Communication Skills

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by

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Acknowledgment

On behalf of Pathways to Higher Education Management Team in Egypt, the Project Coordinator wishes to extend his thanks and appreciation to the Ford Foundation (FF) for its full support to reform higher education, postgraduate studies and research activities in Egypt. The Management Team extend their special thanks and appreciation to Dr. Bassma Kodmani, Senior Project Officer at the Ford Foundation office in Cairo, who helped initiate this endeavor, and who spared no effort to support the Egyptian overall reform activities, particularly research and quality assurance of the higher education system. Her efforts were culminated by the endorsement to fund our proposal to establish the Egyptian Pathways to Higher Education project by the Ford Foundation Headquarters in New York.

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The contribution of our partner, The National Council for Women (NCW), is appreciated. It is worth mentioning that the percentage of females graduated from Pathways programs has exceeded 50%, which is in line with FF and NCW general objectives. The second phase of the project will witness a much more forceful contribution from the NCW, particularly when implementing the program on the governorates level as proposed by CAPSCU in a second phase of the program.

We also appreciate the efforts and collaborative attitude of all colleagues from Cairo University, particularly the Faculties of Commerce, Art, Mass Communication, Law, Economics and Political Sciences, and Engineering who contributed to the success of this project.

 Finally, thanks and appreciation are also extended to every member of the Center for Advancement of Postgraduate Studies and Research in Engineering Sciences (CAPSCU), Steering Committee members, trainers, supervisors and lecturers who were carefully selected to oversee the successful implementation of this project, as well as to all those who are contributing towards the accomplishment of the project objectives.

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CU   **Cairo University**   **NCW National Council for Women**
FF   **Ford Foundation**   **FGF Future Generation Foundation**
CAPSCU   Center for Advancement of Postgraduate Studies and Research in Engineering Sciences, Faculty of Engineering - Cairo University

Publisher Introduction

The Faculty of Engineering, Cairo University is a pioneer in the field of learning and continual education and training. The Center for Advancement of Postgraduate Studies and Research in Engineering Sciences, Faculty of Engineering - Cairo University (CAPSCU) is one of the pillars of the scientific research centers in the Faculty of Engineering. CAPSCU was established in 1974 in cooperation with UNIDO and UNESCO organizations of the United Nations. Since 1984, CAPSCU has been operating as a self-financed independent business unit within the overall goals of Cairo University strategy to render its services toward development of society and environment.

CAPSCU provides consultation services for public and private sectors and governmental organizations. The center offers consultation on contractual basis in all engineering disciplines. The expertise of the Faculty professors who represent the pool of consultants to CAPSCU, is supported by the laboratories, computational facilities, library and internet services to assist in conducting technical studies, research and development work, industrial research, continuous education, on-the-job training, feasibility studies, assessment of technical and financial projects, etc.

Pathways to Higher Education (PHE) Project is an international grant that was contracted between Cairo University and Ford Foundation (FF). During ten years, FF plans to invest 280 million dollars to develop human resources in a number of developing countries across the world. In Egypt, the project aims at enhancing university graduates' skills. PHE project is managed by CAPSCU according to the agreement signed in September 22nd, 2002 between Cairo University and Ford Foundation, grant No. 1020 - 1920.

The partners of the project are Future Generation Foundation (FGF), National Council for Women (NCW) and Faculties of Humanities and Social Sciences at Cairo University. A steering committee that includes representatives of these organizations has been formed. Its main tasks are to steer the project, develop project policies and supervise the implementation process.

Following the steps of CAPSCU to spread science and knowledge in order to participate in society development, this training material is published to enrich the Egyptian libraries. The material composes of 20 subjects especially prepared and developed for PHE programs.

Dr. Mohammad M. Megahed
CAPSCU Director
April 2005

Foreword by the Project Management

Pathways to Higher Education, Egypt (PHE) aims at training fresh university graduates in order to enhance their research skills to upgrade their chances in winning national and international postgraduate scholarships as well as obtaining better job.

Pathways steering committee defined the basic skills needed to bridge the gap between capabilities of fresh university graduates and requirements of society and scientific research. These skills are: mental, communication, personal and social, and managerial and team work, in addition to complementary knowledge. Consequently, specialized professors were assigned to prepare and deliver training material aiming at developing the previous skills through three main training programs:
  1. Enhancement of Research Skills
  2. Training of Trainers
  3. Development of Leadership Skills

The activities and training programs offered by the project are numerous. These activities include:
  1. Developing training courses to improve graduates' skills
  2. Holding general lectures for PHE trainees and the stakeholders
  3. Conducting graduation projects towards the training programs

Believing in the importance of spreading science and knowledge, Pathways management team would like to introduce this edition of the training material. The material is thoroughly developed to meet the needs of trainees. There have been previous versions for these course materials; each version was evaluated by trainees, trainers and Project team. The development process of both style and content of the material is continuing while more courses are being prepared.

To further enhance the achievement of the project goals, it is planned to dedicate complete copies of PHE scientific publications to all the libraries of the Egyptian universities and project partners in order to participate in institutional capacity building. Moreover, the training materials will be available online on the PHE website, www.Pathways-Egypt.com.

In the coming phases, the partners and project management team plan to widen project scope to cover graduates of all Egyptian universities. It is also planned that underprivileged distinguished senior undergraduates will be included in the targeted trainees in order to enable their speedy participation in development of society.

Finally, we would like to thank the authors and colleagues who exerted enormous efforts and continuous work to publish this book. Special credit goes to Prof. Fouad Khalaf for playing a major role in the development phases and initiation of this project. We greatly appreciate the efforts of all members of the steering committee of the project.

**Dr. Sayed Kaseb**   **Dr. Mohsen Elmahdy Said**

Project Manager   **Project Coordinator**

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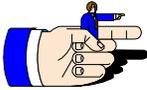
1.1 Introductory Note

This chapter presents the **communication process**. It describes the **basic elements of the communication process and defines concepts**. It also sheds light on forms of communication and basic characteristics of each form.

Lastly, the chapter reviews the **contents that communication process** is functioning within.

Our **ability to communicate** and the different forms our communication takes are very often **taken for granted**. The communication process is **fundamental for human survival**. It is essential to the **development of the individual**, to the formation and **continued existence of groups** and to the **interrelations among groups.**

Communication is **as old as human history**; many indicators prove that **effective communication is the main factor enhancing civilization through history**. This is why communication is considered **multi-culture phenomena**, *Ancient–Greeks, Ancient–Egyptians, Ancient–Chinese, Arabs, Europeans and Americans have got their impact on communication.*

On the other hand, the study of human communication is **inter-disciplinary.** It began with the mathematically theory of communication by **Claude E. Shanon** and **Warren Weaver in 1949**, scientists considered as strictly mathematical. Their aim was to measure **the amount of information, in the mess ages, that is transmitted through the media on the telephone**; however, as years passed by, inter-disciplinary approaches to study human communication came up. *They rely on psychology, sociology, speech communication, political, journalism, anthropology management, education, marketing and philosophy*. Thus, we can say that every discipline concerned with human behavior must deal with communication.

The question here is
      What is communication?
      There are many definitions of communication:

Definition of
Communication

1.2 Definitions of Communication

Schramm defines communication as "**a tool that makes societies possible** and distinguish human from other societies".

Berelson and Steiner define communication as **the transmission of information, ideas, emotions, skills** through the use of symbols, words, pictures, figures, and graph.

Rogers says, "Communication is **the process of transmitting ideas, information, and attitudes** from the source to a receiver for the purpose of influencing with intent".

Kar defines communication as "**all those planned or unplanned processes** through which one person influences behavior of others."

A more comprehensive suggested definition to define communication would be: "**a process of transmitting ideas, information, attitudes** (images which we have formulated for ourselves) **by the use of symbols, words, pictures, figures from the source** (who is the originator of the message) to a receiver, for the purpose of influencing with intent". So communication is considered as a process through which senders and receivers of messages interact in a given social context.

The concept of communication simply relies on four basic components.

Communication
Components

1.3 Communication Components

As shown in Figure 1.1, we have a sender who produces a message to receivers Depending on the previous definitions, we can conclude that communication **is a process used to timely and properly exchange information between a sender and a receiver to achieve a desired goal.**


Message

Feedback

Sender   **Receiver**
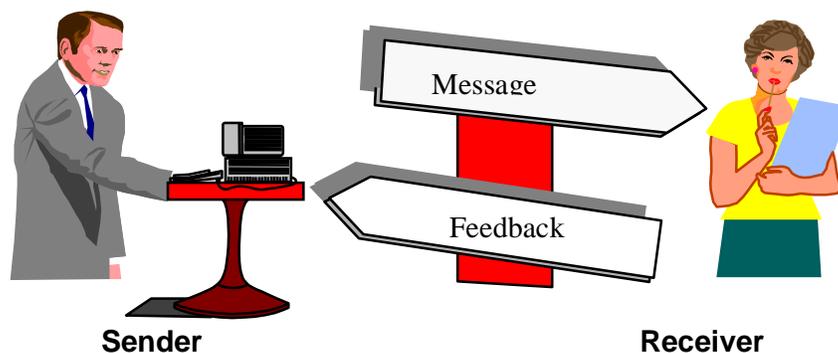
Figure 1.1: Communication component

Factors in the Definition

1.4 Factors in the Definition

A) Process

A) Process: It suggests that the components of interaction are **dynamic in nature.** *They can not be regarded as unchanging elements in time and space.* This simply means that no single aspect of communication can be meaningfully understood apart from the other elements, as shown in Figure 1.2.

Communication

Is a process used to timely and properly exchange information to achieve a desired goal?
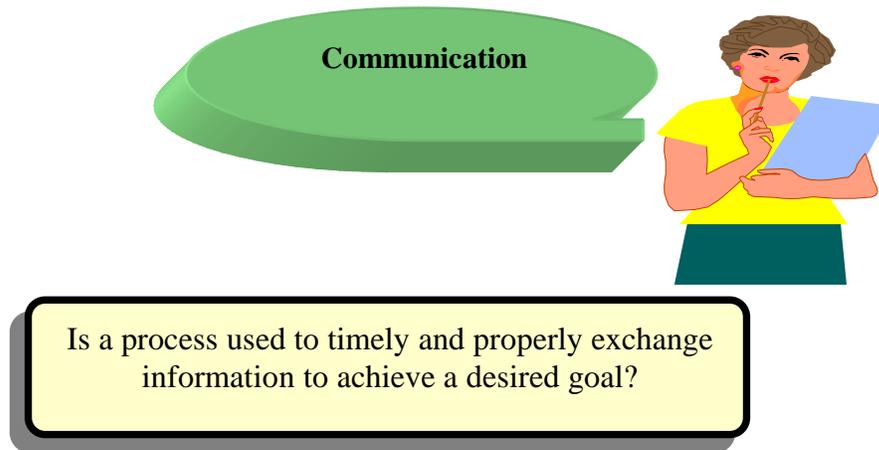
Figure 1.2: Definition of communication

B) Interaction

B) Interaction: It is the process of **linking between senders and receivers of the message.** The process specifies *interaction or linkages between or among countless factors*, so that the changes in any set of forces affect the operation of all other processes to produce a total effect.

The concept of **interaction** is central to **an understanding of the concept of process in communication. Communication** is an attempt to *bridge the gap between two individuals through producing and receiving messages which have meaning for both.*

C) Social Context

C) Social Context: Human communication is, to a great extent, **influenced by the social context** in which it occurs. The context or the situation that consists of a **set of rules which govern the origin, flow and effect of the messages.**

Communication Model

1.5 Communication Model

It describes what **is necessary for an act of communication to take place.** A model represents the **major features and eliminates the unnecessary details of communication.**

Functions of
Communication
Models

1.5.1 Functions of Communication Models

1. To **clarify** the scope of human interaction showing it to be a circular, complex, continuous dynamic, or a coding process.
2. To **point out** where to book and under what conditions to analyze different responses.
3. To **show** the variables in human communication.
4. **Used** as a frame work in researches.

Communication
Model

1.5.2 Communication Model

Aristotle said that a researcher has to look for three communication ingredients:
1. The person who speaks.
2. The speech that he produces.
3. The person who listens.

One of the most used
The contemporary models was developed in **1949 by Claude Shannon**, a mathematician and explained by the non-mathematician, **Warren Weaver.**

Shannon and Weaver were not talking about human communication but about **electronic communication**.

In fact, **Shannon** was working for the **Bell telephone laboratory**, but his model was found useful in describing human communication. **Shannon–Weaver model** is consistent with **Aristotle's position**, see Figure 1.3. *If we translate the source into the speaker, the signal into the speech and the destination into listener, we have the Aristotelian model,* plus two added ingredients: a transmitter which sends out the source's message and a receiver, which catches the message from destination. *However, if we choose to draw a diagram of human communication, we must remember that the process itself is more complicated than a picture or description of it, which are likely to draw.* Most of the communication process is in the black box of our central nervous system, the content which we understand vaguely.

Most of our **current** communication **models** are **similar to Aristotle's**, though some what more complex. They differ partly in terminology and partly in differences in the point of view of the disciplines out of which they emerged.
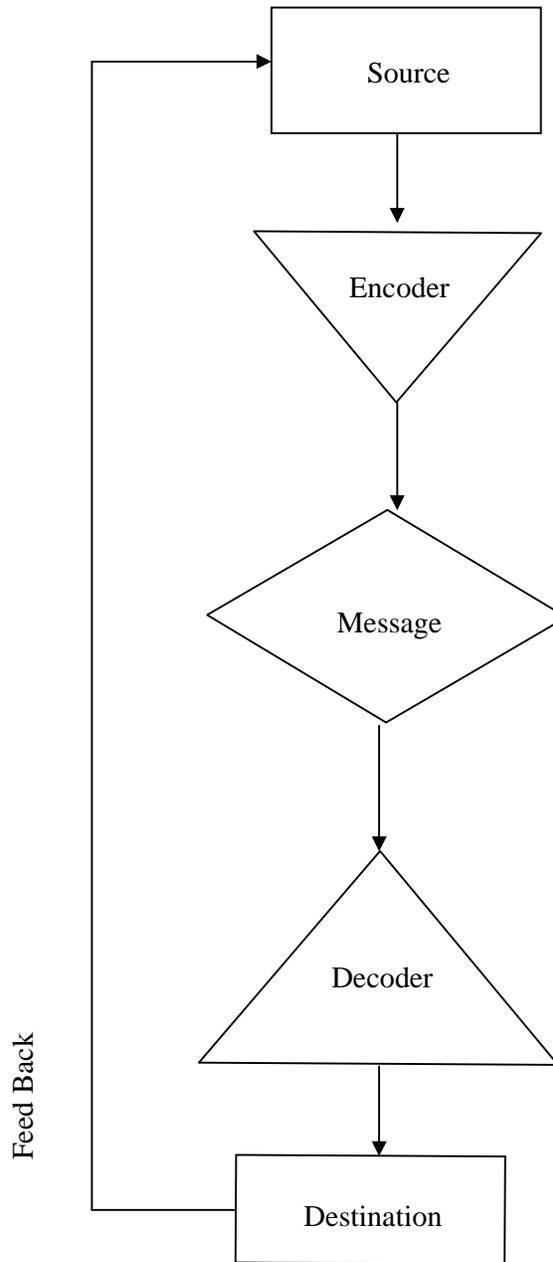
Figure 1.3: Shannon – Weaver model

Basic Elements of Communication Models
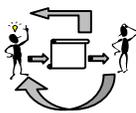
1.6 Basic Elements of Communication Model

Researchers call our attention to several elements in the communication process: **source, message, channel, receiver, effect, feedback and more.** The communication process remains basically the **same for interpersonal and mass communication**. The psychology of communication is basically the same in both, see Figure 1.4.
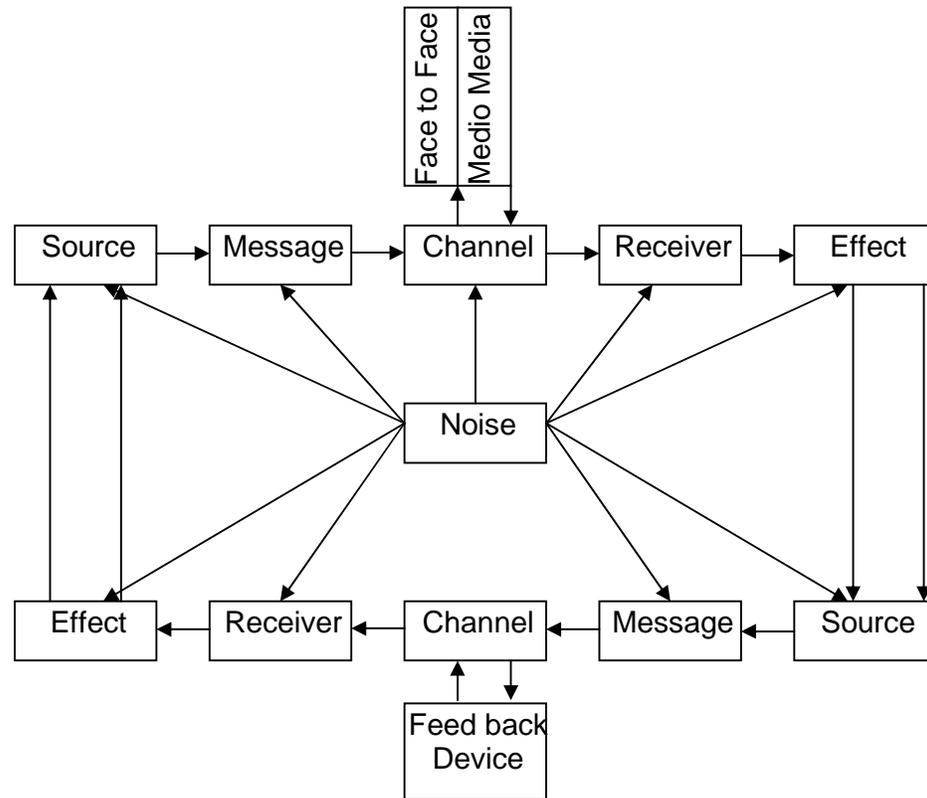
Figure 1.4: Elements of communication model

Source/
Encoder

1.6.1 Source/Encoder

We can say that **all human communication has some source**, some person or group of persons with a purpose for communicating. The **source has ideas, needs, intentions, information and a purpose** for communication, which he **translated into a code**, a language. This is performed by the encoder who is responsible for taking the ideas of the source and putting them in a code, **expressing the source's purpose in a form of a message.** As source encoder, our communication skill levels determine on communication fidelity in **two ways**:

    1- They **affect our ability to analyze** our purpose and intentions, our ability to say some thing when we communicate.

    2- They **affect our ability to encode messages** which express what we intend.

    3- There are at least four kinds of **factors within the source**, which can increase the fidelity in communication. These are:

        1-   Communication skills.
        2-   Attitude.
        3-   Knowledge level.
        4-   Socio-cultural system.

Receiver/
Decoder

1.6.2 Receiver/Decoder

The **receiver is the most important link in the communication process**. *If the source does not reach the receiver with his message, he might as well have talked to himself.* The receiver is **the target of communication** that we want to have the positive response.

Both the source and the receiver can be analyzed in terms of four factors: **their communication skills, attitudes, knowledge levels, cultural contexts and social systems**. The receiver always has to be kept in mind when the source makes decisions concerning different communication variables.

The relationship between the source and the receiver may include:

- Stimulus	- Response
- Sender	- Receiver
- Encoder	- Decoder
- Source	- Destination
- Actor	- Audience
- Communicator	- Communicate

The **left column** represents the part of **guiding the act of communication.** The **right–column** represents those **participants** who by their receiving the message **allow the communicative act to be completed** and thus have an effect.

Messages

1.6.3 Messages

The message is the translation of ideas proposes and intentions into a code and a systematic set of symbols. **Berlo** says that there are three factors that should be taken into account considering the message:

A. **Message code:** which has to do with the way in which symbols are structured?
B. **Content:** the selection of material to express the purpose.
C. **Treatment:** the way in which the message is presented, that is frequency and emphasis.

Another factor is the **filter or frame of reference** through which the audience receives the message which includes meanings that may enhance or cripple the effect.

Meanings are references (ideas, images and thoughts) expressed in symbols. For **communication** to occur at all, the source and receiver **must have** at **least some minimum degree of prior experience**, **some level of similarity and some level of shared meanings** at the other extreme, no two individuals have exactly the

same experience.   Hence, the symbols in the message have somewhat different meanings for the source and the receiver.

Furthermore, **the individual experience is continuous**, so does his meaning related to some symbol which will change over time. **Many failures in communication are due to mistaken assumptions by source, or receiver,** about the correspondence of the meaning of the symbol they exchange.
The source and receiver have to have a minimum degree of common experience, and a common frame of reference. This fact led **Berlo to state**: **"Meanings are in people not in messages"**.

Frame of Reference

1.6.4 Frame of Reference

It is the degree by which the **sender and receiver overlap in various frames of communication.** The communicator, who is addressing different personalities at the same time, cannot adjust an appeal to meet their individual reaction. **An approach that convinces one part of the audience may not agree with another part.** *The successful communicator is one who finds the right method of expression to establish empathy, with the largest number of individuals in the audience*. The receiver filters the message in terms of frame of reference.

Each person has stored experience, consisting of beliefs and values related to himself and to his group. *A message that challenges these beliefs or values may be rejected, distorted or misinterpreted.*

In case where beliefs are firmly fixed, the communicator finds it is often more effective to try to redirect existing attitudes slightly than to attack them, as shown in Figure 1.5.
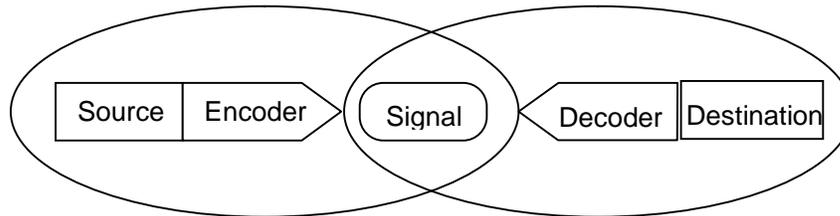
Figure 1.5: Frame of reference

Dimension of Message

1.6.5 Dimensions of the Message

1) **Elements:** The ideas that is included in the message.
2) **Structure:** The organization of the message.
3) **Production:** Which means the length and placement of the message?

Characteristics
of the Message

1.6.6 Characteristics of the Message

a) The Amount of Communication
It includes the **total volume of information** as well as **content covered.** *Too little information may not answer all questions to the receiver and result in a rejection of the message. Too much information may not be efficiently integrated and may confuse the receiver.* In general, people tend to forget details of communication; this is why sender needs to level the message and needs sharpening which emphasizes a limited number of details.

b) The Frequency of Communication
Repeated exposure to varied communication messages **reinforces the tendency of act in those receivers**. *Repetition may irritate* the audience but varying the content of the message serves the purpose of reminding the receiver of the general ideas that are being discussed.

Communication
Channel

1.6.7 Communication Channel

It is the medium utilized to convey a message*; it is the means by which a message travels between the communications senders to the communication receiver.*

Channel
Dimension

1.6.8 Channel Dimension

These dimensions permit the investigator to evaluate the effectiveness of different communication channels these dimensions include:

1. Channel
Credibility

1. Channel Credibility: It is **the expertness and trustworthiness** of a channel as perceived by the receivers. *Channel credibility is directly linked to communicator and audience characteristics however print media are perceived by member of upper socio–economic grouping as being more credible, while television is perceived as more credible by lower socio-economic groupings.*

2. Channel
Feedback

2. Channel Feedback: It is known as the opportunity a channel provides for the receiver to respond immediately and to affect the source of the message in communication process. Face-to-face communication tends to facilitate feedback, while mass communication tends to restrict it.

3. Channel
involvement

3. Channel Involvement (or participation): It is the effort required by all senses in order to receive information from a communication channel, face-to-face communication offers the greatest possibility for involvement where print media offer the least possibility for involvement.

4. Channel Availability: The frequency and extent to which a channel may be used to reach a given audience. In some geographic areas, some channels may not be available such as television in mountained areas or print media in highly illiterate areas.

5. Channel Permanency (or ability to preserve a message): The ability of a communication channel over time to carry the message. Print media have this dimension but contrast radio does not.

6. Channel Multiplicative Power: The channel ability to cover areas with speed and timeliness. The mass media can multiply a message and make it available to large numbers of people while face-to-face communication is low in this dimension.

7. Channel Complementary: The channel ability to supplement the communicative work of another channel. Both mass media and interpersonal channels have proven to be high on this dimension.

1.6.9 Effects

Communication effects represent the changes in the receiver behavior that occur as a result of transmission of the message. So, when we speak of "Effective Communication," we mean communication that result in changes of receiver's behavior that were intended by the source.

There are few propositions about communication effects, these are as follows:
1- There are many **levels of effect**: attention to inner confirmation to inner change to, overt action.
2- Much of the effect and its mechanism is **hidden in our cognitive structure**. It can be recognized from visible behavior or physical manifestations.
3- **Complex behavior usually has complex causes**. The effects are the goals of all communication processes.

1.6.10 Feedback

Feedback is an idea derived from engineering communication theory. It means a return flow from the message. In human communication, a speaker hears his words at the same time, or approximately at the same, that the other party hears them. He can then judge for himself how well he has spoken.

Therefore, feedback is a response by the receiver to the source's message, which the source may use to modify his further message. From that perspective, feedback may be thought of as message conveying "knowledge of communication effectiveness.

Tow kinds
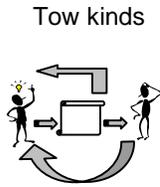
There are two kinds of feedback:
1- **Positive Feedback:** Confirms the source that the intended effect of the message was achieved. Positive feedback tells the source that every thing is going in the desired way.
2- **Negative Feedback:** informs the source that the intended effect of the message was not achieved, as shown in Figure 1.6.
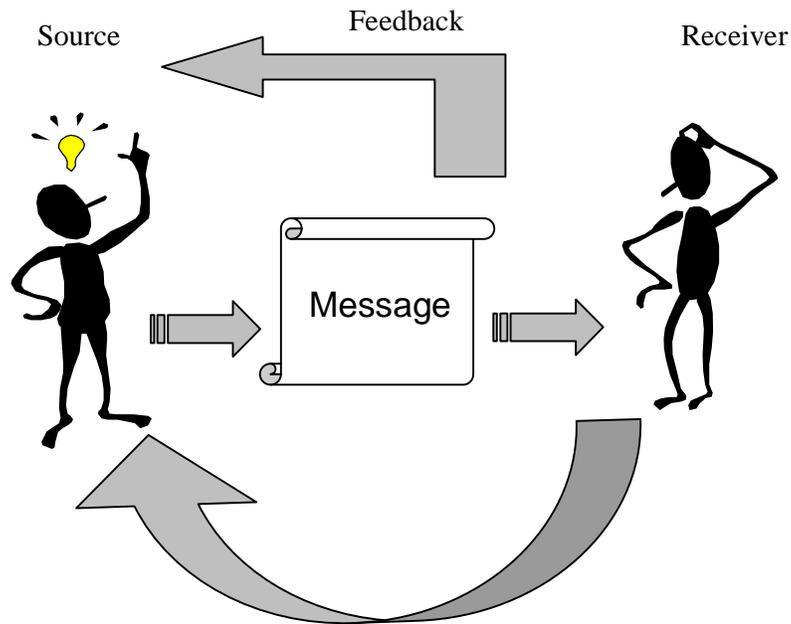
Figure 1.6: Feedback

1.6.11 Communication Noise

Communication Noise

Communication channels are subject to noise. Noise can be identified as the loss of meaning during the transmission.

There are two **major types** of noise:

1. Channel Noise

1. Channel Noise: This type of noise includes any disturbance, which interferes with the physical transmission of the message. In mass communication channel noise includes static on the radio, ink in the newspaper, a rolling screen in television, or type too small to read in a magazine. In interpersonal communication, some one speaking in a room over another conversation, a door shutting etc.

2. Semantic Noise

2. Semantic Noise: This type of noise results in the wrong interpretation of messages, even though the message is received exactly as it was sent such as words too difficult, subject too difficult for receiver to understand also differences of selected meaning of words between the message sender and a receiver, for example receiver thinking that the words prints to something different than that is intended by the sender. **One word may have many different interpretations,** see Figure 1.7.

Figure 1.7: Semantic noise

Forms of
Communication

1.7 Forms of Communication

There are various classifications of forms of communication. Basically we can distinguish between two main forms of communication.

1. Verbal
Communication

1. Verbal communication: which includes:
a) **Oral** communication such as talking to oneself, dialogue, discussion between two people, telephone calls.
b) **Visual communication** such as maps, graphic, traffic signals, advertisement …etc.
c) **Written communication** such as memos, letters reports, papers.
d) **Electronic** which is communication facilitated by an interface with a computer, modem, telephone fax, E-mail …etc, as shown in Figure 1.8.


Oral communication

Visual communication

Written communication
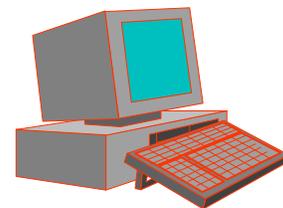
Electronic communication

Figure 1.8: Forms of Verbal Communication

2. Non-verbal Communication

2. Non-verbal communication: Such as body movement facial expression and voice etc.

Depending upon these basic forms of communication, many researchers agreed to **classify forms of communication** as:

1. Intrapersonal Communication

1. Intrapersonal Communication: It is a communication transaction that **takes place within the individual**, this is the silent talking all of us do to ourselves such as **thinking, remembering, dreaming and deciding**. Intrapersonal communication is made possible because man become object to himself. That is he both produces and receives to same message. *This type of communication fills more time in our experience because in every communication are always subject to our own private interpretation.*

2. Interpersonal Communication

2. Interpersonal Communication: It is the process of **face-to-face interaction between sender and receiver such as group meetings**, interviews, conversations among individuals. It has the advantage of a two-way communication with immediate feedback.

Characteristics of interpersonal communication:
1- There is a **perceptual engagement** on the part of two or more people in physical proximity.
2- Perceptual engagement allows **focused interaction between a single focus of cognitive and visual attention** as in a conversation. In focused interaction, each participant supplies cues supplies by other participant.
3- In this focused interaction, there will be **an exchange of messages.** In this exchange, the participants represent to each other cues they think the other will interpret as intended.
4- The interaction **is face to face**, therefore all senses may be utilized and participants confront each other totally.
5- The interpersonal setting is **unstructured; few rules govern form or content of interpersonal messages**.

Interpersonal communication is **very effective in influencing attitudes and behavior. Hazarded** focused in its characteristics in that field:

1- Personal **contacts are casual, difficult to avoid.**
2- People are **likely to put their trust in the judgment** and view point of persons whom they know, like and respect.
3- Personal communication **influence people through what is said** and by personal control in which the source is as important as the content itself.
4- There is a **great flexibility in the content of interpersonal communication.** If the communication meets resistance from the receivers, he can change the line to meet their reaction.

5- In face-to-face communication **a person can ask questions**, help direct the communication and make some control over it.

6- In face-to-face situation, there is **a chance for quick exchange of information.** Two-way communication that gives a chance for immediate feedback to evaluate the effect of the signs one puts out, to correct to explain and to answer objections.

7- In face-to-face communication it is **possible to stimulate all the senses.** It is also possible to communicate more for complete information.

8- In face-to-face communication **high percentage of the available information is non-verbal**. The silent language of culture, gesture, body movement constitutes a large part of interpersonal communication.

Medio
Communication

1.7.1 Medio Communication

It is **the area of communication** which interfaces between interpersonal communication and mass communication. It is an intermediate level of communication. Medio is derived from Latin, meaning middle.

Medio communication is distinguished by the **presence of technical instrument used under restricted conditions.**

Medio communication is similar to mass communication in the following:
1. Participants in media **can be heterogeneous**.
2. Participant also **can be in different physical locations.**
3. The presence of **a technical channel**.

Medio communication is similar to interpersonal communication in:
1. Source and receiver **are known to each other**.
2. The message is **private more than public**.
3. Message receivers **are small in number**.
4. The interaction pattern **is to a fair degree, unstructured**.

Medio communication includes point-to-point tele-communication, surveillance telecommunication, closed circuit television and home movies.

Tele-
communication

1.7.2 Telecommunication:

It is a special type of communication that **uses electromagnetic devices to cover distance.** It has similar audience characteristics with interpersonal communication. **Point-to-point communication includes telephone, teletype, telegraph, mobile, radio, air-to-ground radio.**

1.7.3 Surveillance Telecommunication

It is used for "**scanning the horizon" for danger signals**. Surveillance telecommunication includes **radar, atmospheric pollution monitoring, weather satellite** and other such telecommunication systems.

1.7.4 Mass Communication:

It is the process through which communication **is directed simultaneously (immediately) to a large, heterogeneous (different) and anonymous (unknown) audience on a massive scale.**

Messages are transmitted publicly and are transient in nature. The communicator works in a complex organization.

The mass media includes the following:
A. **Print media:** *news papers magazines, books etc.*
B. **Electronic media:** *radio programs, audio recordings, T.V. programs.*

The mass media advent required two developments:
1- A **relatively advent technology** to produce the necessary instruments.
2- An **accompanying level of literacy** among large numbers of people to utilize the disseminated information.

The mass media may also be compared on the following dimensions:

1- The medium fidelity (objectivity) in presenting the **following dimensions of an original event:**
    A. Verbal symbols.
    B. Picture symbols.
    C. Color.
    D. Sound.
    E. Emotions.
2- The **medium's delivery speed**, the length of time between an event and when the medium is able to inform people about it.
3- The **medium's portability**, the ease with which the medium can be moved about the environment, both to cover news stories and to reach its audience.
4- The **extensiveness** of the medium's coverage of the environment, the extent of information of interest the media transmits to its receivers.
5- The **medium's access** to feedback.
6- The possibility of **having a message repeated** to satisfy receivers needs.

1.7.5 Non Verbal Communication:

It is a fundamental human interaction where speech alone is unable to deal with it. It is **communication that can occur without words** at all.

The sender has at least **four main sets of physical** non – verbal cues: **face, eyes, body, and voice**.
  a)   The face **includes frowning, smiling and grimacing.**
  b)   The eyes can signal by **direction of gaze**.
  c)   The body offers **posture positions of arms and legs and distancing.**
  d)   Voice includes **tone and speech rhythm**.

The **receiver** has five primary senses: **vision, hearing, touch, taste and smell**. There are **five functional categories of non-verbal communication:**
a) **Emblems movements** that are substituted for words.
b) **Illustrators movements** that accompany speech and accent.
c) **Regulators movements** that maintain or signal a change in speaking and listening roles.
d) **Adaptors movements** related to individual need or emotional state.
e) Effect particularly the **facial expressions showing emotions**.

1.7.6 Kinds of Non-Verbal Language:

1. Language of facial expression: In general a **smile, a scowl or a frown** has a universal meaning. *A frown may be dislike, or disapproval, or puzzlement. A smile may be love, happiness, amusement, or kindness.*
2. Language of eye contact: There are a number of messages communicated by glances such as: **involvement, hostility, command** and others.
3. Language of posture: The more the person leans **towards the individual** he is talking to, the more positively he feels about the person and vice versa.
4. Language of voice: Voice variations may **convey anger, fear, grief** … etc.
5. Language of apparel: The way we dress communicates something about us all of us wear uniforms such as work clothes, play clothes, formal dress, .. etc. Our dress reflects our respect for those whom we visit, or go out with. Also it is assumed that young people who wear glasses tend to be judged as more seniors and intelligent.
6. Language of color: Warm colors – such as yellow, orange, and red – stimulate creativity and make people feel outgoing, and responsive to others. Cool colors encourage meditation and also may discourage conversation.

7. Language of odor: Odors have a profound ability to recall memories out of one's past. Food smells remind one of his mother's cooking, flowers of springtime … etc.

8. Language of time: People and culture have a unique culture clock. In Egypt you can be for half an hour late for a party, or business appointment. On the other hand, in Europe you can't be late for neither of them.

9. Language of space: Every individual seems to develop a distance at which he prefers to interact with others Latin Americans like to talk with each other closely while North Americans maintain a considerable distance.

Organization
Communication

1.7.7 Organizational Communication:

It is a form of **interpersonal communication** that takes place **within definite boundaries.** It is concerned with the **achievement** of the **goals of that organization**. It has the characteristics of inter personal. Each member of the organization is obliged to communicate in certain ways.

Different organizations share similar characteristics:
1- They all have **members interacting with each other** occupying various social positions and playing social roles.
2- **Norms of appropriate behavior** members with standards of appropriate methods of communication some patterns are rewarded and reinforced others are disapproved.
3- Communication through organizations becomes **predicted because of the direction**, frequency form and content of messages exchanges.
4- Organizational communication act remains **dyadic or a two-person interaction.** The messages exchanged are transmitted from one person to another then from that person to another and so on.
5- Major transmission in organizational communication **is oral,** yet it also include print in form of memos and cards.
6- The official routes of organizational communication are **formal channels of communication.** It is concerned with the dissemination of information to the members of the group.

Communication
Context

1.8 Communication Context

Communication transactions always occur **within, and are constrained by, several critical contexts**. By contexts, we mean the **environments where communication takes place**, including the there are four critical communication contexts, other communicators involve in the transaction.

Cultural Context   ## 1.8.1 The Cultural Context

Cultural influences are **an inherent aspect of all communicative transactions.** The term "**Culture" refers to the sum of language, values, beliefs, habits, and practices shared by a large group of people.** These characteristics comprise the cultural context of communication. *Understanding the cultural context contributes greatly to effective environmental management, for without some appreciation of the cultural milieu, communication is doomed to failure.*

Sociological
Context

1.8.2 The Sociological Context

Just as every one belongs to a culture, **each person also belongs to many groups within the culture.** The **sociological context** of communication **refers to the sum of the individual's group memberships** as well as the roles as societal with those memberships.

Physical
Context

1.8.3 The Physical Context

Does the communication transaction occur over coffee during a hurried 15 minute break? Or, does it occur over a leisurely dinner at one of the town's nicest restaurants? Depending on the specific location where the communication occurs, **there will be varying degrees of competing stimuli as well as varying degrees of "openness" on the part of the communication participants.** Within the general location of the communication transaction, studies have indicated that specific arrangement of seating affects the communication process. *In large group meetings, rows of seats facing a single speaker will create a very different context than concentric circle seat with a speaker standing in the center of the circle.*

The total number of receivers involved in the communication transaction must be considered. In general, interaction both verbally and nonverbally decreases as the number of receivers' increases.

Does the communication occur in the morning, in the afternoon, or in the evening? If the communication occurs too early **in the morning, receivers may not be as alert as they will be later in the day,** on the other hand, communication **very late in the day may be influenced by listeners** who are simply too exhausted to accurately receive and understand the message.

In reality, it is difficult to separate the physical from the psychological context, for they operate interdependently.

For example, the **numbers of receivers influence the psychological as well as the physical communication context**. If only fifteen people attend a meeting for which over a hundred were anticipated, interaction between speaker and audience may increase, but the effectiveness of that interaction may be negated by the psychological impact of the low attendance. *On the other hand, if many more people attend a meeting than were anticipated, a feeling of excitement and satisfaction about the excellent response may enable communicators to more than compensate for problems created by the physically crowded conditions.*

Culture and Communication

1.9 Culture and Communication

Culture is the way people think, act, live and communicate. On other hand, culture is communication; the two are very much bound together. *A culture develops as the result of interpersonal communication* – the communication between people that we are concerned with. At the same time, the form, the nature, the make up of the culture results from the interaction of the people and the place and time in which they live. *The "interaction of people" is just another way of saying "communication".* Living together, working together, relating to one another is communication, we are always communicating – or attempting to communicate.

Perhaps the simplest way to explain culture and its relationship to communication is to say that people are different: we live, work in different societies, environment and climates, and we adapt to these in different ways.

As a result of living in different societies, environments, and climates, people develop special needs, acquire habits and customs peculiar to themselves, and have experience which, in general result in particular patterns and methods and forms of expression and relating with one another. Many examples of this could be given.

People in a warm, tropical climate, for example, live quite differently from people in a northern urban area. They live in a much more relaxed style from what we are accustomed to – life is much simpler.

We need to know about people and their background if we are to understand their communication. It is important for you to remember that people in different cultures and countries do not do things as we do them in our country, for example. **Before you do business with foreigners, you should check carefully on local customs, cultures, and communication.**

Remember that people **do things differently remember**, too, that people communicate in term of their own experiences. Do not be offended and communicate offensively when something out of the ordinary happens. *The situation may appear unusual to your frame of reference because it is not within the range of your experience; the situation may be perfectly "normal" to everyone else.*

Our communication is surrounded by barriers of human behavior and language, our communication attempts also are complicated by cultural barriers.

Many cultural differences take the form of nonverbal communication. If a person frowns while listening to your speak, it may indicate doubt or disagreement; on the other hand, the person may have a headache or the light may be bothersome. It is important for you to remain alert to nonverbal signals, but it is also essential that you understand them accurately.

Conclusion

1.10 Conclusion

In this chapter we **focused on communication as human phenomena.** We proposed definitions, forms, contexts in with communication process function. According, to all above topic one can recognize the comprehensive communication model as shown in Figure 1.9.
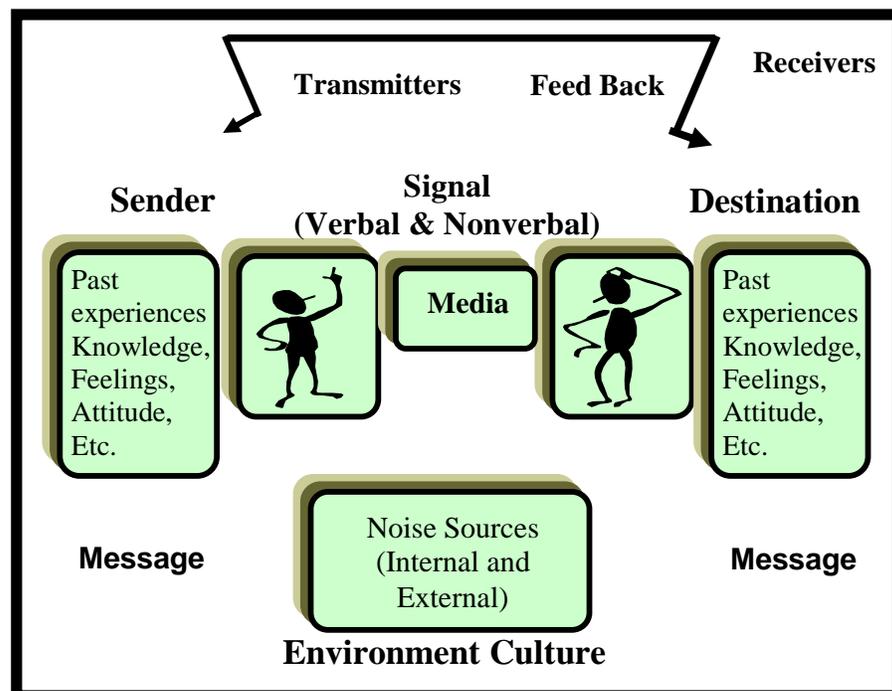
Figure 1.9: Communication Model:

Chapter 2: Persuasion and Effective Communication

Introductory
Note
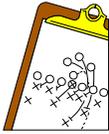
2.1 Introductory Note

We live in **a world of persuasion**. It is useless nowadays getting people to do what we want them to. **Various tactics are being used by persuaders to change the attitudes of receivers**. Seeing what works, in what circumstances, with what kinds of people, will be useful as you prepare to become a persuader.

This part will include:
1- **Definition** of persuasion.
2- **Process** of persuasion.
3- **Attitudes**, its formation, and the component approach to the study of attitude change which makes use of the communication model.
4- The **persuasive communication model**.

Achieve desired action

Persuasion

2.2 Persuasion

The act of persuasion is **as old as man**. In **Ancient Greece**, persuasion was the main **means of achieving power and winning in the courts.**

Aristotle was the **first to study persuasion in depth**. He **linked communication with persuasion.** He identified communication as **all available means to reach persuasion**. Aristotle focused on three ways to reach persuasion:

1- The use of evidence in rational discussion.
2- The use of personal characteristics.
3- The use of emotions.

Definition of
Persuasion

2.3 Definition of Persuasion

There are **many definitions of persuasion**. Some emphasized on internal motive of the audience more than using logic. **Birembeck and Howell** said *"Persuasion is the conscious attempt to modify thought and action by manipulating the motives of men towards predetermined ends***".**

Fotheringham affirmed "*Persuasion is that body of effects in receivers that has been caused by persuader's message".*

Scheidel *began more nearer to the type of persuasion we are familiar to, he defined persuasion as: "The activity in which the speaker and the listener are conjoined and in which the speaker consciously attempts to influence the behavior of the listener by transmitting audible and visible symbolic."*

Central to this definition is the notions of conscious internet, message transmission and behavioral change.

It also **includes sender and receiver** which **make the components of definition** resembling the components of communication.

Persuasion, from this point of view, depends upon two main aspects:
1- Communication.
2- Intending planning of persuader to affect audience.

Depending on previous clarification, we can define persuasion as: **"The intended use of communication to form a desired response from receivers to their social environment"**.

Elements of Persuasion

2.3.1 Elements of Persuasion

We can underline five elements of persuasion:
1- The **invention or discovery** of evidence and argument, and their
2- **Organization**,
3- **Artistic stylizing**,
4- **Memorization**, and
5- **Skillful delivery**.

Process of Persuasion

Models

2.4 Process of Persuasion

2.4.1 Models of The Persuasive Process

The foregoing theories of the way in which communication content influences individual conduct, **have led numerous attempts to capitalize on these conceptualizations** for the purpose of deliberately manipulating human behavior by communicated messages.

In attempting to describe the nature of these formulations, **two things will be made clear:**
1- These models of the persuasive process are the **extension and utilization of the contemporary theories** of communication.
2- These models are **roughly formulated**. There are a number of other models of the persuasion process that could be formulated instead.
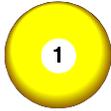
The **first** of these two conceptualizations is **called the psychodynamic model of the persuasion process**. The essence of the idea is that **an effective persuasive message** is said to be one which **has properties capable of altering the psychological functioning of the individua**l in such a way, that he will respond overly with modes of behavior, recommended by the communicator. It has been assumed that effective persuasion is the change of the internal psychological structure of the individual, so that the psychodynamic relationship between the latent internal process and manifest overt behavior, will lead to acts, intended by the source of the communication.

Extensive use has been made of persuasive messages **aimed at individual attitudes,** under the assumption that there is a close relationship between a person's attitudinal structure and his behavior in social situations, see Figure 2.1.

In simple graphic terms, *the psychodynamic model of the persuasive process would be as follow* :

Persuasive message	→		→	

Figure 2.1: Psychodynamic Model

The psychodynamic model rests upon **an extensive theoretical** as well as **an empirical base**. *Important theories of motivation, perception, learning and even psychoanalysis have suggested ways in which, attitudes, fears, self-conceptions, reinforcement, and many other variables, are related to persuasion.*

The psychodynamic model of the persuasion process are attempts to **use the theory for practical purposes**, this mode has by no means been the only one, that has been tried. *A somewhat more complicated alternative stems from a combination of the social relationship perspective and the cultural norm theory*. For the lack of a better term, we will refer to this as the sociocultural model of the persuasion process.

Social and cultural variables have been widely **recognized by communication researchers and other social scientists**, as playing an important part in determining the way, in which people adopt new ideas and things. However, sociocultural variables have been used as a basis for appeals in persuasive communication.
The **sociocultural variables** from which the individual derives interpretation of reality as well as being significant forms of social control are important sources **determining the direction of the individual's attitude.**

Asch & Sheriff *show how the influence of norms plays a powerful role in guiding, defining and modifying the behavior of the individual, somewhat independently of the state of his internal predisposition.* Sociological studies have supported this generalization. The work of **Lohman and Reilzes, Merton, Kit, Mead, De Fleur and Westic, Minared and Newcomb**, *indicate the way in which such variable as organizational membership, work roles, reference groups, cultural norms, and primary group norms can play a part in channeling overt action,* in ways that are, to some extent uninfluenced by internal psychological predispositions. It must be recognized, however, that the behavioral patterns of the individual can not be interpreted on the basis of psychological predispositions. It must be recognized, however, that the behavioral patterns of the individual can not be interpreted on the basis of psychological factors only, especially when the individual is acting within special social setting. Reference must be made to the variables that surround the action, in order to predict, explain and manipulate such a behavior effectively.

The **sociocultural factors** existing in an individual setting **are important determiners of the direction the individual's behavior** that will take. This behavior can be contrary to that intended since he may find certain social and cultural constraints, which will make him compelled to conform under condition. This situation would cause the individual a social and psychological conflict in following the behavior prescribed by the communicator. Represented schematically, such a model of the persuasive process is Figure 2.2.
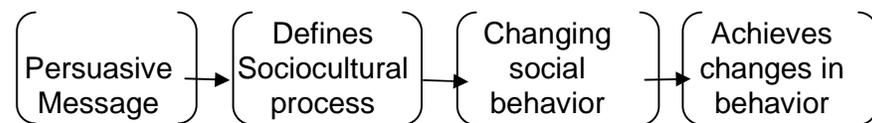
Figure 2.2: Sociocultural Model

These **two concepts** suggest that the **persuasive messages presented via the mass media** may provide the appearance of consensus with respect to a given object, or goal of persuasion.

The communicator can also show how the non-adopter is a deviant and a non-conformist. He may also show simultaneously, the way in which social rewards, group integration, and social approval, are bestowed upon the individual for obeying the communicator's goal.

There are undoubtedly **numerous way**s in which **persuasion process could be conceptualized. The psychodynamic and the sociocultural strategies,** however, seem to be rather clear links to the attitudes and their formation.

Definition of
Attitude

2.5 Definition of Attitude

The concept of "**attitude**" has been variously **defined by social scientists** so that there has been a good deal of ambiguity regarding the concept. But, perhaps, the most acceptable is that of **Rokeach**:

> **"An attitude is a relatively enduring organization of beliefs around an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner."**

This definition of attitude specifies at least five factors or meets five conditions:

1. An attitude is relatively enduring over time

1. An attitude is relatively enduring over time: The concept of attitude is reserved for enduring persistent organizations of predispositions round a central belief. Attitudes are formed by past experiences and are learned responses to particular objects, things or processes.

2. An attitude is an organization of beliefs

2. An Attitude is an organization of beliefs: It represents a cluster or syndrome of two or more interrelated beliefs. A belief is any simple proposition, conscious or unconscious inferred from what a person says or does.   Each belief has three components: a cognitive component (person's knowledge), an affective, component (capable of, leads to some action when suitably activated).

3. An attitude is organized bound an object or a situation

3. An attitude is organized bound an object or a situation: An attitude object may be concrete or abstract while an attitude situation is a dynamic event around which a person organizes a set of interrelated beliefs about how to behave.

4. An attitude is a set of interrelated predisposition to respond

4. An attitude is a set of interrelated predisposition to respond: A response may be either a verbal expression or a non-verbal behavior, an attitude is an "agenda for action" that is, it specifies the response a person will make to a given object within a given situation.

5. An attitude to a preferential response

5. An attitude leads to a preferential response: An attitude predisposes one to respond in a preferential manner to individuals or groups who agree with or oppose us with respect to that particular attitude.

Many persons tend to use the terms attitude and opinion interchangeably as if there were no distinction between them. Opinion is the overt expression (verbal or non-verbal) of an attitude which is only internal to the individual.   Thus when we measure opinions, we only infer that they refer to an internal attitude of the individual.

2.6 Formation of Attitude

One of the most important matters to be discussed is **how attitudes are formed.** More than ever before it is now necessary to know why people hold the views they do. In other words, how their attitudes have been formed? First, let us consider **how attitudes arise and where do their origins lie**. One can trace three sources:

1- In the **child rearing experience of the first five or six years** of life from the parent-child relationship.
2- By **association between individuals or the formal and informal groups** met with in later life.
3- From **unique and isolated experiences** or similar experiences repeated throughout life.

But those three sources must be **considered within the framework of society and its culture** or way of life to which the individual belongs. In the *earlier years a parent tries to plant this culture into the child and this process is known as mediated social-cultural influence.* **Later on**, the process becomes **self-incubated** and this is known as direct social-cultural influence.

2.7 Functions of Attitudes

This is a point that has been subject to a great deal of arguments, and consequently contradictions. One of the main questions asked is this **"does an attitude possess drive-producing properties or do motives come from sources other than the attitude itself?**" To answer this question one must develop a more comprehensive formulation of the functions of an attitude. A certain line of thinkers, **Lasswell, Formm, Maslow and others believe that attitudes serve mainly irrational, ego-defensive functions.** Another group of thinkers, students of culture and sociology went further to say that attitudes have **an adjustive function**, meaning by this the adjustment of primitive and modern man to their specific cultures and subcultures. This gives attitudes positive functions which were formulated by **Katz** as follows:

1. Instrumental
adjustive
function

1- The **instrumental adjustive function** involves such values as security, achievement, competence, success and loyalty in group. It is served when people strive to maximize the rewards and to minimize the penalties of their external environment.

2. Ego-
defensive
function

2- The **ego-defensive function**: in which a person protects himself from acknowledging the basic truth about himself or the harsh realities in his external world. It may be reflected in positive values as, honor, chivalry, racial purity or the extensive condemnation of such negative values as lust, intemperance.

3. Value expressive function	3- The **value expressive function**: in which the individual derives satisfactions from expressing attitudes appropriate to his personal values and his concept of himself. This function is central to doctrines of ego psychology which stress the importance of self-expression, self-development and self-realization.
4. Knowledge function	4- The **knowledge function**: based upon the individual's need to give adequate structure to his universe. It refers to a person's central values concerning truth, understanding and the search of meaning, also serving self-expression, self-development and self-realization.

Determinant of Attitude Formation, Arousal and Change in Relation to Type of Function

2.7.1 Determinants of Attitude Formation, Arousal and Change in Relation to Type of Function

Function	Origin and dynamics	Arousal conditions	Change conditions
Adjustment	Utility of attitudinal object in need satisfaction maximizing external rewards and minimizing punishments	1- Activation of needs. 2- Salience of need satisfaction.	1- Need deprivation. 2- Creation of new needs of aspiration. 3- Shifting rewards and punishments. 4- Emphasis on new and better paths to need satisfaction.
Ego defense	Protecting against internal conflicts and external dangers	1- Posing of threats. 2- Appeals to hatred and repressed impulses. 3- Rise in frustration. 4- Use of authoritarian suggestion.	1- Removal of threats. 2- Catharsis. 3- Development of self-insight.
Value expression	Maintaining self-identity-enhancing favorable self-expression and self-determination.	1- Salience of cues associated with values. 2- Appeals to individuals to reassert self-image	1- Some degree of dissatisfaction with self. 2- Greater appropriateness of new attitude for the self. 3- Control of all environmental support to undermine old values.

Knowledge	Need for under-standing meaningful cognitive organization and consistency and clarity	1- Reinstatement of cues associated with old problem or of old problem itself.	1- Ambiguity created by knowledge of change in environment. 2- More meaningful information about problems

Measuring
Attitude

2.8 Measuring Attitudes

Attitude measurement is **a process whereby one assesses an individual's response to a set of social objects of situations**. This is done by observing a sample of behavior from an attitude universe. *Each behavioral element in the attitude universe in the response to a particular situation or object that evokes the response together with a specified set of response categories is called an item.* The set of behavior comprising an attitude is called an attitude universe. There are several methods available for measuring attitudes among them.

1. Judgment
methods

1. Judgment methods: There are two major aspects of this method. Firstly, each item is scaled to give its **degree of favorableness** towards the issue. Secondly, the respondents must be scored on the basis of their responses to the items.

2. Method of
summated
ratings

2. The method of summated ratings: Techniques similar to techniques used in the mental-testing field. In this method, five categories of responses are provided for each item: strongly disapprove, **with scores 5, 4, 3, 2, 1**, respectively. An individual's scale score is the sum of his scores on the items.

3. Scalogram
analysis

3. Scalogram analysis: In **1944 Guttmann** proposed a **nonmetric method for scaling monotone attitude items.** In a **Guttmann scale**, the items have **a special cumulative property**. For example, a person who responds positively to the third item on the scale is almost sure to have responded positively to the first and second items.

The basic idea of the scalogram is that **items can be arranged in an order so that an individual** who agrees with, or responds positively to, any particular item also responds positively to all items of lower value order. The rank order of the items is the scale of items; the scale of persons is very similar, people being arranged in order according to the highest rank order of items checked, which is equivalent to the number of positive responses in a perfect scale.

Conclusion

2.8.1 Conclusion

Attitudes can be **formed toward "objects" and "situations"**, and in many cases the two are not compatible which creates the problem of correspondence.

Persuaders are always trying to appeal to attitudes that we hold or values that we have. Though not clearly linked to behavioral change, attitudes and opinions are important to persuaders. Whether attitudes affect behavior or not, persuaders think that they do and build their messages accordingly.

Persuasive
Communication

2.9 Persuasive Communication

The question that rises here is: "**how can we effectively communicate and reach persuasion?"**

We can identify persuasive communication as "The communication process where the **communicator uses his tactics to affect a group** of target audience attitudes and their behavior."

The
Persuasive
Communication
Model

2.9.1 The Persuasive Communication Model

Carrel Hovland and his colleagues were the first to make a persuasive communication model. This model **depends upon three sets of factors** in order to reach the intended attitudes and behavior. These factors are:

Factors Related
to The
Communication
Process

1. Factors Related to The Communication Process
These factors include the three main key factors in the communication process which are:

A. Factors
related to the
source

A. Factors related to the source: They include:
        Source specialization
        Source credibility
        Source status
        Audience love to the source

The **source plays the key role in the persuasive communication process.** He can easily transfer his ideas when he is specialized in the topic he is talking about. **David Berlo** said that the **communication skills** such as talking, writing, reading, listening, thinking and level of knowledge **are variables behind the success of communication process.**

Source
Credibility

Source Credibility
Is **the experience and trustworthiness that receivers give to the source.** Many communication researches demonstrated that an individual response to new ideas and information depended, at least in part on **"who said it"**: social scientists, point out the characteristics of a message source enhance his communication effectiveness. Though **Hovland & others** calculated that **source credibility** whether high or low **do not affect the amount of information transferred to the audience**, *yet the high credible source is more effective in changing attitudes than low credibility sources.*

Other factors such as the **sources demographic characteristics** and to what extent do they match the audience, also the audience love to the source affect the process. This why sometimes, actors are chosen for certain persuasive messages.

B. Factors
related to
message

B. Factors related to the message: **Hovland** pointed out some f**actors** that must be **included in the message in order to be effective.** He focused on factors such as; **the way ideas, evidence are arranged, the organization of the arguments used in support of the position advocated.** In addition to the meaning contained there in, the organization of the message may vary along many dimensions.
Also the message can present the favorable arguments that the source is advocating or it can recognize the opposing positions as well. If both sides are presented, it has to be decided which argument should precede the other, should a conclusion be presented or should it be left to the receivers to draw their own conclusion, what kind of appeals should be used. Such questions have generated interesting studies on the role of the message component in changing attitudes. The answers will be discussed in detail in the chapter dealing with written communication.

C. Factors
related to
audience

C. Factors related to the audience: Individuals vary greatly in their personal psychological organization. This will be discussed later, but this model focuses on variables in the audience that affect their readiness to be persuaded. **The model figured out personality characteristics and other predisposition factors** that enable communicators to predict which type of persons or audience members will respond to new information or emotions appeals. These characteristics are:

1. An
individual's
readiness

1- **An individual's readiness** to accept a favorable or unfavorable position on the particular topic that is being discussed. This category deals with personalities who show anxiety from deviating from accepted norms.

2. An
individual's
susceptibility

2- **An individual's susceptibility** to particular types of arguments and persuasive appeals. This category refers to the predisposition factor which takes into account that audience are exposed to different types of communication that makes them respond to some appeals and neglect others.

3. An individual's overall level of susceptibility

3- **An individual's overall level of susceptibility** to any form of persuasion or social influence.

This **category includes those personality characteristics of people**, who are most resistant to all forms of persuasion, as well as those who are moderately responsive and those who are highly persuasible.

Personality factors

A number of personality factors have been suggested as affecting persuasibility.

a) Overt Hostility

a) Overt Hostility: People who display overt aggressiveness or overt anti-social behavior are considered very difficult to react to any form of persuasion.

b) Social Withdrawal

b) Social Withdrawal: People under this category have a tendency to remain aloof with a marked preference for seclusive activities. They are considered to be resistant to any form of persuasion.

c) Richness of Fantasy

c) Richness of Fantasy: It is believed that people with a rich fantasy tend to be more receptive to persuasive communication.

d) Self Esteem

d) Self Esteem: Men with low self esteem are more responsive to persuasive communication than others. These persons are passive dependant and can adopt at least temporarily, whatever ideas are being promoted.

e) Other Directness

e) Other Directness: This refers to people with others directed. They are likely to be influenced by an educational or promotional campaign designed to change any type of belief or attitude. However, their change is likely to be short lived if exposed to counter propaganda.

f) Sex Differences

f) Sex Differences: It is assumed that women in impersonal matters are more persuasible than men. Thus, women are more responsive to attitudes change than men in matters related to political or social issues.

Factors Related to Cognitive and Psychological Reaction

2. Factors Related to Cognitive and Psychological Reaction
These set of factors indicates the status of reaction and feedback either in the inner perception or an overt behavior. It is the middle stage that leads to types of effect including attention, understanding and persuasion.

Factors related to Effect on the Receiver

3. Factors Related to Effect on The Receiver

These factors are **the goal of the persuasive communication**. It is what we call the **K.A.P. scale** where we know to what extent did we affected our audience. Did we reach the "K" goal; "**K" refers to knowledge.**

This simply notifies that we affected the receiver's knowledge by giving him information that might help him to form an opinion on the issue we are talking about. The second point on the scale is **forming or changing attitudes**. This is where the **"A" stands**. The third on the scale is the **"P"** that refers to **practice** which means succeeding in changing the receiver's behavior and helping him to adopt our desired behavior.

The Persuasive Communication Model

Factors related to source: Source specialization Source credibility Source status Audience love to the source	Attention Understanding	Knowledge
Factors related to message: Arrangement of ideas Organization of arguments One-side or both sided Stating conclusion	Emotional acceptance	Attitudes
Factors related to audience: Audience characteristics Hostility Social withdrawal Richness of fantasy Self-esteem	Persuasion	Practice

There are **many barriers to persuasive communication** such as **language, defense mechanism, misinterpretation, inconsistency with beliefs educational barrier, status barrier and lack of trust**. How to overcome these barriers? We are going to discuss in the next chapters concerning communication skills.

Chapter 3: Communication Skills

Introductory
Note

3.1 Introductory Note

The preceding section shows the communicative process as starting with the transmission of ideas and ending with their reception by another person. Your role as sender or receiver is an interchangeable one. For every speech you give in a speech class, you listen to perhaps fifteen or twenty others. Just think of the volumes that you read, in School, college and out, compared to the amount that you write. Obviously, reading and listening skills are as important to you as writing and speaking.

This chapter will **discuss the transmission skills** that include verbal communication **like special skills of speaking, written communication and various approaches to effective written communication.** This chapter will also **focus on understanding your audience,** different perspective in understanding your audience, the feedback model and verbal and non verbal clues from your audience.

At the end we'll **discuss the reception skills** focusing on guides to active listening and strategies for improving listening skills.

Transmission
Skills: Speaking
and Writing

Transmission Skills: Speaking and Writing

Speaking and writing are alike in many important ways. Each requires the same clarification of the purpose you want to accomplish, the same ability to **keep always in mind the nature and needs of the audience,** and the same thoughtful development of the ideas with which you must supply the audience in order to accomplish your purpose. **Both require an adequate command of language.**

However, there are important differences which result from the different situations in which the communication occurs.

The speaker is face-to-face with his audience; the writer is not. This physical presence can be **a great advantage to the speaker**. *His mannerism and facial expressions can express his personality to the audience and can help him remain in contact with them.*
The qualities of his voice animate the words he uses and hence, the ideas they express.

In contrast, **the writer depends solely on a masterful command of the written language.** *Careful construction of sentences, precise choice of words, and such typographical devices as punctuation and paragraphing are all he has to take the place of the marvelously communicative qualities of the human voice.*

However, the **speaker's physical presence before the audience imposes some difficulties.** *A writer who isn't sure just what he wants to say can stop, think, scratch and revise.*

A speaker, once he faces his audience, had better **be sure of his material.** Of course he can watch the reaction of the audience and, in a sense, revise what he intended to say if he sees he is not making himself clear; **but this requires quick thinking.** *Careful thinking and preparation are important to the writer too; but they are absolutely essential for the speaker.*

Facing the audience directly places the speaker in a different psychological situation, also one that has both advantage and disadvantages. *The direct contact may stimulate him to produce more direct and lively expression of his ideas.*

At the same time, he is acutely aware of his own presence before the audience. He may feel that they are examining him far more critically than they actually are and that they are far more conscious of his little mistakes than they actually are.

Reception Skills:
Reading and
Listing

Reception Skills: Reading And Listening

Because they are **both receptive skills** and because they are **both communication skills** *reading and listening have much in common.* Mere assimilation of ideas is often not enough for effective reading and listening, because the value and validity of the ideas may be open to question. Passive acceptance of everything you read or hear is as undesirable as the opposite extreme, cynical refusal to believe anything. *The intelligent course is to learn when to be critical in your reading and listening and how to use the tools of critical thinking to place the proper evaluation on what you read or hear.* In short, both reader and listener are involved in the complicated processes of assimilating and critically evaluating ideas, and **they make use of the same basic knowledge and ways of thinking.** However, the important differences between speaking and writing imply similar differences between reading and listening.

One difference is **the amount of unbroken and concentrated attention required. Listening**, especially in any situation in which **you are not the only listener**, is an instantaneous **experience** that generally **cannot be repeated**. *If your mind wanders off for a few minutes on a reverie about last night, you lose what the speaker has*

offered during that time and the omission may make it difficult to pick up the thread of ideas again. If you spend too much time taking notes by failing to distinguish between main ideas and details, the speaker will leave you behind. Concentrated attention is also important **in reading,** of course, but the situation is different. *If your attention is distorted, you can always return.*

Usually the reader has more control over distractions, too. He can shut the radio off or move to a quieter spot, if other people distract him.

Transmission
Skills

3.2 Transmission Skills

Speaking

3.2.1 Speaking

Content

What is a presentation?
"Presentation is a way of communicating ideas and information to a group"

A good presentation should have the following ingredients:
Content: It contains information that people need. Unlike reports, it must account for how much information the audience can absorb in one sitting.

Structure

Structure: It has a logical beginning, middle, and end. It must be sequenced and paced so that the audience can understand it. Where as reports have appendices and footnotes, the presenter must be careful not to loose the audience when wandering from the main point of the presentation.

Packaging

Packaging: It must be well prepared. A report can be reread and portions skipped over, but the audience is at the mercy of a presenter.

Human Element

Human Element: A good presentation will be remembered much more than a good report because it has a person attached to it. But you still need to analyze if the audience's needs would not be better met if a report was sent instead.

How do I
prepare an oral
presentation

How do I prepare for an oral presentation?
Like good writing, good oral presentation **must be clearly and logically organized.** Once you have your material organized, however, presenting it orally is quite a different matter from presenting it in writing. Make the most of the advantages inherent in speaking, the four main steps that make preparing an oral presentation different from preparing a written document: **1) structure, 2) select visual aids, 3) practice, and 4) make arrangements.**

Structure your
Presentation

A. Structure your Presentation

Presenting information orally differs from writing it. An effect presentation structure includes: **(1) an opening, (2) a preview, (3) focus major points, and 4) a closing.** Decisions regarding each of the characteristics will defend on your managerial style.

1) Use an
effective
opening

1) Use an effective opening: The **Audience Memory Curve** emphasizes the **importance of your opening.** In speaking, however, your opening **is even more crucial than in writing**, you must **arouse your listener's interest**; you must **establish credibility**. An affective opening stimulates your listener vital interest answer their questions, "Why should I be listening to this anyway?" Regardless of the kind of opening you select, always start with a "grab".

2) Include a
review

2) Include a preview: Listeners need orientation because, unlike readers, they cannot skim the general outline of your speech. A **preview will answer their question**, *"Just what am I going to learn or do during this presentation?"* Always state a preview explicitly before you begin discussing your, points.

3) Make your
own major
points clearly

3) Make your own major points clearly
Listeners cannot process as much information as readers can, **do not get oriented as easily as readers do**, and do not remember information heard only once. Therefore, make the points in your presentation very clear by:
(1) limiting your main points
(2) using explicit transitions
(3) using internal summaries
(4) Use an effective closing.

Your audience is likely to remember your last words. So avoid the "that's all I have to say", "I guess that's about it" syndrome. Use an obvious transitional phrase - such as "to summarize" or "in conclusion to introduce your closing remarks. If you have a question period, be sure to save a few minutes at the end for your closing. In any event, use effective closing.

The following tables summarizes the **four structural characteristics of effective presentation:**

Effective opening

Effective Opening

Managerial Style	Refer to the unusual	Opening
Any style	Refer to the familiar	- Rhetorical question. - Anticipator promise of what you will discuss. - Vivid image. - Starting example or story. - Important statistics. - Audience (who they are). - Occasion (why you are here). - Relationship between the audience, and the subject. - Something or someone familiar to the audience.

Effective Previews

Effective Previews

Managerial Style	Preview
Tell	List your three to five main points: listeners definitely remember better if they hear an overview first.
Sell	State the problem or need you will remedy: state your organizational structure.
Consult /join	State major objectives, areas of discussion, an approximate amount of time you will spend on each area.

Clear Major Points

Clear Major Points

Managerial Style	Major points
Tell / Sell	Limit to three to five major points for an hour presentation

Consult /join	Separate clearly the two typical major points:
	1. Discussion :
	    Draw out listeners.
	    Postpone evaluation and criticism.
	    Encourage free and creative thinking.
	2. Debate and consensus:
	    Encourage critical thinking, argument, debate.
	    Reach consensus.
	    Determine next action.

Managerial Style	Explicit Transitions
Tell/Sell	Use between your major points, to reinforce learning: Say, "The second recommendation is", not "Second". Say "Another benefit of the systems is", not "in addition".
Consult /join	Use between your major sections: Say, "The third area we need to discuss this morning is", not "Next".
Managerial Style	**Explicit Summaries**
Tell/Sell	Summarize between your major points or sub points.
Consult /join	Summarize consensus between your two major organizational sections.

Effective
Closings

Effective Closings

Managerial Style	Closings
Tell	List your three to five major points. (You may feel as though you're being repetitive but this kind of reinforcement is extremely effective for explaining instructing). Refer to the rhetorical question, promise image, or story you used in your opening.
Sell	Call for action based on what you have presented; make the what next? Refer to the benefits your audience will receive from following the advice in your presentation.
Consult /join	List the main points you have come with as a group; make sure you reach consensus; make sure your audience see the results of the time they spent.

Strategies for
Improving your
Presentation

Strategies for Improving Your Presentation
To sum-up the previous the main points of previous chart you can focus on:
- Clarifying your ideas before communicating.
- Examining the true purpose of communication.
- Considering the environment of the communication.
- Consulting with others, whenever appropriate.
- Conveying something of value to the receiver.

Follow up to
Confirm it

Follow Up Your Communication to Confirm It
- Communicate both for the short run and for the long run.
- Be sure your actions support your communications.
- Be a good and empathetic listener.
- Be flexible to other's views, conditions, circumstances, etc.

How to Help
Others to
Understand You

Summary of
Presentation
Structure

How to Help Others Understand You
- Talk specifics.
- Go directly to the subject.
- Build self-esteem.

Summary of Presentation Structure

Managerial style:

		Tell	Sell	Consult / Join
	Opening	Gmb audience's attention		
Presentation structure	Preview	State your main points	Establish need for change; outline general structure	Establish main discussion area
	Body	Provide information	Explain how you will satisfy needs	First, discuss ideas uncritically, 5 second, debate and argue ideas.
		Use explicit transitions and internal summaries		
	Conclusion	Restate main points or tie to opening	Appeal for audience action	Reach group consensus and recommendations
Desired result		Audience learns	Audience acts	Speaker and audience learn

Goals for Using
Aids

GOAL
Clarify

Emphasize

Demonstrate
relationships

Goals for Using Aids
- ♦ **Clarify** your structure: such as an agenda chart at the beginning of your presentation or main topic slide merged out as you speak.
- ♦ **Emphasize** your important ideas: such as a list of your recommendations.
- ♦ **Demonstrate relationships**: such as pie charts to show components or line charts to show changes over time. Visual pictures are generally more effective than overwhelming lists of numbers or statistics. (Of course, your data may be summarized on a handout and passed out at the end of the presentation.)

Types of
Occasions

Formal

Types of Occasions
Formal: These are **aids created before the presentation** - such as finished **clip charts, chart cards, desk-top charts, 35mm. slides, and overhead transparencies.** They may be professionally printed, often in color. They assure you of a great deal of control over your presentation, with relatively little audience involvement.

Semi-formal

Semi-formal: These are aids **created partially before, and partially during, the presentation** - such as **flipcharts or overhead transparencies.** You may want to elicit some audience response, you would write on a partially prepared chart, or you may want to cross out something on a prepared slide and write over it in a different color to emphasize a change.

Informal

Informal: These are aids **created during the presentation** - such as **chalk-boards, blank flipchart, or blank overhead transparencies.** They are more flexible, spontaneous, and audience-involving than other aids, but you exert less control over their content.

Practice your presentation

B. Practice your presentation

Unfortunately, **many business and professional speakers neglect this step.** But you should remember that credibility of your content is not enough you must also establish credibility as a speaker. *Practicing in advance will increase your self-confidence and poise, improve your wording so it flows naturally and spontaneously, identify any gaps in your speech, deal with distractions, and make sure your visual aids are smoothly integrated into your speech.*

1) Use cards

1) Use cards: Getting your **speech onto cards has three main advantages:** *(1) cards are easy to hold; (2) they allow you to add, subtract, or rearrange your material easily; and (3) they force you to prune your speech down to outline, so you cannot read it word by word.* In general, outline at least five minutes worth of material on each card.

2) Become familiar with your presentation

2) Become familiar with your presentation: Instead of memorizing or reading your speech, **become familiar with it practicing.** Rehearse out loud on your feet with your aids. Time yourself **Do not practice by sitting at your desk and reading your speech.** Stand up and practice aloud. As you do, you may find some of the rehearsal methods useful.

3) Practice with your visual aids

3) Practice with your visual aids: As you rehearse, **practice with your aids.** This includes rehearsing physical details and controlling the sequence.

♦ **Rehearse the details***:* You don't want to spoil the effect of your aids and your presentation performance: "How do you turn this thing on?"; just a minute while this thing set up"; "Oh, sorry, I guess its upside down".

♦ **Control the sequence***:* Always assume your audience will read whatever is in front of them regardless of what you are saying For example, do not pass out a handout at the beginning of your presentation and expect your audience to read ahead; do not pull up a slide with your conclusion visible until you you allow audience to see it

4) Memorize your opening and closing only

4) Memorize your opening and closing only: Since good eye contact is crucial both for establishing audience rap at the beginning of your speech, and for confirming it at the end, memorize your opening and closing. Then, you will be able to look to your listeners during the first and last moments.

Repeat the two sections over and over so you will not hesitate during the first minutes or conclusion of your presentation.

Rehearsal Methods

Rehearsal Methods

Simulate the Situation

Simulate the Situation
1. **Practice in the place** where you will be speaking.
2. **Practice in front of chairs set up**, as they would be when you give your speech.
3. **Practice while bouncing a ball** (or performing another routine task to improve your ability to withstand distractions).

Improve your Delivery

Improve your Delivery
1. **Speak into a mirror** to improve facial expressions and animation.
2. **Speak into an audio tape-recorder** to improve vocal expression animation, rate, and enunciation.
3. **Speak to a friend or colleague**.
4. Best of all, **speak in front of a videotape recorder**, evaluating the playback

Rehearsing the Details

Rehearsing the Details
Positioning: flipping the chart paper; turning the projector on and off positioning the slides on the screen; or writing on the board, flipchart, or transparency.

Teamwork: working with a partner of one will be manipulating while the other speaks.

Volume: speaking a bit more loudly than usual (speakers tend to decrease their volume when they use aids).

Eye contact: maintaining eye contact with your audience (speakers tend to get engrossed in their machines or charts and lose audience rapport).

Controlling the Sequences
Meter

Stop

Avoid

Controlling the Sequence
Meter: Meter out material **when, and only when, you want your audience to see it.** With formal aids, cover up lines until you start discussing them; with informal aids, write information only as you discuss.

Stop: Cover up, turn off or erase all aids before and after you discuss their content.

Avoid: Avoid detailed handouts, perhaps all handouts except agendas until the end of your presentation.

D. Make The Necessary Arrangements

1) Make sure your audience is notified: For any presentation, answer the following questions;

> **Who?** Precisely should be informed?
>
> **How?** Should you notify by speaking with people individually (more personal, more flexible, more immediate response), writing (more formal, less likely to be forgotten), or both?
>
> **By whom?** Should the notification go out under the name of the speaker, an authority figure, a group, a department, company?
>
> **What?** Exactly what advance information do you want your audience to have?

2) Check your room arrangements:

• **Chair configuration:** Base your chair configuration on the facility, the size of your group communication objective, and the management style you have chosen for presentation. The Figure 3.1 illustrates the four basic configuration courses, you may use or to modify, or combine them.

CHAIR CONFIGURAIONS

Informal — Typical of brainstorming sessions or informal meetings

Informal with Tables

Formal — Typical of briefing sessions or formal meetings

Formal with Tables
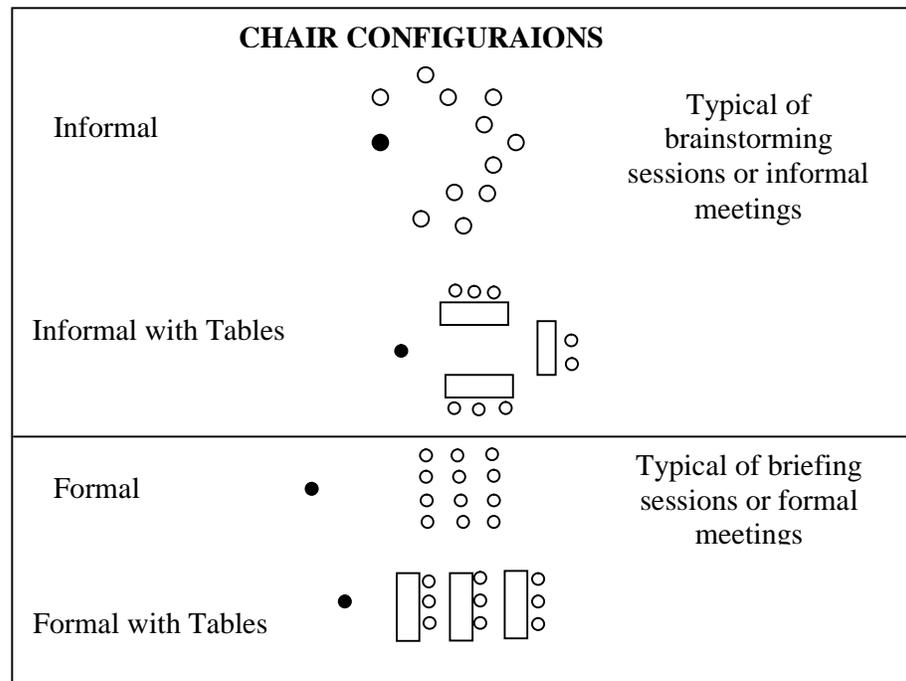
Figure 3.1: The four basic configuration courses

• **Room set-up:** The following chart provides a checklist for your room set-up.

3) Check your visual aids: When the room has been arranged satisfactorily, check your visual aids.

Special Skills in Speaking

3.2.2 Special Skills in Speaking

1- Types of Oral Presentation

1- Type of Oral Presentation
The **speaking situation will determine the suitability of each of the various types of oral presentation.** The following classification is based upon the speaker's method of presenting his material and not upon the various kinds of audiences or speaking occasions.

A. Extemporaneous speaking

A- Extemporaneous speaking: This type of **oral presentation** is **characterized by complete preparation of material without any memorization of the words.** *The speaker will plan his speech carefully and may use some speaker's notes to guide him through the speech, but he will not memorize the exact phrasing of his ideas.* He will probably have memorized his main points and supporting material, but the act phrasing of these will be accomplished at the time he gives the speech. extemporaneous speaking is advantageous in its flexibility and allows for adaptation to the audience as the speech, is presented.   What should you do to condition yourself to become a better extemporaneous speaker? **Here are a few suggestions**:
   a) **Keep your mind on your purpose**.
   b) **Control your intensity**. Be sure that your conversational speech shows a balanced enthusiasm. Avoid on the one hand, any tendency to become too intense to speak too loudly or too fast.
   c) **Keep your speech appropriate to situation**. As in writing, so too in speaking. The language and mood appropriate to one situation may not be appropriate to another. Informal joking, laying on off-hands-all of these can be helpful in some conversations, but destructive in others.
   d) **Work on the quality** of your voice. Whenever you can find the chance listen to your own voice on a tape recorder. Speak extemporaneously into it, talk with someone while the microphone is on, read a page of your favorite book into it. If the voice you hear coming back to you is pleasing you , it will be pleasing to other people.

B. Impromptu Speaking

B- Impromptu Speaking: Impromptu speaking is recognized by **a complete absence of specific preparation by the speaker.** This type of presentation is encountered **when without prior warning a person finds himself in a position where he must speak.**

C. Memorized Speaking

C- Memorized Speaking: As the label indicates, this type of oral presentation **is based upon memorizing word for word the material to be presented.** Superficially examined, *this type may seem simpler than extemporaneous speaking, but it is no*t.

D. Reading from Manuscript

D- Reading from Manuscript: At professional meetings, state occasions, and other situations **where oral presentation must be**

very precise. The speaker may be most effective if he reads his manuscript aloud. *The chief difficulty is encountered in maintaining contact with the audience while reading from the manuscript.* Effective reading can best be obtained if the speaker is very familiar with his material, and if he has practiced reading the words so as to increase the size of the word groups he can see in a glance.

2. The Product

2- The Product

Your fear

Your fear: The **first problem of presentation is fear** and at least **three quarters of that fear is fear of the unknown**. *You can never get rid of all your fear, but you can enormously reduce it by reducing the area of the unknown.* The small amount that is left is necessary and valuable - it concentrates your mind and sharpens your performance. And even if you are one of those who feels no fear at all, the technique for conquering fear is also the best technique for improving any presentation.

Preparation

Preparation: We can start by **breaking the unknown down into five areas:** Why are you making this presentation?
What are you going to say?
Who are you saying it to?
Where will you be saying it?
How will you say it?

a) Why

a) Why?
Every presentation **has an objective**, and the objective is almost always **some form of persuasion**. *You want the audience to place an order, commission a survey, accept a proposal, agree to a budget, develop a product, accept reorganization plan - the list is endless.* Two points are particularly important.
   a) **Make your objective as precise as you can** - with fall-back objectives as well - and put it into words.
   b) **Keep referring back to the objective** whenever you are wondering what to include or where to cut.

b) What

b) What?
Make a note of all the information illustrations and arguments you could possibly need - and jot them down. Do not bother too much about order at that stage.

C) Who

c) Who?
Find out all you can about the people you will be presenting to. Not just how many will be there and their names and jobs. But *why they are interested, what method/equipment/supplier they are using at the moment, what bad or good experiences they have had in the past with whatever you are trying to persuade them to do. What objections they might feel threatened by, and which of their worries your proposals might remove*. This will probably suggest more facts, arguments and visual aids to add to the list. Find then if, on the day,

you can possibly arrange to chat to them informally, over coffee say, for a few minutes before the presentation, do so. It is not only an invaluable extra research opportunity - it is also a marvelous way to break the ice and create an early rapport.

d) Where

d) Where?
Not as important as the others, and you can't always do it., *but if "where" is unfamiliar territory it helps on the day if you have been there before*. And as you look round the room you may spot something important: wrong kind of electric socket, or too distant for you, windows that won't black out, no table, excessive noise - you never knew till you look, and if there's nothing wrong it gives you a little more of what you need most; confidence.

e) How

e) How?
Once you know what you want to say, whom you will be saying it to, where and why, you can work out how. *Now is the time to think yourself into the mind of your audience. What anxieties can you relieve, what needs can you identify and satisfy?* That will guide you to introduction, something to make them sit up and think "Yes, that really is our problem", "Yes, they've put their finger on what we were worried about". "Yes, that would be a great advantage if it really can be done at that price"., Following from that, you can start to arrange your facts and arguments into the best order - best for their understanding and also best for persuasion. Then devise or select the illustrations you are going to need. Then when all the material is assembled and marshaled make your notes and make them clear and large enough. Ii is preferred to write out the whole presentation; after all, (and especially if time is limited) there is always a best way of putting something - **best arguments, best order, best phrase - and you are more likely to think it up and work** it out by making yourself write it in advance than by thinking on your feet. But even if you do not, you should always have at least the opening and closing sentences committed to memory in their entirety.

And finally, *in front of a colleague if possible, on your own if necessary, rehearse.* It is rare indeed to find an over-rehearsed presentation, and nothing is one quarter as effective in removing nerves or at least minimizing their effect on your presentation, as a lot of rehearsal. **As we agreed, fear is largely fear of the unknown, and if the unknown includes what you are going to say you have every reason to fear**.

3. Presenting The Content

3- Presenting The Content
The IT! Method is an exercise to help you develop the content of your presentation. **The IT! Method is a five-step process.**
1. Brain IT!
2. Group IT!
3. Trim IT!
4. Spice IT!
5. Do IT!

Brain IT

Brain IT!

This is your chance **to brainstorm: capture ideas, concepts and information.** *Brainstorming is a method for developing creative solutions to problems your goal is to think freely; putting everything that you may want to say down on paper.* You can brainstorm on your own, but often a small group brainstorming together can really augment this creative process.

Yellow sticky notes (such as Postiks) give the creative process great fertility. You can brainstorm more freely when not hampered by a linear outline or a sequentially generated form.

With your topic identified, and the yellow sticky notes in hand, capture any and all:
• *Ideas*
• *Facts*
• *Related stories*
• *Examples*
• *Miscellaneous*

Yellow-sticky everything and anything that relates to your subject, perhaps flavored by the particular audience. Don't be concerned about relating all of your ideas or whether you even plan to use all of the generated ideas. Just capture all of the ideas - one per yellow sticky! Collect the ideas and stick all of them on a flipchart.

Try to keep your left brain (your internal editor) out of this brainstorming process. *This activity is strictly a right-brain function - pure free-association, idea-generation.*

TIP   **TIP: Brainstorming works best when a time limit is established**.

Group IT!

Group IT

Now step back mentally from this field of yellow sticky notes and do what you would naturally do - **put the notes in groups!**

Group your ideas on the notes **according to the natural associations** you see in the material. *Do not force every idea into a category: some will be left over.*

TIP   **TIP: If you find that a category has more than 10 notes, consider whether it should really be more than one category!**

After you group the sticky notes, give each group a name or title.

Next, *ask yourself the question "Given this particular audience, which of these groups do I want them to hear about first, in the body of the presentation*, **second, third,"** and so on. *Try to keep the number of groups relatively small.*

Many people believe that three is the ideal number of points around which to organize your presentation. This is not an absolute! Just try to keep it simple.

Save the unused groups. They may provide input for other parts of the presentation. These groups also can provide a source for the question-and-answer period of the presentation and may be used in future presentations on the same subject to other audiences.

Look at all of the sticky notes generated from the brainstorming and see what categories or groups you can come up with. Write these in large circles on the flipchart. Ask the group to help decide which ideas go into which group.

Trim IT

Trim IT!
Applying sound simplicity principles trim the ideas within each group and put them into a logical order. Remember, even though many experts believe three is the ideal number, you are not bound to it.

Go back to your presentation strategy and review your position, desired actions and listener benefits. Make sure you define these items in your presentation.

Usually, the desired actions and listener benefits should be stated and restated in the introduction and in the conclusion.

Spice IT

Spice IT!
You are now ready to add spice to your presentation framework! *The purpose of spice is to add memorability, enliven, aid retention and otherwise provide interesting relief.*

Spice it all! Don't forget to spice the beginning and then ending – *remember that the opening and the closing are the most important items in the presentation*.

I**dentify where the "peaks" of the presentation are**, and what type of spice could be added to the "new" presentation. These are the contents of your **"Spice Cupboard":**
  ♦ Stories
  ♦ Quotes

Delivery is based on structure

Your Delivery is Based on Structure
**Hold your breath and wait for a massive generalization.** Ready? Right. All good presentations have the same structure.
It is simple three-part structure, and the same as a symphony or a play: **Exposition, Development, and Recapitulation**. First movement, Second movement Third movement. Act I, Act II, Act III. Order, demonstrated, order challenged, order re-established. You

can embroider it in all sorts of ways, but if you abandon it - resorting, for example, to a string of unstructured and unconnected assertions – you will not hold your audience's attention for long.

For the purposes of a presentation, **you can call the structure "Situation, Complication, Recommendation"** and you will find what everything you have to say fits into one of those three sections.

Situation
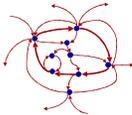
a) **Situation**. **The audiences at the start of a presentation are like the horses before the start of the race** - *scattered all over the place and facing in different directions.* The starter at a race meeting has to bring them all up to the line together so that they start level and all go off in the right direction at the same time**. A presenter has to do much the same, and the way to do it is to outline the present situation:** describe the way overseas distribution is currently organized, or the way we order stationery at the moment, or the way the pattern of home demand has been changing - whatever the purpose of your presentation it is essential that everyone should start with the same knowledge, and important that you should demonstrate to them all that you know the situation and background. It also enables everyone to focus on the specific part of the present situation to which you are addressing yourself. **This part of the presentation, establishing common ground,** may take only a couple of sentences, or it may need quite long analysis of how things came to be the way they are, but some statement of "the present situation has to be made and agreed upon.
By all means, ask them questions about the present situation and past history: it helps you to angle the rest of your presentation more precisely to their needs; end a bit of two-way communication in the early stages is a valuable icebreaker

Complication

b) **Complication.** This is where **you introduce the need for change by showing why the present situation cannot continue or why it would be unwise to continue it.** *Demand is shifting, technology is changing, staff are leaving, delays are lengthening, competitors are gaining, costs are rising, profits are falling, building are leaking* - there must be some significant change or danger or worry or opportunity or you would not be making the presentation. This is the stage at which you dig the hole in which you intend to plant your idea.

Recommend-action

c) **Recommendation.** The other two sections may be brief. **This one forms the bulk of the presentation, and it is also the one you are least likely to omit.** *It may include evaluating alternatives, demonstrating products, describing services, meeting objections, comparing prices adducing evidence, quoting examples, and is in fact what most people mean when they talk about "a presentation".* But its success may well depend on how well you have prepared the ground in those first two sections which it is all too easy to omit.

How to Start

How to Start?

Almost every presentation requires some sort of preface. Exactly what elements it should contain will obviously depend on circumstances - you do not have to explain who you are if you are addressing your department (or if you do have something wrong that your presentation will put right). **The preface** has a double value - it **establishes certain important facts, and it also helps to ease the presenter into their relationship with the audience** by means of "neutral" material that they can all accept and agree with. The longer you keep everyone nodding the better, so long as they don't nod off.

There are five elements to a full preface: a single sentence may be enough for each.

a) Welcoming

a) **Welcoming courtesies** - *simply thanking people for giving up time and hoping they will feel it is well spent etc.*

b) Self-identification

b) **Self-identification** - **your name and job, your background if relevant** (I worked in exploration myself for two years, though not of course at your exalted level..") and any details about colleagues who are with you.

c) The intention

c) **The intention** - **what you are proposing to explain, suggest or demonstrate at this presentation**. This has to be angled toward the benefits they can expect from what you are presenting - not "Tell you about our new office procedures", but "Show you how our new office procedures will enable you better organize your time". *Everything should be presented in terms of their interest, not yours: not "what I am going to tell you", but "what I thought you would like to know".*

d) The route map

d) **The route map** - how long the presentation will last, whether it will be in sections, will it all be here or will we be moving to another part of the building, does it include film, will there be a break for coffee?

e) The rules of the road

e) **The rules of the road** - in particular, do you want people to interrupt if they have a question, wait till the end of the section, or hold all questions until the end? They cannot know unless you tell them.

Creative Openings (Attention Grappers)

Creative Openings (Attention Grappers)

There are as many openings as there are speakers. **One well known speaker entered looking as if he'd had a rough night: rumpled, unshaven and bleary eyed from too much drinking.** He caused and looked around, seeming confused, then he exited and made a quick transformation in his appearance and returning well groomed and as bright as any smart businessman should be. He then began to talk on First Impressions.

Creating a fun gimmick

Creating a fun gimmick or a dramatic opening to grab your audience's attention is not difficult, if you take time, think it through and plan it carefully. *But make sure you choose one to suit the situation and the audience.* A gimmicky opening can be

dangerous, especially if the audience is made to feel foolish as opposed to being captivatingly fooled. **There is a science to opening a presentation. It's a simple science, or should we say one based on simple precepts,** but it's a science nevertheless.

Make no mistake

Make no mistake, the **opening** is **critical.** Just like the first pages of a book or the opening scenes of a movie the reader/audience can be captivated early if it is done well. Once captivated, of course, you must still deliver the goods. But if you fail to "get" them early, the opportunity may be lost. *So, the first goal of a public speaker is to create a positive magnetic relationship with the audience and nothing works better than sharing something about oneself. If humor is the chosen opening tone, then self-deprecation works best.* If an anecdotal beginning is the choice, make it about yourself, but without even a hint of braggadocio. Some of the best-credentialed speakers we know make light of their own accomplishments and pedigrees by creating humor about them. We know of one college professor, for instance, who opens his public speaking engagements with a put-down of his own profession: **"A Professor is someone who is often wrong, but seldom in doubt".**

What this does is bridge the gap between the speaker and the audience. In other words, it's a humanizing process. At the same time it gives the audience time and encouragement to relax and to reach out with their emotions toward the speaker in unspoken acceptance. **The positive energy** this generates also helps the speaker relax and so a genuine relationship can develop— a relationship of trust and openness.

One of the reasons

One of the reasons sports heroes are successful in speaking assignments— even those who are not great orators— is that they are well received even before they begin. This is true of popular figures in other fields, too, but sports heroes are especially revered. If your name is not well known to your audience you have to do something to endear them to you. Hopefully, unlike many a famous athlete, you have something substantive to offer, but first you have to get their attention and then their affection; yes, affection.

The way

The way in which you are introduced can set the stage for a great opening, naturally, so when asked for information, such as your bio, **try to be creative and add something heartwarming**, and basic: you are a cat lover or you work with some charitable organization or other. Don't overdo it, it can be very brief, but this kind of thing lightens the hearts in /your audience, especially if they have just heard that you have a PhD. in Biophysics, or something. It counterbalances the bland feelings they have about you before you start.

You may want to see what we suggest in our tips on body language but briefly, your posture during your introduction and how

you respond to the polite applause is critical. Unless you are the sports figure mentioned earlier, the applause at this stage is exactly that: polite. You haven't done anything to deserve it yet, to accept it graciously but using your hands acknowledges it and asks for it to end. When the applause stops, polite or responsive— as it may be, later— pause and let it soak in (to you and to your audience.) The audience needs to get a sense of your vulnerability and your sensitivity to the gift they are giving you. When you receive a gift from someone you would not tear it open instantly. You would pause, reflect and show humility and appreciation, not at what the gift is, merely that there is one. The same is true with applause for you as the speaker.

The "bridge" having being built

The **"bridge"** having being built, the next goal for your opening is **to clarify why you are there and what you are going to be speaking about.** This allows listeners to prepare themselves *They need to open certain cognitive channels within their mind. They may know something about your topic, or have had experience with some aspect of it (this makes the best kind of audience) and they need to have their thoughts channeled appropriately.* When an audience has felt your humanity (goal number one) and they have started to receive you as a person and as an expert, they feel ready to open their minds to your ideas if you give a little preview of what you are "up to." It's a kind of road map.

the final goal

So now we come to **the final goal** for your opening**. A vital part of any opening is telling listeners why and how the information you have will benefit them.** No matter what we do, we do it more wholeheartedly when we have something to gain. Your audience needs to know what they can gain from listening to you. This is why you should never accept a speaking engagement for which you do no perfectly fit, flattering as it may be to be asked to speak, anywhere. **Make sure you ask enough about the assignment, the audience and the circumstances that you can deliver something of value to them**. If you can't, then pass up the opportunity.

A final word... **An important one**: you should accomplish your opening as defined, above, in less than five minutes. Then get down to the business of delivering what you promised.

Body Language

The Power of Body Language

Research shows that over half of human communication takes place on the nonverbal level through body language. If your body language communicates **earnestness, enthusiasm, and sincerity,** people will tend to believe your message. If you send different verbal and nonverbal messages, they will inevitably trust what they see and not what they hear! To be effective, body language must confirm and support your words and graphics.

your audience empathizes with you

Makes messages more meaning

Punctuate your presentation

Relieves nervous tension

In a presentation situation, body language is so powerful because **your audience empathizes with you** as the speaker and mirrors your emotions and feelings. **If you appear relaxed, confident, and smiling, your audience will relax, feel confidence in you and usually smile back at you.** If you appear nervous or frown (even unconsciously) they'll get fidgety and frown back at you.

Besides communicating your feelings and attitudes body language does several things:

1. **It makes messages more meaningful and memorable.**
   People are easily bored with things that don't move and naturally focus on things that do. People remember more of what they see than hear and even more of what they see and hear.

2. **It punctuates your presentation.**
   Gestures, body movement, and facial expressions are to speech what periods, commas, and exclamations points are to written language.

3. **It relieves nervous tension.**
   Public speaking activates the adrenal gland, creating an overabundance of energy which tends to sneak out as nervous mannerisms. Gestures and body movement, however, harness this nervous energy and make it work for you.

Following are **the five main elements of body language** and key points about each.

Posture

Posture
Without a word or even a movement, **your speaking posture communicates whether or not you're confident, enthusiastic, and in control of the situation.** Good posture enables you to breathe properly and project your voice effectively. **It also minimizes nervous tension.**

To **achieve an effective speaking posture, stand erect but not stiff, relaxed but not sloppy.** Relax your shoulders and knees. Let your arms hang naturally at your sides with your fingers relaxed. You should feel alert and comfortable. Immediately before your presentation, take a few deep, slow breaths and consciously relax your shoulders, neck, and jaw.

Gestures

Gestures
Gestures, used correctly, are **the most evocative form of body language** and can tremendously enhance your words. There are four basic types of gestures: **Descriptive gestures** clarify or illustrate your words. **Emphatic gestures** emphasize your words, e.g. clench your fist or pound the podium. **Suggestive gestures** create a mood or express a thought, e.g. shrug your shoulders to indicate ignorance or perplexity. **Prompting gestures** evoke a response, e.g. raise your

hand or applaud if you want the audience to do the same. Gesturing reflects each speaker's personality; what works for Zig Zeigler probably won't work for you. Here are six things to keep in mind about gesturing:

1. **Gesture naturally according to what you think, feel and say**.

   Regardless of your personality or cultural background, you have a natural impulse to gesture to emphasize things you feel strongly about. Don't inhibit that impulse. Be genuine and spontaneous. Don't concoct artificial gestures or your audience will peg you as a phony. If you're naturally reserved, try emphasizing your gestures a bit more than seems natural.

2. **Create the conditions for gesturing -not the gesture**.

   Involve yourself totally with your message-not in thinking about your body movement-and your gestures will arise naturally from your thoughts, feelings, and attitudes.

3. **Suit the gesture to the word or occasion.**

   Make your gestures appropriate for the words you're expressing or you'll appear artificial or even comical. Match the frequency and vigor of your gestures to your message, and don't overdo it. Powerful, vigorous animated gestures are fine for young audiences but may threaten or irritate older or conservative audiences.

4. **Make your gestures convincing.**

   Each gesture should be a distinct, clearly visible movement. Hand gestures should involve the total arm and shoulder. Keep your wrists and hands relaxed. Use broad, slow, expansive gestures for large audiences.

5. **Make your gestures smooth and well-timed**.

   Timing is as important in gesturing as it is in comedy. The gesture must come on the correct word-not before or after. Don't memorize your gestures or they will appear canned. Simply practice your presentation until the gestures become natural.

6. **Make natural, spontaneous gesturing a habit**

   Relax your inhibitions, and practice gesturing during informal conversation with friends. Have fun with it, and soon gesturing will be a natural part of your presentation toolbox.

Facial Expression

Audiences scrutinize speakers, faces, eager for visual data to add meaning to their words. Your face-more clearly than any other part of your body-reflects your attitudes, feelings, and emotions. Your audience wants you to be confident, friendly, and sincere and watches your face for evidence of these qualities. **Effective speakers must communicate these qualities.** *The key to conveying a warm, sincere attitude is smiling throughout your presentation, not constantly-or you'll be labeled a lightweight- but every time it's appropriate.*

Margin notes:

1. According to what you think, feel and say

2. Create the conditions for gesturing –not the gesture

3. Suit the gesture to the word or occasion

4. Make your gesture convincing

5. Make your gesture smooth and well-timed

6. Make natural, spontaneous gesturing a habit

Facial Expression

Be sure to **remove expressions which don't belong on your face**, those nervous mannerisms which distract from your message. These include licking, biting, or clicking the lips, tightening the jaws, frowning, or switching any part of the face. Audiences attribute these expressions to nervousness or unfriendliness and become less receptive to your message. To reduce your apprehension about speaking, believe your message, practice it thoroughly, relax, and let your face reflect your good thoughts, attitudes, and emotions.

Eye Contact

Eye Contact

After your voice, your eyes are your most powerful tool for communicating. **Your eyes either bind you to, or separate you from, your audience.** *Every listener wants to feel you are talking to him or her. Eye contact accomplishes this. In most cultures, direct eye contact signals sincerity; lack of eye contact signals insincerity, disinterest, or lack of confidence-all message killers.* Your eye contact directly influences the attentiveness and concentration of the audience. If you don't look at them, they probably won't look at you or listen to you.

Here are **three keys to using your eyes** effectively in presentations:

1. Know your material

1. **Know your material**.
   Practice your verbal message until; you don't need to strain to remember the sequence of ideas and words. Doing so frees you to concentrate on the audience, notion an inner mental turmoil.

2. Establish a personal bond with each listener

2**. Establish a personal bond with each listener.**
   Every audience will have energizers-those people who are with you, alert, and usually smiling in agreement. Choose energizers in every section of the audience and focus on them. Maintain eye contact with and speak directly to each one for the time it takes to say a sentence or complete a thought, then shift to the next. Doing so will energize and encourage you, and everyone around these energizers will think you're looking at them.

3. Monitor visual feedback

3. **Monitor visual feedback.**
   If the audience isn't looking at you, they're probably not listening, and you need to regain their attention. Do they look puzzled? Bored? Can they hear you? Is the microphone on? Visually monitoring your listeners enables you to make adjustments necessary to most clearly communicate you message.

Conclusion

Conclusion

Videotaping one of your presentations is an excellent way to discover your strong, effective body language as well as any unconscious, nervous mannerisms. *Watch great speakers for ideas of how to maximize your own body language. Develop a strong message you firmly believe in and are excited about. Practice it thoroughly. Relax, be natural, and let your enthusiasm and sincerity project naturally to your listeners. Finally, have fun, and you'll do fine as a presenter!*

A Guideline for Verbal Skills Used By Presenter

Inflection	
Do speak:	• With expressiveness and enthusiasm in your voice.
Do not speak:	• In a boring monotone.
Qualify	
Do speak:	• In a warm, pleasant tone.
Do not speak:	• In a distracting tone, for example, too nasal too high, too rough, or too whiny.
Volume	
Do speak:	• Audibly
Do not speak:	• Too quietly aware of this pitfall especially (1) you are using visual aids, (2) you are woman. Or (3) your volume tends to drop tow the ends of your sentences.
Speed	
Do speak:	• At the correct speed: slowly enough so you can be understood, quickly enough to maintain energy: • Varying your rate to avoid droning; • With effective pauses, such as, before or after key term, separating items in a series, indicating a major break in your thought
Do not speak:	• Too slowly (which may bore your listeners) too quickly (which may lose them), • At a completely consistent speed, droning with no variation or pauses.
Enunciation	
Do enunciate Do not	• Clearly • Mumble (which may be associated with talk, too quietly); • Use run-on words (which may be caused with talking too quickly); • Drop final consonants, such as "thousand" "ju" and "goin".

A Guidelines for Non-verbal Skills Used by Presenter

A Guideline for Non Verbal Skills Used By Presenter

Full body movement	
Do more deliberately Do not move randomly	• To change mood or pace; • To draw attention to and from your visual aid; • To reinforce an idea (such as, make a transition by stepping to the side or emphasize important point by leaning forward). • Nervously; • Continually, such as constant pacing or swaying
Hand and arm gestures	
Do gesture: Do not move	• Naturally, as you would in conversation; • To reinforce your content (such as describing size or shape, emphasizing an important pointing enumerating a list, or pointing to a special item on your visual aid). • Nervously, such as ear tugging, scratching, and lip licking (you will probably find it fairly easy to correct distracting gestures once you know you are using them); • Into one position for too long, especially: the figure leaf" hands clasped in front), the (hands clasped in back) , the " Jingle' • With stylized, artificial, unvaried, constant repeated gestures.
Facial expression	
Do maintain Do not maintain	• Relaxed, animated, conversational facial expression. • Stony, deadpan, expression.
Eye contact	
Do look at Do not look at:	• The entire group, rather than at just one side of the room; • The key decision-makers in the group; • Good listeners who nod and react. • A prepared script, which you read word by word, showing your audience a constant of the top of your hand; • The middle of the back of the room; • The bad listeners who may distract you;
Posture	
Do stand	• In a relaxed, professional manner, • Comfortably upright, with your weight distributed evenly; • With your feel, neither too close nor too far apart.

Don't stand	• In a formal militaristic "Attention" pose; • In an informal slouch (keeping weight to one side or swaying side to side; • In a narrow-angle, ankles together reciting school-child stance; or In a wide-angle "Cowpoke straddle".
Dress	
Do dress Don't dress	• Appropriately for the occasion and the audience. • Comfortably and in good taste; • To project an image consistent with you communication objectives. •In any clothing that will distract from you message, e.g. exaggerated dangling Jewelry, cloud ties.
Approach (to the speaker's position) Do approach	• Calmly and unhurriedly; • With a brief pause for eye contact before launching into your presentation.

Handle Conversational Situations Effectively

C. Handle Conversational Situations Effectively

Good speaking is always based on the effective delivery. Beside good delivery, however, you may need some additional techniques or situations that involve more give than with you audience:

             (2) Question and answer periods,
             (3) Listening and discussion sessions
             (4) Impromptu conversations,
             (5) Telephone conversations, and
             (6) Media presentations.

1) Questions and answers periods

1) Question and answer periods
Presentation often involves more than your prepared remarks. In fact, your ability to answer questions immediately is one of the main advantages speaking has over writing. Here are some procedures to help you deal "with those occasional problem questioners", and have to buy time if you are momentarily stymied.

2) Listening and discussion sessions

2) Listening and discussion sessions
Your ability to listen well and to elicit information from others is crucial to your professional success. *The benefits you gain from good listening are tremendous: you receive more detailed information, enabling you to make better decisions; you increase your understanding so you can solve problems better; and you increase cooperation so you can improve working relationship and improve your chances for effective implementation*. The following techniques that deal with how to look, feel, and speak are designed to make you a better listener.

3) Impromptu
conversations

3) Impromptu conversations
Impromptu speaking is **talking on the spur of the moment, without, advance preparation.** For example, your boss may suddenly ask you to bring us up-to-date on a certain project; or a client may ask you to explain a certain service. Usually, of course, you will not be asked to make impromptu remarks unless you have some knowledge in the area.

4) Telephone
conversations

4) Telephone conversations
People tend to **waste time on the telephone because they don't prepare.** Just because phone conversations do not demand intensive preparations does not mean you should not prepare at all. To use the phone to the best advantage, you need to:

> A. Listen carefully, and
> B. Use your voice effectively.

5) Media
presentations

5) Media presentations
Speaking on television and radio is becoming increasingly important for business and professional people.

Written
Communication

Written Communication

Effective written communication has its simple and clear rules. In order to reach your readers, you should bare in mind the following steps:

1. Define the
subject

1- Define you subject: You must go to the point as early as possible. It is always better those readers know what your subject is about from the first paragraph, the second maximum.

2. Know your
reader

2- Know your reader: Of course, you must have a target audience while writing your message. Reader's characteristics determine your language, the way you present your ideas, the kind of arguments you are going to stress on.

3. Organize your
national

3- Organize your national: Every message should be organized by an opening, introductory comment, underlining the main subject, including your recommendations in the conclusion. We will talk later about approaches to persuasive messages.

Here are some recommendation you should put in consideration:
> 1- Be clear.
> 2- Be natural.
> 3- Be concise.
> 4- Be precise and accurate.
> 5- Diversify your style.
> 6- Check understanding of your written message before delivery.
> 7- Improve your writing skills by reading.

Organizations of
Persuasive
Message
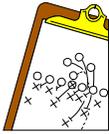
Organizations of Persuasive Message

The Effects of One-Sided Versus Two-Sided Messages
A one-sided message sets forth the source's claim to the receiver, whereas a two-sided message not only sets forth the source's claim, but also recognizes opposing positions on the issue.

1**. Presenting both sides of the argument is more effective** if the individual addressed is initially opposed to the issue, but the one-sided argument is more effective with those initially favoring the communicator's position.
2. **A two-sided message is more effective if the subjects are likely** to be exposed to subsequent counterpropaganda. The two-sided message "immunizes" the audience against future counterpropaganda. This was attributed to the fact that such a message presents the opposite point of view and thus builds up the subjects resistance to that point of view when he is confronted with it again,
3. **Communication giving both sides of the argument was more effective** with the better educated group, regardless of their initial position, whereas the one-sided presentation was primarily effective among the less educated group who were already in favor of the communicator's position.

The Effects of
Stating a
Conclusion

The Effects of Stating a Conclusion
Many researchers explored the differential effects of stating a conclusion versus not stating it. The presentations used in their experiments were identical except for the stating of the conclusion to one group. The message dealt with current economic issues and the conclusion presented to one group stated that it was desirable to devaluate American currency.

The investigators found that when the conclusion was explicitly drawn, more than twice as many respondents changed their opinion in the direction advocated by the communicator.

A later study by **Thistle Waite,** qualified this by finding that the message with a conclusion was more effective in changing the attitudes of the less intelligent subjects than those of the more intelligent. Subsequent research has been unable to confirm the finding regarding the role of intelligence.

However, the strategy of stating a conclusion may not always be superior since a number of factors are thought to influence opinion change. **The factors that contribute to the differential effects of the conclusion drawing include:**
1. Credibility of the source
2. The intelligence, personality type, and sophistication of the audience

3. The complexity of the argument
4. Familiarity of the topic

The Effects of Order of Presentation

The organization of the arguments in the message provides another interesting aspect of persuasive communication. **Studies have focused on two questions;** *(1) whether the climax of the argument should be presented at the beginning or at the end, and (2) when the two different views are presented, which view has the advantage, the first view presented (the primary effect), or the second view presented (the recency effect).*

After reviewing, the evidence as to the difference between a climax (important arguments reserved until the end) and an "anti-climax" order (major arguments presented at the beginning and weaker ones at the end**) Hovland and Mandel** *concluded that neither order of presentation had a substantial advantage over the other.* More important, for different audiences, are other factors such as attention, learning and acceptance, which may contribute to making one order of presentation superior to the others

With regard to the primary versus recency issue, the investigators pointed out that the law of primacy is not always superior. Primacy may occur when the audience is asked to make a public commitment in favor of the first viewpoint between presentation of the first and second viewpoints. Also, primacy may occur if the second view presented by the same source contradicts the first view just presented. However, primacy may not be effective if the audience is forewarned of the fallibility of the first viewpoint, or if activities intervene between the two presentations, or if different sources present the two viewpoints.

When the message contains only one viewpoint, it is desirable first to arouse the subject's needs and then to present information that may satisfy such needs. This order is more effective in inducing attitude change than presenting the information first, and later arousing the needs. Further, attitudes change more when communications highly desirable to the subject are presented first, followed by the less desirable ones, than when the less desirable ones come first. However, if attitude change is measured after a period of delay, recency is more likely to be superior due to the forgetting function. Researchers conclude that there is no universal principle of primacy in persuasion, and that either primacy effect or recency effect depends on a number of other factors. These are time of measurement, similarity of issues, earlier positive experience with the communicator, warnings against premature commitment, arouse of needs before presentation of information, ambiguity inherent in the sequence of communications.

3.2.3 Repetition, Variation and Cumulative Exposure

Communication researches assume that repetition in itself helps to make persuasion successful. However, analyses of the successful persuasive campaigns suggest that although repetition is of value, sheer parrot like reiteration may irritate the audience. Repetition with variation, on the other hand, serves both constantly to remind the listener or reader of the goal of persuasion, and simultaneously, to appeal to several of his needs and drives.

Merton believes that the success of Kate Smith's war bond marathon was due in large part to repetition with variation. Merton identifies some 60 appeals, each of them unique from any of its fellows, and all aimed at the same goal?; thus persons given more than one type of reason to buy bonds were found more likely to do so.

Regarding cumulative exposure, Annis and Meier found that exposure to seven editorials was precisely as effective as exposure to fifteen? and Hovland, Lumsdain and Sheffield found that exposure to two Army orientation films produced no consistently greater results than exposure to a single (but different) film in the same series. On the other hand Peterson and Thurston found that the effect of cumulative exposure to films on the same topic is to be, in all respects, greater than the effect of a single exposure. **Klapper** states that these contradictory findings regarding cumulative exposure are difficult to reconcile with the consistent findings regarding repetition with variation.

3.3 Understanding the Audience

Communicators, presenters must be aware of their audience needs levels. **They may capitalize on need levels if they know that the audience has certain needs** that must be fulfilled relying on this process, the persuader shapes messages directed towards particular needs. The idea of a need state is like a premise in an argument.

As persuaders, we are right to examine the current needs of those we wish to influence. If we do that, not only are we likely to succeed, but also we are more likely to render our audience a service by giving them means to satisfy their needs.

Persuaders must direct their messages towards audience needs, promising for, perhaps, hinting that by following our advice, the need can be filled or reduced. In this section we are going to discuss the main variables that have impact on audience behavior, audience or human needs and the psychological process that audience experience during receiving communicative messages.

There are many variables that combine together and form audience behavior. We can divide these variables into two set of group.

3.3.1 Individual Variables

Figure 3.2 illustrates the individual variables
A) Physiological variables: This refers to basic needs for individual like thirst, hunger.
B) Psychological, Social variables: Those variables are classified into three categories:
   1- Motives that includes desires and needs.
   2- Attitudes including emotions.
   3- Personal characteristics.
C) Cognitive variables: Which include concepts that refer to his frame of reference that individual rely upon in understanding and reacting to his environment. The second aspect is thinking, and deciding and the third aspect is learning meaning the ability to utilize from previous experiences.

<div align="center">

The model of individual's behavior

</div>

Individual variables basic Psychological needs – psychological needs – social needs.		Environmental variables - Impact of environment on individuals, norms, attitudes, behavior. - Communication methods. - Social, geographical environment.

<div align="center">

Cognitive variables
Concepts Thinking rationalizing Learning
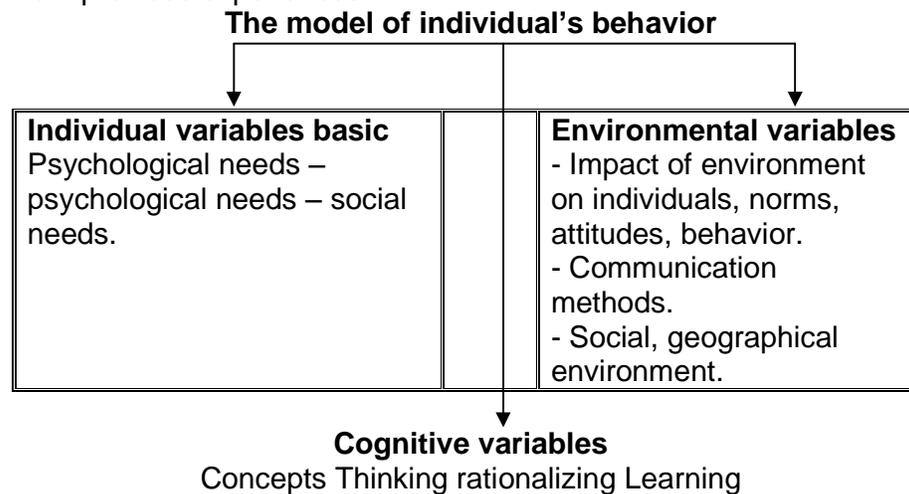
Figure 3.2: model of individual's behavior

</div>

3.3.2 Environmental variables

These variables include:
   A- **Correlation between local community and the people and their impact on individual attitudes** (values sources of communication, sources of effect).
   B- **Communication methods in the environment**.
   C- **Characteristics of communication messages** in the environment individual.
      • Geographic environment.
      • Individual social environment.
      • Nature of individual community (liberal, conservative).
      • Economic standard.

Human needs

Human needs

Maslow's Pyramid

Maslow's
Pyramid

Abraham Maslow, a noted psychologist, **developed a clear and understandable model of human needs which organizes and lists, in a pyramid form,** *as shown in Figure 3.3,* **various levels of needs which are a part of all of us.** Some are weak, others strong, but various ones must be met from time to time to keep us alive and growing. The important thing is to identify these needs, for they often serve as the first premise in persuasive argument, for example, a person dying of thirst can be easily persuaded to take drastic action in order to get water to fulfill the need for liquid.

Maslow argues that these needs have a prepotency, that is, they are tied together in such a way that weaker needs, like self-respect, emerge only after strong needs, like the need for food, have been fulfilled.   He arranges the various needs in a clear and understandable model. He says that needs are arranged in a pyramid style with lower levels having the stronger needs, and the higher levels having the weaker needs.

Further, it should be noted that **higher needs are not any better than lower ones.** They are just different and likely to emerge until stronger needs are met.

Figure 3.3: The Maslow Pyramid Of Needs

A) Basic Needs

A) Basic Needs
On the bottom level of the **strongest needs we have are basic needs.** They are usually taken as the straight points for motivation theory and are also called 'psychological drives'.

The body makes automatic efforts to maintain a constant, normal state of the blood stream**. Hunger, thirst, sleep, etc…, are part of these needs.** *It is possible to satisfy the hunger need in part by other activities such as drinking water or smoking cigarettes.*

Therefore, these psychological needs are only relatively isolable. Until basic needs are met, we cannot concern ourselves with other, higher needs. They are too strong to be forgotten in favor of other needs.

B) Security Needs

B) Security Needs

The second level of Maslow's pyramid contains our **needs connected with security and safety.** If the first set of needs is relatively gratification, then there emerges a new set categorized roughly as safety and security needs.

Adults have been taught to inhibit reaction to threat or danger whereas children express it freely. *A child who, because of some bad food is taken ill to the hospital, may for a day or two, develop fear, look at need for security.*

If we feel that our job may end shortly, we have a strong need to get income security. *We might want to get another more secure job, or we might want to save money for hard times.* In other words, this need for security emerges and reemerges as various threats to our security become evident and must be met. Once the need is met, it redefines itself and thus is always present to some degree.

C) Belonging Needs

C) Belonging Needs

The third level of needs is belonging needs. We become aware of them once our security and safety needs are satisfied. **Usually the individual seeks groups with which to fill this need.** Many people relate to no group other that at their jobs or families. **Cities are filled with persons who seem to have a strong need for belonging.** They are joiners of societies. Usually, we keep the number of groups we join small, and though we may be members of a number of groups, we are active members in only a few. We continue to join groups throughout our lives, for this need is also a reemerging one.

D) Love And Esteem Needs

D) Love And Esteem Needs

If the belonging needs are satisfied, we will start wanting other needs. This is level four of Maslow's model, the need for love and esteem. As **human beings we want to be wanted and valued.** *We are happy when our families understand and admire the things we do.* However, this need is never fully satisfied, and we try to seek other circumstances in which we can achieve status and rank that will help meet our need for love and esteem by others.

E) Self Actualization

E) Self Actualization

At the peak of the pyramid is the need for self-actualization. Stated in another way, this need might be called **the need to live up to what we think is our true self-potential.** Although this need is weaker than the other need levels, yet in some cases lower needs are

displaced to fulfill the need for self-actualization. Some artists have gone cold and hungry just so they could continue painting or composing music. **These persons define their self-actualization level as a basic need.** To those artists, creative activity is as basic as breathing or eating or sleeping. **Some of these needs are truth, goodness, beauty, individuality, perfection, justice.**

Emotional
Needs

Packard's Emotional Needs:
In his bestselling book "The Hidden Persuaders", Packard identified emotional needs that are still considered **a description of the kinds of appeals we see on T.V., in magazines, and in the world of politics and ideas.**

Selectivity Model

Selectivity Model

Audience is always interacting with what we call the selectivity process. **This process acquires four main stages:**

1. Selective
Attention

1. Selective Attention: it refers to audience trends to pay attention by hearing or reading only the messages they prefer or select that matches with their needs interest, culture and attitudes.

2. Selective
Perception

2. Selective Perception: Referring that audience may expose to the message but they select only codes or ideas or messages as analyzed by frame of reference.

3. Selective
Retention

3. Selective Retention: Referring to audience ability to either remember or forget specific messages according to their values, interests and variables explained before.

4. Selective
Decision

4. Selective Decision: According to all that differences in variables and factors audience differs in their reaction to messages and their response to various appeals. The lost decision on reaction to everyone of the audience is affected according to many social, psychological, economic variables as shown in the comprehensive behavioral model.

Feedback

3.4 Feedback

Feedback is very important to the communication. **It tells us if we are on course or off-course.** The least powerful position in the world is to keep doing the same thing over and over without knowing its impact**. Sometimes criticism will hurt our feelings but our success in the workplace and in life is directly correlated with our ability to hear criticism**. That is how we learn, feedback gives us indications to what extent did receivers understand our messages. Communicators are always asked to stimulate the audience and encourage them to provide their feedback during the communication process. This is why communicators should be aware with different types of questions.

Types of
Questions

3.4.1 Types of Questions

There are two classifications under which types of questions are identified. Traditional classification of questions is divided into three categories.

A) Closed

A) Closed: It is identified by the dead-end questions because these questions limit the answer to **yes or no**.

B) Open

B) Open ended: It is called the finishing questions that type of questions let people **respond as extensively as they please**.

C) Direct

C) Direct questions: Or shooting question that ask very specific information. Of course, while seeking feedback you mainly depend on the open-ended questions**. Such questions require answers and can be considered as very good indicators of the reaction to your message.**

Some types of those smart questions are:

1. seeking
information

1. Questions seeking information: they are the type of questions that can obtain information for receivers such as: **what was the result of the meeting yesterday?**

2. encouraging
discussion

2. Questions encouraging discussion: These questions can open discussion on many aspects of the messages such as: what was your feedback about this meeting? **How do you think we should improve this process?**

3. Probing
(Follow-up)

3. Probing questions (Follow-up): These questions are designed to **follow-up another question** for additional information.

4. Hypothetical

4. Hypothetical: These are questions **which present a hypothetical situation** to stimulate creativity.

5. stimulating
thoughts

5. Questions stimulating thoughts: These are questions that can be used to reveal opinion such as: **What in your opinion? What do you think?**

6. showing
interest or
expressing
feelings

6. Questions showing interest or expressing feelings: Such questions are used to reveal attitudes such as: **what do you feel about this decision? What was the employees' reaction on the change of policy?**

All of these questions can stimulate many responses that can help you modify your message or emphasize it. There are different styles of responses such as paraphrasing, enriching, judging, analyzing supporting or withdrawing, see Figure 3.4.

```
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│          Paraphrasing           │
└─────────────────────────────────┘

┌──────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────┐
│     Enriching    │   │     Internal     │
└──────────────────┘   └──────────────────┘

┌──────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────┐
│      Judging     │   │     Analyzing    │
└──────────────────┘   └──────────────────┘

┌──────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────┐
│    Withdrawing   │   │    Supporting    │
└──────────────────┘   └──────────────────┘
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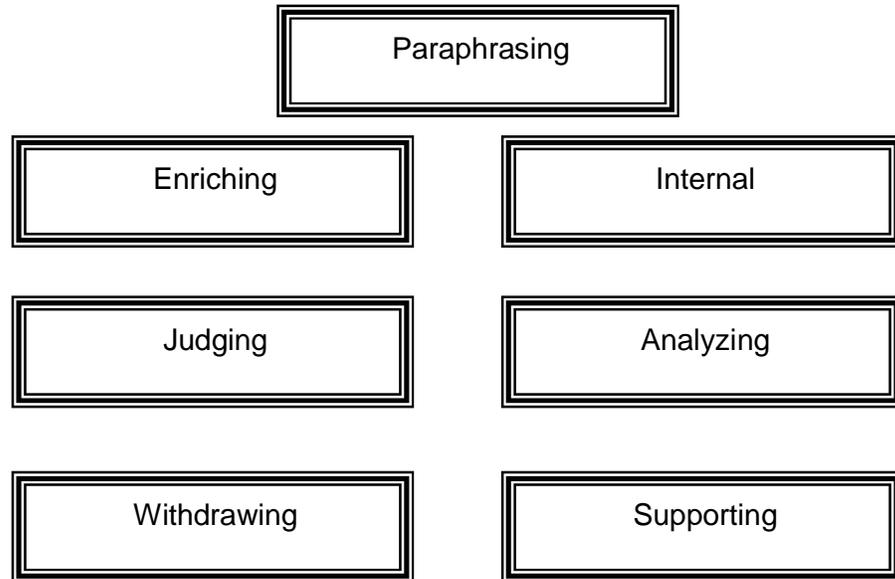
Figure 3.4: Styles of Responses

Communicator should not be annoyed by interruptions but he should always be prepared for them and ready to modify his messages accordingly.

There are many productive interruptions such as: clarification, elaboration, bringing to focus reinforcement and encouragement. All of these types can facilitate the flow of the messages. On the other hand, communicator should be aware of non-productive interruptions such as put-downs, objection, joking, corrections, judgments, jumping to conclusion and changing the subject. The communicator receiving that type of interruptions should be ready to modify his message and gain audience attention once more.

Productive Interruptions

Productive Interruptions
- Clarification.
- Elaboration.
- Bringing to focus.
- Feedback.
- Reinforcement, encouragement.

Non-Productive Interruptions

Non-Productive Interruptions
- Put-Downs.
- Objection.
- Joking.
- Corrections.
- Judgments.
- Jumping to conclusions.
- Changing the subject.

At that point, communicator should be fully aware of the verbal and non-verbal clues of feedback from his audience.

Verbal Clues of Feedback

3.4.2 Verbal Clues of Feedback

These clues are divided into two categories.

A) Positive Feedback: It can be recognized by having reinforcing, productive constructive feedback or a balanced feedback from your audience. That kind of indicators will help you proceed with your ideas.
B) Negative Feedback: It can be recognized by having one of the audiences attacking you or other people or their behavior.

Positive Feedback

Positive Feedback:
- Reinforcing.
- Providing constructive feedback.
- Providing balanced feedback.

Negative Feedback

Negative Feedback:
- Attacking people.
- Attacking behavior.

3.4.3 Non-Verbal Feedback

Non-Verbal Feedback

The Eyes

The Eyes Have It: The first clue you want to be aware of is the eyes of each audience member. It may be hard to see the eyes of people more than 20 feet away, so start with them**. First, check to make sure there eyes are open!** Unless you give instructions to close your eyes and imagine, shut eyelids mean a bored crowd. **Check to see if the people are following your actions with their eyes** that they are focused on your actions and that folks are making a conscious effort to see the presentation. In other words, those eyes aren't wandering about the room. Questions about not being able to see your slide text, for instance, are a good sign of audience interest, although it means your visuals are improperly prepared. "That's a whole different article.

Actions

Actions Speak Louder Than Words

Look for critical body language from the crowd. **People ducking out the back door is never a good sign,** because it means you're not interesting enough to keep them around or you're too long between breaks and they have to go to the bathroom. Even how people sit in their seats is important. **You want to see people leaning forward with erect posture, not leaning back getting comfortable enough for a catnap.** Watch out for crossed arms that are a clear portrait that this person is resistant to what you are saying. Purposeful

positive head movement is an excellent signal, like nodding indicating agreement or that a person has just had an **"Ah-hah!"** experience. **Shaking heads** are not necessarily bad, depending on other signals. **It's OK** to be controversial and get the audience thinking, but not complete disagreement on all points, it is a bad thing.

The Engagement Factor

The Engagement Factor

The level to which your audience participates in your presentation is a critical factor in determining how well they are receiving you. This is the engagement factor. Even if you have told them to save questions until the end, in every crowd there are always **one or two ham-actors who start asking questions during the show.** You have to deal with them and direct them to the conclusion of your talk, but this is a great signal. They are telling the rest of the audience that your subject matter, that you are engaging. **Are they laughing at your well-placed and relevant humor?** Good sign. **Do you get a lot of questions during the Q&A? Excellent! What about your audience involvement bits?** It is good to see people who play along and have answers when you ask them questions. During group exercises you want to see people who actually did what you asked them to do. They're engaged. *If you stick a microphone in front of someone's face and ask her opinion on what she just heard, or ask her what she has learned so far, **"I don't know"** is not a good answer.* **This lady is disengaged.**

We can summarize the clues that audience might be giving in the following table, along with what these signals mean and how can you make adjustments in your presentation.

Notice how often in the adjustments that some form of humor can be an appropriate remedy. People, even in the stuffiest of business presentations like to laugh at you, at themselves, at life. Well-placed and timed, tasteful, and relevant humor is something every presenter should have in his arsenal of speaking weapons.

If you read the audience's eyes, **watch what they do as you are presenting,** and check their engagement factor you'll be able to make minor adjustments throughout any talk that will ensure it turns out to be a home run event every time.

Clues that audience might be giving

The Audience Clue	What it Means	How to Adjust
Shut eyelids	Boredom, tired crowd	Change pace, volume, and subject matter get them laughing with humor
Wandering eyeballs	Fidgety, distracted	Dramatic action, call attention to an important point and ask for audience focus, humor
	Boredom, they've heard it before	Change tactics, pointed humor (not stupid), do something dramatic to re-connect
		move on to the next point, work on content for next time, add controversy
Leaning bad in seats	Apathy, waiting for something better	Dramatic action, insert an exercise to involve them, humor
Shaking heads	Disagreement	Confront a selected head-shaker ("You disagree? Tell us why?"), offer an alternative viewpoint that others embrace (even though you do not)
No questions during Q&A	Disinterested, confused, hesitant	Plant seed questions with several people in the audience ahead of time to get the ball rolling, directly call on people who you read as being most engaged during the presentation
People aren't doing your exercises	Disconnected, your exercises need work	Better explain your exercises, have other speakers check your material to make sure exercises are relevant to your points, walk around during the time they are doing the tasks and help those who are inactive
"I don't know" response	Disconnected, drafting, shy	Self-deprecating humor, lightening tension, try again once, move on to someone else
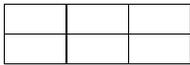
Reception Skills

3.5 Reception Skills

3.5.1 Listening

Listening

How to Prepare for Listening: In order to prepare yourself for listening you should follow these guidelines:

a) **Determine your purpose**. We have said that the chief difference between hearing and listening is that listening involves both the

mind and the ears. Another way of expressing this difference is to say that listening has a purpose. This point is important because different purposes in listening imply different kinds of listening.

Your purpose in listening may be to act friendly and sociable as would be the case in a party conversation; to obtain or to analyze critically, as in listening to a political debate.

Listening in each situation calls for different skills and for different degrees of attentiveness. In each situation the demands are different because the purpose is different so you must decide on your purpose for listening in every listening situation. You will be a better listener as a result of knowing why you are listening.

b) **Get ready to listen**; good listening implies a readiness to listen. This requires that you prepare yourself for listening-physically, mentally and emotionally. Literally, turn your back on distracting sights and sounds, if necessary and always give your self maximum opportunity for listening by sitting near enough to the speaker to see and hear easily. 'If possible, read about a topic in advance, because the more your know about a topic the more interested you will be in what the speaker has to say about it. Mental preparation, because it invariably supplies you with a purpose for listening, automatically leads to emotional involvement, and this in turn, increases your readiness to listen.

Job Success

Listening and Job Success: Habits of efficient listening contribute greatly to ones success in all areas of life, but particularly in business.

a) **Supervisors must know how to listen**. They listen to their employees to find out what they think so that management can help to settle grievances and establish good employee relationships. They also listen to their employees because they know that their employees often contribute time-and-money-saving ideas to those employers which prove to be sympathetic and appreciative audiences.

b) **All employees must know how to listen**. Listening is also extremely important at all levels of employment. Many employees in business rely on listening skills to help them carry out their daily assignments. The employees working, in travel and tourism must listen just as carefully to determine the wishes of customers. One large retailing- organization found that two out of every three former customers had taken their business elsewhere because its sales personnel were indifferent to customer's needs. Moreover, the organization found that much of the indifference was expressed through poor listening. Among others who are greatly dependent upon effective listening for success in their jobs are service department managers. When a customer brings a car into an automobile service department, the service manager must listen and record what the customer thinks is wrong with the automobile.

All employees who provide service of any kind and that include most are partially, if not mainly dependent upon their listening ability to carry out their duties,

A person listening will express his attitude to other people as surely as the way in which he speaks to them. Indeed, writes Robert T. Oliver, "for the real master of communication... listening and talking.

Nine Symptoms of Poor Listening:

1- **Condemning the subject as uninteresting without a hearing**. There is no such things as an uninteresting subject there are only uninteresting people. A variation on this symptom is to prejudge a speaker as uninteresting for some reason or another.

2- **Criticizing the speaker's delivery or aids**. One way of expressing ones non-listening ability is to fasten on the speaker's delivery or the quality of his audio-visual aids. Some trick of pronunciation, involuntary movements or mannerisms, all these can be sized upon as excuses for not listening to the meaning.

3- **Selective listening.** Selective listening should not be confused with listening in waves of attention which is in fact characteristics of the good listener. Selective listening means that you are programmed to turn a deaf ear to certain topics or themes. Adolf Hitler achieved a unique mastery in this field: he only wanted to hear good news. Those who brought him bad news, or told him the truth, encountered a personal insult. The danger in selective listening is that it can become habitual and unconscious, we become totally unaware that we only want to listen to certain people or that we are filtering information. But our friends and colleagues know better and they start predigesting the material for us, omitting vital pieces, you can't tell him the truth he doesn't want to know.

4- **Interrupting.** Persistent interrupting is the most obvious signs of the bad listener. Of course, interrupting is an inevitable part of everyday conversation, springing from the fact that we can think faster than the other person can talk.

The interrupter, however, either gets it wrong or else-even worse-he allows in with a remark which shouts out the fact that he has not been listening to the half-completed part of meaning. He may often be working on his own next piece of talk, and therefore be literally too busy to listen. Once the remark is ready, he lets it fly and starts winding up for the next one.

5- **Day Dreaming**. Day dreaming may be a natural escape from an intolerable situation but it can also be a symptom of poor listening. It is difficult to think two things at the same time. The day dreamer has switched off and his attention is given to an inner television screen. Some in her agenda has gained precedence over what is being said to him.

6- **Submit to External Distractions**. Uncomfortable chairs, noise, heat or cold, sunlight or gloom: the situation can master the listener and drown the speaker and the content.   The good listener will try to deal with the distraction in some helpful way; the poor one allows it to dominate his mind and rob him of attention.

7- **Evading the difficult or technical**. Such is our addiction to the clear simple and vivid that none of us cares for the difficult. The lazy listener gives up at the first obstacle.

8- **Submitting to emotional words**. Symptom of the poor listener is his vulnerability to trigger words. Words enter the atmosphere carrying certain associations, pleasant or unpleasant.

9- **Going to sleep**. Sleep can be a symptom of a poor listener for the art of listening requires a background. Sufficient sleep is a fact which the poor practitioner habitually ignores.   His late nights and impressive tiredness may be signs that he has not understood the importance of listening. Tiredness does affect our listening.

3.5.2 Guides to Good Listening

Guides to Good Listening

Ten guides to food listening: Based on a study of the 100 best and the 100 worst listeners Ralph G. Nicholas has produced ten useful guides to listening. They can be described briefly, as most of them are positive versions of the negative symptoms of poor listening

1. **Find Area of Interest**: It is a rare subject which does not have any possible interest or use for us; we naturally screen what is being said for its interest or value.

2. **Judge content, not delivery**: Many listeners loose attention to a speaker by thinking to themselves: "who would listen to such a character? What an awful voice! Will he ever stop reading from his notes? The good listener moves on to a different conclusionary thinking "But wait a minute... I'm not interested in his personality or delivery. I want to find out what he knows. Does this man know some things that I need to know?"

3. **Hold Your Fire:** Over stimulation is almost as bad as underestimation and the two together constitute the twin evils of inefficient listening. The over stimulated listener gets too excited or excited too soon by the speaker.

4. **Listen for Ideas:** The good listener focuses on the main ideas. He does not focus on to the peripheral themes or seize of some fact or other which may block his mind from considering the central ideas.

5. **Be flexible:** The good listener should be flexible and moderate not biased to certain ideas or color facts to his own interest.

6. **Work at Listening**: Good listening takes energy.   Attention is a form of directed energy. We ought to establish eye contact and maintain to indicate by posture and facial expression that the

occasion and the speaker's effort are a matter of real concern to us. When to express himself more clearly and we in turn profit by better understanding the improved communication we have helped him to achieve.

7. **Resist Distractions:** A good listener instinctively fights distraction. Sometimes the fight is easily won by closing a door, shutting off a radio moving closer to the person talking, or asking him to speak louder.   If the distractions cannot be met that easily then it becomes a matter of concentration.

8. **Exercise Your Mind:** Good listeners regard apparently difficult or demanding presentations or speakers as challenges to their mental abilities.

9. **Keep your mind open**: Effective listeners try to identify their own prejudices. Instead of turning a deaf ear, they seek to improve upon their perception and understanding precisely in those areas.

10. **Capitalize on thought speed**: Most persons talk at a speed of 125 words per minutes. There is good evidence that if thought were measured in words per minute, most of us could think easily at about four times that rate. The good listener uses his thought speed to advantage; he constantly applies his spare thinking time to what is being said.

Active Listening

3.5.3 Active Listening

Requires listening to all verbal and the nonverbal interact with the feeling behind the message. Active listening means the search for the real meaning of the message.

1) Selective Listening

We can focus on four listening categories:
1) Selective Listening: When you prepare your self to select certain topics of your interest to concentrate in listening to it avoiding other topics of less interest.

2) Comprehensive Listening

2) Comprehensive Listening: This refers to listening with concentration to information, opinion, emotions and feelings. The comprehensive listening include listen to verbal and watching non-verbal clues of the presentation.

3) Critical Listening

3) Critical Listening: This refers to listening with analyzing to the presentation in order to conclude positive negative aspects of the presentation.

4) Appreciative Listening

4) Appreciative Listening: This type of listening is linked to type of information and the credibility of the communicator where you appreciate the kind of information and the communicative skills of the communicator.

3.5.4 Strategies for Improving Listening Skills

There are several strategies we should bare in mind for improving our listening skills:

- Prepare to listen.
- Limit your own talking.
- Be patient, provide the time needed.
- Concentrate.
- List interjections.
- Clarify and confirm your understanding.
- Rephrase in your own words.
- Avoid jumping to conclusion.
- Practice listening.
- Listen to verbal, watch non-verbal.
- Listen for emotions and feelings.

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