

Lecture 11: Questions

1. Why do we run into problems with interpretation when we try to communicate?
2. What kinds of obstacles do we face when we interact with people from other cultures?
3. What is the Sapir Whorf hypothesis?

Lecture 11: Answers

1. According to Barna (1994), we run into problems with interpretation when we try to communicate because,
 - a. We can never know the state of mind (the attitudes, feelings and thoughts) of other people: This results in differences between what we think we need to do in order to enter the comfort zones of people we communicate with, and what the comfort zones of people we are in touch with allow to enter.
 - b. We depend on signals, which are frequently ambiguous, to inform us about the wishes and attitudes of other people: We depend heavily on non-verbal signals to interpret meanings of the words we read and hear. The choice of words, syntax, and language, however, depends upon the context of the person who designs the message. Even if we understand the language we read or hear, the non-verbal signals accompanying the words we use, obfuscate the interpretation of the meanings of these words.
 - c. We use our own coding system to decipher these signals: Our interpretation of the signals we perceive depends upon our memories of our past experiences with those signals. These memories help us tag the signals we receive with similar memories stored away in our subconscious. Every person goes through a different set of experiences and therefore, has a different type of memory associated with each experience. This, in turn, results in the creation of unique coding systems for the signals each one of us receives.
 - d. The way we decode the signals we receive depends on our own state of mind at the time, and may be biased: To add to the complexity of the above mentioned tags of personal experiences and memories, our emotions which are constantly being influenced by the experiences we go through, raise or lower our energy levels, and these elevated or lowered energy levels in turn affect how we understand and respond to the signals we receive from our environments.
2. Barna (1994) listed the following obstacles we face while interacting with people from other cultures:
 - a. Assumption of similarities
 - b. Language differences
 - c. Nonverbal misrepresentations

- d. Preconceptions and stereotypes
 - e. Tendency to evaluate
 - f. High anxiety
3. According to the Sapir Whorf Hypothesis, we assign words to what sense, feel, or experience. But we also come across experiences, sensations, and feelings, that others, who use the same words (or language) as us, have never experienced. We also meet people who have felt, sensed, and experienced in manners different than us, and so have assigned specific 'names' or 'terms' to these sensations, feelings, and experiences. This results in differences in our respective vocabularies.

Lecture 12: Questions

1. List some of the socio-cultural barriers that may creep into intercultural communication.
2. List the physical barriers to interpersonal communication.
3. List the psychological barriers to interpersonal communication.

Lecture 12: Answers

1. *Social barriers* are the problems we experience with an interaction situation as a result of the constraints in our social environment.

Cultural barriers are the obstacles that come up when two people coming from vastly different backgrounds interact with each other.

Language barriers: Sometimes the language we choose to speak in and the style we use cause problems in our communication.

Gender barriers: As they say, "Men are from Mars, and Women are from Venus". Styles of communication are perceived to be gender specific. Choice of topics is also found to be gender specific. So, when men and women interact with each other, there is a great deal of apprehension regarding the flow of messages from one gender to another.

Interpersonal barriers: Sometimes, we just do not like some people, and this dislike forces us to shift our attention to the other features of these people instead of the content that are being transmitted. This dislike is so potent that it colors our perception of the signals coming our way. This leads to a breakdown in communication.

2. Physical barriers are the obstacles present in the physical environment that prevent us from getting our message across. These may be:
 - a. Design barriers
 - b. Volume and pitch of the speaker
 - c. Physical ability of the receiver of the message
3. Psychological barriers are related to the psyche or thought processes of the speaker as well as the listener. These may further be classified as:
 - a. Attitudinal barriers
 - b. Perceptual barriers
 - c. Emotional barriers
 - d. Personality differences

Lecture 13: Questions

1. What is abstraction, what does it depend upon, and how may it manifest itself in our conversation?
2. Why do we tend to evaluate the messages we receive?
3. What is allness and how might it be dealt with?
4. How might stereotyping affect the effectiveness of interaction and how might stereotyping be dealt with?

Lecture 13: Answers

1. Levels of abstraction: This deals with the complexity of concepts we use to define what we experience. In simple words, this could be labelled as 'non-specific' conversation where we seem to be saying too many things about the same thing at the same time.

Abstraction depends upon:

- *Extensional knowledge*: This operates on perceptions and uses names, statistics, and descriptions from actual observation which can be verified by someone else.
- *Intensional knowledge*: This involves inferences, opinions, assumptions, judgments, and generalizations. While using intensional knowledge, a person is more concerned with verbal description of an event than with the event itself.

Abstraction may manifest itself in our conversation as:

- i. *Closed-mind syndromes*: Closed mind syndromes stems from allness. We start believing that since we are exploring various points of view, we are in a person to cover all points of view there may be about a particular subject, and so others cannot have points of view that we may not have thought about it. In reality when others share points of view that are different from us, we try and find ways to refute them because we believe that we know everything.
- ii. *Bypassing*: Bypassing is the tendency to ignore the fact that the same word can have different meanings (e.g. run, fast, mouse), and that different words can have the same meaning (e.g. restroom, washroom, loo). This leads to our unwillingness to understand the other person's perspective or way of describing the same things. This also leads to our unwillingness to acknowledge that what we are saying may be interpreted differently by the receiver of our message since the words we use may have different

connotations in different contexts. This can lead to a breakdown in communication.

2. We tend to evaluate or judge the messages we receive based on our past experiences with that category of messages. We evaluate to help us decide whether we are comfortable or uncomfortable with the information we are receiving and whether we understand what we are receiving. Categorization helps us reduce the complexity of information in our environment. So, when we are bombarded with information in quantities and complexities that we are unable to handle individually, and we feel the need to understand it, we tend to evaluate the information we are receiving.
3. Allness is an attitude of finality in communication. Allness refers to a tendency to convey or assume or believe that what someone says about a particular subject is all there is to say on that subject.

Some ways in which allness may be reduced or dealt with are:

- i. *Indexing*: One can tag memories or knowledge of what one is saying with units of the category the memory belongs to. This can stimulate ideas that are connected to what one is saying. This in turn helps accept a larger range of ideas.
- ii. *Date*: Using dates for the information one is sharing helps contextualize what is being said, thereby opening up possibilities of and an acceptance of additional perspectives.
- iii. *Use et cetera*: Using the word etcetera is indicative of one's acknowledgement of additional opinions or perspectives on what one is talking about.
- iv. *Use quotations*: Using quotations or acknowledging the author(s) of the ideas one is sharing helps situate the conversation and the information that is being shared, within a context. This, in turn, is indicative of the acknowledgement of the existence of other possibilities outside.
- v. *Be aware of self-reflexiveness*.
- vi. *Avoid labelling*: Labelling is akin to stereotyping. Labelling involves attaching pre-decided descriptors (that may or may not fit) to what one is talking about. Avoiding the use of these descriptors enhances one's ability to accept other points of view.

- vii. *Keep in mind that the word is not the actual thing*, and no word can completely describe the actual 'thing': In essence what we describe depends upon our past experiences and our perceptions. Both of these are limited. We may miss out on important information while describing situations people or concepts. The kind of information different people tend to miss out is reflected in the differences in our behaviour. This in turn, creates problems, and should be avoided.
4. *Stereotyping*: As discussed earlier, stereotyping is our tendency to define collections of stimuli in terms of the categories they belong to. This leads to the addition or deletion of important descriptors of the situations, people or concepts that are the subjects of these interactions.

Some ways in which we can reduce or avoid biases and prejudices and stereotypes are:

- Remember that no two people, statements, or events, are identical
- Remember that all individuals and organizations are constantly undergoing change

Lecture 14: Questions

1. Discuss the ways in which communication problems can stem from the status relationship in organizations.
2. Discuss the ways in which communication can be interrupted as a result of faulty transmission of messages.
3. What is defensiveness and why might people become defensive?
4. Why might managers appear to not be concerned?

Lecture 14: Answers

1. *The status relationship*: The status assigned to employees in terms of superiors and subordinates and the status assumed by employees in terms of experts and trainees can serve as a filter for messages and the contexts they are transmitted in. This may, in turn, be a result of:
 - a. Superior-subordinate relationship
 - b. Perceived expertise in a particular field
 - c. Allness vs. openness to new ideas
2. Sometimes, the manner in which we transmit information causes difficulties in understanding the intended message.

This may be due to:

- a. *Careless use of words*: Using words that can potentially convey more meanings than intended, thereby confusing the receiver of the message
- b. *Receiver-sender deficiencies*: Lack of proficiency in the language being used at the sender or receiver end, or both. This can cause incorrect choice of words and incorrect interpretations of the words that are used, thereby causing a break in communication.
- c. *Deliberate filtering within the organization*: Occasionally, information within the organization is deliberately filtered out to mitigate the risk of unfavorable reactions by the affected parties. At times this is done with the intention of implying a sense of control over people who need the information but do not have it. This, as explained earlier, can cause anxiety at the receiver's end, and may also lead to a feeling of not being trusted. Such strong negative feelings in the receiver against the sender of the message, can lead to a misinterpretation of the context and intentions of the receiver by the sender, and may ultimately lead to a breakdown in the interaction process within the organization.

3. Defensiveness is the “act of protecting one’s own views.” One becomes defensive when one feels a conscious threat to what one believes in, and actively tries to protect it usually by asserting oneself. Defensiveness usually reflects a “hostile emotional state of mind” where the person concerned gets ready to actively fight impending challenges.

Some reasons why people become defensive are:

- When they feel their self image being challenged or threatened in some way.
- When they are unable to tolerate differences from their points of view.

4. Managerial unconcern refers to the lack of concern on the part of the managers for the need their subordinates feel for vital information within the organization.

The primary causes of managerial concern regarding this need for information may be:

- Failure to transmit messages because
 - Managers assume everyone knows
 - Managers are lazy or tend to procrastinate
 - Managers tend to hog information
- Organizational culture does not encourage and facilitate optimum quality and quantity of two-way communication
- Preoccupation: Preoccupation refers to a high volume of intrapersonal communication, i.e. constant processing of information within a person’s mind that prevents the person from realizing that his/her subordinates may need vital information
- Mind wandering or poor attention span: Some managers have trouble focusing on one thing for too long. They like to switch their attention frequently. While this may come in handy when too many crises need to be dealt with at the same time, this may also pose a problem when one’s subordinates need undivided attention and a patient ear to discuss matters of vital importance in the office.

Lecture 15: Questions

1. What is listening?
2. Why do we listen?
3. What are the stages of effective listening?
4. Describe some common forms of ineffective listening.

Lecture 15: Answers

1. Listening refers specifically to the reception and interpretation of auditory signals. Listening is “the active process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken or non verbal messages” (Seiler and Beall, 2005).

We often use the terms hearing and listening interchangeably, but there is a difference between the two terms. The term ‘hearing’ refers to the reception of auditory signals. The term ‘listening’ refers to the perception and interpretation of filtered and selectively received heard sounds.

2. Various reasons why we listen are:

- *Information:* We select the signals that bring in vital information
- *Evaluation:* We selectively perceive sounds so that we can interpret them and classify and categorize them to understand how to respond to them
- *Empathy:* We listen so that we can interpret the messages in a manner similar to that of the person sending those message and understand and relate to the feelings of the person sending those messages.
- *Socialization or dialogue:* We listen so that we can understand them and connect with the people in our environment. We listen so that we can have a conversation with the people in our environment.
- *Enjoyment:* We also listen to enjoy the rhythm, and melody, and content of what we are listening to.

We also listen because if we miss out vital information by not listening, it causes a mismatch between the goals and perception of messages. This leads to loss of information, which leads to misinterpretation, or lack of appropriate information, which could potentially lead to conflict.

Angell (2004) describes the way we listen as active and passive listening.

Active listening refers to a conscious effort to receive and interpret selected sounds. Angell (2004) describes the reasons for active listening as:

- *Listening to learn*: Consciously listening for new information that can be incorporated into our existing repertoire of knowledge.
- *Critical listening*: Listening to understand and critically analyse the information being received so that the said information can be agreed upon, or disputed, or discussed for further clarity.
- *Sensitive or empathic listening*: Listening with an active effort to understand the feelings of the speaker.
- *Dialogue listening*: Listening for cues that can facilitate nexting, which can result in a dialogue between the speakers.

Passive listening refers to subconscious perception of sounds by the brain. When we listen passively, we may not actively listen to achieve a specific goal or to interpret specific messages, but the sounds received by our brain are interpreted and stored away into the right memory files.

According to Angell (2004), some of the common reasons for passive listening are:

- *Listening for pleasure*: e.g. listening to music or one's favorite radio show while driving
- *Casual listening*: e.g. listening to get a gist of the conversation without actually participating in it.

3. Seiler and Beall (2005) list the stages of effective listening as:

- a. *Hearing*: Receiving sounds through the ears
- b. *Understanding*: Interpreting the sounds received through the ears within specific contexts
- c. *Remembering*: Tagging understood sounds with existing memory traces
- d. *Interpreting*: Revisiting remembered understood sounds with the specific intention to understand where they may have come from and why, and what they may be aimed towards and why
- e. *Evaluating*: Deciding whether and how to act upon the interpreted sounds

4. According to Wood (1998), some common forms of ineffective listening are:
- a. *Pseudolistening or false listening*: Pseudolistening takes place when we pretend to listen, we appear attentive, but we do not take in what is being said. This creates problems for us as listeners because nothing registers. The problem at the receiver's end is that when this happens, there is usually no feedback from the audience, or if the members of the audience nod their heads when they are not supposed to or express non verbal behaviour that is not consistent with the tone of the said message, it confuses the speaker about the impact of the spoken message.
 - b. *Monopolizing*: Monopolizing refers to the tendency of the person who is supposed to listen, to hog the scene by talking only about himself or herself instead of listening. The way people do this is by rerouting the conversation towards their own selves, or interrupting the speaker repeatedly. This creates trouble for the speaker who is not able to stay on track with what s/he is supposed to say.
 - c. *Selective listening*: Selective listening is a form of ineffective listening where the listener focuses only on particular parts of the interaction. This leads to misinterpretation of the received message, and incomplete understanding of the situation leading to confusion or at times biased interpretation.
 - d. *Defensive listening*: Defensiveness refers to a perception of being under attack. People who listen defensively actively perceive personal attacks by speakers where none may be intended. Defensive listening includes actively listening for criticisms, hostile undertones, or sometimes even accusations, and being mentally ready to fight these 'threats' when required. This creates problems for the listener who tends to interpret the received information in a biased manner. The listener may also be unnecessarily stressed due to selective listening and an active hunt for negative information especially when there is none.
 - e. *Ambushing*: Ambushing refers to "selective listening for the specific purpose of gathering ammunition to use in attacking a speaker". As the name suggests, ambushing is the opposite of defensiveness in terms of direction of interpretation. The biggest problem with ambushing (which is similar to the problem caused by defensiveness) is bias and misinterpretation.
 - f. *Literal listening*: Literal listening refers to listening just for content. As discussed earlier, to listen effectively, and to understand a message

appropriately, the listened message must be interpreted within a context. The biggest problem literal listening poses is misinterpretation, especially when the content is ambiguous and makes sense only within its context.

- g. *Emotional deafness*: Emotional deafness refers to “the mental ‘tuning out’ that happens when the speaker uses terminology that turns off the listener or uses words so embodied with feeling that the listener gets caught up in what is being said”.

Lecture 16: Questions

1. Describe the interpersonal barriers that prevent us from listening effectively.
2. What is the difference between positive and negative feedback?
3. How should feedback be delivered?

Lecture 16: Answers

1. In addition to the barriers discussed in the previous lectures, intrapersonal barriers play a significant role in preventing us from listening effectively (Angell, 2007). Some of these intrapersonal barriers are:
 - *Comparing (the speaker to yourself or others)*: Sometimes, when we are listening to someone, we start comparing what the speaker is saying, or the style the speaker is using to say what is being said, by us or someone else who might have delivered the speech differently. This shifts our focus from the content to the physical context of the non-content features of the message being conveyed. As a result, we miss out vital information.
 - *Mind reading*: Sometimes we get so involved in what is being said that we try to predict what will be said next. We try to read the mind of the speaker. This attempt at forecasting the next part of the speech interferes with our ability to listen to what is being said now.
 - *Rehearsing (what to say next)*: Sometimes, when we are participants in the ongoing interaction, instead of listening to what is being said, we tend to focus on rehearsing our part. Till the time we are done, we tend to practice what we are expected to say in that interaction. This prevents us from listening to what is already being said.
 - *Filtering (selective listening)*: Selective listening or filtering of specific information, as discussed in the previous lecture, is, by design, an impediment to listening completely.
 - *Judging*: When we are listening to a message, we have a tendency to assess (usually before the message has been communicated fully) whether the message makes sense or not, and whether the information transmitted through the message is of any use. This, as is evident, poses a problem with interpretation.
 - *Dreaming*: Dreaming refers to distraction. Once in a while we get distracted while listening to a long speech or a speech that does not interest us. We just mentally tune out and go into another world. This poses a problem for effective transmission of messages.

- *Identifying (with what is being presented)*: Sometimes, the subject being discussed is so interesting or so close to our personal experiences, that we start connecting to it and feeling it. This interferes with our ability to receive those features and pieces of information that we are not connected to. This results in loss of vital information that could possibly lead to misinterpretation of the messages being exchanged.
- *Advising (the speaker)*: At times, if the speaker is a subordinate or a junior or if we are in a position to or qualified to suggest improvements in the content or delivery of what is being said, we switch to the 'advisor' mode. Instead of listening to what is being said, we start looking for areas for improvement and making mental notes about what can be changed in the what the speaker is saying. This, as is evident, interferes with the reception and interpretation of heard sounds.
- *Sparring (being quick to disagree)*: Sparring is what we do when we disagree with what the speaker is saying as soon as the speaker's words reach our ears. The reasons for sparring could range from our confidence in our expertise in the subject being spoken about, to our dislike for the speaker. This repeatedly interruptive act of disagreement interferes with our ability to receive the messages being transmitted.
- *Being right (our inability to accept criticism)*: Sometimes, we are so focused on believing that we are always right, that we are unable to accept criticism. When we listen to messages, we tend to block out the information that goes against us, or criticizes us. This prevents us from listening to the information directed at us.
- *Derailing (changing the topic)*: Sometimes, we tend to be in a hurry to change topics, and we do not realize that the topic we are about to change has not been transmitted fully. We miss out on the last bits of the information that could prove to be vital in effective interpretation of the message being conveyed.
- *Placating (agreeing with everything)*: Sometimes we tend to agree with whatever is being said. We do not want to risk being labeled as difficult listeners, so we agree with everything that is being said without actually analyzing the message for coherence or consistency. This leads to trouble with effective interpretation.

2. Modaff and DeWine (2002) broadly categorize feedback as:

- a. *Positive Feedback*: information that alerts the subsystems to move from status quo behavior to a specified state of behavior
- b. *Negative Feedback*: information that indicates to the subsystems that they should return to the status quo

3. Gouran and Fisher (1984) suggest the following strategies for delivering feedback to ensure maximum impact and benefit:

- a. The person giving feedback should be *direct and specific* to minimize the chances of misinterpretation.
- b. *Support feedback by evidence* to ensure credibility of the reasons for feedback and convince the recipient of the feedback that the feedback is absolutely necessary.
- c. *Clearly separate the issue under discussion from the personalities involved* to ensure objectivity in the feedback.
- d. *Sandwich the negative messages between positive ones* to help the recipient tune her/himself to receive the negative messages
- e. *Pose the situation as a mutual function* to ensure the belief that the feedback was being given for a reason that, if dealt with, could be mutually beneficial.
- f. *Deliver feedback close to occurrence* to ensure that the details of the reasons for feedback are still fresh in the memory of the person receiving the feedback and the solutions suggested through feedback can be tied in with the occurrence of the events leading to the feedback and seem coherent with the events leading to the said feedback.
- g. Gouran and Fisher (1984) suggest that during the delivery of the feedback, the person delivering the feedback should:
 - i. Be assertive and dynamic
 - ii. Be dynamic, fair and credible
 - iii. Be relaxed and responsive
 - iv. Preserve face or the public image of the person receiving the feedback by being as respectful as possible and presenting the feedback as a mutual function instead of an allegation.

Lecture 17: Questions

1. Describe the different rules that govern language.
2. What is symmetrical interaction?
3. What is complementary interaction?

Lecture 17: Answers

1. Some rules that govern language are:
 - *Phonological rules* govern how sounds are combined to form words. The attached clip demonstrates how similar sounding words can be interpreted differently in different contexts.
 - *Syntactic rules* govern the way symbols can be arranged. With reference to language, syntactic rules govern the way words are placed within a sentence.
 - *Pragmatic rules* tell us what uses and interpretations of a message are appropriate in a given context
 - *Coordinated Management of Meaning* – We use rules at several levels to create our own messages and interpret others' statements.
2. Symmetrical interaction refers to interaction where both the interactants are at par with each other. In this type of interaction, both the interactants are meeting each other's expectations, so neither one considers him/herself to be inferior to the other in any manner.
3. Complementary interaction refers to interaction that involves exchange of information that is actively sought by one of the interactants (usually a superior), and delivered by the other (usually a subordinate).

Lecture 18: Questions

1. What is persuasion?
2. What does the Classical Rhetorical Theory propose?
3. What is *ethos*, and how might *ethos* be established in and through communication?
4. How might *logos* be used in persuasion?

Lecture 18: Answers

1. According to the Oxford English Dictionary, persuasion is "The act of convincing a person by argument or inducement, to do something, or believe that something should be done."

Simons (1976, in Ross & Anderson, 2002) describes persuasion as the "...human communication designed to influence others by modifying their beliefs, values, or attitudes."

Putting it very crudely, persuasion is the act of getting someone to do what they may not have been doing earlier, or what they may not have wanted to do earlier.

2. Classical Rhetorical Theory finds its roots in Aristotelian philosophy. According to this theory, rhetoric is defined as the "...faculty or ability to find 'the available means of persuasion' in a situation."(Aristotle, 1954, in Anderson & Ross, 2002)

According to the classical rhetorical theory, language is used not just to influence others but also to conduct internal dialogues for the purpose of solving problems. Our thoughts and our rhetoric are interdependent.

According to the classical rhetorical theory, we use language to help significant others around us change their minds about doing or not doing or believing in or not believing in something etc. In addition to this, whenever we are trying to make decisions, we also use language to conduct a debate between different aspects of the same situation within our own minds. We 'conduct a dialogue' or a discussion intrapersonally (with our own selves) and this discussion helps us (a) select a course of action from the available courses of action, or (b) stimulate our minds to think of new directions that can take us to a new and improved course of action.

3. Ethos refers to the 'Personal proof' or 'ethical proof' that builds on the personal qualities of the speaker. Ethos connotes, 'Believe me because I am who I am.' The use of ethos is most effective when the speaker demonstrates a certain level of

- a. *Credibility or believability and trustworthiness*: The speaker is believable, i.e. If the speaker has been believed in the past or has lived up to the expectations the listeners have had from him/ her in the past, it is likely that the speaker will be able to successfully use the statement, "You believed me on such and such occasion, and I did not let you down. So, you can believe me this time as well." or "I have not given you a reason to doubt me till now, so you should believe me."
- b. *Expertise*: The speaker is an expert at something or can do something much better than others. In this case, the speaker will be able to successfully use the statement, "You must believe me because I have the following qualifications or because the quality of my work has been certified or recognized or recommended by so and so expert or team of experts or organization."
- c. *Dynamism*: Demonstration of integrity with the topic of persuasion using a heightened level of energy is a very effective tool to convince listeners. A monotonous speech or a read out document is never as convincing as an energetic, dynamic one on one conversation with lots of eye contact is. Energetic use of hands and facial expressions that are consonant with the topic of persuasion indicates enthusiasm and involvement, and that makes the topic of persuasion believable. Dynamism feeds into believability of the message being conveyed.

4. According to the classical rhetorical theory, logos may be used in two ways:

- a. *Syllogism*: Syllogism is a form of logical reasoning that moves from major premise through minor premise to conclusion. For example, 'A' has a characteristic feature 'x'. 'B' is a subset of 'A'. Hence 'B' will also have the characteristic feature 'x'. OR A is an expert in Statistical Analysis. B is A's intern. Hence B will also be an expert in Statistical Analysis.
- b. *Enthymemes*: Enthymemes refer to a set of premises in which one of the two premises is implicit. e.g. 'A' has a characteristic feature 'x'. This characteristic feature 'x' manifests itself in some form in 'B'. [Hence, the listeners assume, that 'B' must be a subset of 'A' in order for it to be exhibiting characteristic, 'x', OR A is good with Statistical Analysis, and A is a Professor. B is also good with Statistical Analysis, so B must also be a Professor.

Lecture 19: Questions

1. Describe the different stages of the persuasion process as proposed by Lulofs (1991).
2. What is persuasion a function of?
3. Describe the Adaptation Level Theory.
4. Describe the role of the commitment principle in compliance behaviour.

Lecture 19: Answers

1. Lulofs (1991) describes the process of persuasion through a five stage process:
 - A. *Background*: Past experiences of all participants
 - B. *Assessment*: Of the situation and a decision on the needs and goals of the situation considering the characteristics of the participants, and cultural assumptions
 - C. *Enactment*: Or the actual event in which the messages to persuade are exchanged
 - D. *Outcomes*: Or the result of the enactment
 - E. *Future Persuasion*: Or the impact the above process has on subsequent persuasion events with the same people in similar situations
2. Kelman (1966, in Anderson & Ross, 2002) believes that persuasion is a function of compliance, identification and internalization.
 - *Compliance* occurs when one person does what another person wants done "...to achieve a favorable reaction from the other. He may be interested in attaining certain specific rewards or in avoiding certain specific punishments that the influencing agent controls" (Kelman, 1966, in Anderson & Ross, 2002).
 - *Identification*: Identification refers to the attempt to put oneself in another person's shoes or behave like another person in order to see things from their perspective. This happens publicly as well as in private. A person who identifies with someone tries to emulate their behavior in order to be perceived like them and feel what they are feeling. (Kelman, 1966, in Anderson & Ross, 2002)
 - *Internalization*: The persuader starts to see a connection between what is being suggested and what s/he believes must be done. The decision to act or be convinced seems to come from within. The persuasion does not feel like persuasion or influence. It feels like a genuine motivation. (Kelman, 1966, in Anderson & Ross, 2002)

According to Kelman (1966, in Anderson & Ross, 2002), persuasion involves influencing other people to agree to do what you are asking them to do, feel the way you want them to feel about the reason you want them to do what you want them to do, and really believe that what you want them to do really does need to be done.

3. Petty and Cacioppo (1981, in Canary, Cody & Manusov, 2000) describe compliance behavior through the Adaptation Level Theory.

According to this theory, when people choose an amount of something (tangible or intangible) and come to expect that amount as typical or normative, we say that they have 'adapted' to that level. This expectation can manifest itself as an anchor or a contrast.

- *Anchor*: An expectation can become an anchor for how someone perceives what is normative or typical. For example, the definition of professionalism or what is appropriate office wear in a business environment.

Anchors are important in the business environment because expectations are governed by perceptions. You create a perception. That perception leads to expectations from the product or service towards fulfilling or matching the perception of the needs supposed to be satisfied through the acquisition of product or using the service that you as a company sell.

- *Contrast*: When some new object, person, or event is judged against the standard and is displaced away from the adapted level, or anchor. Relative perceptions of what is better or worse in comparison to the standard. For example, driving to work in a car is better than driving to work on a two wheeler or taking the public transport.

Contrast is used in the industry as a tool that invokes guilt. This guilt may be the guilt of not living up to the public identity one has created for oneself. Contrast may also be used to manipulate a person's generosity by comparing his/ her contribution to others. Persuasion by contrast can be used for manipulation in sales pitches by pitching more expensive products before the less expensive ones

4. Cialdini (1994, in Canary, Cody and Manusov) also discusses the commitment principle to describe compliance behaviour.

According to the commitment principle, the more committed a person is to a group organization or cause, the more likely the person is to comply with requests to aid or assist that group, organization, or cause.

The commitment principle is used in the industry as the Foot in the door Tactic and the Lowball Tactic.

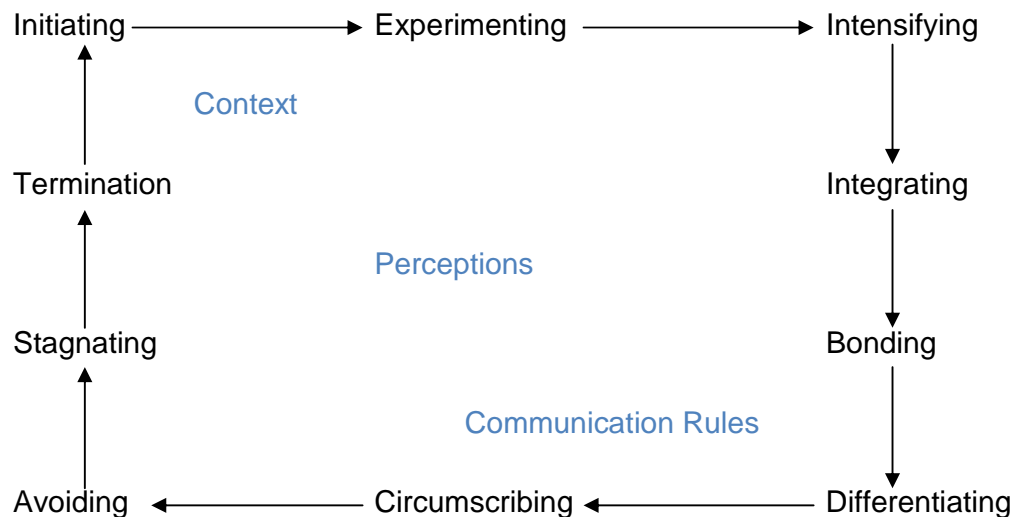
- Foot-in-the-door Tactic: The solicitor makes a small request to crack the door open so as to eventually get it open all the way. For example, some companies offer free trials of their products for a limited period of time to encourage you to use their products. Once you use their products, they start selling the same products to you at a premium.
- Lowball Tactic: Someone makes a request that is low or small, and you actively & freely agree to it. After you are committed to it, you discover that the deal was not as good as you thought it was. For example, some years ago there were reports regarding sales of diamonds online by a popular company. This company is reputed for a different set of businesses. When they advertised the sale of diamonds with a standard certificate, people were tempted to buy those diamonds. It was only when the buyers of these diamonds received these diamonds and got them examined by their local jewellers, that they realized that they had been cheated.

Lecture 20: Questions

1. What is collaboration?
2. Describe the process of development and analysis of relationships.
3. Why is an understanding of relationship formation and development significant in the study of communication?

Lecture 20: Answers

1. According to Marshall (1995), collaboration is "...a principle based process of working together that produces trust, integrity and breakthrough results by building true consensus, ownership and alignment in all aspects of the organization."
2. Gamble and Gamble (2000) describe the process of development and analysis of relationships as follows:



Let us see what this diagram means:

- Initiating: The first phase in any relationship deals with 'Icebreakers': Icebreakers are "Signals that impel us to initiate a conversation or tell us that we have nothing to gain by interacting." This is the stage where we identify who we need to connect with and send the very first signal to the person we want to connect

with. We try to 'break the ice' or knock on the door of the person's comfort zone, hoping that we will be let in.

- Experimenting: Soon after we initiate communication with the person we want to connect with, we experiment with different contents, tones, and directions for our communication with this person. We try to 'probe the unknown'. At this stage our sensitivity to the responses from this person are at their peak. We make a subconscious note of what is comfortable and what is not, and decide the future course of action for our communication with this person.

This phase has various functions (Knapp, 1992, in Gamble & Gamble, 2002):

- It affords a platform for a wide range of topics that can be explored and at times helps us discover where we can find 'openings for more penetrating conversations' with the person who we are trying to establish this relationship with.
 - Since this is the initial stage of a relationship, our investment in and expectations from the relationship are low. So, we are more prepared to risk entry into the comfort zone of the significant other from various entry points. This is the stage where the communication rules (discussed in a previous lecture) help define the boundaries of the relationship in terms of what is acceptable and what is not to both the interactants.
 - This stage also helps the significant other know us better because of the reasons stated in the point above.
 - Since we are experimenting, our efforts at forming the relationship come across as proactive and deliberate. This helps us convey a sense of solidarity and unity with the group.
- Intensifying: The rules of the relationship have been established and the boundaries of interpersonal communication have been demarcated by the previous stage. The time now comes to build upon what has been given a basic framework. The Intensifying stage is a stage of establishment of 'friendship and comfortable collegiality'.

At this stage we strive to:

- Find more common ground
- Share more with the significant other
- Develop better mutual understanding through a re-definition of communication rules.
- Find ways to better predict each other's behaviour

Having found ways to connect with each other, this is the stage where we spend a lot more time with each other and find ways to build upon what brought us together.

- The functions of this stage are:
 - The active effort to come together and understand each other forms the basis for collaboration and teamwork. This is the stage at which 'I' starts becoming 'we'.
 - The alignment of comfort zones of the interactants results in a more comfortable communication climate in the workplace leading to reduction in friction/ conflict.
- Integrating: This is the stage of unification where 'I' and 'I' integrate into 'We'. This is the stage at which the interactants start behaving as one unit. The level of interdependence is highest at this stage.

The functions of this stage are:

- The interactants really start perceiving themselves and the other members as part of one unit or a team.
- The interactants perceive that they are part of each other's professional circles.
- Since the interactants become interdependent and feel like different parts of the same unit, their professional behaviour is synchronized.

Integration is the stage at which the effort to become and behave like one comes from within, and the team is really seen as one unit. This is the stage at which the sensitivity to each other's needs is heightened, and the members contribute to the common goal to the fullest.

- Bonding: At this stage, the interactants announce their commitment to each other. An example of this is the formal merger or contracts that are signed up between parties to seal their commitment to each other. This stage is marked by enhanced co-dependence between the interactants. Enhanced co-dependence leads to an increase in expectations from each other which results in an increase in the strain on the relationship between the interactants because of a redefinition of communication rules between the interactants.

The main functions of this stage is the formalization of 'We' which indicates professional commitments. This connotes that the interactants are tied to the relationship and their tie and commitment to the relationship is publicly known.

- Differentiating: Bonding indicates the beginning of stress in a relationship where the interactants start realizing that their individual identity or 'I' was getting lost

somewhere in the 'We'. The stage after bonding is 'Differentiating' where bits of 'I' and 'I' start breaking up from 'We' while still realizing that 'We' is more important than individual 'I's. At this stage the emphasis shifts to how the interactants are a team and still are very different from each other. The comfort zones of the interactants start expanding in directions away from each other. The communication rules between the two start getting re-defined yet again primarily due to the re-definition of satisfaction of either party with existing rules.

Function: When the focus starts shifting from 'We' to 'I' in a relationship, it indicates or signals trouble in the relationship.

Most work relationships stabilize at this stage especially if the relationship is essential to the achievement of the goal. If differentiation takes over or the 'I's break off in larger chunks than the remaining 'We', the relationship moves to the next stage, i.e. Circumscribing.

- Circumscribing: As the name suggests, at this stage participants begin to circumscribe or beat about the bush regarding their involvement in the relationship. They do not want to break away yet, but staying connected is more strenuous, so they engage in only 'safe' communication in ways that are necessary for maintenance of the relationship. The quality and quantity of communication declines. Interactants continue to feel dissatisfied with the communication rules defining their relationship but do not talk about this dissatisfaction yet. The interactants begin to accept that the end of the relationship is near. The communication between the interactants becomes exhausting. The relationship is usually 'painful' at this stage because of a perceived necessity to keep up pretenses.

Function: This stage is usually the tipping point. Decision to repair or break the relationship is made at this stage depending upon the intensity of exhaustion and pain.

- Stagnating: This is the stage at which the interactants realize that the end of the relationship is near. At this stage the interactants do not even try to keep the relationship together. They go their own separate ways and hope that the relationship will die its natural death. The communication between them comes to a standstill. Since they have accepted that the end is near, the strain, pain and exhaustion they experience reduces considerably.

Function

The stagnation stage marks the time to start looking for a new relationship. It results in a spring cleaning of the decaying relationship. The interactants actively try to cutting their losses and figure out ways to move on.

- Avoiding: Once the interactants have decided to move on away from the decaying relationship, the disconnect between them becomes obvious to significant others. Unpleasantness creeps in and the interactants actively start trying to avoid interacting with each other. Forced interaction usually leads to aggression against each other that is usually expressed in public as a defence mechanism to warn each other and significant others to not force this interaction.

Function:

This stage is marked by active and expressed conflict, which should be avoided as far as possible. Any expression of conflict is the last straw on the camel's back, and usually serves to create basis for termination of relationship.

- Termination: Termination is the formal ending of a relationship. It may be pleasant or unpleasant, cordial or bitter, short and straightforward or long-drawn. Termination of a contract or splitting of a company or a resignation are all examples of this stage of various types of business relationships.

Function:

The function of this stage is a formal final signal that it is time to wind up, close the file, archive, and move on to something new.

3. Most personal and professional relationships go through most of the above mentioned stages. The time it takes for the relationship to move from one stage to the next, the stability of the relationship, the outcome of the relationship, the impact the relationship has on the goal of the team and on individual goals of the interactants, etc. depends upon the context the relationship is established in, and individual cultural contexts of each of the interactants. These contexts are in turn determined by individual perceptions, and result in negotiation and re-negotiation and re-definition of communication rules and the roles these rules help define and maintain.