatively differentiated audiences. Is radio today, then, a purveyor of mass communication? It depends on whether the concern is with the industry as a whole or with the programming and audience of a particular station.

Most uses of the term "mass communication" fall into one of these first two categories, either to refer to the activities of the mass media as a whole, or to refer to the massiveness of certain kinds of communication. Both uses have in common that they take issues of communication for granted and instead place emphasis on the massiveness of the distribution system and the audience. Attention is given to what are called the mass media because they are the institutional and technological systems capable of producing mass audiences for mass distributed "communications." Communication, then, ends up implicitly defined as a kind of object (message, text, artifact) that is reproduced and transported by these media. For some purposes this may be exactly the right definition. But it diminishes our ability to treat communication as a social accomplishment, as something people do rather than as an object that gets moved from one location to another. If communication is something people do, then it may or may not be successful, may or may not be healthy and happy. If communication means "to share" for example rather than "to transmit" then what, if anything, of importance is shared when people watch a television show.

Scholars of mass communication are often more interested in communication as a social accomplishment than they are in the media as mass distribution systems. The term mass is then treated as a qualification on the term communication.

## **2. The Terms 'Mass' and 'Communication'**

The term 'mass' denotes great volume, range or extent (of people or production) and reception of messages. The important



point about 'mass' is not that a given number of individuals receives the products, but rather that the products are available in principle to a plurality of recipients. The term 'mass' suggests that the recipients of media products constitute a vast sea of passive, undifferentiated individuals. This is an image associated with some earlier critiques of 'mass culture' and Mass society which generally assumed that the development of mass communication has had a largely negative impact on modern social life, creating a kind of homogeneous culture. However, people are engaging themselves more with media products such as computers, cell phones and Internet. These have gradually become vital tools for communications in society today.

The aspect of 'communication' refers to the giving and taking of meaning, the transmission and reception of messages. The word 'communication' is really equated with 'transmission', as viewed by the sender, rather than in the fuller meaning, which includes the notions of response, sharing and interaction. Messages are produced by one set of individuals and transmitted to others who are typically situated in settings that are spatially and temporally remote from the original context of production. Therefore, the term 'communication' in this context masks the social and industrial nature of the media, promoting a tendency to think of them as interpersonal communication. Furthermore, it is known that recipients today do have some capacity to intervene in and contribute to the course and content of the communicative process. They are being both active and creative towards the messages that they are conveyed of.

'Mass communication' can be seen as institutionalized production and generalized diffusion of symbolic goods via the fixation and transmission of information or symbolic content. It is known that the systems of information codification has shifted from analog to digital. This has indeed advanced the communication between individuals. With the existence of Wi-Fi, cell phones are no longer solely a tool for audio

transmission. We can transfer photos, music documents or even games and email at any time and anywhere. The development of media technology has indeed advanced the transmission rate and stability of information exchange.

### **3. Characteristics of Mass Communication**

Five characteristics of mass communication have been identified. Firstly, it "comprises both technical and institutional methods of production and distribution". This is evident throughout the history of the media, from print to the Internet, each suitable for commercial utility.

Secondly, it involves the "commodification of symbolic forms", as the production of materials relies on its ability to manufacture and sell large quantities of the work. Just as radio stations rely on its time sold to advertisements, newspapers rely for the same reasons on its space.

Mass communication's third characteristic is the "separate contexts between the production and reception of information", while the fourth is in its "reach to those 'far removed' in time and space, in comparison to the producers".

Mass communication involves "information distribution". This is a "one to many" form of communication, whereby products are mass produced and disseminated to a great quantity of audiences.

*Summary.* Mass communication is the term used to describe the academic study of the various means by which individuals and entities relay information through mass media to large segments of the population at the same time. It is usually understood to relate to newspaper and magazine publishing, radio, television and film, as these are used both for disseminating news and for advertising.

### **4. Public Communication**

The forms of public communication developed in conformity with the needs of the society. Public communication existed in the preliterate society when syncretic ritual forms of communication between a shaman and a tribe are considered the prototype of public communication. The formation of a

state and a literary language favoured the appearance of certain types of public communication relevant to public institutions. They were described by Aristotle in his treatise "Rhetoric" and became known as speeches: demonstrative speech (at a solemn meeting), court speech (in the public court), and deliberative speech (at the public meeting). The purpose of these speeches was to unite people, to establish justice in a dispute and to ensure future security. The development of book printing drove away the oral public speech as a state management started using the written speech more. However, all types of the public speech framed in antiquity have survived until now; usually they are accompanied by the written texts. In a modern society oral and written forms of speech are complementary, for example, every official meeting requires taking minutes; the debates over the laws in the parliament are based on a written version of the law; even a birthday congratulation is accompanied by handing the postcard. The oral public speech status is maintained due to some undoubted advantages over the written speech. Firstly, the oral speech has more channels of information transmission (facial expressions, gestures and intonation bear large share of information). Secondly, a contact oral form of communication provides a direct feedback that allows corrections in a speech message not only while planning and controlling but even at the very moment of the utterance. Thirdly, a speaker can directly influence the audience, showing his/her emotions.

Mass communication has its impact on oral public communication. Mass communication separates a sender and a receiver in space and time promoting oral distant communication. As a feedback in mass communication is lost, traditional forms of the oral public speech are widely used: a public dialogue and a public polylogue, which mean a conversation with the listeners. Numerous television talk shows bring together forms of oral public and mass communication. They represent dialogues with two addressees: a public addressee is in the studio, and a mass addressee is in front of

the TV screen. The inclusion of forms of public communication into mass communication makes them more effective. The role of a traditional public monologue increased, due to the growing number of communicative situations for convincing people, for example, an election campaign or advertising goods and services. New communication technologies and experts in the impact on individual and mass consciousness appeared in the XXth century. They are PC-managers, image-makers, spin-doctors, negotiators, speechwriters, experts on rumors, press secretaries, advertising agents. Forms of public communication are an integral part of communication technologies in these professions. Thus, the history of public communication development indicates its connection with the society and its forms are actively used in complex information systems.

### **5. Genres of Public Communication**

Oral public speech has a rather stereotyped character fixed in certain genre forms. Genres of public communication are secondary genres in relation to the genres of everyday communication. They are called rhetorical genres. These genres demand from the speaker conscious skills in correct language forms for making statements in a given communicative situation. In order to master rhetorical genres one should not only be knowledgeable in literary language, but should follow the ethical standards of speech behavior, especially norms of cooperative communication.

A society has developed its own rules of behavior in certain socially important communication situations. Usually, they relate to the regulation of verbal behavior in contentious communication situations, such as a trial or a parliamentary debate. However, even such non-conflict situations as educational situations using explanation as a genre form require a rather strict regulation and fulfillment of social roles by all the communicators. A social role is a socially proved model of behavior, which corresponds to the particular communication situation and a social status of the individual. Thus, a pupil or a student must keep silent, listen and record the information

presented by a teacher or professor in the classroom or lecture. The exclamations are not approved here.

Besides verbal behavior the whole complex of nonverbal behavior, including appearance, clothing, communication distance, is regulated too. A person gradually learns how to behave in different genres of public communication and a public speech situation serves him/her as a model based on normative examples. Ignorance of norms of verbal and nonverbal behavior in socially important communicative situations can lead to communication failure.

Speech genres exist in the mind of a linguistic personality in the form of ready-made samples (frames) that affect thought development in speech. A linguistic personality learns the ready samples in his/her social formation: the larger number of the learnt speech genres, the higher the communicative competence of a person. This condition is important both for the speaker and for the listener. A generated genre thinking (the awareness of how to speak and to behave in a socially important communicative situation) increases the predictability of a speech message greatly improving its understanding. It is necessary for a modern individual with a high communicative competence to know the genres public communication uses in different areas. Thus, in education genres of public communication include explanation of a teacher in the classroom, a pedagogical dialogue between a teacher and student in a lecture, a seminar, at diploma work. The main objective of the educational public communication is the knowledge transfer and control over the level of knowledge.

There are special genres of business public communication such as parliamentary, judicial activities, parliamentary debates or a trial. The purpose of the genres of oral public business communication is to provide a proper functioning of a state, to ensure safety of citizens and to impose a penalty. Among general genres of business public communication we distinguish genres that serve to create a positive reputation of

organizations, for example, a press conference acquaints the public with the attitude of the company to certain issues.

In socio-political and socio-cultural spheres oral public speech is represented by genres of political speech at the meetings, public television interviews and discussions (when the spectators are present in the studio). The function of these genres is to influence the listeners aiming to draw attention to socially relevant problems and creating social opinion.

A religious sphere of communication is characterized by such genre of public communication, as a sermon aimed at the formation of moral values and the common spiritual growth of the congregation.

Public communication enables a person to:

- work together with other individuals to successfully achieve life objectives;
- obtain knowledge about the world;
- create models of personal behavior;
- organize thinking, develop the ability to analyze and evaluate, create the image of the world.

## **6. Public Speaking**

Public speaking is the process of speaking to a group of people in a structured, deliberate manner intended to inform, influence, or entertain the listeners.

In public speaking, as in any form of communication, there are five basic elements, often expressed as "*who* is saying *what* to *whom* using what *medium* with what *effects*?" The purpose of public communication can range from simply transmitting information, to motivating people to act, to simply telling a story. Good orators should be able to change the emotions of their listeners, not just inform them. Public speaking can also be considered a discourse community. Interpersonal communication and public speaking have several components that embrace such things as motivational speaking, leadership/personal development, business, customer service, large group communication, and mass communication. Public speaking can be a powerful tool to use for purposes such as

motivation, influence, persuasion, informing, translation, or simply entertaining.

The first known work on public speaking was written over 2500 years ago, and the principles elaborated within it were drawn from the practices and experience of orators in ancient Greece. These basic principles have undergone modification as societies, and cultures have changed, yet remained surprisingly uniform. The history of public speaking has existed for centuries since civilization has been constructed and has had a major impact on society. The technology and the methods of this form of communication have traditionally been through oratory structure and rely on a large or sometimes somewhat small audience. However, new advancements in technology have allowed for more sophisticated communication to occur for speakers and public orators. The technological and media sources that assist the public speaking atmosphere include both videoconferencing and telecommunications.

Effective public speaking can be developed by new public speaking exercises. These include:

- Oratory;
- The use of gestures;
- Control of the voice (inflection);
- Vocabulary, register, word choice;
- Speaking notes;
- Using humor;
- Developing a relationship with the audience.

## **7. How to Make your Public Speaking Successful**

*Know the room.*

Be familiar with the place in which you will speak.

Arrive early, walk around the speaking area and practice using the microphone and any visual aids.

*Know the audience.*

Greet some of the audience as they arrive.

It's easier to speak to a group of friends than to a group of strangers.

*Know your material.*

Practice your speech and revise it if necessary.

If you're not familiar with your material or are uncomfortable with it, your nervousness will increase.

*Relax.*

Ease tension by doing exercises.

*Visualize yourself giving your speech.*

Imagine yourself speaking, your voice loud, clear, and assured.

When you visualize yourself as successful, you will be successful.

*Realize that people want you to succeed.*

They don't want you to fail.

Audiences want you to be interesting, stimulating, informative, and entertaining.

*Don't apologize.*

If you mention your nervousness or apologize for any problems you think you have with your speech, you may be calling the audience's attention to something they hadn't noticed. Keep silent.

*Concentrate on the message -- not the medium.*

Focus your attention away from your own anxieties, and outwardly toward your message and your audience.

Your nervousness will dissipate.

*Turn nervousness into positive energy.*

Harness your nervous energy and transform it into vitality and enthusiasm.

## **8. How to Make a Successful Classroom Presentation**

### **Basic content:**

- *Build your topic from a few main ideas*  
State where you are going and what you will prove.
- *Know your audience: where are they coming from?*  
Cover mutual ground as a starting point.  
Use familiar vocabulary to begin; introduce and define new concepts gradually.  
Adapt the presentation's goals with the interests of your



audience.

Treat each audience as a unique group.

- *Convince them with facts and logic*  
Demonstrate that you know what you are talking about, but on their level!
- *Review and summarize in your conclusion*  
Summarize what you've told them.  
Check for comprehension.
- *Leave time for questions and discussion*  
Follow up with options so audience can contact you.
- *Practice by rehearsing the presentation,*  
recording it, or reciting it to a few friends.

*Techniques of delivery:*

- Put your audience at ease with a relevant anecdote or joke,  
or get their attention with a dramatic gesture or event.
- Use personal pronouns in your delivery.
- Make eye contact with the audience.
- Present your report with a conversational voice though vary it for emphasis.
- Use transitions to signal the audience you're moving to a new idea.
- Direct questions to your audience to get them more involved.
- Conclude by summing up your main ideas, points, or arguments.
- Leave time for questions, and invite feedback on
  - the content (un-addressed, related ideas)
  - the conclusions
  - your manner of presentation.
- Leave your contact information (business card) for further questions.

*Using visual aids or media:*

- Call early and make sure hardware is compatible with your software;

and software versions of your documents are compatible with versions of their software.

- Have several versions of computerized files (on your hard drive, disk, web site, and overhead and/or paper(!) just in case.
- Come early and make sure everything works and that any media (audio, visual, computer) can be seen, heard, understood by all.
- Keep all visual materials simple in large text for visibility .
- Have supportive materials for each idea .
- Do not distribute handouts, even outlines, before your speech (or the audience will focus on the reading material instead of listening to you).

### *Check Yourself:*

1. How is "mass communication" commonly used in reference to the media?
  - a. To distinguish among specific media
  - b. To refer to communication as a social accomplishment
  - c. To denote great volume, range, or extent of people or production
2. According to the material, what is the second characteristic of mass communication?
  - a. Separation of production and reception contexts
  - b. Reach to those 'far removed' in time and space
  - c. Commodification of symbolic forms
3. What role does communication play in the term "mass communication"?
  - a. As a social accomplishment
  - b. As an object reproduced and transported by media
  - c. As a one-to-one form of interaction
4. What is a primary concern of scholars studying mass communication?
  - a. The massiveness of distribution systems

- b. The impact on individual and mass consciousness
  - c. The development of media technology
5. According to the text, what aspect does the term 'mass' emphasize in mass communication?
- a. The homogeneous culture created by mass communication
  - b. The passive, undifferentiated nature of recipients
  - c. The positive impact on modern social life
6. What is the primary purpose of public communication in the preliterate society?
- a. To engage in syncretic ritual forms of communication
  - b. To establish justice in disputes
  - c. To unite people and ensure future security
7. What is the significance of oral public communication in the modern context?
- a. It promotes cultural homogeneity
  - b. It maintains the importance of public monologue
  - c. It serves as a model for effective communication
8. What does the term 'communication' in the context of mass communication primarily equate to?
- a. Response, sharing, and interaction
  - b. Transmission, reproduction, and transportation
  - c. The fixation and transmission of information
9. According to the text, what are the characteristics of mass communication?
- a. Verbal communication and transmission only
  - b. Technical and institutional methods of production and distribution
  - c. Only applicable to traditional forms of media
10. What is the primary focus of public speaking?
- a. Providing information to a small audience
  - b. Motivating people to act and influencing opinions
  - c. Strictly entertaining listeners with stories

*Questions for self-control*

1. Define the term "mass communication".
2. Explain the terms 'Mass' and 'Communication'
3. What are the characteristics of Mass Communication?
4. Why did public communication appear?
5. What are the genres of public communication?
6. What are the advantages of the oral public speech over the written speech?
7. What does public communication enable an individual?
8. Give the definition of public speaking.
9. What are the components of public speaking?
10. When did the first books on public speaking appear?
11. What public speaking exercises lead to effective public speaking?
12. How can you make your public speaking successful?

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# **BARRIERS OF COMMUNICATION**

## *1. The Components of Communication*

### *1.1. Verbal Messages*

### *1.2. Nonverbal Messages*

### *1.3. Paraverbal Messages*

## *2. Listening*

## *3. Giving Full Physical Attention to the Speaker*

## *4. Verbal Communication Barriers*

## *5. Nonverbal Communication Barriers*

## *6. The List of 7 Top Barriers.*

### **1. The Components of Communication**

When people are under stress, they are more apt to inject *communication barriers* into their conversation. These barriers can exist on a daily basis as we may work with people who have different opinions, values, beliefs, and needs than our own. Our ability to exchange ideas with others, understand other's perspectives, solve problems and successfully utilise the steps and processes presented in this article will depend significantly on how effectively we are able to communicate with others.

The act of communicating involves verbal, nonverbal, and paraverbal components. The verbal component refers to the content of our message, the choice and arrangement of our words. The nonverbal component refers to the message we send through our body language. The paraverbal component refers to how we say what we say - the tone, pacing and volume of our voices.

In order to communicate effectively, we must use all three components to do two things:

1. Send clear, concise messages.
2. Hear and correctly understand messages someone is sending to us.

### **1.1. Verbal Messages**

Our use of language has tremendous power in the type of atmosphere that is created at the problem-solving table. Words that are critical, blaming, judgmental or accusatory tend to create a resistant and defensive mindset that is not conducive to productive problem solving. On the other hand, we can choose words that normalize the issues and



problems and reduce resistance. Phrases such as "*in some districts, people may . . .*", "*it is not uncommon for . . .*" and "*for some folks in similar situations*" are examples of this.

Sending effective messages requires that we state our point of view as briefly and succinctly as possible. Listening to a rambling, unorganized speaker is tedious and discouraging - why continue to listen when there is no interchange? Lengthy dissertations and circuitous explanations are confusing to the listener and the message loses its concreteness, relevance, and impact. Effective verbal messages:

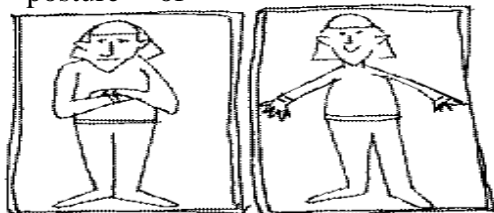
1. Are brief, succinct, and organized.
2. Are free of jargon.
3. Do not create resistance in the listener.

### **1.2. Nonverbal Messages**

The power of nonverbal communication cannot be underestimated. The messages we send through our posture, gestures, facial expression, and spatial distance account for 55% of what is perceived and understood by others. In fact, through are body language we are always communicating, whether we want to or not! Nonverbal messages are the primary way that we communicate emotions:

**Facial Expression:** The face is perhaps the most important conveyor of emotional information. A face can inlight up with enthusiasm, energy, and approval, express confusion or boredom, and scowl with displeasure. The eyes are particularly expressive in telegraphing joy, sadness, anger, or confusion.

**Postures and Gestures:** Our body postures can create a feeling of warm openness or cold rejection. For example, when someone faces us, sitting quietly with hands loosely folded in the lap, a feeling of anticipation and interest is created. A posture of



arms crossed on the chest portrays a feeling of inflexibility. The action of gathering up one's materials and reaching for a purse signals a desire to end the conversation.

Nonverbal messages:

1. Account for about 55% of what is perceived and understood by others.
2. Are conveyed through our facial expressions as well as our postures and gestures.

### 1.3. Paraverbal Messages.

Paraverbal communication refers to the messages that we transmit through the tone, pitch, and pacing of our voices. It is *how we say something*,



not *what we say*. The paraverbal message accounts for approximately 38% of what is communicated to

someone. A sentence can convey entirely different meanings depending on the emphasis on words and the tone of voice. For example, the statement, "I didn't say you were stupid" has six different meanings, depending on which word is emphasized.

*I didn't SAY you were stupid.  
I didn't say YOU were stupid.  
I didn't say you were STUPID.*

Some points to remember about our paraverbal communication:

When we are angry or excited, our speech tends to become more rapid and higher pitched.

When we are bored or feeling down, our speech tends to slow and take on a monotone quality.

When we are feeling defensive, our speech is often abrupt.

## **2. Listening**

The key to receiving messages effectively is *listening*. Listening is a combination of hearing what another person says and psychological involvement with the person who is talking. Listening requires more than hearing words. It requires a desire to understand another human

being, an attitude of respect and acceptance, and a willingness to open one's mind to try and see things from another's point of view.

Listening requires a high level of concentration and energy. It demands that we set aside our own thoughts and agendas, put ourselves in another's shoes and try to see the world through that person's eyes. True listening requires that we suspend judgment, evaluation, and approval in an attempt to understand another's frame of reference, emotions, and attitudes. Listening to understand is, indeed, a difficult task!

Often, people worry that if they listen attentively and patiently to a person who is saying something they disagree with, they are inadvertently sending a message of agreement.

When we listen effectively we gain information that is valuable to understanding the problem as the other person sees it. We gain a greater understanding of the other person's perception. After all, the truth is subjective and a matter of perception. When we have a deeper understanding of another's



perception, whether we agree with it or not, we hold the key to understanding that person's motivation, attitude, and behavior. We have a deeper understanding of the problem and the potential paths for reaching agreement.

Listening (1) requires concentration and energy, (2) involves a psychological connection with the speaker, (3) includes a desire and willingness to try and see things from another's perspective, (4) requires that we suspend judgment and evaluation.

Learning to be an effective listener is a difficult task for many people. However, the specific skills of effective listening behavior can be learned. It is our ultimate goal to integrate these skills into a sensitive and unified way of listening.

#### Key Listening Skills:

Nonverbal:

Giving full physical attention to the speaker;  
Being aware of the speaker's nonverbal messages;

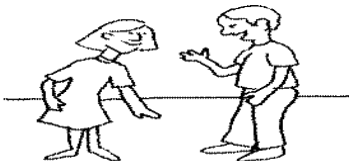
Verbal:

Paying attention to the words and feelings that are being expressed;  
Using reflective listening tools such as paraphrasing, reflecting, summarizing, and questioning to increase understanding of the message and help the speaker tell his story

### 3. Giving Full Physical Attention to The Speaker

Attending is the art and skill of giving full, physical attention to another person. Effective attending is a careful balance of alertness and relaxation that includes appropriate body movement, eye contact, and "posture of involvement". Fully attending says to the speaker, "What you are saying is very important. I am totally present and intent on understanding you". We create a posture of involvement by:

Leaning gently towards the speaker;



Facing the other person squarely;  
Maintaining an open posture with arms and legs uncrossed;  
Maintaining an appropriate distance between us and the speaker;

Moving our bodies in response to the speaker, i.e., appropriate head nodding, facial expressions.

As psychiatrist Franklin Ernst writes in his book "Who's Listening?": "To listen is to move. To listen is to be moved by the talker - physically and psychologically . . . The non-moving, unblinking person can reliably be estimated to be a non-listener . . . When other visible moving has ceased and the eyeblink rate has fallen to less than once in six seconds, listening, for practical purposes, has stopped" [F.Ernst, 2002:136].

*Being Aware of the Speaker's Nonverbal Messages.* When we pay attention to a speaker's body language we gain insight into how that person is feeling as well as the intensity of the feeling. Through careful attention to body language and paraverbal messages, we are able to develop hunches about what the speaker (or listener) is communicating. We can then, through our reflective listening skills, check the accuracy of those hunches by expressing in our own words, our impression of what is being communicated.

*Paying Attention to the Words and Feelings.* In order to understand the total meaning of a message, we must be able to gain understanding about both the *feeling* and the *content* of the message. We are often more comfortable dealing with the content rather than the feelings (i.e., the relationship), particularly when the feelings are intense. Our tendency is to try and ignore the emotional aspect of the message/conflict and move directly to the substance of the issues.

This can lead to an escalation of intense emotions. It may be necessary to deal directly with the relationship problem by openly acknowledging and naming the feelings and having an

honest discussion about them prior to moving into the substantive issues. If we leave the emotional aspect unaddressed, we risk missing important information about the problem as well as derailing the communication process.

*Reflective Listening Skills.* Reflective listening or responding is the process of restating, in our words, the feeling and/or content that is being expressed and is part of the verbal component of sending and receiving messages. By reflecting back to the speaker what we believe we understand, we validate that person by giving them the experience of being heard and acknowledged. We also provide an opportunity for the speaker to give us feedback about the accuracy of our perceptions, thereby increasing the effectiveness of our overall communication.

Paraphrasing - This is a concise statement of the content of the speaker's message. A paraphrase should be brief, succinct, and focus on the facts or ideas of the message rather than the feeling. The paraphrase should be in the listener's own words rather than "parroting back", using the speaker's words.

"You believe that Jane needs an instructional assistant because she isn't capable of working independently."

"You would like Bob to remain in first grade because you think the activities would be more developmentally appropriate."

Reflecting Feeling - The listener concentrates on the feeling words and asks herself, "How would I be feeling if I was having that experience?" She then restates or paraphrases the feeling of what she has heard in a manner that conveys understanding.

"You are very worried about the impact that an evaluation might have on Lisa's self esteem".

"You are frustrated because dealing with Ben has taken up so much of your time, you feel like you've ignored your other students."

Summarizing - The listener pulls together the main ideas and feelings of the speaker to show understanding. This skill is used after a considerable amount of information sharing has gone on and shows that the listener grasps the total meaning of the message. It also helps the speaker gain an integrated picture of what she has been saying.

"You're frustrated and angry that the assessment has taken so long and confused about why the referral wasn't made earlier since that is what you thought had happened. You are also willing to consider additional evaluation if you can choose the provider and the school district will pay for it".

#### **4. Verbal Communication Barriers**

1. Attacking (interrogating, criticizing, blaming, shaming)

"If you were doing your job and supervising Susie in the lunch line we probably wouldn't be in this situation, would we?"

"Have you followed through with the counseling we asked you to do? Have you gotten Ben to the doctor's for his medical checkup? Did you call and arrange for a Big Brother? Have you found out if you're eligible for food stamps?"

2. "You Messages" (moralizing, preaching, advising, diagnosing)

"You don't seem to understand how important it is for your child to get this help. Don't you see that he's well on his way to becoming a sociopath?"

"You obviously don't realize that if you were following the same steps we do at home you wouldn't be having this problem. You don't seem to care about what's going on in this child's life outside of school."

3. Showing Power (ordering, threatening, commanding, directing)

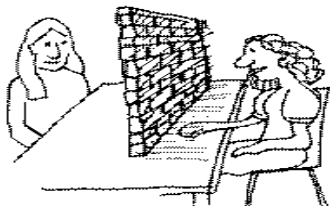
"If you don't voluntarily agree to this evaluation we can take you to due process. Go ahead and file a complaint if you want to."

"I'm going to write a letter of complaint to the superintendent and have this in your file if you don't stop humiliating my son in front of his classmates. I know my rights."

4. Other Verbal Barriers: shouting, name calling, refusing to speak.

### **5. Nonverbal Communication Barriers**

1. Flashing or rolling eyes
2. Quick or slow movements
3. Arms crossed, legs crossed
4. Gestures made with exasperation
5. Slouching, hunching over
6. Poor personal care
7. Doodling
8. Staring at people or avoiding eye contact
9. Excessive fidgeting with materials



All of these examples of barriers undermine communication, mutual understanding, respect, problem solving, and identifying solutions that

will meet everyone's needs. They put a serious strain on relationships that ultimately need to be collaborative in order to most effectively meet the needs of our children. Use of these "communication errors" results in increased emotional distancing between the parties, escalation in the intensity of the conflict and a negative environment for everyone involved.

### *Effective Communication*

- 1) is two way,
- 2) involves active listening,
- 3) reflects the accountability of speaker and listener,
- 4) utilizes feedback,

- 5) is free of stress,
- 6) is clear.

## **6. The List of 7 Top Barriers**

### *Physical barriers*

Physical barriers in the workplace include:

- marked out territories, empires and fiefdoms into which strangers are not allowed
- closed office doors, barrier screens, separate areas for people of different status
- large working areas or working in one unit that is physically separate from others.

Research shows that one of the most important factors in building cohesive teams is proximity. As long as people still have a personal space that they can call their own, nearness to others aids communication because it helps us get to know one another.

### *Perceptual barriers*

The problem with communicating with others is that we all see the world differently. If we didn't, we would have no need to communicate.

The following anecdote is a reminder of how our thoughts, assumptions and perceptions shape our own realities:

A traveller was walking down a road when he met a man from the next town. "Excuse me," he said. "I am hoping to stay in the next town tonight. Can you tell me what the townspeople are like?"

"Well," said the townsman, "how did you find the people in the last town you visited?"

"Oh, they were an irascible bunch. Kept to themselves. Took me for a fool. Over-charged me for what I got. Gave me very poor service."

"Well, then," said the townsman, "you'll find them pretty much the same here."

### *Emotional barriers.*

One of the chief barriers to open and free communications is the emotional barrier. It is comprised mainly of fear, mistrust and suspicion. The roots of our emotional mistrust of others lie in our childhood and infancy when we were taught to be careful what we said to others. *"Don't speak until you're spoken to"; "Children should be seen and not heard"*. As a result many people hold back from communicating their thoughts and feelings to others.

They feel vulnerable. While some caution may be wise in certain relationships, excessive fear of what others might think of us can stunt our development as effective communicators and our ability to form meaningful relationships.

#### *Cultural barriers.*

When we join a group and wish to remain in it, sooner or later we need to adopt the behaviour patterns of the group. These are the behaviours that the group accept as signs of belonging. The group rewards such behaviour through acts of recognition, approval and inclusion. In groups which are happy to accept you, and where you are happy to conform, there is a mutuality of interest and a high level of win-win contact.

#### *Language barriers.*

Language that describes what we want to say in our terms may present barriers to others who are not familiar with our expressions, buzz-words and jargon. When we couch our communication in such language, it is a way of excluding others. In a global market place the greatest compliment we can pay another person is to talk in their language.

#### *Gender barriers.*

There are distinct differences between the speech patterns in a man and those in a woman. A woman speaks between 22,000 and 25,000 words a day whereas a man speaks between 7,000 and 10,000. In childhood, girls speak earlier than boys and at the age of three, have a vocabulary twice that of boys. The reason for this lies in the wiring of a man's and woman's brains.

When a man talks, his speech is located in the left side of the brain but in no specific area. When a woman talks, the speech is located in both hemispheres and in two specific locations. This means that a man talks in a linear, logical and compartmentalised way, features of left-brain thinking; whereas a woman talks more freely mixing logic and emotion, features of both sides of the brain. It also explains why women talk for much longer than men each day.

*Interpersonal barriers.*

There are six levels at which people can distance themselves from one another:

*Withdrawal* is an absence of interpersonal contact. It is both refusal to be in touch and time alone.

*Rituals* are meaningless, repetitive routines devoid of real contact.

*Pastimes* fill up time with others in social but superficial activities.

*Working* activities are those tasks which follow the rules and procedures of contact but no more.

*Games* are subtle, manipulative interactions which are about winning and losing.

*Closeness* is the aim of interpersonal contact where there is a high level of honesty and acceptance of yourself and others.

***Check Yourself:***

1. What is the impact of using critical, blaming, or accusatory words in communication?
  - a. Enhances problem-solving
  - b. Creates a resistant and defensive mindset
  - c. Promotes open dialogue
  - d. Improves listener engagement
2. Which component of nonverbal communication contributes to about 55% of what is perceived and understood by others?
  - a. Facial expressions



- b. Postures and gestures
  - c. Paraverbal messages
  - d. Jargon
3. What does the paraverbal component of communication refer to?
- a. Choice and arrangement of words
  - b. Body language
  - c. Tone, pitch, and pacing of voices
  - d. Nonverbal gestures
4. Why is giving full physical attention to the speaker considered an important listening skill?
- a. It helps the listener ignore the speaker's emotions
  - b. It demonstrates a lack of interest
  - c. It shows the speaker that their message is important
  - d. It disrupts the communication process
5. What is the purpose of paraphrasing in reflective listening?
- a. Repeating the speaker's exact words
  - b. Validating the speaker's feelings and content
  - c. Ignoring the speaker's message
  - d. Introducing jargon for clarity
6. Why are "You Messages" considered barriers in communication?
- a. They enhance understanding
  - b. They create a resistant mindset
  - c. They encourage collaboration
  - d. They promote open dialogue
7. Which of the following is an example of a nonverbal communication barrier?
- a. Reflective listening
  - b. Leaning gently towards the speaker
  - c. Flashing or rolling eyes
  - d. Paraphrasing
8. Why is effective communication described as a two-way process?

- a. It places the responsibility solely on the speaker
  - b. It involves active listening and feedback
  - c. It minimizes clarity in messages
  - d. It promotes stress in communication
9. How does proximity contribute to building cohesive teams in the workplace?
- a. By emphasizing territorial boundaries
  - b. By promoting isolation
  - c. By aiding communication through closeness
  - d. By encouraging separate working areas
10. What is the main component of the emotional barrier in communication?
- a. Openness and honesty
  - b. Fear, mistrust, and suspicion
  - c. Reflection and introspection
  - d. Assertiveness and confidence

### *Questions for self-control*

1. What components does the act of communicating involve?
2. What is a verbal component referred to?
3. What is a nonverbal component referred to?
4. What is a paraverbal component referred to?
5. How are effective messages achieved?
6. Describe effective verbal messages.
7. What are the nonverbal messages?
8. How important are the nonverbal message in communication?
9. What is the key to receiving messages effectively?
10. What does an effective listening usually require and include?
11. Can listening skills be learned?

12. How can full physical attention to the speaker contribute to the effective communication?
13. Why one must be aware of the speaker's nonverbal messages?
14. Name and explain major reflective listening skills.
15. Give examples of verbal communication barriers.
16. Give examples of nonverbal communication barriers.
17. What are seven top barriers of communication?

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## Зміст

<b>HISTORY AND FRAMEWORK OF COMMUNICATION THEORY .....</b>	<b>3</b>
1. <i>Communication as a Process and an Academic Discipline</i>	
2. <i>History of Communication Theory.</i>	
3. <i>Communication Theory Framework</i>	
<b>MODERN COMMUNICATION THEORIES.....</b>	<b>12</b>
1. <i>Speech Act</i>	
2. <i>Language Expectancy Theory</i>	
3. <i>Psycho-Linguistics Theoryb</i>	
4. <i>Framing</i>	
5. <i>Network Theory and Analysis</i>	
6. <i>Conceptual Model (of a Network Society)</i>	
7. <i>Social Cognitive Theory</i>	
<b>ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS .....</b>	<b>26</b>
1. <i>The Components of the Communication Process</i>	
1.1. <i>The Sender and theEncoding,</i>	
1.2. <i>The Medium of Transmission</i>	
1.3. <i>The Receiver and the Decoding Process</i>	
1.4. <i>Feedback</i>	
2. <i>The Role of the Media in the Field of Communication</i>	
2.1. <i>People as the Medium</i>	
2.2. <i>Language as the Medium</i>	
<b>MODELS OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS .....</b>	<b>35</b>
1. <i>Shannon's Model of Communication</i>	
2. <i>The Gatekeeper Model</i>	
3. <i>The Interactive Model</i>	
4. <i>The Transactional Model</i>	
5. <i>The Ecological Model</i>	
<b>VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION .....</b>	<b>47</b>
1. <i>Verbal Communication</i>	
2. <i>Non-verbal Communication</i>	
3. <i>Categories and Features of Non-verbal Communication</i>	

- 4. *Static and Dynamic Features of Non-verbal Communication*
- 5. *Analyze Yourself*

**FORMS OF VERBAL COMMUNICATION ..... 57**

- 1. *The Definition of a Monologue*
  - 1.1. *The Classification of a Monologue*
  - 1.2. *Methods of Material Representation in a Monologic Speech.*
- 2. *The Definition of a Dialogue*
  - 2.1. *The Question-Answer Structure of a Dialogue*
  - 2.2. *General Rules and Laws of a Dialogue*

**INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION ..... 70**

- 1. *The Definition of Interpersonal Communication*
- 2. *Four Principles of Interpersonal Communication*
- 3. *Interpersonal Communication Styles*
- 4. *The Process of Interpersonal Communication*
- 5. *Interpersonal Space*
- 6. *Difficult Situations in Interpersonal Communication*
- 7. *The Axioms of Interpersonal Communication*

**CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION..... 88**

- 1. *The Definition of Cross-Cultural Communication*
- 2. *Cross-Cultural Communication Strategies*
- 3. *Time and Space*
- 4. *Fate and Personal Responsibility*
- 5. *Face and Face-Saving*
- 6. *Nonverbal Communication Across Cultures*
- 7. *Levels of Cross-Cultural Communication*
- 8. *Hints of Successful Cross-Cultural Communication*

**FORMS OF CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION..... 106**

- 1. *Acculturation as a Form of Cross-Cultural Communication*
- 2. *Cultural Expansion as a Form of Cross-Cultural Communication*

*3. Cultural Diffusion as a Form of Cross-Cultural Communication*

*4. Cultural Conflict as a Form of Cross-Cultural Communication*

*5. Linguistic Aspects of Cross-Cultural Communication*

**MASS COMMUNICATION AND PUBLIC SPEAKING ..... 118**

*1. The Definition of Mass Communication*

*2. The Terms 'Mass' and 'Communication'*

*3. Characteristics of Mass Communication*

*4. Public Communication*

*5. Genres of Public Communication*

*6. Public Speaking*

*7. How to Make Your Public Speaking Successful*

*8. How to Make a Successful Classroom Presentation*

**BARRIERS OF COMMUNICATION..... 133**

*1. The Components of Communication*

*1.1. Verbal Messages*

*1.2. Nonverbal Messages*

*1.3. Paraverbal Messages*

*2. Listening*

*3. Giving Full Physical Attention to the Speaker*

*4. Verbal Communication Barriers*

*5. Nonverbal Communication Barriers*

*6. The List of 7 Top Barriers*