

DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE & CONTINUING EDUCATION

MANONMANIAM SUNDARANAR UNIVERSITY

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M.A., Journalism and Mass Communication

CORE I - UNDERSTANDING HUMAN COMMUNICATION

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COURSE

Understanding Human Communication

Course Outcomes (CO)

After completing the course, students will be able to:

- CO1:** Explain fundamental concepts and theories of human communication.
 - CO2:** Analyze biological, psychological, and socio-cultural aspects of communication.
 - CO3:** Apply communication models and theories to interpersonal and social contexts.
 - CO4:** Examine verbal, nonverbal, and visual communication processes.
 - CO5:** Evaluate communication dynamics in relationships and group interactions.
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Unit I Human Communication Theories and Concepts: Foundations of Communication Theory-Dimensions and Evaluation of Theory-Communication Tiers- Seven Traditions of Communication Theories. Defining Communication- Basic Models and Levels of Communication. Key Concepts in Message Processing, Cognitive and Information Processing (Attribution and Judgement, Information-Integration and Consistency Theories). Socio-Psychological Approach to Communication-Trait Factor Model. Communication Competency-Argumentativeness Communication Anxiety-Reticence (Interaction Adaptation, Expectancy Violation theory).

Unit II Evolutionary Communication: Biophysiological Theories, Trait Theories and Embodiment, Communicology, Communibiology Biological and Neurological Basis of Communication Evolutionary Communication- Pointing as Communication. And Signalling Theory Information Seeking Behaviour and Information Foraging Information Integration, Expectancy Value-Cognitive Dissonance- Rokeach' Comprehensive theory of change Communication in Cultural Evolution-Cognitive Gadgets.

Unit III Modes and Messages of Communication: Evolution of Language-Sтивен Pinker's Language Instinct Thesis, Structural Linguistics Approach Speech and Verbal Communication, Speech Community and Speech Act. Augmentative and Alternative Communication Models for Speech Interactions Nonverbal Communication (NVC).

Nonverbal Codes Systems Digital NVC - NVC in Human Interactions, Touch and Haptic Communication. Theories of Visual Communication- Semiotics, , Social Semiotics Written Forms of Communication and Reading, Orality and Literacy Psychological and Neurological Basis of Writing.

Unit IV Conversations in Interpersonal and Group Context: Intrapersonal Communication Self, Mindful Communication Phenomenological and Hermeneutics Tradition, Interpersonal Communication and -Uncertainty Reduction, Privacy Management Giles. Accommodation Theory. Interaction adaptation theory. Burgoon's Expectancy violation theory, and Interpersonal deception theories. symbolic interactionism, symbolic convergence theory- Fantasy themes Rhetoric, Argumentation, Coordinated Management of Meaning (CMM). Message-Design Logic, Compliance Gaining, Goals-Plans-Action Model, Politeness theory. Group Dynamics: Interaction Process Analysis, Group Development, Input-Output Model, Concertive Control and Self Managed Teams, Adaptive Structuration. Simplified Social Influence Process, SocioEgocentric and Group-Centric Model, Transactive Memory, Vigilant Interaction theory.

Unit V Relationships: Palo Alto Group on Relationships. Relational Schemas, Social Penetration Theory Bakhtin's Theory of Dialogics. Dialectical Theory of Relationships, Affection Exchange, Dyadic Power Theory, Family Communication Patterns, Relationship Maintenance, Petronio's Communication Privacy Management (CPM) Carl Roger's Self-Theory Constructing and Transcending Differences-Moral Conflict theory, Performing Foreignness, Coalition and Alliance Building, Dialogue as Building Culture of Peace, Principles of Good Communication and Non-Violent Communication.

Recommended Text

1. Beatty, M. J., McCroskey, J. C., & Valencic, K. M. (2001). *The Biology of Communication: A Communicological Perspective*. Hampton Press.
2. Edwards, A., Edwards, C., Wahl, S. T., & Myers, S. A. (2015). *The Communication Age: Connecting and Engaging*. SAGE Publications.
3. Hargie, O. (2018). *The Handbook of Communication Skills*. Taylor & Francis.

4. Braithwaite, D. O., & Schrodt, P. (2014). *Engaging Theories in Interpersonal Communication: Multiple Perspectives*. SAGE Publications.
5. Duck, S., & McMahan, D. T. (2011). *The Basics of Communication: A Relational Perspective*. SAGE Publications.
6. Hickok, G. (2014). *The Myth of Mirror Neurons: The Real Neuroscience of Communication and Cognition*. W. W. Norton & Company.
7. Mildner, V. (2010). *The Cognitive Neuroscience of Human Communication*. Psychology Press.
8. Johannesen, R. L. (2002). *Ethics in Human Communication*. Waveland Press

Understanding Human Communication

Unit I

Structure

Overview

Learning Objectives

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Human Communication Theories and Concepts

1.2.1 Foundations of Communication Theory

1.2.2 Dimensions and Evaluation of Theory

1.2.3 Communication Tiers

1.2.4 Seven Traditions of Communication Theories.

1.2.5 Basic Models and Levels of Communication.

1.2.6 Key Concepts in Message Processing,

1.2.7 Cognitive and Information Processing

1.2.8 Attribution and Judgement, Information-Integration and Consistency Theories.

1.3 Socio-Psychological Approach to Communication

1.3.1 Trait Factor Model.

1.4 Communication Competency

1.4.1 Argumentativeness Communication

1.4.2 Anxiety-Reticence (Interaction Adaptation, Expectancy Violation theory)

Let us Sum up

Check your Progress

Suggested Readings

Video Links

Answers to Check your progress.

Overview

This module delves into human communication theories, focusing on message processing, cognitive and information processing, attribution, judgment, and information integration. It examines the socio-psychological approach, including the Trait Factor Model, and focuses on communication competency, including argumentativeness, anxiety-reticence, interaction adaptation, and Expectancy Violation theory.

Learning Objectives

After reading this unit you will be able to

- To know the various concepts of communication and their implications in human interaction.
- To learn the basic models and levels of communication, emphasising their practical applications.
- To understand the socio-psychological approach to communication.
- To understand the practical applications of these theories in enhancing communication skills.

1.1 Introduction

Communication has been a vital part of human civilization since early times, serving as a vital social life process. From childhood to old age, a person's development relies on their communication. Understanding communication's nature and process is of great interest to disciplines such as linguistics, journalism, management sciences, commerce, business studies, political science, psychology, technology, and education. Human communication is an epic story of developing minds discovering intricate methods to transmit thoughts, feelings, and ideas. From ancestral gatherings to bustling city streets, language has played a crucial role in establishing communities, launching revolutions, and launching flights. The origins of language can be traced back to prehistory, with the power of communication driving millennia of laughter, sorrow, and announcements. The narrative of human communication is as epic as ever, showcasing the power of communication in our lives.

1.2 Human Communication Theories and Concepts

Human communication, also known as Anthropos miotics, is the study of how humans communicate based on cooperative and shared intentions. It encompasses various types of

communication, including intrapersonal, interpersonal, nonverbal, speech, conversation, visual, writing, mail, mass media, telecommunication, organizational, group dynamics, and cross-cultural communication. These types are essential for human bonding, requesting help, informing others, and sharing attitudes. The term "communicate" has its origins in the Latin word "communicare," meaning to "share" or "make common." The study of message processing focuses on examining how "making our thoughts common" occurs and what happens during this process.

Human communication has been studied for thousands of years, and as meta-theoretical thinking and research methods have evolved, the way people approach this area has also changed. Contemporary communication scholars have traditionally defined human communication, but an alternative definition is proposed that better suits the purposes of message processing. This new definition and several other key concepts will help us study how people create understanding in social interaction.

1.2.1 Foundations of Communication Theory

The foundations of communication theory are a set of fundamental principles that provide a theoretical framework for understanding human communication. These principles include the nature of communication, the sender-receiver model, feedback mechanisms, context, channels of communication, encoding and decoding, noise and interference, cultural and diversity considerations, power and influence, and evolution and adaptation. The sender-receiver model illustrates the flow of communication, with feedback loops representing responses that shape subsequent communication. Feedback mechanisms provide information about the effectiveness of the message, ensuring that the intended meaning is understood. Contextual factors, such as cultural, social, historical, and situational elements, shape the meaning of messages. Channels of communication, such as verbal language, nonverbal cues, written text, or visual symbols, play a crucial role in conveying messages. Understanding the impact of culture and diversity on communication is essential for effective communication. Power dynamics also play a role in shaping messages, and the ability to adapt theories to changes in technology, society, and culture is a foundational aspect of communication theory.

1.2.2 Dimensions and Evaluation of Theory

Communication theories are a comprehensive approach to understanding communication processes. They are characterized by various dimensions, including scope and breadth, abstractness vs. concreteness, level of analysis, time orientation, intentionality,

normative vs. descriptive, and interdisciplinary influence. These dimensions help scholars analyze and conceptualize communication from different perspectives. Evaluating communication theories involves assessing their strengths, weaknesses, and overall utility. Common factors considered include explanation power, predictive capability, simplicity vs. complexity, practical applicability, consistency, parsimony, testability, relevance across contexts, and ethical considerations.

1.2.3 Communication Tiers

Communication tiers are distinct levels or layers of interaction, each with unique characteristics, dynamics, and challenges. Understanding these tiers is crucial for understanding human interaction. Interpersonal communication involves direct, immediate feedback between two individuals, often involving deeper connections. Group communication involves shared goals, dynamics of group roles, and interaction patterns within a small group. Organizational communication involves hierarchical structures, formal and informal channels, and information flow. Public communication is directed to a larger audience through mass media, addressing diverse audience needs and managing potential misinterpretation. Mass communication is one-to-many communication, often with limited feedback, focusing on reaching a wide audience. Each tier requires specific skills, strategies, and considerations to ensure effective communication and meaningful interaction. Recognizing and adapting to the unique features of each tier is essential for communicative success.

1.2.4 Seven Traditions of Communication Theories.

Maguire (2006) presents a summary of seven communication traditions in the field of communication theory. These include socio-psychological tradition, which focuses on expression, interaction, and influence, cybernetic tradition, which focuses on information processing, rhetorical tradition, which is the practical art of discourse, semiotic tradition, which is intersubjective mediation by signs and symbols, socio-cultural tradition, which is the reproduction of social order, critical tradition, which is discursive reflection, and phenomenological tradition, which is dialogue. These traditions aim to understand the role of communication in various aspects of life, such as cause-and-effect relationships, information processing, rhetorical discourse, semiotic mediation, socio-cultural tradition, critical tradition, and phenomenological tradition. They emphasize the importance of understanding these traditions to foster effective communication and promote social justice.

1.2.5 Basic Models and Levels of Communication.

Communication models are simplified representations of the process, describing both verbal and non-verbal communication. They provide a compact overview of the complex process, aiding researchers in formulating hypotheses, applying concepts to real-world scenarios, and testing predictions. However, many models are criticized for being too simple, as they often overlook essential aspects. These models often present components and interactions in diagrams, with basic components such as a sender encoding information and a receiver decoding it for understanding. Noise can interfere and distort the message. Communication models often include basic concepts such as "sender", "receiver", "message", "channel", "signal", "encoding", "decoding", "noise", "feedback", and "context". These concepts vary slightly and may be used for the same ideas. The sender is responsible for creating the message and sending it to the receiver, while the receiver can be verbal or non-verbal and contains information. The process of encoding converts the message into a signal that can be conveyed using a channel, such as air. Decoding is the reverse process of encoding, where the signal is translated back into a message. Noise, which can be environmental or semantic, interferes with the message reaching its destination. Feedback involves the receiver conveying information back to the sender. Context refers to the circumstances of the communication, including the physical environment, the mental state of the communicators, and the general social situation.

1.2.6 Key Concepts in Message Processing

Communication is a complex and amazing phenomenon that involves taking our thoughts, which exist only in our mind, and reaching into another person's mind to create a copy of them. This process changes the content of that other person's thoughts by producing and processing a combination of sounds and physical behaviours. For this purpose, message processing refers to the study of the physical and psychological activities in which people engage to create mutual understanding in social interaction.

This definition differs from other scholars' uses of the term in several ways. First, it addresses any message, regardless of the medium through which it is transmitted. Second, it seeks to encompass both the creation (i.e., production) and interpretation (i.e., reception and processing) of messages. In media research, work in the area of message processing focuses almost exclusively on how audience members attend to, think about, and ultimately

comprehend mass media messages; it generally does not include studying the processes or activities through which messages were created by media professionals.

In interpersonal domains, message processing is often equated to “message reception” or “decoding.” However, this text's definition does not treat message production as an activity divorced from message reception. Instead, it considers the similarities and interconnections between message production and reception, which are part and parcel of the process of human communication.

The scientific study of message processing—that is, how people create mutual understanding—is relatively new to the field of communication. It has its origins in the Ancient Greek's study of rhetoric and public speaking, with the focus being on influence and persuasion, not understanding. The growth and development of communication as an academic field were largely driven by interest in how media messages and propaganda influence people. In the latter half of the 20th century, interest in interpersonal communication grew, but the focus of most scholars' inquiries was on relational influence. Understanding has not been an issue that communication scholars have paid much attention to, and it is only now, in the latter half of the 20th and early 21st century, that this topic has started to receive more attention. One reason for this may be increased interest in artificial intelligence (AI), as scientists try to get machines to think and act “intelligently”—which includes creating understanding with other entities—they have been prompted to probe how people do this.

1.2.7 Cognitive and Information Processing

Cognitive processes involve how people learn, understand, think, store, and recall information acquired over time. Information processing, which includes registering, storing, and retrieving information, is a crucial aspect of communication research. It emerged as part of the cognitive revolution in psychology, which led to the establishment of new research methodologies involving psychophysiological measures, self-reporting, and behavioural measures. Communication scientists have adopted an information-processing approach to go beyond traditional media-effects research and probe mental processes that may underlie the observed influence of mediated messages on individuals.

The term "information processing" is biased toward describing more purely cognitive rather than emotional processes. Research in neuropsychology demonstrates the fallacy of viewing cognition and emotion as isolated processes, making the term "information processing" less useful in describing the more complex, integrated cognitive and emotional

mental activity that scientists investigate. The more general term "mental processing" or "mental processes" will be used to more accurately describe the phenomenon that communication scientists involved in studying what has been historically considered information processing investigate.

1.2.8 Attribution and Judgement, Information-Integration and Consistency Theories.

Attribution theory, proposed by Fritz Heider in the 1950s, focuses on how individuals explain the causes of events or behaviours, attributions to internal or external factors. It has been developed by psychologists like Harold Kelley and Bernard Weiner. Key concepts in attribution theory include the Fundamental Attribution Error (FAE), Actor-Observer Bias, and Self-Serving Bias. Judgment theory explores how people make decisions and judgments based on available information, including heuristics, biases, and decision-making strategies.

The Information-Integration Theory, proposed by Sherif and Hovland, focuses on how people integrate and process information to form impressions or attitudes. It assumes that individuals integrate information in a weighted manner, assigning different weights to various pieces of information based on their perceived importance. Central Route Processing involves a careful and systematic analysis of information, while peripheral Route Processing uses peripheral cues or heuristics to form judgments without deeply processing information.

Consistency theories, such as Balance Theory and Cognitive Dissonance Theory, explore how individuals strive for consistency in their thoughts, feelings, and behaviours. Balance Theory suggests that people prefer a state of balance in their cognitive systems, and when there is imbalance, they will seek to restore balance. Cognitive Dissonance Theory, proposed by Leon Festinger, posits that individuals experience discomfort when their beliefs or attitudes conflict with their behaviours, and may change their beliefs or behaviour to reduce dissonance.

1.3 Socio-Psychological Approach to Communication

The Socio-Psychological Theory, also known as the Neo-Freudian Theory, asserts that individuals and society are interlinked, with an individual striving to meet the needs of society and society helping them achieve their goals. This interaction determines an individual's personality. The theory, contributed by Adler, Horney, Forman, and Sullivan, differs from Freud's psychoanalytic theory in several ways.

According to this theory, social variables, rather than biological instincts, are the important determinants in shaping an individual's personality. Motivation is conscious, meaning an individual knows what their needs and wants are and what kind of behaviour is required to meet these needs. Socio-psychological factors, such as the combination of both social (family, society, wealth, religion) and psychological factors (feelings, thoughts, beliefs), play an important role in shaping an individual's personality.

Social psychology traditionally has been defined as the study of how people affect and are affected by others. However, communication has not historically been a core topic of social psychology due to its complexity and multidisciplinary nature. Communication is an essential concept in various fields, but it has not been a core topic for social psychologists.

A parallel can be drawn between the way contemporary social psychologists think about communication and the way an earlier generation of social psychologists thought about cognition. In the late 1970s, social cognition emerged as an important theoretical focus, with social psychologists of an earlier generation observing that social psychology had always been cognitive in its orientation. However, this perspective failed to acknowledge the differences between the implicitly cognitive outlook of earlier social psychology and the study of social cognition. In the former, cognition underpinned virtually all of the processes studied, with the ability to think, perceive, remember, categorize, and more being assumed to be capacities of the normal person. In contrast, the study of social cognition assumes that the particular mechanisms by which cognition is accomplished are important determinants of the outcome of the process. For example, particularities of the structure of human memory and processes of encoding and retrieval can affect what will or will not be recalled.

In early social psychology, negative stereotypes of disadvantaged minorities were understood as instances of motivated perceptual distortion deriving from majority group members' needs, interests, and goals. More recently, it has been shown that such stereotypes can arise simply from the way people process information about others and that invidious motives or conflicts are unnecessary for their development. While motivation and conflict may play a role in the development of pejorative group stereotypes, they are not a necessary condition for their emergence.

1.3.1 Trait Factor Model.

The Big Five personality traits, also known as the Five-Factor model of personality, is a grouping of five unique characteristics used to study personality. It was developed from the

1980s onward in psychological trait theory and identified five factors and ten values. These factors and values are: conscientiousness (efficient/organized vs. extravagant/careless), agreeableness (friendly/compassionate vs. critical/rational), neuroticism (sensitive/nervous vs. resilient/confident), openness to experience (inventive/curious vs. consistent/cautious), and extraversion (outgoing/energetic vs. solitary/reserved).

Conscientiousness is a personality trait that involves being diligent, efficient, and organized. It is a trait that demonstrates self-discipline, aiming for achievement, and being dependable. Conscientious individuals are typically neat, systematic, careful, thorough, and deliberate. They are part of the Five Factor Model and the HEXACO model of personality and are considered hard-working and reliable. However, they can also be workaholics, perfectionists, and compulsive. People with low conscientiousness tend to be less goal-oriented and less driven by success, leading to anti-social behaviour and crimes of passion.

Agreeableness is a personality trait characterized by kindness, sympathy, cooperation, warmth, frankness, and considerate behaviour. It is one of the five major dimensions of personality structure, reflecting individual differences in cooperation and social harmony. High agreeableness individuals are empathetic and altruistic, while low agreeableness individuals are prone to selfish behaviour and lack of empathy. Agreeableness is a superordinate trait, clustering lower-level traits such as trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, and tender-mindedness.

Neuroticism is a fundamental personality trait in psychology, with high scores indicating moodiness and feelings like anxiety, worry, fear, anger, frustration, envy, jealousy, pessimism, guilt, depressed mood, and loneliness. These individuals respond worse to stressors and interpret ordinary situations as hopelessly difficult, leading to maladaptive behaviours like dissociation, procrastination, and substance use. High scores on the neuroticism index are associated with the risk of developing common mental disorders, including mood, anxiety, and substance use disorders.

Openness to experience is a key aspect of human personality, encompassing six dimensions: active imagination, aesthetic sensitivity, attentiveness to inner feelings, preference for variety, intellectual curiosity, and challenging authority. These qualities are significantly correlated, making openness a global personality trait. It is normally distributed, with a small number scoring extremely high or low, and most scoring moderately. People with low openness tend to be conventional and traditional, preferring familiar routines over new experiences.

Openness has moderate positive relationships with creativity, intelligence, and knowledge, and is related to the psychological trait of absorption. However, it is largely unrelated to symptoms of mental disorders.

Extraversion and introversion are central dimensions in human personality theories, introduced by Carl Jung. Extraversion is manifested in outgoing, talkative, energetic behaviour, while introversion is more reflective and reserved. Jung defined introversion as an attitude-type characterized by orientation in life through subjective psychic contents, while extraversion is characterized by concentration of interest on the external object. While they are typically viewed as a single continuum, Jung suggests everyone has both an extraverted and introverted side, with one being more dominant. Comprehensive personality models often incorporate these concepts in various forms.

1.4 Communication Competency

Communicative competence is the ability to achieve communicative goals in a socially appropriate manner, organized and goal-oriented. It includes verbal and non-verbal behaviours and is influenced by the other person's behaviour and context. Competence can be acquired through repeated practice and experience. Weinert's definition of competence refers to cognitive abilities and skills available to individuals to solve problems, along with motivational, volitional, and social readiness. Competencies are highly specific and can be best understood from the requirements side. Competences are experienced and evaluated when a person can solve specific tasks or meet specific requirements, while skills are specific behavioural or action dispositions that must be organized and used in a situationally appropriate manner when solving non-trivial tasks.

1.4.1 Argumentativeness Communication

Argumentativeness is a communication trait that involves engaging in or exhibiting confrontational communication styles, often focusing on controversial issues. It is a subset of assertiveness, but not all assertiveness involves arguments. Argumentativeness is a motivation to argue, expressing disagreements, challenging ideas, and defending one's viewpoint. While some degree of argumentativeness can be beneficial for constructive discussions and problem-solving, excessive argumentativeness can lead to conflict and hinder effective communication.

Hostility manifests in communication when people use verbal and nonverbal messages to express irritability, negativity, resentment, and suspicion. People with hostile communication

traits tend to have a quick temper, little patience, exhibit moodiness, and become exasperated when something goes wrong. They may be excessively pessimistic about outcomes that others find more favourable, refuse to cooperate, and be antagonistic toward authority, rules, and social conventions.

Positive aspects of argumentativeness include strong critical thinking, effective problem-solving, clarity, and intellectual growth. Negative aspects include conflict, communication breakdown, closed-mindedness, and stress and burnout. Strategies for effective argumentativeness include active listening, empathy, choosing battles based on the topic's significance, seeking common ground, and maintaining a respectful tone. Focusing on the ideas being discussed rather than making it a personal confrontation can help maintain a positive and collaborative environment.

1.4.2 Anxiety-Reticence (Interaction Adaptation, Expectancy Violation theory)

Anxiety and reticence are two key communication behaviours that can impact an individual's ability to express themselves effectively. Anxiety is a feeling of apprehension or uneasiness, which can manifest in various forms, such as social anxiety or public speaking anxiety. Reticence is a communication behaviour characterized by a reluctance to speak or a preference for silence, often due to factors like shyness or social anxiety.

Interaction Adaptation Theory, proposed by Judee K. Burgoon, suggests that individuals adjust their communication behaviours in response to their interaction partners' actions. If someone is reticent or anxious, their communication partners may adjust their strategies to accommodate their needs. Expectancy Violation Theory (EVT) explores how individuals respond to unexpected or deviant behaviour in interpersonal communication.

Understanding the relationship between anxiety, reticence, and expectancy violation can be valuable in interpersonal communication. Communication partners who are aware of potential anxiety or reticence can adapt their strategies to create a more supportive environment. Being mindful of expectancy violations can help manage reactions and foster positive communication experiences. Overall, understanding these relationships can help improve communication and understanding in various situations.

Let us Sum up

This module delves into human communication theories, focusing on message processing, cognitive and information processing, attribution, judgment, and information integration. It introduces various traditions, basic models, and key concepts in message processing. The module also discusses cognitive processes and information processing, attribution and judgment, information-integration, and consistency theories. It introduces the socio-psychological approach, the Trait Factor Model, and the Big Five personality traits. It also discusses argumentativeness, anxiety-reticence, interaction adaptation, and Expectancy Violation theory. The module provides a comprehensive understanding of communication theories, their practical applications, and the socio-psychological dynamics influencing human interaction, equipping learners to enhance their communication skills.

Check your Progress

Short Answer Questions

No	Question	CO	PO	K
1	Define human communication and its significance.	CO1	PO1	K1
2	Explain the seven traditions of communication theory.	CO1	PO1	K2
3	What are the basic models of communication?	CO3	PO3	K2
4	Define message processing in communication.	CO3	PO3	K1
5	Explain the concept of communication competency.	CO5	PO4	K2

Essay Questions

No	Question	CO	PO	K
1	Discuss the foundations of communication theory.	CO1	PO1	K3
2	Analyze the role of communication tiers in human interaction.	CO2	PO3	K4
3	Explain the socio-psychological approach to communication.	CO2	PO3	K3
4	Evaluate the role of cognitive and information processing in communication.	CO3	PO3	K5
5	Design strategies to improve communication competency.	CO5	PO4	K6

Suggested Readings

- 1 Craig, R. T. (1999). Communication theory as a field. *Communication Theory*, 9(2), 119_161.
- 2 Griffin, E. (2000). *A first look at communication theory* (4th ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.
- 3 Griffin, E. (2003). *A first look at communication theory* (5th ed.). Boston: McGraw Hill.
- 4 Krauss, R. M., & Fussell, S. R. (1996). *Social Psychological Models of Interpersonal Communication. Models of Interpersonal Communication.*
- 5 Maguire, K.C. (2006). Making Sense of the Seven Communication Traditions. *Communication Teacher*, 20:4, 89-92, DOI: 10.1080/17404620601014708
- 6 Berger, C. R., Roloff, M. E., & Roskos-Ewoldsen, D. R. (Eds.). (2010). *Handbook of communication science* (2nd Edition). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- 7 Burleson, B. (2010). The nature of interpersonal communication: A message centered approach. In C. R. Berger, M. E. Roloff and D. R. Roskos-Ewoldsen (Eds.) Handbook of communication science (2nd Edition; pp. 145-164). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Video Links

1. <https://youtu.be/ql14IEdKM9w?feature=shared>
2. <https://youtu.be/O-O-fV5qT-0?feature=shared>
3. <https://youtu.be/T4E2JzmIraw?feature=shared>
4. <https://youtu.be/bTkQctSZA7Q?feature=shared>

Unit II

Structure

Overview

Learning Objectives

2.1 Introduction

2.2 Evolutionary Communication

2.2.1 Biophysiological Theories,

2.2.2 Trait Theories and Embodiment,

2.2.3 Communicology,

2.2.4 Communibiology

2.2.5 Biological and Neurological Basis of Communication

2.3 Signalling Theory

2.4 Information Seeking Behaviour and Information Foraging

2.5 Information Integration,

2.6 Expectancy Value

2.7 Cognitive Dissonance

2.8 Rokeach' Comprehensive theory of change Communication in Cultural Evolution

2.9 Cognitive Gadgets.

Let us Sum up

Check your Progress

Suggested Readings

Video Links

Answers to Check your progress.

Overview

This unit explores evolutionary perspectives on communication, focusing on the biological and physiological foundations of communication. It explores bio physiological theories, trait theories, communicology, and communbiology, as well as the adaptive nature of human communication. The chapter also discusses signalling theory, information-seeking behaviour, information integration, expectancy-value, cognitive dissonance, and Rokeach's theory of change communication in cultural evolution. It also introduces cognitive gadgets, which facilitate information processing and problem-solving in evolutionary contexts.

Learning Objectives

After reading this unit you will be able to

1. Understand the evolutionary theories and concepts that form the basis of human communication.
2. Explore various theories highlighting the biological and physiological foundations of communicative behaviours.
3. Examines the interplay between the human body and communicative behaviours.
4. Understand the adaptive nature of communicative behaviours in the context of human evolution.

2.1 Introduction

Communication and mass media have led to various theories, including structural, functional, cognitive, behavioural, interactionist, interpretive, and critical theories. The earliest theories were based on Western theorists Siebert, Paterson, and Schramm's Four Theories of the Press, which emphasized the state's control over mass media. Libertarianism, a movement based on individual rights, advocated for the press to be seen as the Fourth Estate reflecting public opinion. Critics like Wilbur Schramm, Siebert, and Theodore Paterson argued that libertarianism was outdated and needed replacement with the Social Responsibility theory. Soviet Media/Communist Theory, derived from Marx and Engel's ideologies, argued that mass media was saturated with bourgeois ideology and that the media's sole purpose was to educate workers. Two more theories were added to the four theories, Development Communication

Theory and Democratic Participant Media Theory, which emphasized the need for access and the right to communicate and opposed the commercialization of modern media.

2.2 Evolutionary Communication

The biosocial approach to studying biology and interpersonal communication focuses on five principles: basic theory of evolution, common descent, multiplication of species, gradentialism, and natural selection. Individuals are variable, and advantageous traits are passed on to offspring. Adaptation occurs at the genetic level, favoring individuals with traits that offer more advantages in acquiring resources. Evolutionary psychology studies the functions of the brain, which evolve to solve environmental problems. However, there are limitations, such as sex differences and cultural differences. For example, individuals with high testosterone levels may not experience the benefits of post-sex communication, and a positive association between conflict intensity and cortisol reactivity may be attenuated for those with higher childhood exposure to familial verbal aggression. Affection Exchange Theory (AET) suggests that people give and receive affection in ways that are adaptive or evolutionary advantageous for their relationship. Affection reduces stress and is essential for procreation and survival, as communication helps achieve these goals. AET proposes that the need and capacity for affection are inborn and that affectionate feelings and expression are distinct experiences that often, but need not, covary. Affectionate communication is adaptive concerning human viability and fertility, and humans vary in their optimal tolerances for affection and affectionate behaviour. Research on affectionate communication has shown that certain relationships are more affectionate than others due to the relatedness of genes' survivability. Highly affectionate people report higher self-esteem, general mental health, social engagement, and life satisfaction, as well as lower susceptibility to depression and stress.

Affection can also have health benefits, such as higher self-esteem, general mental health, social engagement, and life satisfaction. However, it is important to distinguish between feeling affection and communicating affection. Black women, for example, are thought to be self-sufficient, perseverant, and authentic. They enact communication behaviours that affirm strength in each other, promoting solidarity within the collective and confronting oppressive forces. However, strength regulation can also contribute to more derogative comments about aggressors during supportive discussions.

2.2.1 Biophysiological Theories,

The biopsychological theory of personality is a model that focuses on the biological processes relevant to human psychology, behaviour, and personality. It was proposed by Jeffrey Alan Gray in 1970 and has been widely accepted among professionals. The theory is similar to reinforcement sensitivity theory, which was developed in 1976 and revised independently in 1982. The biopsychological theory of personality emerged after Gray disagreed with Hans Eysenck's arousal theory, which dealt with biological personality traits.

The behavioural inhibition system (BIS) is a neuropsychological system that predicts an individual's response to anxiety-relevant cues in a given environment. This system is activated during times of punishment, boring things, or negative events, and results in avoidance of such negative and unpleasant events. High activity of the BIS means a heightened sensitivity to nonreward, punishment, and novel experience, leading to natural avoidance of such environments.

The behavioural activation system (BAS) is based on an individual's natural disposition to pursue and achieve goals. It is aroused when it receives cues corresponding to rewards and controls actions that are not related to punishment, rather actions regulating approachment type behaviours. The BAS is sensitive to conditioned appealing stimuli, impulsivity, and is associated with reward as well as approach motivation. Individuals with a highly active BAS show higher levels of positive emotions such as elation, happiness, and hope in response to environmental cues consistent with nonpunishment and reward, along with goal-achievement.

Gray's main critique of Eysenck's theory was that introverts are not more sensitive to conditioning, but are more responsive to nonreward and punishment. Evidence for his hypothesis on the biological basis of personality comes from blink tests done on humans and studies done on animals injected with sodium amobarbital.

The biopsychological theory of personality emphasizes the differences among individuals in different areas of the brain responsible for the facets of personality. It differs from Eysenck's theory, which involved three dimensions: Extraversion, Neuroticism, and Psychoticism. Gray's theory relies more heavily on physiological explanation versus arousability, focusing on the Behavioural Activation System and Behavioural Inhibition System and how these systems affect personality.

2.2.2 Trait Theories and Embodiment

A trait is a consistent, stable, and varying personality characteristic that influences behaviour. The trait approach to personality, unlike other theories, focuses on differences between individuals. It identifies and measures these individual traits, forming a unique personality. Traits like outgoingness, kindness, and even-temperedness are examples of traits. The way psychologists define traits has evolved, and their focus is on identifying and measuring these unique characteristics.

Gordon Allport proposed the first trait theory in 1936, categorizing personality traits into three levels: cardinal traits, which are rare and dominating, often developing later in life, and central traits, which describe major characteristics used to describe others. Cardinal traits, such as Machiavellian, narcissistic, Don Juan, and Christ-like, define a person's personality. Central traits, such as intelligence, honest, shyness, and anxiety, form the basic personality foundations. Secondary traits, often related to attitudes or preferences, appear only in specific

Factor	Low Score	High Score
Warmth	cold, selfish	supportive, comforting
Intellect	Instinctive, unstable	cerebral, analytical
Emotional Stability	Irritable, moody	level headed, calm
Aggressiveness	Modest, docile	controlling, tough
Liveliness	somber, restrained	wild, fun loving
Dutifulness	untraditional, rebellious	conformity, traditional
Social Assertiveness	shy, withdrawn	uninhibited, bold
Sensitivity	coarse, tough	touchy, soft
Paranoia	trusting, easy going	wary, suspicious
Abstractness	practical, regular	strange, imaginative
Introversion	open, friendly	private, quiet
Anxiety	confident, self-assured	fearful, self-doubting
Open-mindedness	close-minded, set-in-ways	curious, self-exploratory
Independence	outgoing, social	loner, crave solitude
Perfectionism	Disorganized, messy	orderly, thorough
Tension	relaxed, cool	stressed, unsatisfied

situations or circumstances.

Raymond Cattell, a trait theorist, reduced the list of personality traits from over 4,000 to 171. He eliminated uncommon traits and combined common characteristics. Cattell rated a large sample and used factor analysis to identify 16 key traits, including dominance,

perfectionism, reasoning, and self-reliance. These 16 traits are considered the source of all human personalities and developed the 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire.

Hans Eysenck's personality model consists of three universal traits: introversion/extraversion, neuroticism/emotional stability, and psychoticism. Introversion focuses on inner experiences, while extraversion focuses on others and the environment. Neuroticism refers to moodiness and emotional stability, while stability is emotional consistency. Eysenck later added psychoticism, a trait associated with difficulty dealing with reality, which can lead to antisocial, hostile, non-empathetic, and manipulative behaviours.

2.2.3 Communicology

Communicology, as defined by Jorunn Sjøbakken and Truls Fleiner, is a meta-discipline that studies, compares, and classifies knowledge from other disciplines. It focuses on the structure and dynamics of communication and change processes, identifying common key factors in change work. Sjøbakken and Fleiner have developed a systematization and classification of knowledge through comparative studies, professional experiences, and conceptual analysis of terms and concepts. They have identified "key" factors in communication and change processes and classified them. These collective concepts have a vast knowledge base and wide application range across various systems, including individuals, relationships, groups, organizations, society, and cultures. The tradition of communicology emerged in 1931 when Edward Sapir wrote "Communication" for The Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences. This tradition was built on the work of Ernst Cassirer, who also wrote on the logic of the human sciences. The connection between communication, linguistics, and logic was further elaborated by Karl Bühler and Wilbur Marshall Urban. Hubert Griggs Alexander, a graduate student in philosophy at Yale University, wrote the first textbook on the connection between communication, linguistics, and logic in 1967. Joseph A. DeVito wrote the first university textbook on communicology in 1978. The theoretical and applied foundation of communicology as a scientific discipline was established with the publication of The Human Science of communicology in 1992. The term "communicology" is now widely used as an appropriate translation for French *communicologie* and German *Kommunikologie*. The shift in labels to communicology and communicologist has been due to a systematic effort to avoid misunderstandings.

Communicological competence provides new opportunities for individuals regardless of their education, profession, or branch. It leads to a common frame of understanding,

common terminology, a filter for recognizing key factors, tools for qualified change work, and quality criteria for evaluating human activities in any context. Communicology is made available through an activity-based educational program, ensuring flexibility, precision, and quality in change processes.

2.2.4 Communiobiology

The communiobiological paradigm is a perspective on human communication that emphasizes the role of neurobiological systems in producing behaviour. It was proposed after 30 years of research, as the learning paradigm failed to account for acceptable variance in traits or behaviours. The communiobiological paradigm aims to lead to more accurate predictions of communicative behaviour. The paradigm is expressed as propositions, which evolved as new research findings and social and behavioural scientists changed their understanding of social interaction. These propositions are not knowledge claims but rather assumptions or axioms on which theories can be constructed. Each proposition is heavily supported by empirical research, demonstrating their reasonableness. The communiobiological perspective proposes that inborn, neurobiological structures are responsible for communication behaviour and associated processes, with cultural, situational, or environmental stimuli being estimated at about 20% of the determinant of behaviour.

2.2.5 Biological and Neurological Basis of Communication

Biological communication refers to the specific type of communication within or between species of plants, animals, fungi, protozoa, and microorganisms. It is essential for language to occur, as the brain, auditory system, and articulatory system must coordinate and interact in a complex way within a rich linguistic environment. Human communication is a distributed process that depends on a circuit of brain regions, especially frontal and temporal cortical regions. The Broca area, located in the ventral frontal lobe on the inferior frontal gyrus (IFG), is essential for motor control of speech and is involved in semantic processing, comprehension, and auditory working memory.

Understanding the neural mechanisms underlie communication is crucial for understanding the causes of neurological disorders affecting communication, such as speech impairments and autism spectrum disorders. By investigating the neural mechanisms of communication

processes in animals, we can uncover the neural mechanisms and specializations for communication processes in our own brains.

2.3 Signalling Theory

Signalling theory in evolutionary biology examines communication between individuals within and across species. It focuses on when organisms with conflicting interests should provide honest signals rather than cheating. Signals can be honest, conveying information that increases the receiver's fitness, or dishonest, which can undermine the signalling system for the entire population. Biologists like Richard Dawkins argue that individuals evolve to signal and receive signals better, resisting manipulation. Amotz Zahavi suggested that cheating could be controlled by the handicap principle, where the best horse in a handicap race is the one carrying the largest handicap weight. However, biologists have attempted to verify this principle, with inconsistent results. Ronald Fisher's analysis of the contribution of diploidy to honest signalling showed that a runaway effect could occur in sexual selection. The evolutionary equilibrium depends on the balance of costs and benefits. The same mechanisms can be expected in humans, where behaviours such as risk-taking, hunting, and religious rituals qualify as costly honest signals.

2.4 Information Seeking Behaviour and Information Foraging

Information Foraging is a theory that explains information retrieval behaviour, derived from optimal foraging theory. It emerged in the 1990s, coinciding with the exponential growth of information available to the average computer user and the development of new technologies for accessing and interacting with information. The theory focuses on information, which can apply to any item, such as text, video, audio, or image. The basis of foraging theory is a cost-benefit assessment of achieving a goal, where cost is the amount of resources consumed and benefit is what is gained from engaging in that activity. Optimal foraging involves getting the highest amount of benefit while expending the lowest amount of energy through the structuring of environments and the selection of appropriate strategies. Information retrieval can be considered a rational and goal-driven activity at all levels of granularity, whether through searching or browsing techniques. In traditional query search, there is a clearly defined goal, while in browsing, there is an iterative pattern of understanding the current state, setting a goal, deriving a plan, and evaluating the result of that interaction.

2.5 Information Integration

Information integration is the process of merging information from diverse sources, combining different conceptual, contextual, and typographical representations. It is used in data mining and consolidation, often focusing on textual representations of knowledge or rich-media content. Information fusion combines information into a new set to reduce redundancy and uncertainty. Technologies like deduplication and string metrics help detect similar text in different data sources. The main objective of data integration is to consolidate and combine data from various sources into one coherent form, ensuring all relevant information is ready for analysis.

2.6 Expectancy Value

Expectancy Value Theory (Vroom, 1964) suggests that motivation for a behaviour is determined by two factors: expectancy, which is the probability of achieving a desired outcome, and value, which is the individual's value for the desired outcome. Motivation is high when both expectancy and value are high but disappears when one factor equals zero. Vroom differentiates expectancy into two subcomponents: expectation, which refers to an individual's belief in their ability to perform an activity at a required level, and instrumentality, which refers to the probabilistic association between an activity and the desired outcome. Overall expectancy is high when both believe they can perform an activity and it will likely lead to the desired outcome.

2.7 Cognitive Dissonance

Leon Festinger's Cognitive Dissonance Theory was first explored in 1957 after observing a cult that believed the earth would be destroyed by a flood. The study found that committed members reinterpreted evidence to show they were right, while fringe members admitted to making mistakes. Festinger's theory suggests that individuals have an inner drive to maintain harmony in their attitudes and behaviour, known as the principle of cognitive consistency, to avoid disharmony or dissonance. Forced compliance behaviour is a form of cognitive dissonance where individuals are forced to perform actions that are inconsistent with their beliefs. This behaviour can't be changed since it's already in the past, so dissonance must be reduced by reevaluating their attitude. Festinger and Carlsmith (1959) conducted an experiment where participants were paid \$1 or \$20 to tell a waiting participant that the tasks were interesting. The participants rated the tedious task as more enjoyable than those who were paid \$20 to lie. The study found that being paid \$1 is not a sufficient incentive for lying, and those who were paid \$1 experienced dissonance. To overcome this dissonance, participants had to

come to believe that the tasks were interesting and enjoyable. Being paid \$20 provided a reason for turning pegs, and there was no dissonance. Cognitive dissonance theory suggests that individuals have an inner drive to maintain harmony in their attitudes and behaviours, which can be reduced through forced compliance behaviours, decision-making, and effort.

2.8 Rokeach' Comprehensive theory of change Communication in Cultural Evolution

In 1967, Milton Rokeach proposed a new direction in social psychological research, focusing on human values as its core construct. This was a significant departure from the discipline's traditional focus on attitudes, which he believed had led to a lack of practical solutions for social problems such as racial and ethnic discrimination, poverty, and war and genocide. Rokeach argued that psychologists needed to develop techniques for affecting change in individuals' belief-systems on a structural level, involving humanistically-grounded and noncoercive strategies for affecting individual change.

Rokeach identified two broad categories of values: instrumental values, which represent specific modes of conduct, and terminal values, which encompass desired end states of existence. Terminal values are the ultimate goals that individuals strive towards, often shaping the overarching purpose of life. He identified 18 terminal values, ranging from inner harmony to social recognition, providing a comprehensive spectrum of human aspirations. Instrumental values, on the other hand, are specific behaviours deemed personally and socially acceptable to achieve terminal values, including traits like ambition, honesty, responsibility, and forgiveness.

Rokeach's values framework remains widely accepted and utilized in organizational development, as it provides a structured approach for leaders and development professionals to comprehend and influence these dynamics. It aligns with an organization's mission and vision, guiding long-term strategic planning, while instrumental values inform specific behaviours and attitudes valued within the workplace.

Cross-cultural perspectives can also challenge the universality of values, as different societies may place varying emphasis on specific values, reflecting diverse cultural norms and traditions. Geert Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory, developed by Geert Hofstede, has significantly impacted the field of intercultural studies and has been widely used in various disciplines, including international business and organizational management. By examining the interplay between Hofstede's cultural dimensions and Rokeach's values framework, researchers, managers, and intercultural experts can gain a more comprehensive understanding

of how both cultural and individual values shape attitudes, behaviours, and interactions within diverse settings.

2.9 Cognitive Gadgets.

Heyes's book argues that humans have developed unique cognitive gadgets, which are largely the product of information passed from generation to generation through culture rather than genetic code. These gadgets describe particular ways in which we process information to make sense of our world. One such cognitive gadget is "mindreading," which refers to the ability to ascribe mental states to others based on information we can glean from their behaviour.

Developing the ability to mindread is akin to developing "mental literacy," as it allows people to understand, explain, and often predict human behaviour. This cognitive mechanism is useful in education, as it allows teachers to represent the extent and limit of a pupil's current knowledge and infer what the pupil must be shown or told to overcome ignorance, correct false beliefs, and build their body of knowledge. Heyes also explains that the ability to mindread and other mental functions are culturally transmitted, rather than biologically inherited. She cites empirical evidence supporting her theory, such as studies that found children in Samoa develop an understanding of false belief at around eight years of age, four or five years later than children in Europe and North America. The cognitive gadgets theory is particularly important for teacher-educators within schools of education, as it provides a more nuanced understanding of human behaviour and mental processes. Further research is needed to support this theory.

Let us Sum up

This unit explores evolutionary communication, integrating biology and psychology, focusing on principles like evolution, common descent, multiplication of species, gradients, and natural selection. It discusses the brain's adaptive functions, affection exchange theory, signalling theory, information seeking behaviour, information integration, expectancy value theory, cognitive dissonance, Rokeach's values framework, and Heyes's cognitive gadgets theory. The chapter provides a comprehensive understanding of communication processes across various contexts and their adaptive nature.

Check your Progress

Short Answer Questions

No	Question	CO	PO	K
1	Define evolutionary communication.	CO1	PO1	K1
2	What is signalling theory?	CO2	PO3	K1
3	Explain the concept of information foraging.	CO3	PO3	K2
4	Define expectancy value theory.	CO3	PO3	K1
5	What is cognitive dissonance theory?	CO2	PO3	K1

Essay Questions

No	Question	CO	PO	K
1	Discuss the biological and neurological basis of communication.	CO2	PO3	K3
2	Analyze the role of signalling theory in communication behaviour.	CO2	PO3	K4
3	Explain information seeking behaviour in communication contexts.	CO3	PO3	K3
4	Evaluate the significance of cognitive dissonance in communication studies.	CO2	PO3	K5
5	Develop a conceptual model explaining communication evolution in human society.	CO5	PO5	K6

Suggested Readings

1. Stevenson, N. (2002). *Understanding media cultures: Social theory and mass communication* (2nd ed). Sage Publications.
2. Hickok, G. (2014.). *The Myth of Mirror Neurons: The Real Neuroscience of Communication and Cognition*. W. W. Norton & Company;
3. Mildner, V. (2010). *The Cognitive Neuroscience of Human Communication*. Psychology Press.

Video Links

1. <https://youtu.be/pnG7WJjmdZs?feature=shared>
2. https://youtu.be/R0_xQJ6g3D4?feature=shared
3. <https://youtu.be/gqDiR3AaBSE?feature=shared>
4. <https://youtu.be/GxAu7BTZQRY?feature=shared>

Structure

Overview

Learning Objectives

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3.2 Modes and Messages of Communication:

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3.2.4 Structural Linguistics Approach

3.2.5 Speech and Verbal Communication

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Let us Sum up

Check your Progress

Suggested Readings

Video Links

Answers to Check your progress.

Overview

This unit explores the evolution of language, its cognitive foundations, and its transformative milestones. It discusses Steven Pinker's Language Instinct Thesis, the Structural Linguistics Approach, and Speech and Verbal Communication. It also delves into the dynamics of communication within communities, the impact of technology on nonverbal communication, touch and haptic communication, and the cognitive processes involved in deciphering written symbols. The unit also highlights the importance of literacy in shaping communication landscapes.

Learning Objectives

After reading this unit you will be able to

- Understand the evolution of language and its historical significance.
- Know the cognitive foundations of language evolution, considering biological aspects.
- Understand the theoretical perspectives on language, including Steven Pinker's Language Instinct Thesis and Structural Linguistics Approach.
- Understand the complexities of speech and verbal communication, including mechanics, nuances, and cultural variations.
- Understand concepts of Speech Community and Speech Act, exploring social dimensions and performative aspects of speech.
- Understand emerging trends in communication dynamics, including the impact of technology, touch and haptic communication, and literacy in deciphering written symbols.

3.1 Introduction

Language is a fundamental tool for sharing thoughts, ideas, emotions, and intentions. Over thousands of years, humans have developed various systems to assign meaning to sounds, forming words and grammar. Many languages have written forms using symbols to visually record their meaning, while some, like American Sign Language (ASL), are entirely visual without vocalizations. Languages are not static and evolve over time, with some being incredibly old and others rapidly incorporating elements of other languages. Some dying languages survive in the vocabularies and dialects of prominent languages worldwide.

Early humans communicated through gestures, body language, and cave paintings. The development of cuneiform writing, hieroglyphics, the Olympic Games, the printing press, the telegraph, the telephone, and the first wireless telegraph transmissions marked significant advancements in communication. The internet was established in 1969, and the first mobile phone call was made in 1973. The World Wide Web was invented in the 1990s, and social media platforms like Facebook and Apple introduced new communication technologies. Communication has evolved through various stages, and our responsibility is to responsibly and ethically utilize these tools.

3.2 Modes and Messages of Communication

3.2.1 Evolution of Language

Language evolution is the process of language change and development over time, involving changes in vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and syntax. It can result in the creation of new words and phrases, changes in pronunciation and grammar, and the emergence of dialects and regional variations. Languages can also split into separate branches over time, as Romance languages did from Latin.

Language evolution research is crucial in linguistics, anthropology, psychology, and other disciplines, as it helps understand the history and culture of different communities and the cognitive and biological foundations of language itself. Language is a communication system that enables humans to express their thoughts, ideas, emotions, and intentions using complex symbols, sounds, and gestures. It can take many forms, including spoken, written, and signed languages, and is deeply embedded in the social and cultural context.

Factors contributing to language evolution include contact with other languages, changes in the environment, social and cultural factors, genetic factors, language acquisition and use, and technology. Languages can take many forms, such as spoken, written, and signed languages, and are deeply embedded in the social and cultural context in which they are used. Understanding how languages evolve can shed light on the history and culture of various communities and the cognitive and biological foundations of language itself.

Language evolution can be divided into several stages, including pre-linguistic communication, proto-language, early language, divergence of languages, and language development and change. Pre-linguistic communication likely involved nonverbal cues like movements and facial expressions. Proto-language, a hypothetical ancestral language, is believed to have evolved around 100,000 years ago. Early language was characterized by primary vocalizations, gestures, and a limited lexicon and grammar. Languages arose as human

communities expanded worldwide, often through divergence from a shared parent language. Language development and change are influenced by factors such as contact with other languages, societal changes, technology, and social factors.

3.2.3 Steven Pinker's Language Instinct Thesis

Steven Pinker's "The Language Instinct" is a groundbreaking book that challenges the view that language is a cultural artefact learned through socialization. Pinker argues that the capacity for language is hard-wired into the human brain, and children spontaneously learn complex grammatical structures without explicit instruction. He posits that all human languages share a common structural basis, underscoring the natural, instinctive nature of language acquisition. Pinker's approach to language study is rooted in cognitive science, which combines various fields like psychology, computer science, linguistics, philosophy, and neurobiology to understand human intelligence. He defies the canon of humanities and social sciences, stating that language is no more a cultural invention than upright posture. However, Pinker's biological determinism leads him to overlook Noam Chomsky's importance within the humanities. One flaw in Pinker's work is his failure to recognize that the humanities and cognitive science feed off one another. In cognitive science, Pinker fails to recognize that his academic discipline has evolved from the Formalist and Structuralist branches of artistic criticism. Cognitive science and different aesthetic discourses have been mutually related, as prehistoric peoples expressing themselves through communication and aesthetic sensibilities in the Alta Mira caves of northern Spain. Pinker delves into how children learn languages, emphasizing the speed and ease with which they pick up their native tongue. He discusses research on brain regions involved in language and genetic components, suggesting a biological basis for language skills. The book critiques alternative theories that view language primarily as a learned behaviour or a cultural invention. Pinker explores how language might have evolved in humans, suggesting that language is an adaptation shaped by natural selection. Despite the diversity and complexity of languages, Pinker argues that this variety does not contradict the idea of an innate language instinct. Despite criticism, Pinker's work has had a significant impact on linguistics, psychology, and cognitive science, stimulating debate and research on the origins and nature of human language. It is at its heart concerned with power, or the articulation of influence, as a common language connects members of a community into an information sharing network with formidable collective powers.

3.2.4 Structural Linguistics Approach

Structural linguistics, or structuralism, is a school of thought in linguistics that views language as a self-contained, self-regulating semiotic system. Linguistics is a set of knowledge

gained through the application of scientific methods to study language phenomena. It is divided into subordinate areas such as anthropological linguistics, sociological linguistics, and computational linguistics. These subordinate fields presuppose the existence of underlying linguistic knowledge, including the structure of language sound (phonetics and phonology), words' structure (morphology), the structure between words in sentences (syntactic), the study of meaning (semantic), communication strategy between internal people (parole), and the relationship of speech to talk (pragmatic).

There are three definitions of linguistic: the science of language, the study of human speech, and the scientific study of language. The structural flow of linguistics was born in 1916, with de Saussure's "Course de Linguistique Generale" being published in 1916. The theory has evolved over time, with some versions emphasizing terms of shape and others emphasizing the meaning of terms.

The characteristics of structural flow include adhering to behaviourism, recognizing language as a stimulus-response process, recognizing language as the form of speech, recognizing language as a sign system (signifie and signifiant), recognizing language as a habitual factor, focusing on grammatical levels based on generality, enforcing grammatical levels from the lowest level (phoneme) to the highest level (sentence), and focusing on morphological analysis.

The field of morphology is characterized by a row of syntaxmatic and paradigmatic elements, with phonotactic rows forming larger structures like syllables and morphemes, syntaxmatic rows forming larger structures like words and phrases, and paradigmatic rows defining similar structures vertically.

According to the structural analysis flow, language should be based on original reality, with the data analyzed being the data at the time of research. This approach has led to the development of various versions of structural linguistics, with some focusing more on terms of shape and others on the meaning of terms.

3.2.5 Speech and Verbal Communication

Verbal communication is the process of expressing ideas and thoughts through sound and words, often through face-to-face interactions or through various mediums like radio, television, or mobile phones. Effective verbal communication requires a common language that everyone can understand, which can be achieved through understanding the words and grammar rules used. It also involves good relations at work and home.

Effective verbal communication involves two aspects: what to say and how to say. Good communicators can easily ask questions, express information confidently, and represent their

words for easy listening. Written communication, on the other hand, can also be considered verbal communication. Reading books, papers, letters, etc., requires decoding the author's views to learn more about the author's views.

Verbal communication encompasses both spoken and nonverbal communication, which occurs through body language, gestures, and silence. While many people mistakenly assume that verbal communication only refers to spoken communication, laughter is a form of nonverbal communication.

There are several types of verbal communication, including speech, address, oration, and harangue. Speech is the general word with no implication of kind or length, while address is a formal, planned speech appropriate for a particular subject or occasion. Oration is a polished, rhetorical address given on a notable occasion, employing eloquence and studied delivery methods. A harangue is a violent, informal speech intended to arouse strong feelings and may lead to mob action.

3.2.6 Speech Community and Speech Act

Speech communities are groups that share values and attitudes about language use, varieties, and practices. They develop through prolonged interaction among those who operate within these shared beliefs and value systems regarding forms and styles of communication. Language learning is a process that occurs within cultures and societies, and the study of speech communities is crucial for understanding human language and meaning.

The concept of speech community does not simply focus on groups that speak the same language; it assumes that language represents, embodies, constructs, and constitutes meaningful participation in society and culture. As people move away from their families and home communities, relationships and interactions continue and change, sustained through evolving technology and media. These interactions constitute the substance of human contact and the importance of language, discourse, and verbal styles in the representation and negotiation of relationships that ensue. Early definitions of speech communities have tended to see them as bounded and localized groups of people who live together and come to share the same linguistic norms because they belong to the same local community. However, later scholarship has shown that individuals generally participate in various speech communities simultaneously and at different times in their lives. Speech communities may emerge among all groups that interact frequently and share certain norms and ideologies, such as villages, countries, political or professional communities, communities with shared interests, hobbies, or lifestyles, or even just groups of friends.

Speech acts are utterances defined by a speaker's intention and the effect it has on a listener. They can be requests, warnings, promises, apologies, greetings, or any declarations. Speech-act theory, a subfield of pragmatics, examines how words can be used to present information and carry out actions. Introduced in 1975 by Oxford philosopher J.L. Austin and developed by American philosopher J.R. Searle, it considers three levels of utterances: locutionary acts (making a meaningful statement), illocutionary acts (saying something with a purpose, such as to inform), and perlocutionary acts (causing someone to act).

Locutionary acts are the mere act of producing linguistic sounds or marks with a certain meaning and reference. Illocutionary acts carry a directive for the audience, such as a promise, order, apology, or expression of thanks. They express a certain attitude and carry a certain illocutionary force. Perlocutionary acts bring about a consequence to the audience, affecting feelings, thoughts, or actions. They can project a sense of fear into the audience, such as the perlocutionary act of saying "I will not be your friend."

3.2.7 Augmentative and Alternative Communication Models for Speech Interactions

Augmentative and alternative communication (AAC) is a field that uses communication methods to supplement or replace speech or writing for individuals with language impairments. It began in the 1950s with systems for those who lost the ability to speak following surgical procedures. The use of manual sign language and graphic symbol communication grew significantly during the 1960s and 1970s due to the West's commitment to incorporating disabled individuals into mainstream society. AAC systems are diverse, with unaided communication using no equipment and using signing and body language, while aided approaches use external tools. Techniques like prediction and encoding have been developed to reduce selection requirements. Early intervention requires family input. Studies show that AAC use does not impede speech development and may result in a modest increase in speech production. However, two techniques, facilitated communication and rapid prompting method, falsely claim to allow people with intellectual disabilities to communicate, leading to false allegations of sexual abuse. Some students with limited expressive communication skills benefit from augmentative and alternative communication (AAC) systems. AAC refers to all forms of communication used to express thoughts, needs, wants, and ideas, including facial expressions, gestures, symbols, and writing. It can also support comprehension of verbal directions. Examples of AAC include picture exchange communication systems, homemade binders, recorded speech devices, electronic tablet speech applications, and speech generating devices for health insurance. These systems can be used in homes and preschool classrooms.

3.3 Nonverbal Communication (NVC).

Nonverbal Communication (NVC) is the act of communicating data without the use of words, such as gestures, tone of voice, body language, facial expressions, and more. It plays a crucial role in psychotherapy and education, as it helps create fulfilling, strong relationships. Developing NVC skills can improve relationships by accurately reading others' emotions, creating trust and transparency, and responding with nonverbal cues that show understanding, notice, and care. However, many people send confusing or negative NVC signals without even knowing it, leading to a loss of connection and trust in relationships. Therefore, it is essential to be aware of the impact of NVC on communication and relationships.

Nonverbal communication plays five roles: repetition, contradiction, substitution, complementing, and accenting. Facial expressions, body movement, posture, gestures, eye contact, touch, space, and voice are all important forms of nonverbal communication. Facial expressions convey countless emotions without saying a word, and they are universal across cultures. Body movement and posture, such as sitting, walking, standing, or holding the head, affect perceptions of people and convey a wealth of information.

Gestures, such as waving, pointing, beckoning, or using hands, can convey different meanings across cultures. Eye contact is an important type of nonverbal communication, as it can convey interest, affection, hostility, or attraction. Touch conveys different messages, such as a weak handshake, a warm bear hug, or a controlling grip on the arm. Space is another important aspect of nonverbal communication, as it can convey signals of intimacy, affection, aggression, or dominance. The tone of voice can indicate sarcasm, anger, affection, or confidence. Physical space can also be used to communicate different nonverbal messages, such as intimacy, affection, aggression, or dominance. It plays a crucial role in conveying messages, and understanding the different types of nonverbal communication can help in enhancing communication.

3.3.1 Nonverbal Codes Systems

Nonverbal communication is crucial for creating meaning and is culturally dependent. In western culture, there are six different nonverbal codes that influence first impressions, relationships, and the overall generation of meaning.

Kinesics refers to the movement of our hands, arms, face, and body to convey meaning. Positioning during conversations or looking can communicate interest and confidence. Maintaining eye contact is also important, as it can influence how we are perceived.

Haptics is communication by touch, with the strength, placement, and duration of someone's touch influencing empathy, power, and relationship definition. Research has found that when coupled with socially-supportive messages, nonverbal immediacy behaviours enhance the supportive message. Haptics also influence first impressions, with a firm handshake in an interview indicating confidence, while a dangly handshake can indicate disinterest or anxiety. Touch can also determine relational statuses, with romantically involved individuals holding hands and parents and children.

Proxemics refer to the influence of space and distance on communication, with four types: public, social, personal, and intimate. Public space is typically 12 or more feet away from an individual, while social space ranges from four to 12 feet. Proxemics can be combined with haptics to determine people's relationship type. Personal space is generally around an arm's length away, reserved for those closest to us. Proxemics can foster relationships through sociological cues and demographic factors. For example, a forced proximity can help us gain comfort, familiarity, and friendships. Additionally, territoriality refers to our desire to occupy and claim spaces as our own.

Vocalics is the study of paralanguage and how we use it to convey meaning. Paralanguage includes pitch, tone, volume, and more. Pitch can often work against women, as their higher pitch can make them appear less credible. Studies have shown that people with lower-pitched voices are considered more dominant, while those with higher-pitched voices seem more submissive.

Paralanguage plays a large role in how others perceive us, and the lack thereof can lead to misinterpretation. Emojis can help reduce this deficit, but there is still much room for misinterpretation. Chronemics is how time affects communication. People who tend to be on time or early may be perceived as more capable or higher achievers, while those who roll in late may be perceived as less interested or not doing their job well.

Understanding these factors can help individuals navigate the challenges of communication and maintain a positive image.

3.3.2 Digital NVC

In the digital workplace, non-verbal communication is becoming increasingly important as many work conversations now occur via online chats and video meetings can go ahead with cameras off. However, even when remote work doesn't seem to include tacit cues, non-verbal communication is still happening. A 2022 survey of 200 executives showed that 92% of managers believed that employees who turned off their cameras during meetings were less likely to have a long-term future at their company. Non-verbal communication is a two-

fold concept: how others perceive you and how you understand others through their own non-verbal messages. It is not an exact science, as there's plenty of ambiguity in how you might interpret someone's signal versus how another person might. However, experts say non-verbal cues carry a lot of meaning for both parties – and it's important to pay attention to them in any work environment, whether in-person or remote. Parts of non-verbal communication have always existed outside face-to-face interaction, such as profile pictures on CVs or job-hunting sites, or even deciding whether or not to add an emoji in a work group chat can change the feel of the interaction. The new workplace shift in where and how we work has expanded the world of non-verbal communication in unprecedented ways. For instance, in video calls, backgrounds can give all sorts of non-verbal information about colleagues' lifestyles, interests, and level of professionalism. An increased reliance on text communication, such as messaging programs, has also changed where these non-verbal cues live and how much emphasis we put on them. Mastering our own communication online may take practice to get right. In the digital setting, we have to think about the set-up and accept that it's a new way to communicate. Rather than coming naturally, "we have to learn some new techniques."

In the digital landscape, maintaining strong relationships is not a given, but making an effort to engage in non-verbal communication can help. A lot of useful contact with employees, colleagues, and clients happens through non-verbal communication because it's a way to read each other's emotions. In the digital world where people are sitting by themselves all day, it's even more important to see what's going on with each other.

Good non-verbal communication means being willing to share something of yourself and paying attention to others – much as you might in real life. Developing these skills in the digital world can reap long-term rewards for teams and individuals.

3.3.3 NVC in Human Interactions

Nonverbal communication is a crucial aspect of human interaction, requiring full focus on the moment-to-moment experience. To improve nonverbal communication, one can learn to manage stress and develop emotional awareness. Stress can compromise communication, leading to misreading, off-putting nonverbal signals, and unhealthy behaviour patterns. To manage stress, one should take a timeout and calm down before returning to the conversation. Utilizing sensory experiences like seeing a photo, smelling a scent, listening to music, or squeezing a stress ball can help calm oneself and refocus.

Emotional awareness is essential for sending accurate nonverbal cues, as it allows one to accurately read others' emotions and unspoken messages, create trust in relationships, and respond in ways that show understanding and care. Many people are disconnected from their

emotions, but by developing emotional awareness and connecting with unpleasant emotions, one can gain greater control over their thoughts and actions. By recognizing and addressing the emotions of others, individuals can better communicate effectively and maintain a positive relationship with others.

3.3.4 Touch and Haptic Communication.

Non-verbal communication involves various forms of communication, including visual cues, gestures, paralanguage, oculosics, chronemics, haptics, and proxemics. It is a social-emotional development that begins with childhood haptics, a non-verbal communication method that involves the sense of touch in humans and animals. Haptic communication is designed to convey information quickly and can be intentional or unintentional, leading to positive or negative consequences. It is a basic survival instinct for humans and animals, and can be categorized into functional/professional, social/polite, friendship/warmth, love/intimacy, and sexual/arousal. Haptic communication is correlated with kinesics, where adaptations in gestures are touching movements and behaviours targeted towards self and others. Advantages of non-verbal communication include compliments, substitutions, attraction, and expression, and can help physically challenged and illiterate people. Disadvantages include vagueness, culture bonding, difficulty to interpret, information distortion, and multi-channel communication. Without communication through touch, humans feel abandoned and isolated, as touch is the basic survival instinct of six and five sense living organisms. Haptic communication connects and intensifies emotions like task-orientation, ritual interaction, idiosyncratic relationships, emotional attachment, and sexual intent. The effectiveness of touch communication depends on an individual's tolerance and ability to share feelings. Touch communication can be high or low contact, and internal differences can result in positive or negative correlations. Understanding and responding to haptic communication helps humans decode the encoded message.

3.4 Theories of Visual Communication

3.4.1 Semiotics

Semiotics is an interdisciplinary field of study that investigates how meaning is created and communicated through signs and symbols. It originated from the academic study of how visual and linguistic signs create meaning. The field was defined by Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure as the study of "the life of signs within society." The idea of semiotics emerged in the late 19th and early 20th centuries with the independent work of Saussure and American philosopher Charles Sanders Peirce. Peirce's work was anchored in pragmatism and logic,

defining signs as "something which stands to somebody for something." He also demonstrated that a sign cannot have a definite meaning, as the meaning must be continuously qualified. Saussure treated language as a sign-system and provided concepts and methods that semioticians applied to sign-systems other than language. His theories were fundamental to structuralism and poststructuralism. Twenty-century semioticians applied Peirce and Saussure's principles to various fields, including aesthetics, anthropology, psychoanalysis, communications, and semantics. Influential thinkers include Claude Lévi-Strauss, Jacques Lacan, Michel Foucault, Jacques Derrida, Roland Barthes, and Julia Kristeva.

3.4.2 Social Semiotics

Social semiotics is a communication approach that focuses on understanding how people communicate in various social settings, rather than based on fixed rules and structures. It emphasizes how people make signs in the context of interpersonal and institutional power relations to achieve specific aims. Social semiotic theory posits that modes of communication offer historically specific and shared options or 'semiotic resources' for communication. The study of communication from this perspective seeks to identify and inventorize these semiotic options, which are not fixed but have meaning potential that is realized in context and combination with other choices. The meanings associated with these selections are always in a process of ongoing flux as they are continually adapted to social encounters. In the context of multimodality, all modes should be studied considering the underlying choices available to communicators, the meaning potentials of resources, and the purposes for which they are chosen.

3.4.3 Written Forms of Communication and Reading,

Written communication involves the exchange of information, ideas, or messages through written language, such as letters, emails, and notes. Over time, writing has evolved from primitive symbols to a more codified system of letters and sentences. With the advent of education and technology, writing has become more accessible, with 86% of the world's population now able to read and write. Writing skills involve effectively conveying information using appropriate language, tone, and style, considering the audience and purpose of the communication. To improve writing, consider the three elements: content, style, and structure. To improve content, train creativity skills, while style is learned through practice and ensuring proper grammar and punctuation. Improving writing skills involves focusing on the content, ensuring clarity, and focusing on the audience and purpose of the communication. Written communication is crucial for human interaction as it provides a permanent record of information, serves as legally binding agreements in business, and facilitates the transmission

of ideas, knowledge, and information across vast distances. Without written communication, significant aspects of history, culture, and scientific discoveries could be lost or forgotten.

Reading is the process of interpreting written symbols and converting them into words, sentences, and paragraphs. It can be silent or aloud, and is a receptive skill that requires speaking to pronounce the words. Reading can enhance one's writing and speaking abilities, and can help achieve objectives by customizing the way one reads. Extreme reading is suitable for pleasure, as it allows for understanding the meaning of words through context. Intensive reading involves paying full attention to every word, resulting in higher comprehension. Critical reading helps analyze and question assumptions, leading to personal conclusions. Skimming is used for quick information review while scanning focuses on specific portions of a text. Choosing the appropriate reading method can maximize benefits, such as not skimming for a report or not applying extensive reading for a topic that isn't interesting. By choosing the appropriate reading skill, one can enhance the reading process and achieve their goals.

Reading is a vital part of our lives, engaging various brain parts, strengthening mental muscles, and potentially preventing diseases like Alzheimer's and dementia. It also plays a crucial role in communication, teaching new words and perspectives, and strengthening language. Books serve as portals to new worlds, broadening perspectives and shaping attitudes towards others and life. Maintaining a reading habit can lead to several benefits, including improved thinking skills, analytical abilities, and blockout of noise in the digital age. Reading also helps learn a new language or master a known one, improving vocabulary through context. Books can be great conversation starters, bonding with new people, and serve as an exercise in humility, reminding readers of their limited knowledge. In conclusion, reading is a non-negotiable habit that can serve as a guide when lost or a companion when feeling alone. To fully benefit from these benefits, it is essential to seek expert guidance and enroll in Harappa Education's Reading Deeply course.

3.4.4 Orality and Literacy

In recent decades, the scholarly world has become more aware of the oral character of language and the contrasts between orality and writing. Anthropologists, sociologists, and psychologists have conducted fieldwork in oral societies, and cultural historians have explored prehistory before writing became possible. Ferdinand de Saussure, the father of modern linguistics, emphasized the importance of oral speech and the need for writing as a complement to oral speech.

Since Saussure's time, linguistics has developed sophisticated studies of phonemics, the way language is nested in sound. However, modern schools of linguistics have only recently begun to compare primary orality, the orality of cultures untouched by literacy, with literacy. Structuralists have analyzed oral tradition but have not explicitly compared it with written compositions. The greatest awakening to the contrast between oral modes of thought and expression and written modes took place in literary studies, beginning with Milman Parry's work on the Iliad and the Odyssey. Publications in applied linguistics and sociolinguistics dealing with orality literacy contrasts regularly cite these and related works. Language is an oral phenomenon, and human beings communicate in various ways using all their senses, including touch, taste, smell, sight, and hearing. In a deep sense, articulated sound is paramount, and thought itself relates in a special way to sound.

Language is primarily oral, with only around 106 languages committed to writing enough to produce literature. Most languages have never been written, and even hundreds of active languages are never written. The basic orality of language is permanent. Computer languages, which resemble human languages but are not entirely human, are not derived from the unconscious but directly from consciousness. Computer language rules are stated first and then used, unlike natural human languages which use grammar first and can be abstracted from usage. Writing, which commits the word to space, enlarges the potentiality of language and restructures thought, converting a few dialects into grapholects. A grapholect is a transdialectal language formed by deep commitment to writing, giving it a power far exceeding that of any purely oral dialect. Standard English has a recorded vocabulary of at least a million and a half words, with hundreds of thousands of past meanings known.

3.4.5 Psychological and Neurological Basis of Writing.

The psychology of writing is a complex and multifaceted subject, shaped by cognitive, emotional, social, and cultural factors. It is a form of communication that is closely tied to our social and cognitive development, allowing us to articulate our ideas and communicate them with precision and clarity. Writing is a deeply personal and emotional process, allowing us to explore our innermost thoughts and feelings. It can also be a highly social activity, allowing us to connect with others and share our ideas with a wider audience. By understanding these social and cultural factors, we can become more effective communicators and create writing that resonates with our intended audience. The psychology of writing is a fascinating and complex subject, allowing us to become more effective writers and use writing as a tool for personal growth, self-expression, and social communication.

Let us Sum up

This unit explains the evolution of human language, its origins, and theories of its evolution in human societies. It discusses Steven Pinker's Language Instinct Thesis, which suggests language is an innate human ability. The text also discusses the structural linguistics approach, which focuses on the structure of language and its fundamental elements like syntax, grammar, and phonetics. The text also discusses speech and verbal communication, its functions within communities, and augmentative and alternative communication models. It also discusses nonverbal communication, including digital NVC, body language, facial expressions, and gestures. The text also discusses touch and haptic communication. The text also discusses semiotics, the study of signs and symbols in communication, and social semiotics, which examines societal factors influencing sign interpretation. The text also covers written forms of communication, oral and written traditions, and the psychological and neurological basis of writing.

Check your Progress

Short Answer Questions

No	Question	CO	PO	K
1	Define speech community.	CO4	PO3	K1
2	What is speech act theory?	CO4	PO3	K1
3	Define nonverbal communication.	CO4	PO4	K1
4	What is augmentative and alternative communication (AAC)?	CO4	PO4	K2
5	Explain the concept of semiotics.	CO4	PO3	K2

Essay Questions

No	Question	CO	PO	K
1	Discuss the evolution of language in human communication.	CO1	PO1	K3
2	Analyze Steven Pinker's Language Instinct Thesis.	CO2	PO3	K4
3	Explain the structural linguistics approach to language.	CO1	PO3	K3
4	Evaluate the role of nonverbal communication in human interaction.	CO4	PO4	K5
5	Design a communication framework integrating verbal and nonverbal communication.	CO5	PO5	K6

Suggested Readings

Adami, E., Diamantopoulou, S. and Lim, F.V. (2022) 'Design in Gunther Kress's social semiotics'. *London Review of Education*, 20 (1), 41. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.14324/LRE.20.1.41>

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<https://www.asha.org/public/speech/disorders/AAC/>

<https://ebip.vkcsites.org/augmentative-and-alternative-communication/>

https://www.creducation.net/resources/nonverbal_communication/what_is_nonverbal_communication.html

<https://www.bbc.com/worklife/article/20221104-how-non-verbal-communication-is-going-digital>

<https://www.communicationtheory.org/haptic-communication/>

<https://signalsalad.com/our-thoughts/what-is-semiotics/>

<https://www.britannica.com/science/semiotics>

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Video Links

https://youtu.be/eOUKcAFa_HQ?feature=shared

<https://youtu.be/ugppjNn8uIE?feature=shared>

<https://youtu.be/fLaslONQAKM?feature=shared>

Structure

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4.2.2 Self, Mindful Communication

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4.5 Goals-Plans-Action Model,

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4.6.5 Adaptive Structuration.

4.6.6 Simplified Social Influence Process,

4.6.7 Socio Egocentric and Group-Centric Model,

4.6.8 Transactive Memory,

4.6.9 Vigilant Interaction theory.

Let us Sum up

Check your Progress

Suggested Readings

Video Links

Answers to Check your progress.

Overview

This lesson of various communication theories and models, focusing on intrapersonal and interpersonal communication. It covers topics such as self-perception, self-mindfulness, phenomenological and hermeneutics tradition, and uncertainty reduction in relationships. Theories of interpersonal communication include privacy management giles, accommodation theory, interaction adaptation theory, Burgoon's expectancy violation theory, and interpersonal deception theories. Advanced concepts include symbolic interactionism, symbolic convergence theory, fantasy themes rhetoric, argumentation, coordinated management of meaning, message-design logic, compliance gaining, and goals-plans-action model. The lesson also discusses group dynamics and communication, including interaction process analysis, group development, input-output model, conservative control, adaptive structure, simplified social influence process, socio-egocentric and group-centric model, transactive memory, and vigilant interaction theory. Understanding these theories and models is crucial for effective interpersonal and group communication in various contexts.

Learning Objectives

After reading this unit you will be able to

1. Understand Intrapersonal Communication and Communication Theories
2. Understand key elements of intrapersonal communication and their impact on self-concept and personal development.
3. Learn the role of mindful communication in self-awareness and self-regulation.

4. Understanding personal experiences in communication through phenomenological approach.
5. Analyse texts and conversations using hermeneutics for interpretation.

4.1 Introduction

The Aristotelian view of communication, developed by Aristotle, posits that a speaker conveys messages to influence or persuade receivers. This perspective emphasizes the role of the sender and the intended message, with receivers as passive recipients. The resulting effect equals persuasion. This view was influential from Aristotle's time to the mid-20th century, and it was applied to mass media, face-to-face, group, organizational, health, and intercultural situations. However, the model's appropriateness began to be questioned in the 1940s, with scholars like Shannon, Schramm, Katz, Westley, MacLean Jr., and Thayer identifying limitations. The Aristotelian perspective was used to study smoking, but research has shown that intended messages are often ignored or distorted by receivers. The "effects" of communication are not predictable based on knowledge of the source and message, but also include factors like the receiver's needs, family, prior experience, peers, culture, goals, values, and conscious choices.

4.2 Conversations in Interpersonal and Group Context

Conversation is a crucial aspect of interpersonal interaction, as it allows us to build, maintain, and terminate relationships. It is a dyadic process where two people engage in multiple turns, making it a vital part of our daily lives. Academic definitions for conversation include direct social relations, sharing, and linguistic forms. Susan Brennan's definition differentiates conversations from dialogues, but this distinction isn't critical.

In today's highly mediated world, simple conversations are becoming less common. Sherry Turkle, a researcher on human communication using technology, shares the story of an 18-year-old boy who uses texting for most of his interactions. She believes that holding a simple conversation is becoming obsolete due to real-time communication and the ability to edit and delete.

However, communication is not a luxury. Inmates can still find ways to communicate even when face-to-face communication is limited. David Angle argues that conversations can be categorized based on directionality (one-way or two-way) and tone/purpose (cooperative or competitive). One-way conversations involve an individual talking at the other person, while two-way conversations involve mutual involvement and interaction.

Cooperative conversations are marked by a mutual interest in what all parties within the conversation have to contribute, while competitive conversations focus on individuals' points of view. Angle further breaks down his typology of conversations into four distinct types: cooperative, competitive, cooperative, and competitive.

4.2.1 Intrapersonal Communication

Intrapersonal communication is the process of communicating with oneself, including self-talk, imagination, visualization, and recall. It involves various aspects such as planning, problem-solving, conflict resolution, and evaluations of self and others. Leonard Shedletsky explains intrapersonal communication through the eight basic components of the communication process, which are transactional but occur within the individual. As you consider joining your friends at a restaurant, you may be aware of the work that awaits you, such as the voice of your boss or parents advising you about personal responsibility. Similarly, you may imagine your friends at the restaurant expressing your desire for time off. This interaction takes place in the mind without externalization and relies on previous interactions with the external world.

Some people struggle with negative thoughts, such as perfectionism, self-blame, and imposter syndrome, while others have a more positive, optimistic monologue. Handling these thoughts is crucial for personal growth and performance. Similarly, when communicating with others, it is important to be encouraging and constructive, as optimism builds healthier relationships and better performance. Negative self-talk can pose health risks and hinder work performance. However, shifting to positive intrapersonal communication leads to numerous benefits, including better coping skills, better psychological and physical well-being, improved mental health, increased life span, better cardiovascular health, reduced risk of death from cardiovascular disease, lower quality of life, lower rates of depression and distress, and lower self-esteem. Studies show that positive self-talk improves performance, increases focus, lowers anxiety, and fosters empathetic relationships with colleagues. Successful leaders and high performers often possess strong self-esteem and effective communication skills.

4.2.2 Self, Mindful Communication

Mindful communication is a transformative approach that involves intention, openness, and empathy in conversations. It promotes active listening, understanding, and deeper connections with others. The principles of mindful communication include non-judgment, patience, curiosity, empathy, authenticity, and mindful listening.

Benefits of mindful communication for mental health include improved relationships, enhanced mood, and a deeper sense of connection. It reduces anxiety and stress, fostering positivity and well-being. To practice mindful communication, cultivate self-awareness, actively listen, take a pause and reflect, use nonviolent language, practice empathy, release assumptions, practice mindful breathing, express gratitude, validate emotions, and seek feedback.

To practice mindful communication, cultivate self-awareness, actively listen, take a pause, reflect, use nonviolent language, practice empathy, release assumptions, focus on breath, express gratitude, validate emotions, and seek feedback. By practising these practices, we can create a nurturing environment that promotes emotional balance and supports positive connections with others. By focusing on the present moment, we can create a nurturing environment that supports positive connections.

4.2.3 Phenomenological and Hermeneutics Tradition

Hermeneutics, derived from the messenger god Hermes, is a philosophy that studies lived experience or the life world. It focuses on the world as lived by a person, rather than the world or reality as separate from the person. Hermeneutics seeks to understand the meanings of human experience as it is lived, examining pre-reflective experiences without categorization or conceptualization. This approach often includes common sense and takes for granted experiences. The study of these phenomena aims to re-examine these experiences and uncover new or forgotten meanings.

4.2.4 Interpersonal Communication and Uncertainty Reduction

Uncertainty Reduction Theory, introduced in 1975 by Charles R. Berger and Richard J. Calabrese, provides a theoretical perspective on the initial entry stage of interpersonal interaction, where uncertainty is common. The theory focuses on the exchange of information about a person's demographics, such as sex, age, and economic status, and is controlled by communication rules and norms. Berger and Calabrese initially presented the theory as a series of universal truths to describe the relationships between uncertainty and communication factors in dyadic exchanges. Further research expanded the theory's explanatory power in areas such as verbal and nonverbal communication, intimacy, reciprocity, and information-seeking behaviour. Researchers suggest that people use a variety of sources when collecting information to reduce uncertainty, such as nonverbal cues like hand gestures, facial expressions, and accents.

4.3 Accommodation Theory

Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT) is a communication theory developed by Howard Giles, which focuses on the behavioural changes people make to attune their communication to their partner and the extent to which people perceive their partner as appropriately attuning to them. The theory focuses on the links between language, context, and identity, focusing on intergroup and interpersonal factors that lead to accommodation, as well as the ways power, macro- and micro-context concerns affect communication behaviours. Accommodation is usually between the message sender and the message receiver, but the communicator also often accommodates to a larger audience, either a group of people watching the interaction or society in general. CAT predicts and explains why communicants make adjustments to increase, decrease, or maintain social distance. It focuses on the patterns of convergence and divergence of communication behaviours, particularly related to people's goals for social approval, communication efficiency, and identity. The theory was developed to demonstrate the value of social psychological concepts in understanding the dynamics of speech and the motivations underlying certain shifts in people's speech styles during social encounters.

4.3.2 Interaction Adaptation Theory

Interaction adaptation theory (IAT) is a theory that predicts and explains how people adapt to verbal and nonverbal communication in similar or dissimilar ways. It assumes that humans are biologically programmed to attune to other members of the same species and that adaptation has survival value. Communication is made possible by calibrating messages to one another, and human social organization depends on a "norm of reciprocity" where society's members are expected to trade good for good and avoid harming in exchange for safety from harm.

However, some biopsychological perspectives suggest that humans may sometimes respond with compensation rather than reciprocity. For example, reflexive fight-flight and approach-avoidance tendencies may lead to withdrawal in response to another's approach. IAT predicts the conditions under which compensatory versus reciprocal responses are expected.

Tests of IAT have taken various forms, considering adaptation in various circumstances, such as interactions among dating partners, deceptive interactions, and simulated medical interviews. Results consistently support IAT. Other experiments have produced a preponderance of reciprocity but also compensation or non-accommodation under conditions that could be interpreted as creating negative arousal and discomfort.

Guerrero and Burgoon (1996) examined how people's various forms of attachment to caregivers or significant others affect adaptation patterns. The majority reciprocated their romantic partner's increased involvement and compensated for decreased involvement, but patterns varied according to attachment style. Those who were preoccupied with their romantic relationship conformed the most to these reciprocity and compensation patterns, while those with ambivalent feelings about their relationships were the most variable.

4.3.3 Burgoon's Expectancy Violation Theory

Expectancy violation theory is a communication theory that explains unexpected human behaviour during interactions. It is based on uncertainty reduction theory, which reduces vagueness about others' behaviours through interaction. The theory was developed from the Nonverbal expectancy violation model by Judee.K.Burgoon, which describes a person's personal space and how people respond to its violation. People expect or predict specific behaviours, and violations can be perceived positively or negatively, depending on the relationship between people.

There are two types of expectancies: predictive and prescriptive. Predictive expectancy defines communication and interaction within a specific context, while prescriptive expectancy refers to people displaying appropriate behaviours in the existing environment. Expectancy in people is determined by interactant characteristics, interpersonal characteristics, and context, which lead to expectations in behaviour. The listener can perceive the violation of expected behaviour as positive or negative. The unexpected behaviour affects whether the communication should continue, with positivity allowing the communication to continue, and negativity hindering it.

4.3.4 Interpersonal Deception Theories

Interpersonal Deception Theory (IDT) is a crucial concept in communication studies, focusing on understanding deception in interpersonal interactions. Developed by David Buller and Judee Burgoon in the early 1990s, IDT explains deception as an interactive process between the deceiver and the receiver. It identifies strategic and nonstrategic behaviour, with strategic behaviour involving intentional control of information to create false beliefs, and nonstrategic behaviour involving unconscious actions. Deception detection is challenging, with lower accuracy rates than commonly believed. Cognitive load increases due to the deceiver's control of their story and assessment of the receiver's belief in the deception. Interpersonal dynamics, such as familiarity, trust, and power relations, also play a role in deception. IDT can be applied in personal relationships, professional contexts, law enforcement and legal settings, and communication training. However, it faces criticisms such as cultural variability,

complexity in real-world situations, and ethical concerns. Despite these limitations, IDT offers a valuable lens to understand how individuals engage in and detect deception in their interactions, underscoring the complexity of communication processes and the intricate nature of human relationships.

4.4 Symbolic interactionism

Symbolic interaction theory, also known as the symbolic interaction perspective, is a sociology theory that focuses on how humans give meaning to their experiences and interactions with society. It posits that our understanding of the world and our interactions with society is based on what we learn from our interactions with others, rather than objective truth. Proponents of this theory argue that our society is socially constructed by the meanings we attach to social interactions and events. George Herbert Mead, an American philosophy professor, is considered the true founder of symbolic interaction theory. Herbert Blumer, a follower of Mead, invented the term symbolic interactionism and identified three premises: humans act based on the meanings they assign to people or things, meanings arise from social interactions, and humans adjust meanings by internally interpreting their interactions with the world. Max Weber's social action theory, also known as symbolic interactionism, influenced Mead's theory by arguing that society is a product of human activity and should be studied when analyzing a society. Other theorists who contributed to symbolic interactionism in sociology include Charles Horton Cooley, Charles Darwin, and William Isaac Thomas.

4.4.1 Symbolic convergence theory

Symbolic Convergence Theory (SCT) is a communication theory developed by Ernest Bormann in the 1970s that focuses on how groups develop shared understandings and meanings through storytelling and shared narratives. Key components of SCT include fantasy themes, symbolic convergence, fantasy chains, and rhetorical vision. These themes are creative and imaginative shared interpretations of events that fulfill psychological or rhetorical needs. SCT can be applied in various fields, such as organizational communication, social movements, group dynamics, political communication, and media and pop culture.

SCT provides insight into the emotional and symbolic side of group communication and emphasizes the importance of narratives in shaping social reality. However, it may be less applicable in situations where narratives are not shared or in conflict, and measuring the impact of rhetorical visions or fantasy themes can be challenging.

4.4.2 Fantasy themes Rhetoric

Fantasy-theme criticism is a rhetorical method that examines how shared realities within a group shape people's thoughts and actions. It is based on symbolic convergence theory,

which explores how people come up with collective ideas. For example, if a group of students decides their club isn't valued by their teachers and receives a cut in funding, their new reality will likely contain a narrative about how the lack of teachers' value led to the cut. The goal of fantasy theme criticism is to understand why certain groups feel the way they do by understanding characters, settings, and actions, each labeled as a theme.

Fantasy is not imaginary, non-existent worlds, but rather creative and imaginative interpretations of events. It is an effective method for analyzing why groups think the way they do, how they think, and what has constructed their present understanding of the current situation. To use fantasy-theme criticism, an artifact, characters, and a setting must be reviewed. Evidence of symbolic convergence is crucial when selecting an artifact for analysis. The process involves coding the artifact for setting, character, and action themes, and constructing a rhetorical vision from those themes.

4.4.3 Argumentation

Argumentation is a crucial aspect of communication, dating back to foundationalism in philosophy. It originated from the idea that justification or reasoning was based on oration and logic. However, scholars later developed a broader premise for argument than formal philosophical systems. During the 1960-1970 period, scientists like Perelman and others developed various techniques to gain support for their views and opinions.

Communication is essential for human beings as it allows them to express their thoughts and contribute to our evolution. The speaker shares information, while the listener listens, and they must differentiate trustworthy information from lies and treachery. This process involves epistemic vigilance, which involves filtering messages and assessing the reliability of information.

Stephen Toulmin, an English philosopher and logician, proposed a structure for arguments: Claim is a statement that a speaker or listener presents to accept the information as true. Ground is the reasoning behind the claim, which can be made up of information used to persuade the listener. Each person has a unique way of accepting information, and each person has a different way of accepting it.

Warrant justifies the claim by making the ground appropriate. Backing provides additional support to the warrant, while qualifiers restrict the comprehensiveness of the claim. Rebuttal can be used even in a perfectly stated argument.

Examples of women's roles in argumentation include being excellent administrators, multitasking, good organizers, good listeners, well-educated, homemakers, and having equal

exposure to management. Argumentation theory is an important area for scholars, philosophers, and logicians, and can be applied to both vocal and group communication.

4.4.4 Coordinated Management of Meaning (CMM)

Coordinated Management of Meaning (CMM) is a theory developed by W. Barnett Pearce and Vernon Cronen in 1980, which focuses on the process of social communication and the creation of meaning through interpersonal systems. CMM advocates for the development of prepositions in given situations to present appropriate actions and reactions. It believes that social realities are shaped as they are created, and humans create hierarchies to organize meanings associated with assumptions.

There are two major rules in CMM: Constructive rules, which help understand the meaning of messages, and Regulative rules, which focus on how communicators react or behave towards the message they received. The communication perspective of CMM sees communication as the objects of communication in the social world, and its models are better understood in terms of performance.

CMM relies on three processes: coherence, coordination, and mystery. Coherence helps people understand the world around them through various stories, while coordination involves interlinking actions and words to form patterns in the social world. Mystery, on the other hand, explains that not everything in the world can be explained, and interactions can lead to surprising outcomes.

CMM models include The Daisy Model, which emphasizes the importance of multiple conversations and the need for attention in the form of a nexus. The Serpentine Model, on the other hand, emphasizes the importance of individual interpretations and actions in the social world, with communication starting in a wavy line within the social world.

4.4.5 Message-Design Logic

Message design logic is a communication theory that suggests that individuals possess implicit theories of communication within themselves, known as message design logics. It offers three fundamental premises in reasoning about communication: Expressive Logic, Conventional Logic, and Rhetorical Logic. These premises represent internally consistent and developmentally ordered stages in the acquisition of working knowledge about the systematic properties of verbal messages. The underlying idea behind O'Keefe's work is that communication is not necessarily a uniform process.

Many scholars have used O'Keefe's work for their own research, such as Peterson and Albrecht, Dr. Gwen Hullman, and Carmen Cortes, Chad Larson, and Dale Hample. Their study found that rhetorical speakers were perceived as more effective, appropriate, and competent,

reflecting O'Keefe's ideas that rhetorical speakers can better align their goals with their partners' goals.

Critics of Message Design Logic include Joy Hart of Louisville University, who criticizes the assumption that individuals may progress to the rhetorical message design logic, which is the highest level of development, and the proposition that if a person is surrounded by a social environment or culture in which negotiation is possible, they will proceed more quickly to the rhetorical message design logic.

4.4.6 Compliance Gaining

Compliance gaining is a term used in social sciences, particularly in sociology and communication studies, to describe the intentional attempt to alter behavior. It is related to persuasion but focuses on actual behavioral changes to goals set by the source. Compliance gaining is different from traditional persuasion because it emphasizes active rather than reactive communicators and how people influence others. It focuses on message selection rather than message impact and focuses on the type of message sent and individual and situational differences that influence those messages.

Compliance gaining was developed in the late 1960s by sociologists Gerald Marwell and David Schmitt. They developed sixteen compliance-gaining tactics, including promises, threats, expertise, liking, pre-giving, aversive stimulation, debt, moral appeal, self-feeling, altercasting, altruism, and trust. These tactics aim to get people to comply with their requests, either by offering rewards or punishments, or by expressing a desire for compliance.

Marwell and Schmitt conducted experimental research using these tactics and identified five basic compliance-gaining strategies: rewarding activity, punishing activity, expertise, activation of impersonal commitments, and activation of personal commitments. Compliance gaining is different from traditional persuasion because it emphasizes active communicators and how people influence others. However, compliance gaining does not guarantee compliance, as the fact that someone agrees and understands a goal does not guarantee compliance.

4.5 Goals-Plans-Action Model

Communication competence is influenced by participants' goals, which can be instrumental (primary goals) or secondary (general concerns). The ability to design a message that effectively addresses both instrumental and secondary goals is associated with greater communication competence. Factors affecting this include a speaker's ability to adapt the language to the communication-relevant features of a specific situation or hearer, and cognitive editing. The likelihood of producing a message that addresses relevant secondary goals depends

on whether a speaker becomes aware of potential unwanted outcomes. The type of planning that precedes message design also plays a role. The plan-based theory of strategic communication views plans as hierarchical structures specifying goals and actions at different levels of specificity. Research on imagined interactions, conflict management, and verbal disagreement tasks provides insight into how people plan what to say. To better understand message design in interpersonal settings, scholars have proposed models of cognitive processes and structures involved in designing, editing, and producing messages, including action assembly theory, cognitive rules model, and implicit rules model.

4.5.1 Politeness theory

Brown and Levinson's politeness theory suggests that individuals have two types of faces: positive and negative. Positive faces are those who desire to be liked and appreciated by others, which can be seen as a person's self-esteem. Negative faces are those who want to protect their personal rights, such as freedom of speech and action. When we are polite, we appeal to one of these types, making the other person feel good about themselves.

Brown and Levinson argue that when we are rude or impede their personal freedoms, we commit face-threatening acts, while when we admit and apologise for our shortcomings, we commit face-threatening acts. They also suggest that cooperation is necessary during social interaction to maintain the face of both ourselves and the person we are speaking to.

Positive face is defined as an individual's desire to be liked, admired, ratified, and related to positively. Maintaining a positive face involves maintaining and exhibiting a positive self-image to society. To appeal to someone's positive face, we can compliment their outfit, congratulate them on their achievements, or agree with their words. To protect their positive face, we should avoid criticisms, insults, and disagreements.

Negative face is defined as an individual's desire not to have their basic rights and freedoms impeded by others. When we appeal to a person's negative face, we aim to make them feel like they haven't been taken advantage of.

4.6 Group Dynamics

Group dynamics is the social process of people interacting and acting in a group environment, influenced by personality, power, and behavior. It examines the relationship between individuals, the structure and size of the group, and how formal and informal power are used to build consensus and reach decisions. Groups can be formal or informal, ranging from research groups to spontaneous worker groups. Formal groups are structured to pursue specific tasks, while informal groups emerge naturally in response to organizational or member interests. While informal groups can learn from leadership and motivation, formal groups are

characterized by member appointment and delegated authority. Groups are crucial for organizational life, and managers spend significant time managing them to contribute to organizational and group goals. Group dynamics studies the nature, formation, and reasons for group formation, affecting the behavior and attitude of members and the organization.

4.6.1 Interaction Process Analysis

Interaction Process Analysis (IPA) is a research method developed by sociologist Robert F. Bales in the 1950s to analyze communication patterns within a group or organization. The process involves selecting a social system, defining interaction categories, developing a coding system, observing and recording the group, analyzing the data, and interpreting the findings. The coding system assigns codes to each category, and coders are trained to use the system consistently. The data collected is then analyzed using statistical methods, content analysis, or qualitative interpretation. The findings are then interpreted and reported, providing insights into group dynamics, communication patterns, and relationships. IPA is widely used in fields like sociology, psychology, communication studies, and organizational behavior, and can be applied in various contexts, such as classrooms, work teams, or therapy groups. However, the specific procedures and techniques may vary depending on the context and research goals.

4.6.2 Group Development

Bruce Tuckman's model of group development is a well-known approach to team building and development. It consists of four stages: forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning. Forming involves the formation of a new group, where members come together to understand each other's roles and approaches. Storming occurs when individuals start interacting with each other in the context of the task to be achieved, leading to conflicts and competition.

Norming involves clarifying the roles and responsibilities of each member, allowing the team to work cohesively towards the target. Performing is characterized by flexibility and interdependence, as team members know each other well and can handle complex problems. The roles and responsibilities of members change frequently, as everyone is equally task-oriented and people-oriented.

Adjourning is the final stage of group development, where the group is terminated and members are separated from each other. This stage is often called "mourning or deforming" because it is the sense of loss felt by the group members during the separation. Researchers study group development to determine the changes that occur within the group.

4.6.3 Input-Output Model

The Input-Output Model of Team Effectiveness is a theory that explains how inputs and outputs impact a team's performance. Inputs include organizational context, team task, and team composition, while processes include norms, communication, coordination, cohesiveness, and decision-making. Team outputs include productivity, innovativeness, and team member well-being.

Organizational contexts include reward systems, training systems, physical environment, managerial support, and technology. Training improves interaction between team members, leading to higher success rates. Team tasks also play a crucial role in team performance, as the better the task, the better the performance. Team composition involves each member's valuable skills, abilities, experience, and personal characteristics.

Team processes consist of norms, which are informal rules about behaviours, such as unethical behaviour, dress code, and punctuality. Productivity is essential for a team, and understanding and adhering to norms is crucial. Communication and coordination are essential for team success. Cohesion is crucial for team performance, as it helps group members work together to achieve team goals.

Team outputs include team performance, which benefits the business side of the job, such as sales revenues, units produced, and customer service. Cognitive thinking and diverse teams lead to better decisions and creativity. Clear innovation goals are essential for team success, and intrinsic motivation is linked to innovative performance. Treating team members with respect and comfort leads to increased satisfaction and positive well-being.

4.6.4 Concertive Control and Self-Managed Teams

Concertive control is a concept that emerged in the late 20th and early 21st centuries, particularly in organizations transitioning from traditional hierarchical structures to more flat, team-based structures. It is a form of control that arises within teams when formal hierarchical supervision is reduced or absent. Self-managed teams are groups of employees who are given the autonomy and responsibility to manage their tasks and processes.

Concertive control works through the development of norms and standards, peer pressure, internalization of values, and performance accountability. Advantages include high levels of commitment and motivation, collaboration, and flexibility in response to changes. Challenges include excessive pressure and stress, risk of groupthink, and potential overlooking of individual concerns. Concertive control is particularly relevant in industries that emphasize innovation, teamwork, and rapid adaptation to changing environments. Tech companies, creative industries, and startups often use self-managed teams to harness the creativity and

initiative of their employees. It represents a significant shift in how control and coordination are achieved in organizations, emphasizing the role of shared values, team dynamics, and peer relationships in guiding employee behavior. However, organizations must balance the benefits of this approach with potential downsides to ensure healthy team dynamics and individual well-being.

4.6.5 Adaptive Structuration

Adaptive Structuration Theory (AST) is a communication theory that views organizations as systems of communication. It posits that individuals create groups by communicating, expressing their expectations, and establishing rules or structures. As group members communicate, weaknesses or limitations in the structure become apparent, and members modify the rules to better suit their needs. AST shows how communication allows groups to evolve while remaining stable, and without communication, organizations would cease to exist.

The complexity of AST stems from its academic demands, which require studying every group on an individual basis. This approach involves breaking down groups into their most fundamental parts and understanding all the dynamics present in each group's structure and function. These dynamics include characteristics of the group's members, factors like environment, social or organizational power, time constraints, and use of technology.

AST has proven useful for understanding various organizational structures, such as Redbook Magazine, Apple, Inc., U.S. Congress, and the Vatican. It has been most successful in analyzing organizational communication and group decision making, as well as the structures introduced by advanced technologies and those emerged from people interacting with them. Experts say the theory can help people realize and expand their influence as group members.

For example in a study group, AST examines the formation of group structures and their influence on communication and decision making. It asserts that group structures are created from social, cultural, or historical assumptions each group member brings to the table, which determine how members communicate, the types of resources they use, and how their rules and resources evolve with continued communication.

4.6.6 Simplified Social Influence Process

Social influence is a complex concept that encompasses various aspects of our interactions with our environment, including sales, marketing, peer pressure, socialisation, persuasion, obedience, and large-scale political and social change. It involves any change in behavior, emotion, or thinking caused by other individuals, even if their presence is only

imagined, expected, or implied. Social influence can be divided into majority influence (conformity) and minority influence (influence of an individual or smaller group).

Kelman's Social Influence Theory (1958) introduces three types of social influence: internalisation, identification, and compliance. These levels of influence can result from group pressure on an individual, with the lowest level indicating a person's separation from a group, and the highest level indicating complete unifiedness with a group. Both theories have been extensively researched and are essential in understanding the dynamics of social influence.

4.6.7 Socio Egocentric and Group-Centric Model

The socio-egocentric and group-centric models are two distinct perspectives on how individuals and groups interact and make decisions. The socio-egocentric model emphasizes the role of individual actors in group processes, arguing that their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors drive group outcomes. On the other hand, the group-centric model takes a more holistic view, arguing that groups have emergent properties such as norms, values, and goals that can influence individual members' behavior. Both models can be seen as complementary rather than contradictory, as both individual and group factors play a role in shaping group processes and outcomes.

Examples of how the socio-egocentric and group-centric models can be applied to understand different aspects of group behavior include leadership, decision-making, and conflict. The choice of model depends on the specific research question, but it is essential to remember that both individual and group factors are important in understanding group behavior.

The socio-egocentric model focuses on the individual as the central unit of analysis, examining the social network from the perspective of a single individual (the ego). It examines personal networks, dynamics, information flow, and the impact of personal networks on behavior and attitudes. In contrast, the group-centric model focuses on the group or community as the central unit of analysis, focusing on group dynamics, collective behavior, roles and status, and social structure.

Understanding both models is crucial in fields like sociology, psychology, organizational behavior, and network analysis, as they provide different lenses through which social structures and interactions can be examined, offering valuable insights into human behavior and social systems.

4.6.8 Transactive Memory

Relationships play a crucial role in information sharing, as people often seek help from each other in various aspects of life. This knowledge sharing system, known as transactive

memory, is developed in relationships and groups where individuals assume responsibility for different knowledge areas and rely on one another for information. Transactive memory involves a specialized division of labor, with each member becoming a "specialist" in some areas but not others, and members relying on one another for information.

Transactive memory development requires cognitive interdependence, which means individuals must perceive that their outcomes are dependent on the knowledge of others and that those others' outcomes are dependent on their knowledge. This can arise in close interpersonal relationships, where people share responsibilities, engage in conversations, and make joint decisions. It can also arise due to a reward system or group task structure.

Transactive memory develops as individuals learn about each other's expertise and begin to delegate and assume responsibility for different knowledge areas. The delegation process is often implicit and informal, emerging through interaction. Individuals can become linked to knowledge-based relative expertise, negotiated agreements, or circumstances. In newly formed groups, individuals may rely on stereotypes based on personal characteristics to infer what others know. These initial assumptions can become self-fulfilling prophecies, with individuals being assigned knowledge areas consistent with social stereotypes and eventually becoming experts.

Informal interactions and shared experiences provide opportunities for members to learn about the relative expertise of others, indicate their interests and preferences, coordinate who does what, observe members' skills in action, and evaluate the willingness of others to participate in the transactive memory system. Formal design systems are either validated or modified over time as individuals discover whether individuals assigned to specific knowledge roles are able and willing to perform them.

4.6.9 Vigilant Interaction theory

Vigilant Interaction Theory (VIT) is a group decision-making approach developed by Denis Gouran and Randy Hirokawa in the 1980s. It emphasizes the importance of critical thinking and ongoing evaluation in group decision-making. VIT's key pillars include procedural rationality, communication as core, sub-decisions and overall quality, and group cohesion.

VIT benefits from enhanced decision quality, increased creativity and innovation, and improved group cohesion and trust. It can be applied in various contexts, such as corporate teams, educational settings, and public policy groups. Corporate teams benefit from vigilant interaction to make informed choices and strategize effectively. Educational settings can benefit from collaborative learning activities to enhance students' critical thinking and

decision-making skills. Public policy groups can benefit from inclusive and comprehensive discussions.

VIT's emphasis on critical thinking and open communication holds value in any situation where collaborative problem-solving or information exchange are crucial.

Let us Sum up

This unit delves into the various aspects of communication in interpersonal and group contexts, examining theories and models that explain how individuals interact and convey meaning. It covers topics such as intrapersonal communication, self-mindful communication, phenomenological and hermeneutics tradition, and uncertainty reduction in interactions. The unit also discusses privacy management nuances, accommodation theory, interaction adaptation theory, Burgoon's Expectancy Violation theory, and interpersonal deception theories. Symbolic interactionism, logical reasoning, coordinated management of meaning, message-design logic, compliance gaining, and the goals-plans-action model are also explored. The unit also covers group dynamics, including interaction process analysis, group development, input-output model, concertive control and self-managed teams, adaptive structuring, simplified social influence process, socio-egocentric and group-centric model, transactive memory, and vigilant interaction theory. The unit also examines the influence of group members on each other, the socio-egocentric and group-centric model, and the role of transactive memory in group decision-making processes.

Check your Progress

Short Answer Questions

No	Question	CO	PO	K
1	Define interpersonal communication.	CO3	PO4	K1
2	What is uncertainty reduction theory?	CO3	PO3	K1
3	Explain accommodation theory.	CO3	PO3	K2
4	What is symbolic interactionism?	CO2	PO3	K1
5	Define group dynamics.	CO5	PO4	K1

Essay Questions

No	Question	CO	PO	K
1	Discuss the process of intrapersonal communication.	CO3	PO4	K3
2	Analyze Burgoon's Expectancy Violation Theory.	CO3	PO3	K4
3	Explain symbolic convergence theory and fantasy themes.	CO2	PO3	K3
4	Evaluate communication processes in group dynamics.	CO5	PO4	K5
5	Develop strategies for effective communication in group settings.	CO5	PO4	K6

Suggested Readings

McLean, S. (2005). *The basics of interpersonal communication*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Giles, Howard (2009). "Communication Accommodation Theory". In Reis, Harry T.; Susan Sprecher (eds.). *Encyclopedia of Human Relationships*. SAGE Knowledge. doi:10.4135/9781412958479.n89. ISBN 9781412958462.

Shedletsky, L. J. (1989). *Meaning and mind: An interpersonal approach to human communication*. ERIC Clearinghouse on reading and communication skills. Bloomington, IN: ERIC.

<https://milnepublishing.geneseo.edu/interpersonalcommunication/chapter/7/>

<https://communication.iresearchnet.com/interpersonal-communication/interaction-adaptation-theory/>

Video Links

1. <https://youtu.be/hczhaGKnlw8?feature=shared>
2. <https://youtu.be/P1I8LqQe-Xg?feature=shared>
3. <https://youtu.be/-kmnZIxYHk?feature=shared>
4. <https://youtu.be/zx79iDBWTII?feature=shared>

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Let us Sum up

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Overview

The "Relationships" unit in this course explores the dynamics of interpersonal relationships, focusing on theories and concepts that explain their formation, maintenance, and sometimes dissolution. Key concepts include the Palo Alto Group's work on communication patterns, relational schemas, social penetration theory, Bakhtin's Theory of Dialogics, Dialectical Theory of Relationships, affection exchange, dyadic power theory, family communication patterns, relationship maintenance, Petronio's Communication Privacy Management, Carl Rogers' Self-Theory in Constructing and Transcending Differences, Moral Conflict Theory, performing foreignness, coalition and alliance building, and dialogue as building a culture of peace. The unit concludes with the principles of good communication and non-violent communication, which are essential for building and maintaining healthy relationships. The course provides a comprehensive understanding of human connections in both personal and professional contexts.

Learning Objectives

After reading this unit you will be able to

1. Understand and Analyze Various Relationship Theories
2. Relate Communication Theories to Real-Life Scenarios
3. Evaluate Family Communication Patterns and Their Impact
4. Develop Skills for Conflict Resolution and Relationship Maintenance
5. Cultivate Cultural Competence and Effective Interpersonal Skills

5.1 Introduction

Love is a complex emotional experience that has evolved over time, with humans being hard-wired for it. Fossils from the Late Triassic and early Jurassic periods show evidence of parent-offspring bonding, which evolved hundreds of millions of years ago. This bond between mothers and their offspring is the original, ancestral form of bonding from which all others evolved. Mammals evolved the ability to form relationships, which could be used in other contexts, such as family and friends in sophisticated social groups like elephant herds, monkey

troops, killer whale pods, dog packs, and human tribes. In some species, males and females formed pair bonds, which evolved sometime after our ancestors split from chimps, probably before the split between humans and Neanderthals.

Parental care has been an adaptive benefit for many species, as it has led to the evolution of sociality and cooperation on a larger scale. For example, parental care in wood roaches led to the evolution of vast family groups (colonies) that literally reshape the landscape. Ants, forming up to 25% of the biomass of some habitats, likely evolved coloniality in the same way. Love is a universal form of attachment that has evolved over time, with humans and other mammals sharing this bond. The ability to care and form relationships allowed for cooperative groups that became effective competitors against other groups and species.

5.2 Relationships

Personal relationships are intimate, close, and interdependent, while social relationships, such as coworkers, distant relatives, and acquaintances, occasionally meet our needs but lack the closeness and interdependence of personal relationships. Communication is at the heart of forming interpersonal relationships, as it allows us to adapt to the dynamic nature of our relational worlds and respond when someone violates or fails to meet expectations. There are ten established stages of interaction that help understand how relationships come together and come apart. These stages include initiation, experimentation, intensification, integration, bonding, coming apart, differentiating, circumscribing, stagnating, avoiding, and terminating. It is important to note that relationships are always changing and that coming together and coming apart are not inherently good or bad. The model of relationship development applies to most relationships, but it is most often applied to romantic relationships.

5.2.1 Palo Alto Group on Relationships

The Palo Alto Group, led by Gregory Bateson, Don Jackson, Paul Watzlawick, and Jay Haley, revolutionized understanding of human interaction and family dynamics in the 20th century. They shifted focus from individual traits to interactions, emphasizing communication patterns and relational dynamics in shaping human experiences. They proposed that communication is the primary tool for building and maintaining relationships, exploring aspects such as non-verbal communication, metacommunication, double binds, and the "Interactional View" of communication. Their work had a profound impact on psychotherapy, particularly family therapy, and influenced fields like education, communication studies, and organizational management. However, their focus on communication has been criticized for downplaying individual emotions and experiences, and their ideas have sometimes been

misconstrued or oversimplified. Despite these criticisms, the Palo Alto Group left a significant mark on our understanding of relationships and communication.

5.2.3 Relational Schemas

Relational schemas are mental structures that organize information about relationships, serving as cognitive blueprints that influence our expectations, behaviors, and interpretations within interpersonal connections. They are rooted in cognitive psychology and consist of cognitive frameworks, perception filters, expectation setting, and behavioral scripts. These schemas develop over time through repeated experiences and observations in relationships, with cultural norms and societal expectations playing a significant role.

Relational schemas can be modified through experience, with positive or negative experiences challenging existing schemas and leading to their adaptation to better reflect the evolving nature of relationships. They also influence communication patterns, conflict resolution, and interpersonal dynamics. Effective communication often requires an awareness of the underlying relational schemas at play.

Understanding relational schemas is crucial for conflict resolution, as conflicts may arise when individuals' schemas clash. Compatibility or conflict between individuals' schemas can influence the degree of harmony or tension within a relationship.

Practical implications of understanding relational schemas include self-awareness, empathy, and relationship enhancement. Developing self-awareness about one's own relational schemas is key to understanding personal biases, preferences, and communication styles within relationships. Recognizing and appreciating diverse relational schemas fosters empathy, enabling individuals to understand and validate others' perspectives.

Understanding relational schemas is essential for database design and management, allowing for structured modeling of real-world entities and relationships, optimizing data storage and retrieval, ensuring data integrity and consistency, and facilitating queries and data analysis. It provides a valuable lens through which individuals can navigate the complexities of interpersonal relationships, foster meaningful connections, promote empathy, and build stronger, more resilient relationships.

5.2.4 Social Penetration Theory

Social penetration theory explains how information exchange plays a role in the development and dissolution of interpersonal relationships. It describes the process of bonding that moves a relationship from superficial to more intimate, achieved through self-disclosure. This process can occur in various contexts, including romantic relationships, friendships, social

groups, and work relationships. The theory has been applied in computer-mediated communication contexts like online dating and virtual teams.

The onion model is a useful metaphor for describing social penetration, describing the process through which people "peel back" others' layers of personal information through interpersonal interaction to reach the core. The onion model describes several layers, including superficial, middle, inner, and core personality. For relationships to develop, there must be an exchange of information, with breadth being the number of topics discussed and depth being the degree of intimacy that guides these interactions.

Altman and Taylor compared people to a multilayered onion, believing that each opinion, belief, prejudice, and obsession is layered around and within the individual. As people get to know each other, the layers "shed away" to reveal the core of the person. As the relationship develops, partners share more aspects of the self, providing breadth and depth through an exchange of information, feelings, and activities. Altman and Taylor abandoned several main factors that influence self-disclosure, such as gender, race, and ethnic background, which could greatly influence findings and contribute to the rate at which the onion is "shed."

5.2.5 Bakhtin's Theory of Dialogism

Monologism, a term meaning "one voice," refers to the concept of a single idea that is uttered by an individual, group, or God. Bakhtin's perspective on this concept highlights the clash between centrifugal and centripetal forces in history, which pull apart systems of meanings. Monologism takes ideas far from individuals, focusing on their role in demonstrating and illuminating an individual character or as psychological observations. In educational research, monologism objectifies other people and tries to explain them as phenomena, without regard for their authors or narrators.

In the world of novels, monologic authors either create characters without regard for their words or pay attention to the ideas without considering who says or utters them. Bakhtin also discusses the presence of a singular meaning (idea) in monologism, which is often overlooked in the world of philosophy. He believes that truth needs to be uttered by different individuals and agents carriers, and that truth should possess multiple voices to be heard completely and understood perfectly.

In a monological worldview, all utterances and meanings in literature are monologic, with confirmed ideas merging into the unity of the author's seeing and representing consciousness. Unconfirmed ideas are distributed among the heroes, no longer as signifying ideas but as socially typical or individually characteristic manifestations of thought.

5.2.6 Dialectical Theory of Relationships

Relational dialectics is a communication theory introduced by Leslie Baxter and Barbera M. Matgomery in 1988, focusing on the contradictions in relationships. It reflects the internal tensions experienced by individuals of varying backgrounds, which eventually sustain the relationship. The concept of relational dialectics consists of three main concepts: contradictions, totality, process, and praxis. Common dialectics in relationships include openness and closeness, certainty and uncertainty, and connectedness and separateness.

Managing relational dialectics involves alternatively prioritizing problems, denial, segmentation, disorientation, balance, reaffirmation, and integration. These concepts can be applied to studying interpersonal relationships, understanding behavioral changes in partners, and maintaining a relationship by understanding the core concepts of relational dialects. By understanding these concepts, individuals can better manage their communication and maintain healthy relationships.

5.2.7 Affection Exchange

Affection Exchange Theory, based on evolutionary biology, suggests that affectionate interaction is crucial for forming and maintaining strong emotional bonds between people. It suggests that when two individuals engage in affectionate behaviors, they not only express love and care but also reinforce their connection on a deeper level. Affectionate exchanges promote feelings of security, warmth, and comfort, creating a sense of emotional closeness and unity. Early in relationship development, couples bathe in the hormones of connection, sharing affectionate communication. Affectionate communication is not just good for relationships but is a biologically driven behavior, as humans need to be loved and shown that they are loved. Affectionate behaviors have a reciprocal nature, fostering a sense of mutuality, trust, and intimacy. Affection is treated as an adaptive behavior that contributes to human long-term viability and procreative success. The theory identifies the origins of affectionate communication, accounts for variation in interpretations of affection, and predicts personal and relational benefits for those who exchange it.

5.3 Dyadic Power Theory

Dyadic Power Theory (DPT) is a social science framework that explores the dynamics of power within interpersonal relationships. It is rooted in social psychology and focuses on how individuals assert influence, control, and authority in one-on-one interactions. DPT emphasizes the role of dependency, which can create power imbalances between parties. It identifies multiple bases of power, such as informational power, coercive power, reward power, referent power, and expert power.

The theory also emphasizes negotiation and communication in power dynamics, where effective communication plays a pivotal role in expressing needs, desires, and boundaries. DPT recognizes that power dynamics are not static but subject to shifts and fluctuations, and it helps understand how individuals use their power bases in various professional contexts. It is particularly relevant in understanding power dynamics in romantic relationships, workplace interactions, and parent-child relationships.

However, DPT faces criticisms for its complexity and cultural variability. Critics argue that power dynamics in relationships are highly complex and cannot be adequately captured by a theory focusing solely on dyadic interactions. Additionally, DPT may not fully account for the cultural variability in the perception and exercise of power within relationships.

Practical implications of DPT include improving communication skills, promoting equality, and addressing conflicts. Understanding DPT encourages individuals to develop effective communication skills to express their needs and negotiate influence within relationships. It also promotes equality and mutual respect by recognizing and addressing power imbalances.

DPT has diverse applications in various fields, including couples therapy, conflict resolution, and gender dynamics. Couples therapy can guide couples towards healthier relationships by understanding power dynamics and its impact on communication. Conflict resolution can provide better strategies for resolving conflicts within relationships by recognizing and addressing power imbalances. DPT offers valuable insights into power dynamics within interpersonal relationships, particularly in romantic relationships. However, it faces criticisms such as oversimplification, neglect of individual differences, and limited scope. Despite these limitations, DPT finds diverse applications in various fields, such as couples therapy, conflict resolution, and gender dynamics.

5.4 Family Communication Patterns

Family communication is a complex phenomenon that relies on both intrapersonal and interpersonal processes. It is best understood through relational cognition, where intersubjectivity refers to the similarity of meaning assigned to communicative behaviors, and interactivity refers to the degree to which family members' creation, use, and interpretation of symbols are interdependent. A comprehensive theory of family communication must consider both relational cognition and interpersonal behavior, explaining how these two are interdependent.

The Family Communication Patterns Theory is a comprehensive theory that operates at both relational cognition and interpersonal behavior levels. The theory explains how families

create a shared social reality through coorientation and reformulates it as a theory of interpersonal behavior. The resulting communication behaviors are described in terms of conversation orientation and conformity orientation, with four resulting family types.

Sharing a social reality is an ongoing process in families, not limited to mass media messages. Fitzpatrick and Ritchie refined and reconceptualized McLeod and Chaffee's (1972) FCP to construct an instrument to measure family communication patterns more generally. The Revised Family Communication Patterns (RFCP) instrument was expanded to include additional items to produce more reliable measurements of the two dimensions of family communication.

Conversation orientation is defined as the degree to which families create a climate in which all family members are encouraged to participate in unrestrained interaction about a wide array of topics. High conversation orientation families engage freely, frequently, and spontaneously, sharing their individual activities, thoughts, and feelings with each other. Conversely, low conversation-orientation families value open and frequent communication as essential for an enjoyable and rewarding family life, while low conversation-orientation families believe that open exchanges of ideas, opinions, and values are not necessary for the family's function and children's education and socialization.

5.4.1 Relationship Maintenance

Relational maintenance is a concept that involves preserving a stable relationship by engaging in communication strategies that maintain desired characteristics such as commitment, satisfaction, liking, and loving. These behaviors help to restore the relationship as the partners want it to be. In the 1980s, scholarly interest in maintenance communication increased, leading to the development of five maintenance strategies: positivity, openness, assurances, social networks, and sharing tasks.

Positive maintenance involves being cheerful, refraining from criticism, and engaging in spontaneous events. Openness involves discussing current and future directions of the relationship and disclosing goals, focusing on the relationship rather than personal issues or feelings. Assurances involve behaviors that show commitment, stress faithfulness, and provide support to the partner. Social networks involve behaviors that rely on friends and families as resources to stabilize the relationship. Sharing tasks involve doing one's fair share of work, performing chores equitably, and planning.

These maintenance strategies vary from being nonstrategic to strategic, reflecting the importance of maintaining a stable relationship. By understanding and implementing these strategies, individuals can better maintain and strengthen their relationships.

5.4.2 Petronio's Communication Privacy Management (CPM)

Communication is the process of sharing and receiving information, with various theories and models, including the communication privacy management theory. Developed by Sandra Petronio in 1991, this theory suggests that people share information and maintain certain boundaries based on the expected benefits and costs of self-disclosure. The theory consists of three components: Privacy Ownership, Privacy Control, and Privacy Turbulence.

Privacy Ownership refers to personal information that only we are aware of, while Privacy Control involves sharing personal information with someone else. Boundary permeability and boundary linkage rules define the amount, breadth, and depth of information disclosure, respectively. Boundary turbulence occurs when co-owners do not agree on privacy rules or follow them, affecting communication and disclosure between people, which can affect relationships.

Boundary turbulence can result in relationship breakups or loss of trust if the co-owners do not come to a mutual agreement or follow privacy rules. For example, if a person shares a secret with a friend, they may need to clarify their boundaries regarding personal information.

The communication privacy management theory also asserts that people feel conflicted about disclosing information, experiencing a push-and-pull mechanism called the openness-closedness dialectic. This dilemma helps understand privacy concerns and communications of individuals. People want to share but also hide information about themselves, fearing shame, awkwardness, or ridicule. However, they also want to form connections and get help or support.

To manage this dilemma, individuals can build trust in others, share with trusted individuals, maintain boundaries, and ensure agreement on these boundaries. Starting by disclosing smaller details before discussing larger issues can help individuals navigate the complex dynamics of communication and privacy.

5.4.3 Carl Roger's Self-Theory Constructing and Transcending Differences

Carl Rogers's Self-Theory is a fundamental concept in humanistic psychology that emphasizes the importance of self-concept, empathy, and unconditional positive regard in fostering psychological well-being. The theory posits that individuals strive for self-actualization and personal growth, and that understanding and accepting diverse perspectives is crucial for personal growth and fulfillment.

Key tenets of Rogers's Self-Theory include the self-concept, which comprises an individual's perceptions and beliefs about themselves, including values, abilities, and personal identity. It also emphasizes the importance of unconditional positive regard, which creates an environment where individuals feel valued. Empathy, which involves understanding and experiencing the world from another person's perspective, is essential for building connections and transcending differences by appreciating diverse viewpoints.

Rogers believes in the innate drive for self-actualization, the process of becoming the best version of oneself, and encourages individuals to pursue their unique potential. He also acknowledges the impact of social and cultural influences on the construction of differences. Rogers's emphasis on unconditional positive regard serves as a powerful tool for transcending differences, as it allows individuals to create bridges that facilitate understanding and connection.

Practical implications of Rogers's Self-Theory include creating inclusive environments, facilitating communication, and promoting individual growth. However, critics argue that his approach may be overly individual-centric and requires sensitivity to cultural nuances. Rogers' Self-Theory addresses the construct of the self, focusing on the organismic self, experiences, conditions of worth, and fully functioning individuals. It also emphasizes empathy, congruence, genuineness, and interpersonal encounters, which can help build trusting relationships and understanding across differences. Critics argue that Rogers' approach simplifies self-development by focusing solely on internal and social influences and that the theory might not fully translate to different cultural contexts. Despite these criticisms, Rogers' Self-Theory remains influential in various fields, such as psychotherapy, education, and interpersonal relationships.

5.4.4 Moral Conflict Theory

Moral Conflict Theory explores the complexities of ethical decision-making and moral disagreements within interpersonal relationships. It is rooted in ethics and social psychology, and it provides insights into the processes of negotiation, resolution, and the impact of moral conflicts on relationships. The theory acknowledges the diversity of moral foundations upon which individuals base their ethical judgments, emphasizing the subjectivity of morality and the coexistence of different moral values within societies and individuals. Moral conflict theories have practical applications in real-life contexts such as professional ethics, family dynamics, and interpersonal relationships. It helps individuals navigate ethical dilemmas when colleagues hold differing moral perspectives, fostering harmonious family dynamics. In

friendships, romantic relationships, or social circles, moral conflicts related to personal choices, values, or behaviors can be managed while preserving relationships.

Practical implications of moral conflict theory include open communication, cultivating empathy, and seeking common ground. Open communication involves expressing values, listening actively, and seeking mutual understanding to bridge gaps. Empathy is essential for understanding the perspectives of others and empathizing with their moral foundations. Seeking common ground allows for compromise and collaborative problem-solving.

Critiques and considerations include cultural relativism, where all moral perspectives are considered equally valid, and individual autonomy, which may be neglected by emphasizing compromise and accommodation in resolving moral conflicts.

Incommensurability is at the heart of moral conflict, meaning that the underlying moral frameworks guiding each individual's beliefs are fundamentally incompatible. Communication challenges in moral conflicts can lead to frustration, miscommunication, and emotional distress. Moral conflict theory distinguishes between different levels of conflict: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and group.

Finding resolution in these challenging situations requires empathy, critical self-reflection, and creative problem-solving. By acknowledging the complexities of incommensurability and approaching these situations with empathy, reflection, and a willingness to engage in dialogue, we can navigate ethical tangles with greater understanding and potentially find new pathways to shared values.

5.5 Performing Foreignness

Performing foreignness involves highlighting differences in one's culture through language, clothing, food, music, or other cultural markers. It can be seen as a way for individuals to navigate identity and belonging, negotiating their heritage and adapting to different cultural contexts. This process can lead to internal conflict and acceptance, but can also be a source of pride and empowerment. Performing foreignness can also serve as a form of political or social commentary, challenging dominant cultural norms and raising awareness about issues like cultural oppression, identity politics, and globalization. However, it is important to be aware of the potential for performing foreignness to be commodified or exploited, raising questions about who controls the representation of cultures and how power dynamics play a role in this process.

Key dimensions of performing foreignness include cultural adaptation, symbolic acts, and navigating stereotypes. The dynamics of performing foreignness involve negotiating cultural identity in a new or unfamiliar setting, often influenced by power dynamics within the

cultural encounter. Applications in real-life contexts include international travel and migration, business and diplomacy, and educational and social exchanges. Practical implications of performing foreignness include enhancing cultural competence, developing cross-cultural communication skills, and promoting inclusivity. Critics argue that performing foreignness may perpetuate essentialist views and may be perceived as cultural appropriation, particularly if individuals selectively adopt aspects of a culture without genuine understanding or respect for its significance. Understanding the dynamics of performing foreignness can enhance cultural competence, foster empathy, and promote inclusivity in intercultural interactions.

5.5.1 Coalition and Alliance Building

Alliances and coalitions are two distinct types of collaboration. Alliances are strategic partnerships formed between entities to achieve common objectives, such as security, defense, or economic cooperation. They focus on mutual benefit and cooperation, involving shared interests or goals. Alliances can be formal or informal, often involving defined roles and responsibilities. They can be formed between nations or states, and can involve military alliances, trade alliances, political coalitions, and advocacy coalitions.

Coalitions are temporary unions formed to work collectively towards a specific goal or agenda. They can be bilateral or multilateral, require formal diplomatic or legal processes, and involve multiple parties or organizations. They can foster economic integration, lead to policy changes, or address social issues. Examples include military alliances like NATO or economic alliances like the European Union.

Coalitions have geopolitical implications and can mobilize collective action for specific causes. They often require ongoing maintenance and cooperation, but can dissolve once their objectives are achieved or interests diverge. They may involve joint training, exercises, capacity-building programs, or campaigns. Alliances and coalitions are distinct types of collaboration that differ in nature and purpose. Alliances are long-term and enduring, while coalitions are short-term and can dissolve once shared objectives are achieved. Understanding these differences is crucial for understanding international relations and domestic politics.

5.5.2 Dialogue as Building Culture of Peace

Dialogue is a powerful tool for building a culture of peace, fostering understanding and harmony within societies. It involves active listening, mutual understanding, conflict transformation, inclusivity, nonviolent communication, shared narratives, trust-building, and cultural competence. Key principles of dialogue include active listening, mutual understanding, conflict transformation, inclusivity, and cultural competence.

Dialogue can be applied in real-life contexts such as intercommunity dialogue, peacebuilding in conflict zones, and educational initiatives. Training in dialogue skills can enhance participants' ability to engage in constructive conversations. Establishing community dialogue platforms can create spaces for people to discuss issues and share experiences, while media and communication campaigns that promote positive narratives and cross-cultural understanding contribute to shaping public perceptions and fostering a culture of peace.

Critiques and considerations include power dynamics, challenges in conflict zones, and power imbalances. Power imbalances may influence dialogue processes, particularly when there are significant disparities in resources, access, or representation among participants. Challenges in conflict zones may include deep-seated animosities, security concerns, and difficulties in ensuring inclusivity. Overcoming these challenges requires careful planning and sustained efforts.

Dialogue contributes to a culture of peace by breaking down barriers, building empathy, identifying common ground, finding solutions to conflict, and promoting tolerance and respect. By engaging in open and honest conversations, we learn to appreciate the richness of diversity and recognize the inherent dignity of every human being. Building a culture of peace is an ongoing process that requires commitment and effort from all of us. To make dialogue more effective, practice active listening, be respectful, focus on common ground, be open to change, and take action. By doing so, we can create a world where everyone feels safe, respected, and valued.

Dialogue is a cornerstone in building a culture of peace, fostering understanding, resolving conflicts, and promoting harmony within societies. By practicing active listening, being respectful, focusing on common ground, being open to change, and taking action, we can work towards creating a more peaceful world.

5.5.3 Principles of Good Communication and Non-Violent Communication

The 7 Principles of Good Communication are a set of guidelines for communication professionals within the Microsoft 365 Maturity Model. They include effective communication, comprehensive communication, clarity, attention and style, coherence, timeliness and urgency, and feedback. Effective communication should be concise, clear, and understandable to the receiver. Coherence ensures consistency across various tools and formats. Timeliness and urgency should be achieved at the right time, and feedback is crucial for confirming effectiveness and addressing compliance requirements.

Nonviolent Communication (NVC) is a language of compassion, a tool for positive social change, and a spiritual practice. It focuses on understanding and acknowledging the needs that people seek to meet, which can create a shared basis for connection, cooperation, and global peace. NVC involves a radical change in how we think about life and meaning, as it encourages deeper creativity and solutions.

Learning NVC is similar to learning a new language or skill, but it requires changes in our internal connection to ourselves and healing of past pain. The language of NVC includes two parts: honestly expressing ourselves to others and empathically hearing others. Both are expressed through four components: observations, feelings, needs, and requests.

Observations are what we see or hear that we identify as the stimulus to our reactions, creating a shared reality with the other person. By distinguishing these components from judgments, interpretations, and demands, we can embody the consciousness embedded in these components to express ourselves and hear ourselves and others more likely to foster understanding and connection, support everyone involved in getting their needs met, and nurture joy in giving and receiving. Feelings represent our emotional experience and physical sensations associated with our needs that have been met or that remain unmet. By identifying, naming, and connecting with those feelings, we continue the process of taking responsibility for our experience, which helps others hear what's important to us with less likelihood of hearing criticism or blame of themselves.

Needs are an expression of our deepest shared humanity, and understanding, naming, and connecting with our needs helps improve our relationship with ourselves and foster understanding with others. Focusing on words that describe shared human experience rather than strategies to meet those needs can lead to a sense of power and liberation, as we can free ourselves from being attached to one strategy.

Let us Sum up

Interpersonal communication and relationship dynamics are shaped by various theories and concepts. Relational Dialectics, a dialectical theory, identifies key dialectics in relationships, such as openness and closeness, certainty and uncertainty, and connectedness and separateness. Affection Exchange Theory emphasizes the importance of affectionate interaction in forming and sustaining emotional bonds. Dyadic Power Theory explores power dynamics within relationships, emphasizing the role of dependency. Family Communication Patterns Theory delves into family communication patterns and provides insights into

communication patterns. Relationship Maintenance involves preserving stable relationships through communication strategies that uphold commitment, satisfaction, liking, and love. Communication Privacy Management Theory by Sandra Petronio explores self-disclosure and privacy dynamics. Carl Rogers's Self-Theory emphasizes self-concept, empathy, and understanding diverse perspectives. Moral Conflict Theory navigates ethical dilemmas and moral disagreements within relationships. Performing Foreignness involves navigating cultural identity in foreign settings. Coalition and Alliance Building focuses on short-term goals and long-term strategic partnerships. Dialogue as building a culture of peace promotes understanding, trust, and positive social change. The Principles of Good Communication and Non-Violent Communication guide communication professionals.

Check your Progress

Short Answer Questions

No	Question	CO	PO	K
1	Define relational schemas.	CO5	PO3	K1
2	What is social penetration theory?	CO5	PO3	K1
3	Explain dialectical theory of relationships.	CO5	PO3	K2
4	What is communication privacy management (CPM)?	CO5	PO3	K1
5	Define nonviolent communication.	CO2	PO2	K2

Essay Questions

No	Question	CO	PO	K
1	Discuss the Palo Alto group's contribution to relationship communication.	CO1	PO1	K3
2	Analyze the role of relational schemas in interpersonal communication.	CO5	PO3	K4
3	Explain the social penetration theory in relationship development.	CO5	PO3	K3
4	Evaluate communication privacy management theory in modern relationships.	CO5	PO3	K5
5	Design communication strategies for building peaceful relationships.	CO5	PO5	K6

Suggested Readings

Wood, J. T. (2015). *Interpersonal Communication: Everyday Encounters*. Cengage Publications.

Cragan, J., Wright, D. W., & Kasch, C. R. (2008). *Communication in Small Groups: Theory, Process, and Skills*. Cengage Learning,

Berger, C. R., & Roloff, M. E. (2nd edition.). (2010). *The Handbook of Communication Science*. Sage.

Knapp, M. L., & Daly, J. A. (4th Eds.). (2011). The Sage Handbook of Interpersonal Communication. Sage

Video Links

<https://youtu.be/Fj-r1MdXv2Y?feature=shared>

<https://youtu.be/ygLrYk7Aj-Y?feature=shared>

<https://youtu.be/MGDxUufQ0rg?feature=shared>

<https://youtu.be/GO9DV5awEUg?feature=shared>

GLOSSARY

Accent: Distinctive pronunciation patterns associated with a specific region or group.

Active Listening: Fully engaging in the listening process, providing feedback to the speaker.

Aggressiveness: Expressing one's needs or opinions in a forceful and hostile manner.

Anaphora: The repetition of a word or phrase at the beginning of successive clauses.

Assertiveness: Communicating one's needs, desires, and opinions in a respectful manner.

Body Language: Nonverbal cues expressed through gestures, facial expressions, and posture.

Cacophony: A harsh, discordant mixture of sounds.

Chronemics: The use of time in communication, including punctuality and tempo.

Cliché: An overused phrase or expression.

Code-switching: Changing between languages or dialects in a conversation.

Cognitive Dissonance: The discomfort experienced when holding conflicting beliefs or attitudes.

Communication Barrier: Anything that hinders effective communication.

Communication Channel: The medium through which a message is transmitted (e.g., face-to-face, phone, email).

Communication Styles: Different ways individuals express themselves and interpret others' messages.

Conflict Resolution: Managing and resolving disagreements or disputes.

Connotation: The emotional or cultural associations of a word.

Crisis Communication: Communication strategies used during emergencies or challenging situations.

Cross-cultural Communication: Interacting with individuals from different cultural backgrounds.

Cultural Communication: Communication influenced by cultural norms and values.

Cultural Sensitivity: Being aware and respectful of cultural differences in communication.

Denotation: The literal or dictionary definition of a word.

Dialect: A variety of a language spoken in a particular geographical area or by a particular group.

Dialogue Tags: Words used to identify the speaker in a written or spoken conversation.

Dialogue: A conversation between two or more people.

Diction: The choice and use of words in speech or writing.

Discrimination: Unfair treatment of individuals based on their membership in a particular group.

Dysphemism: A derogatory or unpleasant term used instead of a neutral one.

Elocution: The skill of clear and expressive speech, especially of distinct pronunciation and articulation.

Emotional Intelligence: The ability to understand and manage one's own emotions and those of others.

Empathy: Understanding and sharing the feelings of another person.

Euphemism: A mild or indirect word or expression substituted for one considered harsh or blunt.

Face-to-Face Communication: Direct communication between individuals in the same physical location.

Feedback: The response or reaction to a message, indicating understanding or misunderstanding.

Filtering: Withholding or manipulating information before conveying it to others.

Formal Communication: Structured and official communication within an organization.

Gatekeeper: A person or entity that controls the flow of information within a communication system.

Gossip: Casual and often sensational talk about other people.

Group Communication: Communication within a small or large group of people.

Groupthink: The tendency of a group to conform to a prevailing mindset without critically evaluating alternatives.

Idiom: A phrase or expression that is not meant to be taken literally.

Informal Communication: Casual and unofficial communication between individuals.

Information Overload: The overwhelming amount of information that can hinder effective communication.

Intercultural Competence: The ability to communicate effectively across cultural boundaries.

Interpersonal Communication: Communication between two or more people.

Intrapersonal Communication: Communication within oneself, often involving self-reflection.

Jargon: Specialized language used within a particular profession or group.

Kinesics: The study of body movements and gestures in communication.

Listening: Actively paying attention to and interpreting spoken or nonverbal messages.

Mass Communication: Communication to a large audience through various media channels.

Metaphor: A figure of speech in which a word or phrase is applied to an object or action to which it is not literally applicable.

Miscommunication: Failure to convey or understand a message accurately.

Monologue: A long, uninterrupted speech by one person.

Monologue: An extended speech by one person during a conversation.

Narrative Communication: The use of storytelling to convey a message.

Negotiation: Discussing issues to reach an agreement.

Noise: Interference that disrupts the transmission or reception of a message.

Nonverbal Communication: Communication without the use of words, such as body language and gestures.

Oral Tradition: The transmission of cultural material through speech, stories, and rituals.

Paralanguage: Nonverbal elements of speech, such as tone, pitch, and rate of speech.

Passive Aggression: Indirect expression of hostility through subtle, non-confrontational means.

Passive Listening: Hearing without actively responding or engaging.

Perception: The process of selecting, organizing, and interpreting sensory information.

Phatic Communication: Small talk or social niceties that serve to establish or maintain social relationships.

Pitch: The highness or lowness of one's voice.

Prejudice: A preconceived opinion not based on reason or actual experience.

Propaganda: Information, often biased or misleading, used to promote a particular point of view.

Proxemics: The study of personal space and spatial relationships in communication.

Public Speaking: Delivering a speech or presentation to a live audience.

Rate of Speech: How fast or slow a person speaks.

Rhetoric: The art of persuasive speaking or writing.

Rumors: Unverified information spreading from person to person.

Self-disclosure: Sharing personal information with others.

Semantic Noise: Distortions in the meaning of words used in communication.

Semiotics: The study of signs and symbols and their interpretation.

Simile: A figure of speech involving the comparison of one thing with another using "like" or "as."

Slang: Informal and nonstandard language often used within a specific social group.

Socratic Dialogue: A form of cooperative argumentative dialogue to stimulate critical thinking.

Stereotype: A widely held but oversimplified and generalized belief about a group of people.

Subtext: The underlying or implied meaning in communication.

Sympathy: Feeling compassion or sorrow for someone else's situation.

Tone: The emotional quality of a person's voice.

Transactional Model of Communication: A model that views communication as a dynamic, two-way process.

Verbal Communication: The use of spoken or written words to convey messages.