

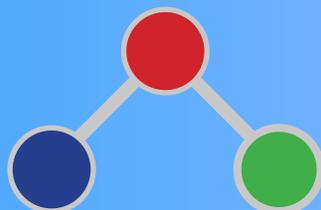
An Introductory Textbook

to the

Field of Communication

*A Critical Study*

*James J. Sosnoski*



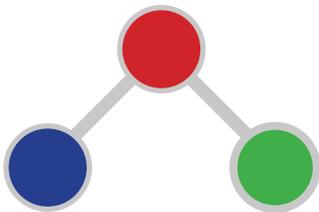
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## 0.1 - Acknowledgements

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This project would never have been completed without my indefatigable research assistant, Joseph Hunt, whose careful, thorough, and insightful contributions to the data gathering process were indispensable.

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## 0.3 - Prologue

In the last few years two notable studies of undergraduate education in the United States were published: Richard Arum and Josipa Roksa's *Academically Adrift* (2011), as well as Richard P. Keeling and Richard H. Hersh's *We're Losing Our Minds* (2011). As their titles imply, these authors find undergraduate learning substandard. Both books were influenced by an earlier high-profile study of undergraduate education, *Our Underachieving Colleges* (2006), by Derek Bok, a former president of Harvard. Among other learning deficiencies, these three studies underscore the difficulty, if not inability, that typical American University undergraduates have with identifying and analyzing complex problems. A central issue is that undergraduates rely on memorizing information to pass tests without understanding the underlying conceptions (Bok, 2006, p. 132).

The circumstance that students are able to pass courses in which they do not understand the basic conceptions can be explained by their memorizing them without comprehending their underlying meanings. For example: in his memoir "Surely You're Joking, Mr. Feynman!" the Nobel-prizewinning physicist describes his experience teaching a group of physics students in Brazil about polarized light. He had them conduct an experiment with strips of Polaroid.

But then I asked them how one could tell the absolute direction of polarization, from a single piece of Polaroid.

They hadn't any idea.

I knew this took a certain amount of ingenuity, so I gave them a hint: "Look at the light reflected from the bay outside."

Nobody said anything.

Then I said, "Have you ever heard of Brewster's Angle?"

"Yes, sir! Brewster's Angle is the angle at which light reflected from a medium with an index of refraction is completely polarized."

"And which way is the light polarized when it's reflected?"

"The light is polarized perpendicular to the plane of reflection, sir." Even now, I have to think about it; they knew it cold! They even knew the tangent of the angle equals the index!

I said, "Well?"

Still nothing. They had just told me that the light reflected from a medium with an index, such as the bay outside, was polarized; they had even told me which way it was polarized.

I said, "Look at the bay outside, through the polaroid. Now turn the polaroid."

"Ooh, it's polarized!" they said.

After a lot of investigation, I finally figured out that the students had memorized everything, but they didn't know what anything meant. When they heard "light that is reflected from a medium with an index," they didn't know that it meant a material such as water. [...] Everything was entirely memorized, yet nothing had been translated into meaningful words.

Full article: <http://www.theawl.com/2013/01/venture-capitals-massive-terrible-idea-for-the-future-of-college?src=longread>

Contemporary textbooks are designed to make it easy for students to memorize information. The extent to which textbooks mislead students about the conduct of inquiry and substitute memorization for conceptualization suggests that we need to analyze the textbooks used in the field of Communication. This task is not routinely undertaken. Yet, if we consider that great artists and athletes begin their careers in childhood and are coached extensively for years to improve their performances, it makes sense to examine the training of communication scholars and the exercises they are asked to perform. To this end, I have chosen to analyze the twelve editions of Joseph A. DeVito's *Human Communication: The Basic Course*.

*The reasons for choosing Human Communication: The Basic Course as the texts to be analyzed.*

The textbook series chosen for analysis—Joseph A DeVito's *Human Communication: The Basic Course*—has proved very marketable. This textbook was first published in 1978 under the title *Communicology* which was changed in 1985 to the more familiar title. Twelve editions have been published during the period from 1978 to 2012. DeVito has authored several other introductory textbooks, *The Interpersonal Communication Book* (12 Eds.), *Messages: Building Interpersonal Comm Skills* (6 Eds.), *Essentials of Human Communication* (7 Eds.), and *Interpersonal Messages: Communication and Relationship Skills* (2 Eds.). He has authored *Brainstorms: How to Think more Creatively about Communication* (1996) and *Psycholinguistics* (1971b). He has edited several collections: *Communication: Concepts & Processes* (1971a), *Language: Concepts & Processes* (1973), and *The Communication Handbook: A Dictionary* (1986). Many of the concepts in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* also appear in the other texts as they are all closely related.

DeVito earned his PhD from the University of Illinois in 1964 just a decade after Wilbur Schramm left for Stanford. He has served on the editorial boards of the *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, *Communication Monographs*, *Communication Education*, *Communication Quarterly*, *Journal of Communication*, and *A Review of General Semantics*. He has also published numerous articles on communication.

In sum, DeVito's texts have been used by countless teachers and students of communication.

James J. Sosnoski, Chicago, IL 2014

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## 0.4 - Introduction

This study is, in many respects, a “pilot” study of communication textbooks that calls for research into communication textbooks in general. Just as the members of tenure and promotion committees are not inclined to regard textbooks as significant publications, the editors of journals and scholarly presses that publish communication research are not likely to look favorably on publishing research on textbooks. I regard the lack of interest in the instruments of training communication scholars and scientists to be a serious flaw in academic cultures. If it is a serious matter to evaluate candidates for membership in a profession, it is a logically prior matter to evaluate the instruments of instruction that prepare them for membership. It is the equivalent of discounting the impact training has on athletic performances.

### *Thomas Kuhn's View of Textbooks Reconsidered*

In *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*, Thomas Kuhn argued that textbooks disguise the conceptual changes that characterize scientific creativity:

Both scientists and laymen take much of their image of creative scientific activity from an authoritative source that systematically disguises—partly for important functional reasons—the existence and significance of scientific revolutions. .... As the source of authority, I have in mind principally textbooks of science.... They address themselves to an already articulated body of problems, data, and theory, most often to the particular set of paradigms to which the scientific community is committed at the time they are written. Textbooks themselves aim to communicate the vocabulary and syntax of a contemporary scientific language. [They] record the stable outcome of past revolutions and thus display the bases of the current normal-scientific tradition. To fulfill their function they need not provide authentic information about the way in which those bases were first recognized and then embraced by the profession. In the case of textbooks, at least, there are even good reasons why, in these matters, they should be systematically misleading. (1962, pp. 136-137)

Kuhn’s observation, in my view, applies to the textbook series *Human Communication: The Basic Course*. These textbooks offer a "misleading" view of Communication Study. Kuhn's comment was made in 1962, but, in a digital era, I do not believe that there are "good reasons" why conceptual change can be neglected. Since Introductions to Communication Study are, *ipso facto*, introductions to communication research, the consequence is that they hinder rather than advance students' development as researchers because they obscure the complexities of conceptual change that characterizes research. Moreover, in many if not most of these Introductions, the prevalent pedagogical tactic of memorizing the "already articulated body of problems, data, and theory ... to which the scientific community is committed" is not conducive to becoming proficient in the conduct of scientific inquiry.

The premise of this study is that it is not possible to understand the complexities of conceptualization in the conduct of research by memorizing the definitions of the concepts used in it. A correlative premise is that the application of research conceptions to everyday situations results in a common sense understanding of the conceptions. It is my contention that the textbook series *Human Communication: The Basic Course* is designed to facilitate the memorization of the concepts it includes and that its learning tools (exercises, tests, application instructions) are oriented toward familiar student experiences rather than to the situations that communication researchers have methodically investigated.

An implication of this study is that, if the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series is typical of Introductions to Communication Studies, such textbooks contribute to the ineffectiveness of undergraduate education noted by recent researchers (Arum & Roksa, 2011; Bok, 2006; Keeling & Hersh, 2011).

### *Logistical Discourse Analysis as the Method of Analyzing these Textbooks*

There are many forms of discourse analysis. The type of discourse analysis used in this study is based on conceptual logistics—a theoretical model of conceptual change (sclcr.com). Logistical Discourse Analysis tracks changes in conceptions by tracking the addition and subtraction of conceptions in the evolution of a viewpoint on a particular subject

Although concepts often retain their names throughout a text or a corpus of texts, their meaning changes when the concepts to which they are related change. In *Human Communication: The Basic Course*, for example, the conception of conflict changes several times:

2nd Ed. Conflict: An extreme form of competition in which a person attempts to bring his or her rival to surrender; a situation in which one person's behaviors are directed at preventing or interfering with or harming another individual. (1982, p. 559)

4th Ed. Conflict: A disagreement between or among individuals. (1988, G-4)

7th Ed. Conflict: A difference of opinion or disagreement. In popular usage, an extreme form of competition in which a person tries to bring a rival to surrender; a situation in which one person's behaviors are directed at preventing, interfering with, or harming another individual See Interpersonal conflict. (1997, p. 431)

10th Ed. Conflict: An extreme form of competition in which interdependent persons perceive their respective goals to be incompatible and see each other as interfering with their own attainment of desired goals. (2006, G-3)

In this example, the differences are considerable. Initially, conflict is construed as "an extreme form of competition," which is later modified to "disagreement." Then both senses reappear in the 7th edition but the initial sense of the term is now construed as a "popular usage." In the 10th edition, "an extreme form of competition" is no longer identified as a "popular usage" and a technical expression, "interdependent," is now linked to it. Further, the persons involved are now considered to "perceive" each other as "interfering with their own goals."

Logistical discourse analysis (LDA) is designed to track such changes in the meaning of conceptions, their relationships to other conceptions, the hierarchical categorization (which concepts are contained in other concepts), and the additions and omissions of conceptions. Concepts are tracked not only within a discourse but also from discourse to discourse. For example, from edition to edition as in the example of the changes in the conception of conflict from one edition of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* to another. At the same time, LDA can be used to track the repetition of conceptions over time revealing the extent to which the conceptions are up to date. Using WordNet, a large lexical database of English at Princeton University in which nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are grouped into sets of cognitive synonyms (synsets), LDA can also be employed to identify the lexical and semantic relations among concepts. This is particularly important in the comparison of statements in different texts.

As Kuhn points out in the passage from *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* quoted at the beginning of this Introduction, textbooks tend to disguise the conceptual changes that characterize scientific inquiry. This "systematically misleading" aspect of textbooks, he argued, hinders learning about "creative scientific activity." With analytic tools such as LDA, conceptual changes can be brought into view and thereby make students more aware of the complex processes of scientific inquiry. Kuhn's view of textbooks applies to *Human Communication: The Basic Course* insofar as the series disguises conceptual change.

### *Logistical Discourse Analysis Templates*

When analyzing the content of texts, some form of coding is usually involved.

Coding is 'the process whereby raw data are systematically transformed and aggregated into units which permit precise description of relevant content characteristics' (Holsti, 1969, p. 94). That is, it is the processes in which recording units are identified and linked to the conceptual categories. The rules by which this is accomplished serve as the operational bond between the investigator's data and his theory and hypotheses. If coding is performed by humans, it is necessary that the coder is able to accurately identify the recording units (e.g., clauses). The coder also has to apply the concept categories correctly. (Popping, 2000, p. 19)

According to Popping a textual unit is identified by the particular *category* to which it belongs. For example, to analyze an argument requires the category “argument” (a model of argument structures). The category argument links various statements to each other by identifiable linguistic devices, for example the connectives: given, if, then.

GIVEN statement  $a = b$

IF statement  $b = c$

THEN statement  $a = c$ .

This discursive structure can be used as an analytic category to identify "arguments." In the process of analyzing a text, such categories are used as "lenses" to identify discursive structures. In effect, the category is a template to which the text is matched. Analyzing a textbook series such as *Human Communication: The Basic Course* requires similar semantic templates to identify matches with textual features. The principal textual features that LDA seeks to identify are conceptions understood as a semantic unit—aggregates of related concepts.

LDA draws upon frame semantics for its principal analytic category (Fillmore, 2006). In Fillmore’s view,

... a speaker produces words and constructions in a text as tools for a particular activity, namely to evoke a particular understanding: the hearer's task is to figure out the activity those tools were intended for, namely to invoke that understanding. That is, words and constructions evoke an understanding, or more specifically a frame; a hearer invokes a frame upon hearing an utterance in order to understand it. (Croft & Cruse, 2004, p. 8)

In the context of the analysis of textbooks that introduce students to a field of study, I focus primarily on frames (conceptions) that function as instructions for learning the concepts central to research in that field.

As an instance of a discourse unit functioning as a set of instructions, consider a passage that gives persons directions, for example:

To find the Chicago Art Institute from Union Station, head north on Canal Street until you reach Monroe Street. Turn right onto Monroe and walk 8 blocks until you reach Michigan Avenue. Cross Michigan Avenue and the Art Institute will be just south of the intersection of Monroe and Michigan.

In John Searle's revision of Austin's taxonomy of speech acts, an instruction is a "directive"—"The illocutionary point of these [speech acts] consists in the fact that they are attempts ... by the speaker to get the hearer to do something" (1979, p. 13). From this perspective instructions are statements that function as a set of directions.

Instructions, like directions, are governed by particular goals. In the directions above, for instance, the goal is to get from Union Station to the Art Institute. In this respect instructions are action statements ("head north," "turn right," "cross Michigan Avenue") which are correlative to specific performances required to reach the goal. As Anthony Kenny notes, "One performance differs from another in accordance with the differences between the states of affairs brought about: performances are specified by their ends" (1963, p. 178). An instruction, then, can be construed as an action statement directing persons to perform acts to achieve a particular goal.

In the context of learning theory, the goal is a state in which the learner can do things that he or she could not do initially or believe things he or she did not believe initially (2010; Driscoll, 2000; Fink, 2003; Reif, 2008, p. 3). For example, because of their perceptual experience of the environment they inhabit, children believe that the world is flat. Coming to believe that the world is round is a major learning experience. In the context of textbooks that introduce students to a field, the goal is a state in which beliefs developed by researchers in a field replace the common-sense beliefs students hold about a particular phenomenon.

Reif diagrams this transformation:

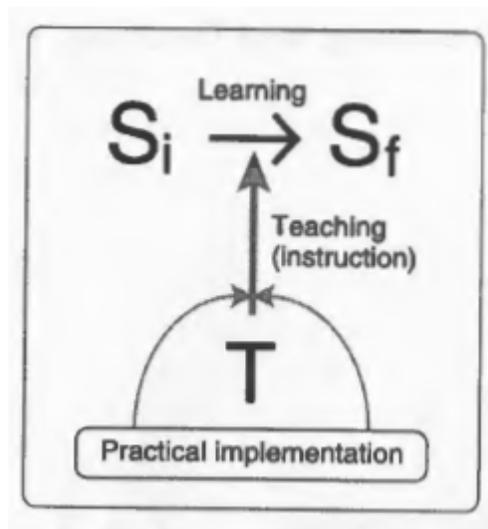


Figure 1

Learning is a transformative process ( $\rightarrow$ ) in which persons, usually with the assistance of instruction ( $\uparrow$ ), change an initial state ( $S_i$ ) of belief to a final state ( $S_f$ ) in which the new belief enables them to do things they previously were not capable of. In this scenario the instruction is provided by a teacher (T). [Note: Two factors can be obstacles to the desired transformation: the prior knowledge persons have about the phenomenon being studied ( $S_i$ ) and the difficulties involved in implementing the new knowledge.]

Reif's diagram visualizes the template I use in analyzing *Human Communication: The Basic Course*. For example, consider the following definition as a set of directives about conceptualizing "interpersonal communication."

**Interpersonal communication** is communication between two persons or among a small group of persons. Most often, the communication emphasized in the study of interpersonal communication is communication of a continuing personal (rather than temporary and impersonal) nature; it's communication between or among intimates or those involved in close relationships— friends, romantic partners, family, and coworkers, for example. These relationships are interdependent, meaning that the actions of one person have some impact on the other person; whatever one person does influences the other person. (HCBC, 2012, p. 435).

This definition functions as a set of instructions about how to conceptualize interpersonal communication. The instructions ( $\uparrow$ ), as I mentioned earlier, are frames in a semantic framework. The first instructional frame asks you to connect the conceptual frame of communication with the familiar conceptual frame of two persons or with a small group of persons. The second instructional frame asks you to recognize the *personal* rather than impersonal nature in framing this type of communication as well as its *continuing* rather than temporary duration—elements of the situation which are not usually foregrounded. The third instructional frame asks you to consider the relationship among the participants as *interdependent*. The initial belief invoked is a common-sense view of communication among two or more individuals ( $S_i$ ). The second and third instructional frames ask the reader to blend the first set of concepts with three others—personal ("intimate") rather than impersonal, continuing rather than temporary, and interdependent ("meaning that the actions of one person have some impact on the other person"); this interdependence results in a belief ( $S_r$ ) that considers factors not typically foregrounded in a commonplace conception of communication among persons. The cognitive process ( $\rightarrow$ ) of going from clause to clause parallels being directed to go from street to street to street in the earlier example of directions to the Chicago Art Institute.

Reif's model of a learning transformation applied to DeVito's definition of interpersonal communication shows that the definition directs students to alter their everyday conception of interpersonal communication. This, it needs to be noted, is a necessary but not sufficient condition of significant learning. As in the case Feynman's students, the litmus test is to apply this concept to a research situation. As I noted above, two factors can be obstacles to the desired transformation: the prior knowledge persons have about the phenomenon being studied ( $S_i$ ) and the difficulties involved in implementing the new knowledge.

In sum, to focus the logistical analysis of research texts, I used a model of learning as a cognitive process derived from cognitive science research (Reif, 2008) together with a model of conceptualizing (Fauconnier & Turner, 2002; Thagard & Findlay, 2012)<sup>1</sup> In addition to these two cognitive models, I employed a model of a learning environment designed to foster the ability to conceptualize complex ideas (Ambrose, 2010; Driscoll, 2000; Fink, 2003). These authors offer recommendations about creating learning environments that foster complex conceptualizing. I used their recommendations as ideal instructional frames taken collectively as a Learning Transformation template (LT). It consists of the elements Reif identifies and their relations in the diagram above. The "box" in which the transformation

is contained, in the LT template, symbolizes a learning environment. At the core of this template is the transformation of declarative knowledge (knowing about) and its relation to procedural knowledge (knowing how to use). I used the LT template as a benchmark to evaluate the instructional frames in *Human Communication: The Basic Course*.

Analyzing the coverage of conceptions in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* required a different template, one that matches the conceptions in the textbook series to the range of conceptions used in the study of communication. The template I developed for this purpose is a composite of recent communication theory texts (CTT).<sup>2</sup> I used the CTT template as a standard to measure the coverage of *Human Communication: The Basic Course*.

### *The Structure of the Chapters*

In this study the chapters are structured in the following way: The title of each chapter is a “rhetorical” question beginning with “should.” Given the content of the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* textbooks, the underlying question is “should this be the standard” for Introductions to Communication Studies? The questions governing each chapter are sequenced according to priority. For example, the question of the purposes of an Introduction to Communication Studies, is “logically” prior to an analysis of its contents. Thus the answer to one question leads to another question. The questions are raised from the point of view that Introductions to Communication Studies by definition introduce their users to the academic field of Communication Studies (Communication Studies).

The body of the chapter is divided into six sections:

1. CONTEXT OF QUESTION: to focus the analysis, the question posed in the chapter title is placed in the context of the situation to which it pertains—teaching undergraduates in an introduction to Communication Studies course.
2. METHOD OF ANSWERING IT: a description of the data LDA analyzes to answer it;
3. FINDINGS: a summary of the results of the logistical discourse analysis;
4. DISCUSSION: a discussion comparing the templates with the discourse of the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* textbooks and noting the implications;
5. FUTURE RESEARCH: a set of questions about Introductions to Communication Studies raised by the findings; and
6. DATA APPENDIX: the relevant statements from the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* corpus (and, where called for, correlative statements from the templates).<sup>3</sup>

I used this framework to organize the results of the analyses.

## Overview of Chapters

### *An Introductory Textbook to the Field of Communication: A Case Study*

#### *Chapter 1: What Are the Purposes of Producing Introductory Textbooks in Communication Studies?*

Textbooks have creators but they also have users. Thus, if we are analyzing textbooks, we need to ask: "What are the purposes of producing Introductions to Communication Studies?"

Learning in schools and colleges is purposely aimed at some knowledge domain. But this statement contains an important ambiguity—is it knowing what something is or knowing how to do something? If you took a knitting class, you would expect to learn how to knit. On the other hand, if you took a history class, you would expect to learn about what happened at a particular time—e.g., the American Civil War. You would not expect to learn how to conduct the civil war. Similarly, if you took a class in sociology, you would not expect to learn how to be sociable. What about chemistry classes? If you took a class in chemistry, it might be to learn about chemicals but it might also be to learn how to combine chemicals to produce certain effects. Classes in communication are ambiguous in the sense that you might expect to learn what communication is or you might expect to learn how to communicate. Or, you might expect that learning what communication is would have the secondary effect of learning how to communicate.

As one would expect, the corpus of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* textbooks state their purposes, usually in a prefatory chapter. This information establishes the educational goals of the textbooks. The first chapter of this study accordingly provides a framework for the subsequent chapters. It sets the agenda for the analyses in subsequent chapters of the study. [Note: Stating goals is not evidence that they are pursued or achieved.]

Once the pedagogical goals of a textbook have been identified, the content appropriate to achieving them can be identified which leads to the next question.

#### *Chapter 2: What Should Introductions to Communication Studies Introduce?*

An Introduction to Communication Studies by definition is a book about the study of communication. Assuming that "the study of communication" is a synonym for communication research, then the content of an Introduction to the field would reflect the major research studies that have been conducted prior to the publication of the textbook.

The theoretical concepts in Communication Studies, in Frederick's Reif's view, are declarative knowledge—"factual knowledge about a situation, and on the basis of this knowledge particular tasks can be performed which he refers to as procedural knowledge" (2008, p. 32 ff.). This chapter focuses on whether the connection between declarative and procedural knowledge in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* is nominal or usable. In Reif's view, "There is an important distinction between performance that is *usable* (enabling the performance of significant tasks) and performance that is just *nominal* (enabling merely naming some things or talking about them) (2008, p. 17).

As mentioned earlier, Reif's view of the correlation between declarative and procedural knowledge is based on a conception of learning as an important transformation process whereby an initial cognitive state is changed to one in which students can do things that they could not do initially (2008, pp. 4-5). The role of the teacher and thus of the textbook he or she uses is to assist in this transformation. In the context of a knowledge domain, a part of this process is to help students move from not knowing "x" about communication to knowing it. This aspect of learning is usually assessed by various tests aimed at establishing that the student does know what "x" means. Tests assessing knowing what a conception means, in Reif's model, are only half the story. The litmus test is being able to use the concepts involved appropriately in the situations to which they refer.

The underlying assumption in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series that communication theories can be applied to learning how to become a skillful communicator raises the question of whether the cognitive abilities involved are commensurate. Reif describes how to analyze a good performance. He begins by posing the question: "What kinds of knowledge and thought processes are needed for good performance in scientific or similar complex domains-and what instructional methods can be devised to facilitate students' learning of such knowledge and thinking?" (2008, pp. 2-3). In this context, not only do the two types of knowledge need to be in the same semantic network, but the cognitive abilities in the two domains have to be correlative. After examining the semantic correlations of the pairing of the two types of knowledge, I examined the extent to which the cognitive abilities required for the recommended procedures were correlative to the concepts involved. For instance, the procedure of "communicating your feelings" is not correlative to the concept of the "irreversibility" of communications in the sense that the concept cannot provide guidelines for the procedure. (See: HCBC 2012, p. 20)

A related issue is that, since the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series emphasizes learning how to become more skillful communicators, the question of whether the textbook series is oriented toward the personal goals of students or the disciplinary goals of the field of communication study comes to the forefront.

### *Chapter 3: Should communication textbooks be oriented toward student interests or toward representing the field of Communication Studies?*

The *Human Communication: The Basic Course* textbooks, at least from the 7th through to the 12th editions, have a dual purpose: to provide foundational knowledge of Communication Studies and to recommend ways of becoming better communicators. The dual purposes are related to the dual audiences: communication majors and non-majors. The analysis in this chapter focuses on the issue of whether attempting to write a single text to serve both audiences is viable.

The answer that *Human Communication: The Basic Course* gives to the question of whether Introductions to Communication Studies should be oriented toward communication competence or toward the field of communication research is that it should be oriented toward both. This raises the question, can an Introduction to Communication Studies cover both?

### *Chapter 4: What Should an Introductory Textbook to Communication Study Cover?*

In this chapter I shift the focus of analysis from the relations between declarative and procedural knowledge to the scope of the knowledge that needs to be learned. From a pedagogical perspective, information overload applies to textbooks. They have a property we can call scope. They range over a content area. The question of the scope or coverage of a textbook—how much of the area is surveyed or how many skills are discussed—is a critical pedagogical issue. Can everything be covered? Most of it? A selective coverage? And how are these parameters determined?

In order to delimit the vast terrain of communication, the scope of communication study can be narrowed to include only current research. I compared the research concepts and areas included in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series to the CTT template which is based on the research conceptions included in current textbooks on communication theory together with the research areas listed on the NCA and ICA websites

The issue of coverage can be viewed from another perspective which leads to the title question of the next chapter: "How much of a lag is tolerable between the publication of research and its inclusion in textbooks?"

## *Chapter 5: How Much of a Lag is Tolerable between the Publication of Research and its Inclusion in Textbooks?*

If Introductions to Communication Studies are surveys of the research that has been conducted, how much of a lag is tolerable between the publication of a research project and its inclusion in textbooks? Granting that online textbooks have a huge advantage over printed textbooks with respect to being up-to-date, the question needs to be asked since most university courses still require printed textbooks. Given the demands of producing hard copies of textbooks, it is certain that a one or two year lag would be unfeasible. Assuming that a three year lag is about as good as it can get but that four is more likely, the question becomes: do Introductions to Communication Studies such as *Human Communication: The Basic Course* include research published within four years of their release? Put concretely, do textbooks published in 2012 include accounts of research published in 2008?

In an earlier chapter, I asked what intellectual performances should be expected of Communication Studies students. To meet these expectations, textbooks typically include various learning tools. *Human Communication: The Basic Course* includes several different types which leads to the next question.

## *Chapter 6: Should "learning tools" that aid memorization be included in Introductions to Communication Studies textbooks?*

Learning is a complex intellectual task. Like most tasks, it requires more than one tool. If you are going to build a bookcase, you need more than a hammer. Depending on your situation, various instruments are needed: saws, measuring tapes, clamps, drills, etc. In this context, we might construe a textbook as a kind of learning toolbox which contains a variety of tools to aid in learning.

Of course, having the wrong tools could create obstacles to the project. In building a bookcase, sledgehammers are too awkward, jigsaws too fragile and chain saws too imprecise. Having the right tools is a key to a successful woodworking project like a bookcase. In the light of our analogy—textbooks are like toolboxes—the question arises: Should "learning tools" that aid memorization be included in Introductions to Communication Studies? Should they include glossaries, lists of key terms, objective tests, etc.?

## *Epilogue: Behind Closed Doors*

Discourse analyses cannot answer every question about Introductions to Communication Studies. Disagreements between authors and editors are sunk in the depths of unrecorded negotiations and are unsalvageable.

Each of the following chapters proposes answers to the questions raised in this introduction. The analysis of the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* corpus is offered as a case study of an Introduction to Communication Studies currently being used with a thirty-four year history of revised editions. My analysis raises the question: is the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series typical of Introductions to Communication Studies?

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Key to Abbreviations:

Communication Studies: communication studies

CTT: Communication Theory Textbooks

*Human Communication: The Basic Course*: Human Communication: the Basic Course

ICommunication Studiess: Introductions to communication studies

LDA logistical discourse analysis

LT: Learning Theory

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## Notes

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<sup>1</sup> There are five inter-related cognitive models of learning used in this analysis drawn from the recent researches of cognitive scientists and learning theorists. Paul Thagard's *Conceptual Revolutions* provides a model of conceptual change in scientific inquiry (1992). In "Concepts and Conceptual Systems" he outlines what would be required for a full representation of a concept (28). In *The Cognitive Science of Science* (2012), he describes scientific creativity as a process of convolution. In *The Way We Think: Conceptual Blending and the Mind's Hidden Complexities* (2002), Gilles Fauconnier and Mark Turner outline the process of conceptual blending (which Thagard relates to convolution) as a model of the way we think. Fauconnier's early work on "mental spaces" (1994, 1999) is strongly linked to Ronald Langacker's model of conceptualization in his *Foundations of Cognitive Grammar* (2002b), *Grammar and Conceptualization* (2000), and *Concept, Image, and Symbol: the Cognitive Basis of Grammar* (2002a), which delineate the relationship of this cognitive activity and its expression in language. Frederic Reif's *Applying cognitive science to education: thinking and learning in scientific and other complex domains* (2008) provides models of the learning process as an intellectual performance involving declarative and procedural knowledge. He also offers accounts of "Producing Instruction to Foster Learning" (377-399) and "Implementing Practical Instruction." Gunther Kress in *Multimodality: A social semiotic Approach to Contemporary Communication, Multimodal Teaching and Learning* (with Carey Jewitt, Jon Ogborn, and Charalampos Tsatsarelis) (2001), *Multimodal Discourse: The Modes and Media of Contemporary Communication* (2001) provides a model of multimodal learning through discourse. L. Dee Fink's *Creating Significant Learning Experiences* (2003) provides a correlative model of designing a course as a significant learning environment, that is, as an environment that fosters the cognitive abilities required in learning. Ambrose, et. al.'s *How Learning Works: 7 Research-Based Principles for Smart Teaching* (2010) synthesizes contemporary learning theory.

<sup>2</sup> The texts forming the CTT template were authored by Em Griffin (2012), Stephen W. Littlejohn & Karen A. Foss (2009, 2011), Katherine Miller (2005), Richard West and Lynn H. Turner (2010) organized in terms of the research areas listed on the NCA and ICA websites.

<sup>3</sup> The "DATA APPENDIX" section was added to each chapter because the size of the data collected makes the statements of the findings unwieldy, thus difficult to read and in order to keep the data easily available to readers by hyperlinks connecting it to the findings.

## 1.0 - What Are the Purposes of Producing Introductory Textbooks in Communication Studies?

In this chapter I match the stated purposes of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* with the taxonomy of significant learning goals from *Creating Significant Learning Experiences* (2003, p. 60). This taxonomy is a summary of recent research on the objectives of undergraduate education. “Each category of significant learning contains several more specific kinds of learning that are related in some way and have a distinct value for the learner” (2003, p. 31). As a comprehensive and inter-related checklist of significant learning goals, this taxonomy provides a template of learning theory against which the purposes of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* can be matched.

This comparison should be construed as a preliminary framework for the analyses in subsequent chapters. To state a goal in the introduction of a textbook is not evidence of its being pursued. However, statements of purpose provide points of departure for analysis.

### 1.1 - CONTEXT OF THE TITLE QUESTION

Analyzing a book's purpose is not a straight-forward task. Books not only have authors and genres but they also have producers and users. Numerous persons with various roles contribute to making them. Thus, if we are analyzing textbooks, we need to ask: “What are the purposes of producing *Introductions to Communication Studies*?” On the one side are the producers: the textbook company, editors, of various kinds with various responsibilities, and authors. On the other side are the users: teachers and students. As in any other production, the developers of an artifact make money only if potential users purchase their products. So, we can stipulate that the primary purpose of the production of textbooks is to sell them which requires making them marketable. This obvious fact raises the question: what makes a textbook marketable? From a methodological point of view, I answered this question *de facto* by analyzing a textbook series that has proved to be quite marketable—twelve editions of Joseph A DeVito's *Human Communication: The Basic Course*.

Another complication in analyzing the purposes of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* is: how can we know that teachers use the textbooks in accord with what they are designed to do? Even if it was possible to conduct interviews with teachers about why and how they use particular textbooks, the results would not contribute to this study, which, from a methodological point of view, is an analysis of textbooks, not of teachers. *Human Communication: The Basic Course* is designed so that students can learn about Communication Studies and learn how to communicate competently. All twelve editions of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* offer both of these possibilities. How and why a particular teacher used an edition of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* is an entirely different issue.<sup>1</sup>

I also assume that what satisfies teachers about an Introduction to Communication Studies is not likely to be identical to what satisfies their students. However, what satisfies students is not at issue. Granting

it is likely that some students want to learn about the study of communication and that others only want to earn an A grade, the focus of this analyses is on the discourse of the textbook.

Yet another complication is that a textbook's purpose needs to match the purpose of the study of communication; otherwise it could not be an Introduction to Communication Studies. But to ask: what is the purpose of Communication Studies opens a can of worms. To avoid assigning the authority of answering this question to a person or a group of persons and to avoid the fact that the purpose of Communication Studies has changed with the advent of communication technologies, the question can only be answered nominally. The purpose of communication study, in this context, is to study communication. By "study," I mean "consider in detail and subject to an analysis" [WordNet]. And, by "communication," I mean "the activity of communicating" [WordNet].

Since this textbook series features both communication research and practical communication skills, it is important to recognize that the purpose of communication research, in some contexts, is to improve communication skills/processes. How the relationship between research and skills is understood is a key issues in the analysis of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* that follows this chapter.

Finally, it is important to remember that to state a goal in the Introduction of a textbook is not evidence of its being pursued.

## 1.2 - METHOD OF ANSWERING THE TITLE QUESTION

As I indicated in the Introduction to this study, my basic method is logistical discourse analysis (LDA). In this part of my analysis, the texts in which DeVito articulates the purposes of a given edition of *Human Communication: The Basic Course*, are the primary data. These texts are typically a group of sentences in the Prefaces or Introductions of *Human Communication: The Basic Course*. I examined the statements of purpose chronologically from the first edition of 1978 to the current edition of 2012, comparing each statement in the sequence and noting the various changes in the conception of the purpose of *Human Communication: The Basic Course*.

I used Fink's list of "Major Educational Goals and Significant Learning" as a coding template in analyzing the statements of purpose in the various editions of *Human Communication: The Basic Course*. Fink offers a summary of the types of significant learning goals "advocated in the general literature on teaching and learning" (2003, p. 37) and presents them as a taxonomy of "published statements on what students and should learn at the college level" (2003, p. 35).

[Note: the codes referring to specific learning goals are listed in bold at the beginning of each statement.]

### **Six Types of Significant Learning Goals:**

#### **A. Learning How to Learn:**

**A1.** How to be a better student: Learning how to engage in self-regulated learning or deep learning

**A2.** How to inquire and construct knowledge: Learning how to engage in the scientific method,

historical method, and other forms of inquiry

**A3.** How to pursue self-directed or intentional learning: Developing a learning agenda and plan; becoming an intentional learner; becoming skilled in autodidaxy (the ability to direct one's own learning and life); being a reflective practitioner

**B. Caring:**

**B1.** Wanting to be a good student: Wanting to have a high GPA or be an honors student

**B2.** Becoming excited about a particular activity or subject: For example, developing a keen interest in bird watching, reading history, or listening to music

**B3.** Developing a commitment to live right: For example, deciding to learn and follow Covey's seven habits of highly effective people.

**C. Human Dimension:**

**C1.** Leadership: Learning how to be an effective leader

**C2.** Ethics, character building: Developing character and living by ethical principles

**C3.** Self-authorship: Learning how to create and take responsibility for one's own life

**C4.** Multicultural education: Becoming culturally sensitive in one's interactions with others

**C5.** Working as a member of a team: Knowing how to contribute to a team

**C6.** Citizenship: Being a responsible citizen of one's local community, nation state, and other political entity

**C7.** Serving others (local, national, world): Contributing to the well-being of others at multiple levels of society

**C8.** Environmental ethics: Having ethical principles in relation to the nonhuman world

**D. Integration:**

**D1.** Interdisciplinary learning: Connecting different disciplines and perspectives

**D2.** Learning communities: Connecting different people Learning and living/working: Connecting different realms of life'

**E. Application:**

**E1.** Critical thinking: Analyzing and critiquing issues and situations

**E2.** Practical thinking: Developing problem-solving and decision-making capabilities

**E3.** Creativity: Creating new ideas, products, and perspectives

**E4.** Managing complex projects: Being able to coordinate and sequence multiple tasks in a single project

**E5.** Performance skills: Developing capabilities in such areas as foreign language, communication, operating technology, performing in the fine arts, sports

**F. Foundational Knowledge:<sup>2</sup>**

**F1.** Conceptual understanding: Developing a full understanding of the concepts associated with a subject to a degree that allows explanations, predictions, and so on.

(Fink, 2003, p. 37)

**Table 1<sup>3</sup>**

The comparison between the significant goals in Fink's taxonomy and the stated purposes in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series, as I have already mentioned, is intended to provide a preliminary framework for the analyses in subsequent chapters. However, even though stating a goal in the introduction of a textbook is not evidence of its being pursued, identifying the stated goals of the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series helps focus subsequent analyses because the statements of purpose, in effect, establish the conceptions that structure the discourse in the textbooks. If a goal is "to provide the student with the best—the most insightful, reliable, and recent—of what is known about communication" (*Human Communication: The Basic Course*, DeVito, 1991, pp. xv, th

edition), then one would expect a delineation of what is known at the present time about communication. Further, the statement identifies criteria for selecting the suitable knowledge—best, most insightful, reliable, and recent. These criteria imply conditions that "should" be specified in the text. Thus, the statement of purpose provides the analyst with conceptual "categories" that that would be appropriate to use as analytic lenses.

### 1.3 - FINDINGS:

Using Fink's taxonomy of major significant learning goals, I examined the purposes of each edition of the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series identified in their Introductions and marked the significant learning goals with the codes in table 1. In the first five editions, the stated purpose is:

In writing this book I tried to provide the student with the best—the most insightful, reliable, and recent—of what is known about communication. [F1] I have therefore drawn freely on all those who have contributed to the development of contemporary communication study—psychologists, sociologists, philosophers, linguists, and, of course, communication researchers and theorists themselves. After completing this text, the student should have a firm grasp of the theoretical and research foundations of communication [F1] and also should have developed significant new skills and improved old ones. [E5] I am concerned here with the student growing both in understanding communication and in mastering the arts of effective communication [E5] in a wide variety of contexts—interpersonal, small group, public, intercultural, and mass communication. (*Human Communication: The Basic Course*, DeVito, 1991, pp. xv, 5th edition)

From the 6<sup>th</sup> edition to the 12<sup>th</sup> the stated purpose is:

*Human Communication: The Basic Course* is designed for the introductory college course that offers comprehensive coverage of the fundamentals of human communication. The text covers classic approaches and new developments; it covers research and theory, [F1] but gives coordinate attention to communication skills. [E5] This book is addressed to students who have little or no prior background in studying communication. If this will be your only communication course, *Human Communication* will provide you with a thorough foundation in the theory, research, [F1] and skills [E5] of this essential liberal art. For those of you who will take additional and advanced courses, or who are beginning a major in communication, it will provide the significant foundation [F1] for more advanced and more specialized study. (*Human Communication: The Basic Course*, DeVito, 2012, p. xii, 12th edition)

The emphasis in the statements of purpose in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series is clearly on [F1] **Foundational Knowledge** (theoretical understanding) and **Application** (performance skills) [E5]. Only in the 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> editions are there statement of "caring": "I am concerned here with the student growing both in understanding communication [B1] and in mastering the arts of effective

communication in a wide variety of contexts-interpersonal, small group, public, intercultural, and mass communication." [B3] Such statements do not appear in the later editions

[GO TO DATA](#)

### *Additional goals emphasized in the Introductions and Prefaces:*

In the Prefaces and Introductions to the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* textbook series, various learning goals are implied in the statements about what is "featured" in the editions. The goals that correspond to the major significant learning goals identified in *Creating Significant Learning Experiences* that generally appear in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series are listed below:

- A2. How to inquire and construct knowledge (engaging in scientific method)
- C1. Leadership (learning to lead)
- C2. Ethics (living by ethical principles) [requires teaching them]
- C4. Multicultural education (cultural sensitivity)
- C5. Working as a member of a team (contributing to team goals)
- C8. Environmental ethics (having ethical principles about environs.)
- D2. Learning communities (connecting different realms of life)
- E1. Critical thinking (analyzing & critiquing)
- E2. Practical thinking (problem-solving, decision making)
- E3. Creativity (creating new ideas, products, perspectives)
- E4. Managing complex projects (coordinating multiple tasks in a single project)
- E5. Performance skills (developing capabilities in areas)
- F1. Conceptual understanding (can use concepts to describe, explain, predict)

Of the 22 significant goals identified by Fink, 13 are mentioned in the Prefaces and Introductions of the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series.

[GO TO DATA](#)

## 1.4 - DISCUSSION

Throughout the editions the purpose of the textbooks is construed as two-fold: on the one hand, to cover the field of communication study; and, on the other, to offer strategies to hone students' communication skills. These dual purposes match the two student target audiences: communication majors and non-majors who are fulfilling a requirement. What emerges is that, at least in part, *Human Communication: The Basic Course* is intended to survey the field of communication study [F1] and its applications [E5]. Their relationship is the focus of the next chapter.

The 11 other goals vary in significance. The ones that are developed in later chapters are:

- C1. Leadership (learning to lead)
- C2. Ethics (living by ethical principles) [requires teaching them]
- C4. Multicultural education (cultural sensitivity)
- C5. Working as a member of a team (contributing to team goals)

E2. Practical thinking (problem-solving, decision making)

*Several of the goals mentioned in the Introductions to Human Communication: The Basic Course are not developed in later chapters.*

**A2. How to inquire and construct knowledge (engaging in scientific method)**

**F1. Conceptual understanding (can use concepts to describe, explain, predict)**

By comparison with James Jaccard and Jacob Jacoby's *Theory Construction and Model Building Skills: A Practical Guide for Social Scientists* (2010),<sup>4</sup> *Human Communication: The Basic Course* does not offer instructions about how to conduct a scientific inquiry nor about constructing knowledge. Describing data, explaining its inter-relations, or predicting outcomes on the basis of an inquiry are not treated in *Human Communication: The Basic Course*. Admittedly an Introduction to Communication Studies is not intended to be used in courses on social science methodology. But an Introduction to Communication Studies could be expected to provide an introduction to the field it introduces including its methods.

**D1. Interdisciplinary learning (connecting different disciplines)** [Not included in *Human Communication: The Basic Course*]

**D2. Learning communities (connecting different realms of life)**

Fink describes learning communities in the following way:

Another closely related activity that has gathered strong interest in the 1990s is the creation of learning communities. This activity also has the general goal of helping students learn how to integrate different perspectives but focuses on the strategy of connecting diverse people as well as diverse disciplines.

These programs search for ways of creating new kinds of interaction between faculty, students, staff, and sometimes off-campus people. This is done in a variety of ways: Creating different residential arrangements Linking courses so that students take a set of courses together, often with team teaching as a corollary Bringing in outside people to do something with students on campus or sending students off campus to work with people in other contexts and environments. (2003, p. 43)

*Human Communication: The Basic Course* features an intercultural perspective which would expand student perspectives but Fink's goal comes closer to interdisciplinary learning by creating new kinds of interactions between faculty, students, staff, and off-campus people.

**E1. Critical thinking (analyzing & critiquing)**

For Fink, critical thinking involves analyzing and evaluating.

When college teachers want their students to learn how to analyze and evaluate something, they have a critical thinking goal. ... Science teachers want their students to analyze when they ask them to use previously explained concepts (such as energy conservation or plate tectonics) to explain (or to predict) what is happening (or will happen) to certain phenomena under particular circumstances. Then they ask the students individually or collectively to assess those explanations and predictions. (2003, p. 40)

I've already commented on the omission of detailed discussions of Communication Studies methodology in *Human Communication: The Basic Course*, but here I want to focus on a related point:

In these and similar teaching situations, teachers are wanting their students to engage in and improve their ability to think critically To do this, students need to have the relevant conceptual understanding, *but they also need criteria for assessing the quality of interpretations, explanations, and predictions.* (2003, p. 40*italics mine*)

*Human Communication: The Basic Course* does not discuss these criteria which are the factors that make critical thinking critical.

*Seven of the significant learning goals are not included in the Human Communication: The Basic Course series:*

**A1. How to be a better student: (self-regulated learning)**

Fink remarks that “simply training students in study skills will not have the same effect as changing their orientation to learning” (2003, p. 51). He cites the research conducted by cognitive scientists on “self-regulated learning” (Pintrich, 1995; Pintrich, Brown, Weinstein, & McKeachie, 1994),(Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Schunk & Zimmerman, 1998), (Gibbs, 1992, 1993). One of the techniques for fostering self-regulated learning is to encourage students to develop their own underlying concept of learning and to “develop metacognitive *awareness*” (Fink, 1984, p. 51)

**B1. Wanting to be a good student [excel]**

**B2. Becoming excited about a particular activity or subject: ([expressing] a keen interest in)**

**B3. Developing a commitment to live right: [having lifestyle ideals]**

For Fink, in educational contexts caring is a change in feelings, interests or values (2003, p. 48). It is related to self-regulated learning which depends on an environment in which students can take control of their learning. Two techniques for encouraging students “to learn how to learn” are concept maps and Vee diagrams which allow students to create their own conceptual networks (See also Ambrose, 2010, p. 228 ff). Neither of these learning tools are employed in *Human Communication: The Basic Course*.

**C6. Citizenship (being responsible to community, state, nation, political entity)**

**C7. Serving others (contributing to wellbeing of others)**

Fink draws upon the work of Jerome Bruner in his view of learning and points to the circumstance that to understand concepts you have to understand the cognitive frameworks in which they are embedded (Bruner, 1962, 1966, 1973). Frames within frameworks is an important issue in cognitive science (Croft & Cruse, 2004; Fillmore, 2006; Lee, 2004). Generally speaking, *Human Communication: The Basic Course* does not address the overarching cognitive frameworks in which communication study takes place.

### **D1. Interdisciplinary learning (connecting different disciplines)**

*Human Communication: The Basic Course* does not regard Communication Studies as an interdisciplinary endeavor. Research in other disciplines is cited but viewed as a partial contribution to Communication Studies.

### *Summary*

The *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series is concentrated in seven significant learning goals:

- F1. Foundational knowledge (learning the basic concepts in Communication Studies)
- C1. Leadership (learning to lead)
- C2. Ethics (living by ethical principles) [requires teaching them]
- C4. Multicultural education (cultural sensitivity)
- C5. Working as a member of a team (contributing to team goals)
- E2. Practical thinking (problem-solving, decision making)
- E5. Performance skills (developing capabilities in communication)

In the following chapters, the analysis focuses on

1. whether these learning goals match the transformative conception of learning advocated by learning theorists;
2. whether "the fundamentals of human communication," "classic approaches," "new developments," "research" "theory" are covered and up-to-date; and
3. whether the implied pedagogy features the memorization of concepts.

## 1.5 - FURTHER RESEARCH

The statements of purpose in the twelve editions of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* raise several questions. If the textbook covers the major areas and skills of the broad field of communication, how are the "major areas" identified; how are the areas of the field of communication known; and how are the major ones distinguished from the minor ones?

Since many scholars and researchers regard Communication Studies as a science (Berger & Chaffee, 1987a, 1987b; Berger, Roloff, & Ewoldsen, 2010; Bryant & Pribanic-Smith, 2010; Schramm, 1963) how can this view be related to DeVito's view that communication is an "essential liberal art"?

Numerous other questions can, and probably should, be raised that are not unique to DeVito's textbook: what are "the theoretical and research foundations of communication"? What are the "classic approaches" to the study of communication? What are "the fundamental concepts and principles of human communication"? Answers to these questions are all debatable.

### *The next question*

Whatever content belongs in an Introduction to Communication Studies is related to its purpose. The content of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* is the subject of the next chapter—what should Introductions to Communication Studies introduce?

## 1-6 - DATA APPENDIX

In table 2 the goals are identified by the letters and numbers in table 1, e.g., A1., B1., etc.

### *DeVito's articulation of the purposes of Human Communication: The Basic Course:*

#### Statements:

1978 1st Ed	I wrote this book to enable students to learn the essentials of communication. More specifically, I wrote it so that they would be able to understand, control, and analyze communication behaviors and events. <b>[F1]</b> I proceeded on the assumption that the student-communicator has at least a three-part responsibility-as a communication source, a communication receiver, and a communication analyst. I devote considerable attention to all three of these functions. <b>[C3]</b> (xvii)
1982 2nd Ed	The purpose of the book, however, remains the same [as in the 1st Ed]: to present a comprehensive overview of communication that will enable students to understand, control, and analyze communication behaviors and events. <b>[F1]</b> As in the first edition, I have assumed that the student-communicator has at least a three-part responsibility- as a communication source, a communication receiver, and a communication analyst. Attention is devoted to all three of these functions. <b>[C3]</b> (xv)
1985 3rd Ed	In writing this book I have tried to provide you with the best-the most insightful, the most reliable, the most recent-of what is known about communication. <b>[F1]</b> My purpose is to provide you with an arsenal of strategies from which you can select those that are most appropriate and effective for each communication situation you encounter. <b>[E5]</b> In order for this arsenal of strategies to be useful and effective, it must contain both theoretical insights and practical guidelines, the "whys" as well as the "how-tos." After completing this text, you should have a firm grasp of the theoretical foundations of communication <b>[F1]</b> and also have developed new skills and improved old ones. <b>[E5]</b> In short, you should become a more effective communicator-as speaker, as receiver, and as critic-evaluator-in a wide variety of contexts. (xxv)

1988 4th Ed	In writing this book I tried to provide the student with the best--the most insightful, reliable, and recent--of what is known about communication. <b>[F1]</b> I have therefore drawn freely on all those who have contributed to the development of contemporary communication study--psychologists, sociologists, philosophers, linguists, and, of course, communication researchers and theorists themselves. After completing this text, the student should have a firm grasp of the theoretical and research foundations of communication <b>[F1]</b> and also should have developed significant new skills and improved old ones. <b>[E5]</b> I am concerned here with the student growing both in understanding communication <b>[B1(?)]</b> and in mastering the arts of effective communication in a wide variety of contexts--interpersonal, small group, public, intercultural, and mass communication. <b>[B3 (?)]</b> (xxv)
1991 5th Ed	In writing this book I tried to provide the student with the best--the most insightful, reliable, and recent--of what is known about communication. <b>[F1]</b> I have therefore drawn freely on all those who have contributed to the development of contemporary communication study--psychologists, sociologists, philosophers, linguists, and, of course, communication researchers and theorists themselves. After completing this text, the student should have a firm grasp of the theoretical and research foundations of communication <b>[F1]</b> and also should have developed significant new skills and improved old ones. <b>[E5]</b> I am concerned here with the student growing both in understanding communication and in mastering the arts of effective communication <b>[E5]</b> in a wide variety of contexts--interpersonal, small group, public, intercultural, and mass communication. (xv)
1994 6th Ed	<i>Human Communication: The Basic Course</i> is addressed to the introductory college course in communication that surveys the broad field of communication, including intrapersonal, interpersonal, small group and organizational, public, intercultural, and mass communication. It covers classic approaches and new developments; it covers research, theory, <b>[F1]</b> and skills. <b>[E5]</b> The book is addressed to students who have little or no prior background in communication. For those students who will take this course as their only communication course, it will provide a broad background in both theory and skills <b>[E5]</b> in this essential liberal art. For those who will take additional and advanced courses or who are beginning their majors in communication, it will provide the essential theoretical foundation <b>[F1]</b> for their more advanced and specialized study. (xvii)
1997 7th Ed	<i>Human Communication: The Basic Course</i> is designed for the introductory college course that surveys the broad field of communication. It covers classic approaches and new developments, delves into research and theory, <b>[F1]</b> and devotes attention to important communication skills. <b>[E5]</b> The book is addressed to students with little or no prior background in communication. For those students who will take this course as their only communication course, it will provide a thorough foundation in the theory, research, and principles <b>[F1]</b> of this essential liberal art. For those who will take additional and advanced courses or who are beginning their majors in communication, it will provide the basis for more advanced and specialized study. (xi)
2000 8th Ed	<i>Human Communication: The Basic Course</i> is designed for the introductory college course that surveys the broad field of communication. It covers classic approaches and new developments; it covers research and theory <b>[F1]</b> and now, in this edition, gives coordinate attention to significant communication skills. <b>[E5]</b> The book is addressed to students who have little or no prior background in communication. For those students who will take this course as their only communication course, it will provide a thorough foundation in the theory, research, <b>[F1]</b> and skills <b>[E5]</b> of this essential liberal art. For those who will take additional and advanced courses or who are beginning their majors in communication, it will provide the essential foundation for more advanced and specialized study.(xv)

2003 9th Ed	<p><i>Human Communication: The Basic Course</i> is designed for the introductory college course that surveys the broad field of communication. It covers classic approaches and new developments; it covers research and theory [F1] but gives coordinate attention to significant communication skills. [E5] The book is addressed to students who have little or no prior background in communication. If this is your only communication course, <i>Human Communication</i> will provide you with a thorough foundation in the theory, research, and skills [E5] of this essential liberal art. For those of you who will take additional and advanced courses or who are beginning a major in communication, it will provide the essential foundation [F1] for more advanced and specialized study. (xiii)</p>
2006 10th Ed	<p><i>Human Communication: The Basic Course</i> is designed for the introductory college course that covers the major areas and skills of the broad field of communication. After a thorough coverage of the fundamentals of communication in Part 1 (preliminaries, principles-of communication, culture, perception, listening, the self, and verbal and nonverbal messages), Parts 2 and 3 focus on interpersonal and small group communication (five units) and public speaking (five units). The text covers classic approaches and new developments; it covers research and theory [F1] but gives coordinate attention to communication skills. [E5] This book is addressed to students who have little or no prior background in communication. If this will be your only communication course, <i>Human Communication</i> will provide you with a thorough foundation in the theory, research, [F1] and skills [E5] of this essential liberal art. For those of you who will take additional and advanced courses or who are beginning a major in communication, it will provide the essential foundation [F1] for more advanced and specialized study. (xii)</p>
2009 11th Ed	<p><i>Human Communication: The Basic Course</i> is designed for the introductory college course that covers the major areas and skills of the broad field of human communication. It offers comprehensive coverage of the fundamentals of human communication. [F1]</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Part One (Foundations of Human Communication) covers the fundamental concepts and principles of human communication, the self and perception, listening, and verbal and nonverbal messages (Units 1-6).</li> <li>• Part Two (Interpersonal, Small Group, and Organizational Communication) covers interpersonal interaction and relationships, small group membership and leadership, conflict, and organizational communication (Units 7-13).</li> <li>• Part Three (Public Speaking) covers the preparation and presentation of public speeches, including informative, persuasive, and special occasion speeches (Units 14-19). [F1]</li> </ul> <p>Because some courses cover interviewing but others do not, the interviewing material formerly included in this textbook is now a separate book, <i>The Interviewing Guidebook</i>.</p> <p>The text covers classic approaches and new developments; it covers research and theory [F1] but gives coordinate attention to communication skills. [E5] This book is addressed to students who have little or no prior background in communication. If this will be your only communication course, <i>Human Communication</i> will provide you with a thorough foundation in the theory, research, [F1] and skills [E5] of this essential liberal art. For those of you who will take additional and advanced courses or who are beginning a major in communication, it will provide the essential foundation for more advanced and more specialized study. (ix)</p>
2012 12th Ed	<p><i>Human Communication: The Basic Course</i> is designed for the introductory college course that offers comprehensive coverage of the fundamentals of human communication. The text covers classic approaches and new developments; it covers research and theory, [F1] but gives</p>

coordinate attention to communication skills. [E5] This book is addressed to students who have little or no prior background in studying communication. If this will be your only communication course, <i>Human Communication</i> will provide you with a thorough foundation in the theory, research, [F1] and skills [E5] of this essential liberal art. For those of you who will take additional and advanced courses, or who are beginning a major in communication, it <i>will</i> provide the significant foundation [F1] for more advanced and more specialized study. (xii)
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Table 2

[RETURN TO FINDINGS](#)

*Significant Learning Goals Featured in the Human Communication: The Basic Course Prefaces and Introductions:*

The major goals in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* are identified in the left hand column of table 3

<b>featured in Human Communication: The Basic Course</b>	<b>major significant learning goals:</b>
	<b>A. Learning How to Learn:</b>
	A1. How to be a better student: (self-regulated learning)
A2*	A2. How to inquire and construct knowledge (engaging in scientific method)
	A3. How to pursue self-directed or intentional learning (reflective practitioner)
	<b>B. Caring:</b>
	B1. Wanting to be a good student [excel]
	B2. Becoming excited about a particular activity or subject: ([expressing]** a keen interest in)
	B3. Developing a commitment to live right: [having lifestyle ideals]
	<b>C. Human Dimension:</b>
C1	C1. Leadership (learning to lead)
C2	C2. Ethics (living by ethical principles) [requires teaching them]
	C3. Self-authorship (taking responsibility)
C4	C4. Multicultural education (cultural sensitivity)
C5	C5. Working as a member of a team (contributing to team goals)
	C6. Citizenship (being responsible to community, state, nation, political entity)
	C7. Serving others (contributing to wellbeing of others)
C8	C8. Environmental ethics (having ethical principles about environs.)
	<b>D. Integration:</b>

	D1. Interdisciplinary learning (connecting different disciplines)
D2	D2. Learning communities (connecting different realms of life)
	<b>E. Application:</b>
E1	E1. Critical thinking (analyzing & critiquing))
E2	E2. Practical thinking (problem-solving, decision making)
E3**	E3. Creativity (creating new ideas, products, perspectives)
E4	E4. Managing complex projects (coordinating multiple tasks in a single project)
E5.	E5. Performance skills (developing capabilities in areas)
	<b>F. Foundational Knowledge</b>
F1	F1. Conceptual understanding (can use concepts to describe, explain, predict)

\*added in the 7th edition \*\**Brainstorm* (on creative thinking about communication) was added in the 8th edition (2000) as a CD-ROM. *Brainstorms* was first published as a booklet in 1996

**Table 3**

[RETURN TO FINDINGS](#)  
[GO TO DISCUSSION](#)

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## Notes

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<sup>1</sup> it might be worth noting that there are conversations among editors about making a textbook "teacher proof"--that is producing a textbook that cannot be misused by a teacher--an impossible task.

<sup>2</sup> In this study, Fink's conception of "foundational knowledge," Reif's conception of "declarative knowledge," and DeVito's conception of "theory" are regarded as correlative, in the sense of references to the accumulated body of knowledge about communication.

<sup>3</sup> Caring is described from a student's perspective. From a teacher's perspective, the three goals in this type would involve a teacher wanting students to want to become excited, to develop a commitment. From a psychological point of view, wanting someone to want what you want them to want is not an effective pedagogy. In order to apply these goals to a teacher's statement of purpose or emphasis requires a revised expression, e.g., wanting students to "excel," a teacher "expressing" excitement about a subject encourages students to follow suit, wanting students "to have lifestyle ideals." In general, I looked for expressions in the statements of purpose that indicated the teacher's attitudes toward excelling, being excited, and living well.

<sup>4</sup> Jaccard and Jacoby have used their text in undergraduate courses on theory construction.

## 2.0 - What Should Introductions to Communication Studies Introduce?

A central premise in this study is that learning is a belief transformation—a transformative process in which a mental state is changed from believing “B1” to believing “B2” (Fink, 2003, pp. 6-7; Reif, 2008, pp. 4-5).

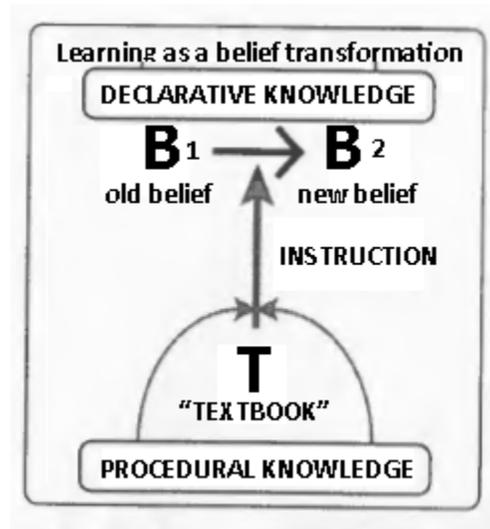


Figure 1<sup>1</sup>

In the context of an Introduction to Communication Studies, a person who believes (B1) that meaning of a concept is fixed, then, presented with an alternative, changes to believing (B2) that meaning is not fixed because it is dependent on a person’s experience, undergoes a cognitive transformation. The successful processing of such belief transformations depends upon two correlations: one is semantic and the other concerns the correlation of the cognitive abilities involved. If both conditions are met, then a basis for a belief transformation is provided.

The analysis reported in this chapter focuses on the appropriateness of applying procedural knowledge linked to declarative knowledge in the situations described in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 to provide a basis for learning understood as a belief transformation.<sup>2</sup>

Because of the complexity of the analysis in this chapter, keep in mind that two different sets of data are both analyzed with respect to two different criteria. The data consists of pairings of declarative knowledge/theory and procedural knowledge/skills. These are presented in the chapter by textboxes. However, there are two different kinds of textbox formats: generic and specific. Both of these types of pairings are analyzed with respect to two criteria: the extent to which the pairings are semantically correlative and the extent to which the pairings of cognitive abilities are correlative.

Conceptually, the chapter is organized by the following structures:

**Pairing of dec. & proc. knowledge****Criteria**

GENERIC pairing	SEMANTIC correlation
	COGNITIVE correlation

SPECIFIC pairing	SEMANTIC correlation
	COGNITIVE correlation

## 2.1 - CONTEXT OF THE TITLE QUESTION

As I established in the first chapter, DeVito articulates two general purposes of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* : providing a foundation for understanding Communication Studies and providing a skill set for becoming an effective communicator. The content (knowledge domains) *Human Communication: The Basic Course* introduces is governed by these two purposes.

In the context of learning "the fundamentals of human communication" — "classic approaches," "new developments" and "research and theory," one would expect students to change their (B1) everyday beliefs about communication to (B2) technical beliefs about communication. From the perspective of learning theory, one would expect the second goal to enable students to change (B3) everyday habits of communicating to (B4) more effective communicating practices governed by the conceptions about communication presented in the textbooks. The first learning experience involves a change from naïve conceptions of communication to technical conceptions of communication. The second learning experience involves a change from habitual communicating practices that are uncritical to practices that are "competent."<sup>3</sup>

This chapter analyzes the belief transformations which are characteristic of the learning process. In *Applying Cognitive Science to Education: Thinking and Learning in Scientific and Other Complex Domains*, Frederick Reif argues that belief transformations depend upon correlating declarative and procedural knowledge.

*Declarative knowledge* specifies factual knowledge about a situation by describing the relevant entities in the situation and the relations among them. Such declarative knowledge can be specified by one or more verbal statements or by alternative forms of description (for example, by diagrams or mathematical formulas).

*Procedural knowledge* specifies methods or procedures (that is, sequences of actions describing *how* to perform particular tasks). (Reif, 2008, p. 32).

In his view, a belief transformation occurs when a person applies a new belief to a situation with the result that she is then able to understand or do things not possible with her prior beliefs. Imagine a

person who is not an experienced computer user and who believes that Word documents are incompatible with PDF documents because the programs that produce them are different. Let's say that a friend shows him he can save a Word document in a pdf format and he proceeds to save a Word document in the pdf format subsequently loading it into Adobe Reader where it appears on his monitor. The procedure of saving the document in the pdf format and loading it into Adobe Reader would confirm the new knowledge his friend provided. The process would also effectively cancel his belief that the two programs are incompatible and result in his being able not only to understand something he did not understand before but also to do something he was not able to do before. (See Appendix A for a detailed discussion of "Analyzing Performances.")

The learning experience is a *discovery* that engenders a change of belief. According to Reif, for this outcome to be achieved, two major conditions have to be met. First, the two types of knowledge must be semantically and cognitively correlative. Second, the belief transformation must occur as the result of using a procedure that is correlative to new declarative knowledge, for example, applying a technical conception to a communicative situation with the result that a previous conception of the situation now seems naïve and commonsensical. With respect to Reif's first condition, the learning transformation is judged valid or invalid. With respect to the second, the outcome of the learning transformation is judged to result in a competent researcher or a competent communicator. I use Reif's conditions as a coding template in my analysis of the pairings of declarative and procedural knowledge that are the potential basis of a learning transformation. [Note: In what follows, I refer to these belief transformation in terms of their learning outcomes—learning to be a "competent researcher" or a "competent communicator."]

A central feature of DeVito's *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 textbook is matching statements about *what* communication is to statements that show *how* to apply them to specific situations. Each chapter begins with a text box that matches particular "theories" with their coordinate "skills" (2012).<sup>4</sup> In addition, numerous textboxes also contains pairings of theories and skills in the context of specific scenarios.

### *Models of and models for*

In my view, a central issue in the analysis of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* is whether Introductions to Communication Studies should present students with declarative knowledge about communication that can be used (a) to become a competent researcher or (b) to become a competent communicator? The difference in the two kinds of procedural knowledge will be expressed as a difference in (a) employing communication theory as a model of a communication situation in the conduct of research, or (b) deploying communication theory as a model for communicating.<sup>5</sup> I borrow this distinction from Clifford Geertz: "The term 'model' has, however, two senses—an 'of' sense and a 'for' sense—and though these are but aspects of the same basic concept they are very much worth distinguishing for analytic purposes" (1973, p. 93). Whereas a model-of reality is a representation of something that parallels its structure, a model-for reality is a representation of how to behave. It is not

accidental that Geertz makes this distinction in a discussion of "Religion as a Cultural System." A ritual performance enacts a belief. With respect to learning, the belief transformation is from (a) understanding dogma to (b) acting in a way that reflects it—a move from understanding an idea to making it a part of one's life: for example, believing in Christ requires Christ-like behavior. In the context of the learning outcomes in *Human Communication: The Basic Course*, the difference is between learning to analyze communicative situations and learning ways to improve oneself in them.

I add Geertz's distinction to DeVito's theory/skill and Reif's declarative/procedural knowledge because it adds the dimension of "transposability" (see below).

## 2.2 - METHOD OF ANSWERING THE TITLE QUESTION

### *The semantic correlation*

DeVito's argues throughout the editions of his textbook that these two knowledge domains, theories and communication skills, are coordinate. "Theories are extremely practical and skills-like examples and applications clarify the theories. The two work together, each informing and enlarging upon the other" (1994, p. xvii).<sup>6</sup> Although unspecified, given the distinction made between "applications" and "skills-like examples," I construe the difference in the sense that: theoretical conceptions can, on the one hand, (a) be applied to situations as a model of them or, on the other hand, (b) used as a model for behaving in them.

Given Geertz's distinction, the pairings of declarative and procedural knowledge in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* would be of two kinds: understanding a theoretical conception (model of) a communication situation that enables one to analyze it and understanding a theoretical conception of a communication situation that enables using it as a guide (model for) communicating. In the first case, persons believe that a conception accurately reflects the communicative situation because they are able to apply the model effectively to it. In the second case, persons believe that a conception can show them how to behave in a situation.

The data I examined are the pairing of declarative and procedural knowledge given in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*. In this textbook two different types of textboxes deal with the relations between theories and skills. One begins each chapter and is generic. Another type occurs within the chapters and is more specific. For example, the first generic correlation DeVito offers in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* is: "the major elements in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course*" is matched with the request to "use the essential principles of human communication to increase your own effectiveness in interpersonal, small group, and public speaking" (2012, p. 3). Later in the chapter, there are two "Building Communication Skills" textboxes that show how knowing about one of the major elements of communication—the concept of a "message"—can be applied to specific situations.

I use Reif's account of the conditions upon which theories (declarative knowledge) can be applied to situations (procedural knowledge) as a template for analyzing DeVito's conception of the coordinate functioning of these conceptual domains (2008, pp. 32-41). From the point of view of learning, Reif argues that procedural knowledge (without accompanying declarative knowledge) has numerous disadvantages—it is inflexible, can't be checked for correctness, and is cognitively uneconomical (2008, p. 34). Correlatively, declarative knowledge "is meaningless if there is no possible way of determining its validity (that is, if one does not have procedural knowledge specifying what one would actually have to do to determine whether it is true or not)" (2008, p. 33). The two knowledge domains, declarative and procedural, according to Reif are "complementary" (2008, p. 35). "Each alone is inadequate without use of the other, and both are usually needed for good performance" (2008, p. 36). Reif's view matches DeVito's stated view about the relation between theories and skills.<sup>7</sup>

Understanding the relations between a theory and its correlative skills is a semantic issue upon which the performance depends. Understanding a correlative relation between a particular declarative knowledge domain and a specific procedural knowledge domain depends upon their belonging to the same *conceptual* domain. Whether or not it is understood depends upon knowledge base of the persons of whom the performance is requested. This is, of course, a relative matter—the more comprehensive the person's knowledge base, the more likely the connection will be made. This means that there is a range of possibility of comprehension depending on the scope of the person's cognitive frameworks.

My analysis of the semantic correlation of declarative and procedural knowledge in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* is based on Charles Fillmore's frame semantics (2006). In the context of a conceptual framework such as a theory, a concept is related to the other concepts in it, forming a semantic network.<sup>8</sup> The link between the description of a theory and instructions about its application in a discourse such as *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* is semantic—the link has to be understood before any activity can take place. For example, if someone said "turn off the water in the bathtub," this could not be accomplished by persons who did not understand the relations between faucets, bathtubs, and water. This is, of course, a familiar situation and everyday concepts are involved. If, on the other hand, the instruction was to "write a Do While loop to count the words in a text," this instruction would only be intelligible to someone who understood the relations between a Do While loop, counting, and texts. For everyone else, the relations would have to be made explicit; and, as the next section points out, the procedure of writing a Do While loop would have to be specified in sufficient detail for a novice programmer to be able to write the script.

Because no connection is a necessary one and the determining factor is the ability of students to make the connection, with respect to semantics, I consider the strongest connection in the matches to be "probable." If the connection has to be inferred from the discourse, its "strength" is weaker than one that can be directly related to experience and therefore needs to be considered "possible" but not probable. The weakest connection in this rating scheme is "questionable," which indicates that there are reasons to doubt that the connection can be made. The strength of the cognitive correlation between theories and skills can also be scaled from (a) probable to (b) possible to (c) questionable depending on the specification of the cognitive operations that would enable its use.<sup>9</sup>

### *The correlation of cognitive abilities*

The first step in being able to apply a theory to a situation is understanding the concepts involved. The next step is to translate the knowledge into a usable procedure. The second step involves specific cognitive abilities and its success depends upon whether they are not only correlative but also sufficiently specified for students to carry them out.

For Reif, adequate specification is a crucial requirement for being able to apply concepts to situations. He points out that for students to understand performance requests requires explicit specification (2008, pp. 12-13). Applied to understanding the relations between theories and correlative skills in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, we can say that, unless the relationship is adequately specified, making a connection between them is unlikely, especially for undergraduates.

Reif's learning objective in *Applying Cognitive Science to Education* is to transform students who use common sense into students who can think like scientists, who can draw inferences from data and form hypotheses to solve problems using the conceptions they have acquired in their courses.

As Reif notes in the subtitle of his book, "Thinking and Learning in Scientific and Other Complex Domains," the process of scientific inquiry is complex. Scientific theories (or models-of) are complex conceptual systems. All forms of thinking involve conceptualization and science is no different. However, unlike the concepts used in everyday life, scientific concepts are systematically related to each other in the form of theories or models-of. Jaccard and Jacoby in their *Theory Construction and Model-Building Skills: A Practical Guide for Social Scientists* note that this requires that scientists "focus on strategies for specifying and refining conceptual definitions for those concepts that [a social scientist] decides to include in the theoretical system" (75). This echoes Reif's remark that:

Concepts are the basic components of knowledge, the basic building blocks used to express statements or ideas. All such concepts need to have well-specified meanings so that we know what we are talking about and can communicate with other people. It is particularly important that the concepts used in scientific fields are unambiguously specified and can be properly interpreted in any specific instance. Otherwise, they could not be used to attain the central scientific goal of making definite predictions. (43)

Using a concept in the conduct of a research investigation involves conceptualizing which can entail any number of specific cognitive abilities. Being able to use these abilities effectively is the basis for acquiring the procedural knowledge needed to function as a communication researcher. And being able to use them depends on the degree to which their specific cognitive operations are known. Reif's conception of procedural knowledge is knowing the "sequences of actions describing *how* to perform particular tasks" which need to be specified in *Introductions to Communication Studies* in considerable detail. (2008, p. 32)

Basically the same requirements—specifying the procedures linked to theoretical conceptions—pertain to being able to function as a competent communicator.

In this study both the generic and specific transformative pairings are examined with respect to their semantic correlation and their cognitive correlation—between the concepts presented and the cognitive abilities required in the performances requested.

## 2.3 - FINDINGS

In the Introduction to *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, DeVito emphasizes the balance of theory/research and skills—"The twelfth edition continues the pattern of the previous editions in giving emphasis to research and theory, on the one hand, and practical communication skills, on the other" (2012, p. xv). Throughout the textbook, theories are matched up with skills. Each chapter begins with a text box with two columns: the first column has the header, "In this chapter you'll learn about," which is paired with the header in the second column, "And, you'll learn to." The first column lists the theoretical concepts discussed in the chapter and the second column lists correlative skills. I refer to these pairings as "generic." In addition, various textboxes pair theory and skills in the context of scenarios in which the theories can be applied. I refer to this type of pairing as "specific" because it includes specific details belonging to the situations described.

In my analysis, I focused on this pattern of "pairing" theories with skills which I construed as a pairing of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge that can potentially provide the basis for a belief transformation.

### *The semantic correlation of the generic pairings*

There are 18 textboxes of generic pairings in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* that include 49 pairs of theories and corresponding skills. I analyzed each one from the perspective of matching the theoretical conception with the conception of the skill.<sup>10</sup>

Understanding the connection between the theory (declarative knowledge) and skills (procedural knowledge) to be "semantic" in the sense described in the previous section, I analyzed 49 pairings which are summarized in the following chart:

[Key: text in red = potential semantic connection; "?" = questionable connection; "+" = possible connection; and "++" = probable connection. For a detailed analysis of the connections see [the data appendix.](#)]

CHAPTER 1: Preliminaries to Human Communication		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
1.	? the major <b>elements</b> in the human communication process.	communicate with a clear understanding of the <b>essential elements</b> and how they relate to one another.
2.	++ the <b>essential principles</b> that explain how communication works.	use <b>the essential principles</b> of human communication to increase your own effectiveness in interpersonal, small group, and public
3.	+ the <b>characteristics of the competent communicator</b> .	begin to internalize <b>the characteristics of communication competence</b>
CHAPTER 2: Culture and Communication		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
4.	+ the ways <b>cultures differ</b> from one another.	send and receive messages with a recognition of <b>cultural influences and differences</b> .
5.	++ the forms and principles <b>of inter-cultural situations</b> .	communicate more successfully <b>in inter-cultural situations</b> .
CHAPTER 3: The Self and Perception		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
6.	+ <b>self-concept, self-awareness, and self-esteem</b> .	communicate with a better understanding of <b>who you are</b> .
7.	+ the process of self-disclosure.	regulate your self-disclosures and respond appropriately to the disclosures of others.
8.	+ the nature and workings of perception.	increase your own accuracy in perceiving other people and their messages.
9.	+ the way impressions are formed and managed.	manage the impressions you communicate to others.
CHAPTER 4: Listening in Human Communication		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
10.	+ <b>how listening works</b> .	avoid the <b>barriers to effective listening</b> .
11.	+ the <b>styles of listening</b> you can use.	<b>adjust your listening</b> so that it's most effective for the specific situation.
12.	++ <b>how listening varies with gender and culture</b> .	listen with <b>sensitivity to cultural and gender variations</b> .
CHAPTER 5: Verbal Messages		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
13.	+ <b>how language works</b> .	use language to <b>best achieve your purposes</b> .
14.	+ <b>the nature</b> of disconfirmation and confirmation	<b>express confirmation when appropriate</b> .
15.	+ the <b>principles</b> of message effectiveness	<b>use</b> verbal messages more effectively
CHAPTER 6: Nonverbal Messages		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
16.	+ the <b>functions</b> nonverbal communication serves.	<b>communicate more effectively</b> with nonverbal messages.
17.	? <b>how</b> nonverbal communication <b>interacts</b> with your verbal messages.	<b>respond appropriately</b> to the nonverbal messages of others.
18.	? the <b>channels</b> of nonverbal communication.	<b>encode and decode</b> nonverbal messages more effectively.
19.	+ <b>the role of</b> culture and gender in nonverbal communication.	communicate <b>with an awareness of</b> cultural and gender influences and differences in nonverbal communication.
CHAPTER 7: Interpersonal Communication – Conversation		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
20.	? <b>how the process</b> of conversation works.	<b>apply the skills</b> of interpersonal communication to a wide variety of situations.
21.	++ <b>how you can become</b> a more satisfying and more effective conversationalist.	<b>engage in</b> conversation that is satisfying and mutually productive.

CHAPTER 8: Interpersonal Relationship - Stages and Theories		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
22.	+ the ways in which relationships develop and the stages they go through.	communicate in ways appropriate to your relationship stage.
23.	+ the theories that attempt to account for our relationship decisions and choices.	assess your own relationship behavior and make adjustments as needed.
24.	? the "dark side" of relationships.	deal with relationship jealousy and violence in productive ways.
CHAPTER 9: Friends, Lovers, and Families		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
25.	+ the types and functions of friendship, love, and family relationships.	interact in interpersonal relationships in ways that are appropriate to the type of relationship.
26.	? the ways in which culture and technology impact on relationships of all types.	take greater control of what influences your relationship life.
CHAPTER 10: Small Group Communication		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
27.	? the stages and formats of small groups.	use small groups to achieve a variety of personal, social, and professional goals.
28.	++ the structure and functions of idea-generation, personal growth, information sharing, and problem solving groups.	participate effectively in a variety of small groups.
CHAPTER 11: Members and Leaders		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
29.	+ the kinds of roles members play in groups.	participate more effectively as a group member.
30.	? the types of and styles of leadership.	lead a wide variety of groups effectively and efficiently
31.	- the role of culture in membership and leadership.	NO COORDINATE PERFORMANCE
CHAPTER 12: Human Communication in the Workplace - Organizational Communication		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
32.	+ the nature and types of organizations; the characteristics of organizations.	communicate more effectively in the organizational context.
33.	? the types of organizational messages and relationships.	advance your own status and personal satisfaction within the organization.
CHAPTER 13: Interpersonal, Group, and Workplace Conflict		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
34.	? the nature of conflict; the principles of conflict.	approach conflict positively and realistically.
35.	++ the strategies that people use to manage conflict.	engage in interpersonal and group conflict using productive conflict management strategies.
CHAPTER 14: Public Speaking Topics, Audiences, and Research		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
36.	? the very normal nervousness that most people feel.	manage your own anxiety and not let it prevent you from developing and presenting effective speeches.
37.	+ the first three steps for preparing a public speech.	select an appropriate speech topic, purpose, and thesis. analyze and adapt to your audiences. research your topic.
CHAPTER 15: Supporting and Organizing Your Speech		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
38.	? the nature of supporting materials.	support your ideas with interesting and persuasive materials (examples, testimony, statistics).
39.	? the main points of your speech.	generate your main points from your thesis statement.
40.	? the organizational patterns, introductions, and conclusions for speeches of all types.	organize your thoughts so that your speech is easy to follow and maintains your audience's interest and attention.

CHAPTER 16: Style and Delivery in Public Speaking		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
41.	? language and <b>how</b> it influences us.	<b>use language to best achieve</b> your purposes.
42.	+ <b>ways that speakers use to rehearse</b> their speeches.	<b>rehearse</b> your speech efficiently.
43.	+ the <b>various methods</b> of presentation and <b>how to use</b> your voice and bodily actions to the greatest advantage.	deliver your speech with <b>maximum impact</b>
44.	+ the <b>role</b> of criticism in public speaking	<b>criticize</b> speeches <b>constructively</b> .
CHAPTER 17: The Informative Speech		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
45.	+ the <b>goals</b> and <b>principles</b> for communicating information.	<b>use the</b> principles for communicating information more effectively and efficiently.
46.	++ <b>the types of informative speeches</b> .	<b>prepare a variety of informative speeches</b> —speeches of description, definition, and demonstration.
CHAPTER 18: The Persuasive Speech		
	In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
47.	++ the <b>nature and goals</b> of persuasion and <b>how attitudes, beliefs, values, and behaviors are influenced</b> .	<b>use the strategies of persuasion</b> in a variety of communication contexts.
48.	+ the <b>major types</b> of persuasive speeches.	<b>prepare a variety of effective</b> persuasive speeches on questions of fact, value, and policy
49.	?	<b>prevent yourself</b> from being unfairly or unethically persuaded.

Table 1

With respect to the generic matches of declarative and procedural knowledge in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, of the 49 pairings: 8 = probable, 24 = possible, 16 = questionable, and 1 = undeterminable. For a detailed examination of the semantic connections go to the data appendix.

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[Note: These findings need to be joined with the analysis of the correlation between the cognitive abilities involved which would confirm or invalidate the semantic connection. The next section analyzes the match of cognitive abilities in the pairing of the two types of knowledge.]

### *The correlation of the cognitive abilities in the generic pairings*

The analysis of the generic correlations that follows hinges on Reif's premise that declarative knowledge does not *entail* procedural knowledge (2008, pp. 16-17). Without specification about applying the theoretical conceptions, "the student's knowledge is purely nominal rather than effectively usable" (2008, p. 17). Take the first pairing as an example: Understanding the major elements in the human communication process, will enable you to communicate with a clear understanding of the essential elements and how they relate to one another. If we replace the phrase "elements in the human communication process" with the particular elements to which it refers, the expectation is that

understanding the meaning of sender/receiver, message, context, noise, effect (and how they relate to one another in a communication) will enable readers to communicate with a clear understanding of these interrelations. This pairing is un-contextualized and since the condition-dependent procedural knowledge is not specified, how to apply this conception to a given situation is not disclosed. In Reif's terms, the performance is nominal, meaning that students using the textbook, like Feynman's Psychics students, understand the semantic connection but do not know how to use the knowledge involved.

Taken together, the two charts show that the generic pairings of declarative and procedural knowledge do not provide the basis for belief transformations. Generally speaking, the generic declarative and procedural pairings in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* are at best nominal and at worst invalid (16 pairings were judged questionable). In as much as the pairing of declarative and procedural knowledge corresponds to the model of learning as a transformative process of belief resulting in the ability to do something that persons could not do beforehand, it is a significant finding that, for the most part, the learning in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* is likely to be nominal, that is, equivalent to what Feynman's students learned.

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### *The semantic correlations of the Specific pairings*

The analysis of specific pairings in the textboxes in Chapter 1 or *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* focuses on the sources of the theories contained in them, the expectations associated with the scenarios presented as well as the semantic connections.

Chapter 1 of *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, "Preliminaries to Human Communication" contains the following 7 textboxes which contain pairings of declarative and procedural knowledge constituting potential belief transformations situated in specific communicative experiences:<sup>11</sup>

1. TEST YOURSELF: What Do you believe about communication
2. Communication Tips
3. BUILDING COMMUNICATION SKILLS: Distinguishing Content from Relationship Messages
4. BUILDING COMMUNICATION SKILLS: Resolving Ambiguity
5. COMMUNICATION CHOICE POINT: Irreversibility
6. COMMUNICATION CHOICE POINT: Silence
7. COMMUNICATION CHOICE POINT: Content and Relationship Messages

My analysis of these textboxes and the related discussions in the chapter led to the conclusion that none of the seven specific pairings of declarative and procedural knowledge was viable in the context of Reif's learning theory model of belief transformation. There were three kinds of "dis-connects" between the two types of knowledge:

1. the accounts of the theoretical conceptions in the chapter were inaccurate representations of the sources cited [#3] invalidating the pairing;
2. the procedure recommended could not be considered an application of the declarative knowledge identified in the textbox [#4, #5, #6, #7]; and
3. the declarative knowledge to be paired with the procedures called for in the textboxes was difficult, if not impossible, to specify [#1, #2].

The three disconnects invalidate the pairings in the textboxes as educational belief transformations for different reasons summarized in the following paragraphs:

#### A. Inadequate representation of the sources cited:

The account of the context and relationship dimension of communication in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* is based on two sources: Deborah Tannen's *You're Wearing That?: Understanding Mothers and Daughters in Conversation* (2006) and Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson's *Pragmatics of Human Communication* (1967). However, DeVito's account of this theoretical conception does not match his sources on two important counts:

1. Whereas Watzlawick, et. al., following Ruesch and Bateson's account in their *Communication; the social matrix of psychiatry* (1968) understand content and relationship to be two dimensions of every communication, DeVito understands them as separate messages.
2. Whereas Tannen and Watzlawick, et. al. understand the relationship dimension to be communicated as meta-messages typically non-verbal and based on past experiences with the interlocutor involved, DeVito understands the relationship message as a "signal" or an expected aspect of the context—e.g., an employer speaking to an employee (2012, p. 15).

In addition, DeVito's account of "mindfulness" does not match his sources. In *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, the account of mindfulness is based on two sources: Ellen Langer's *Mindfulness* and Burgoon, Berger, & Waldron's "Mindfulness and Interpersonal Communication" (2000).<sup>12</sup> DeVito's account does not match his sources on two significant counts:

1. Whereas Langer does **not** understand mindfulness as a logical cognitive operation and Burgoon, Berge, & Waldron insist that "it would be a misconstrual of the concept to equate mindfulness with conscious, planful, or strategic communication," DeVito understands it as "a state of awareness in which you're conscious of your reasons for thinking or behaving."
2. Langer identifies four ways of increasing mindfulness. While "create new categories" and "be open to information and points of view" are drawn from Langer, "Beware of relying too heavily on first impressions" and "Think before you act" are not. DeVito adds two practices of mindfulness to Langer's list and subtracts "Control over context" and "process before outcome" without indicating the changes.

The misleading citations invalidate any belief transformation.

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B. The procedure recommended could not be considered an application of the declarative knowledge identified in the textbox.

In the textbox "Resolving Ambiguity" it would seem that the declarative knowledge involved is ambiguity and the procedure involved is disambiguating. If this is the case, it would be difficult to claim that the procedure of disambiguating an utterance is based on the knowing what ambiguity is. In *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, ambiguity is described as a message with more than one potential meaning, an example of which is the sentence "what has the cat in his paws?" which can mean either that another animal has the cat in his paws or that the cat has in his paws something that is hard to identify. The first requested performance in the textbox offers a scenario in which Pat, whom I take to be a woman, invites her boyfriend to have dinner with her parents, presumably in a sentence such as: "Would you like to have dinner with me and my parents this Sunday?" Unlike the examples in the chapter, this question is not ambiguous. Pat's boyfriend finds the question ambiguous with respect to what he construes as its implications, not with respect to its wording. These are two different senses of concept, ambiguity.

The procedure recommended is to "disambiguate" the message in the following way: "instead of assuming one interpretation is right and another wrong, it may be useful to try to disambiguate the message and find out more clearly what the speaker means" (2012, p. 17). In this case, the message cannot be disambiguated because it is not ambiguous in the first place. Pat's boyfriend's interpretation is also not ambiguous but simply a "guess" at Pat's intentions involving two un-ambiguous alternatives which are unknown because her intentions are private and inaccessible to her boyfriend.

For these reasons, the recommended procedure of disambiguating cannot be considered correlative to the concept of ambiguity. For a detailed discussion of "disambiguating," see the data-appendix.

As in the first group of disconnects, this instance cannot be considered to include valid belief transformations.

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C. The declarative knowledge to be paired with the procedures called for in the textboxes was difficult, if not impossible, to specify.

There are two textboxes at the beginning of the chapter located in the section on "Elements of Communication" that seem to be instances of them, namely of source/receiver, message, channels, noise, context, and effect. One is a test about "What Do you believe about communication?" and the other are a set of "communication tips" for communicating with a visually impaired person. In both

cases, the declarative knowledge featured in them is difficult to match with the procedural specifications.

1. In the case of the test, the concepts source/receiver, message, channels, noise, context, and effect are not mentioned. The beliefs about communication have mostly to do with communicating. At the same time, the textbox indicates that the "theories and research discussed in this chapter will help you reconsider your own beliefs." The only procedures mentioned are to "re-examine your beliefs" and "consider how new beliefs would influence the way you communicate" (2012, p. 8). Relating these procedures to the elements of communication while considering your old and new beliefs about communicating is not likely to provide a basis for learning the elements.
2. In the case of the tips textbox, the elements of communication are either mentioned or implied. However, the procedures described in the textbox have more to do with mindful communication which is discussed later in the chapter but not mentioned in the textbox than with its elements.

In both these textboxes, it is difficult to identify what knowledge domain is paired with the procedural knowledge described; thus any connection between them is questionable.

A detailed analysis of these textboxes is presented in the data appendix.

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*The correlation of the cognitive abilities in the specific pairings:*

The "dating Pat" scenario is given twice with different advice about disambiguating Pat's remark. The scenarios are presented from Pat's and her boy/girl-friend's<sup>13</sup> point of view—the first in a Building Communication Skills textbox and the second in a Communication Choice Points textbox, both on page 17:

(1) You've been dating Pat on and off for the past six months. Today, Pat asks you to come to dinner and meet the parents. You're not sure if this means that Pat wants to get more serious (which you do not want) or if it's a simple dinner invitation with no additional motives.

**textbox 1**

(2) You've [Pat] been dating someone on and off for a year or so and you'd like to invite your date to meet your parents (you're anxious to see what they think about your partner) but aren't sure how your date will perceive this invitation.

**textbox 2**

In the two textboxes that include this scenario four questions are asked:

1. How might you disambiguate this dinner invitation message?
2. What are some of the things you might say to reduce the ambiguity?
3. What do you say?
4. In what context?

The only cognitive abilities explicitly mentioned are disambiguating and speaking. Of course, the textbox choice points is about choices and decision making is implied as is contextualizing in question #4. Nonetheless, any specification of making a decision about what to say in this scenario is missing. Students would have to extrapolate a disambiguating procedure from the "Pat/boyfriend" scenarios for choosing what to say to reduce the ambiguity. Given question #4, students presumably would use the procedure of contextualizing to analyze the situation. The results would be something along the following lines: the social-psychological context is that Pat is anxious about asking the question; the temporal context would be the interval between "now" and their next conversation; the cultural dimension would be "meeting the parents." The first scenario suggests the implication of increasing seriousness and the second indicates "seeking parental advice." Both imply an increase in the seriousness of the relationship.

The implied cognitive abilities that pertain to disambiguating either scenario are: contextualizing / analyzing the context and thereby deciding what to say. As earlier noted, "There is an important distinction between performance that is *usable* (enabling the performance of significant tasks) and performance that is just *nominal* (enabling merely naming some things or talking about them)" (Reif, 2008, pp. 16-17). The procedures recommended explicitly in the textboxes (disambiguating) or implied in the chapter (contextualizing) have to be judged, in Reif's terms, to be nominal performances because the declarative knowledge in the textboxes, taking their titles as an index, is ambiguity. Disambiguating, as I argued in a previous section, cannot be considered correlative to the concept of ambiguity.

Having noted that, in the case of the "dating Pat" scenario, the performance is nominal, I summarize the analyses of the other specific pairings in the following chart:

	Concepts	Requested performances	Specification of the performance
1	communication	Consider how these beliefs about communication influence the way you communicate. reexamine your beliefs about communication and consider how new beliefs would influence the way you communicate	The theories and research discussed in this text will help you reconsider your own beliefs about communication, and the skill-building activities will help you practice new ways of communicating.
2	Communication Tips	Identify yourself. Face your listener; Speak at your normal volume. encode into speech all the meanings you wish to communicate. Use audible turn-taking cues. Use normal vocabulary Don't avoid terms like "see" or "look" or even "blind."	The "tips" are specific and readily followed but they are all aspects of everyday conversations and do not involve technical understanding. [Encode may be the exception but, if so, its performance is not specifically described, making it nominal.]
3	Distinguishing Content from Relationship Messages	Identify the possible content and relational messages that a receiver might get in being asked the following questions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>You're calling me?</li> <li>Did you say you're applying to medical school?</li> <li>You're in love?</li> <li>You paid a hundred dollars for that?</li> <li>And that's all you did?</li> </ul>	This textbox was analyzed in the previous chapter. The absence of any scenario in which these messages might be sent makes the identification of the content and relationship aspects of them impossible to identify.
4	Resolving Ambiguity	How might you disambiguate this dinner invitation message? How might you disambiguate this job appraisal? How might you disambiguate this invitation to speak?	This textbox was also analyzed in the previous chapter. The specification of a performance of disambiguating was deemed inappropriate in two of the three scenarios.
5	Irreversibility	What are your options for communicating your feelings? What communication channels could you use?	Generally students are left to depend on their own experience to perform these tasks. How to perform them is not specified.
6	Silence	What are some of the things you might say? What are some of the things you'd want to be sure not to say? How might you introduce the topic?	Generally students are left to depend on their own experience to perform these tasks. . How to perform them is not specified.
7	Content and Relationship Messages	What do you say? Through what channel?	Generally students are left to depend on their own experience to perform these tasks. How to perform them is not specified.

Table 2

In the various scenarios described, only the tips (#2) textbox specifies how to perform the tasks. However, since the conceptions to which the performances are allied are not a part of the Communication Studies research lexicon, the pairings are not relevant to learning about communication research. In the other cases, there are no specifications about how to perform the cognitive tasks involved and the performances, in Reif's terms, are nominal.

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## 2.4 - DISCUSSION

I analyzed two data sets: the generic matches of declarative knowledge (theory) and procedural knowledge (skills) in all twelve chapters of *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* and the more specific matches in the text of chapter 1 with respect to two criteria: semantic correlations and cognitive correlations. The analysis of the specific matches between declarative and procedural knowledge in chapter 1, in my view, are representative sample of those in the other 17 chapters.

### *Generic pairings of declarative and procedural knowledge*

As the findings show, the performances requested in Chapter 1 of *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* are nominal rather than usable performances according to Reif's distinction (2008, pp. 16-17). Although in many instances semantic connections can be made between theories and the requested performances, the second criteria for using theoretical concepts—specification of the procedures—is not met rendering them "nominal."

The mantra with which each chapter begins: "In this chapter you'll learn" [concepts about communication] "And, you'll learn to" [communicate more effectively] seems to pertain to the acquisition of communication skills, despite the claim that "Theories are extremely practical and skills-like examples and applications clarify the theories. The two work together, each informing and enlarging upon the other" (1994, p. xvii). It appears that, for the most part, in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series theories and skills are paired but not theories and applications to research situations.

### *Specific pairings of declarative and procedural knowledge*

The textboxes that specifically matched declarative knowledge with procedural knowledge in Chapter 1 present considerable obstacles to the understanding of the theories involved. It was impossible to apply Reif's applicability criteria to them because the declarative knowledge presented did not represent the sources cited or because the textbox was not clearly associated with a specific set of conceptions. This makes the recommended procedural knowledge questionable from the point of view of learning Communication Studies.

In the Introduction to *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, we find that a "major feature" of the textbook is "interactive pedagogy":

This edition continues to emphasize new and useful pedagogical aids, especially those that are interactive, to help you better understand the theory and research and to enable you to effectively build and polish your communication skills. (2012, p. xvii)

This confirms the view that in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*—as well as most of the textbooks in the series—theories are paired with skills. This does not change the "disconnects" found in the specific pairing of declarative and procedural knowledge: inaccurate representations of the sources, inappropriate applications of theoretical conceptions, and the difficulty of determining the declarative knowledge to be paired with recommended procedures. Skills, as procedures, would have to have the conditions of their performances specified. It is rarely the case that the conditions which enable the performance of skills or procedural knowledge are specified in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*. Students are, for the most part, left to imagine what the requested performances entail.

Considering this analysis in the context of the next chapter, it is clear that *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* is oriented toward students who wish to become skillful communicators. If Chapter 1 is any indication, learning, in the sense of a transformation from a common sense state of mind to the mindset of a researcher is clearly not the goal of *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*.

### Implications

The lack of match between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge has a significant impact on students' ability to fully understand the conceptions being studied. In Reif's view:

There is an important distinction between performance that is *usable* (enabling the performance of significant tasks) and performance that is just *nominal* (enabling merely naming some things or talking about them).

For example, suppose that a student is asked the question "What is a triangle?" and responds by saying "A triangle is a three-side polygon". On the basis of the student's performance on this question, a naive teacher might well conclude that the student knows what a triangle is.

But suppose that the student is shown a sheet of paper displaying various geometric figures and is asked to point out which of them is a triangle. Or suppose that the student is asked to draw a triangle. If the student can perform neither of these tasks, would the teacher still say that the student has significant knowledge about triangles? In this case, the student's performance consists merely of his ability to *state* a verbal definition of a triangle. But if he cannot *use* this definition to do anything with it (for example, if he can neither recognize nor construct a triangle) then the student's knowledge is purely nominal rather than effectively usable. (2008, pp. 16-17)

Another illustration of the distinction that Reif uses immediately after this example is the one I provided in the Introduction about Feynman's Brazilian students. In the context of Feynman's anecdote, the students using chapter 1 would have, at best, acquired nominal knowledge rather than usable knowledge in Reif's terms. In other words, the applications of the theories students are asked to undertake would not enable them to do communication research.

## 2.5 - FUTURE RESEARCH

The obvious implication of this analysis for future research is that more research needs to be conducted on the extent to which communication textbooks accurately represent the conceptions researchers use in their projects.

Aside from this obvious implication, more research is needed on the criteria that relates declarative knowledge of communication to the procedural knowledge needed in the field of Communication Studies.

There is also a curricular issue that requires research. Should Introductions to Communication Study be directed at both majors and non-majors? Or should courses in communication for non-majors be separate courses from those directed at majors? An associated question is: do the financial constraints on departments result in developing one course to serve two very different audiences? This question can be asked about courses that offer credit to both undergraduate and graduate students.

In Reif's model, the intellectual performance indicative of understanding a field is, in effect, learning to think like a researcher in that field. Does this imply that non-majors need to be treated in different ways than majors?

Can persons majoring in one science extrapolate what they learn about another science and apply it to the practices involved in their majors? If so, why emphasize personal skills rather than disciplinary skills?

Can a conception be understood sufficiently by omitting its development? For example, can a dialogical model of communication be understood sufficiently to be used as a framework in a research project without knowing about the linear models that preceded it the cognitive science models that follow it?

Is learning one model of communication sufficient to apply to all communication situations?

Can research into communication practices be learned from practicing how to communicate personally?

### *The next question*

The dual purposes and audiences of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* leads to another issue: Should communication textbooks be designed to meet student interests and expectations or to meet the expectations of the researchers in the field whose work has been well regarded?

## 2.6 - DATA APPENDIX

### *Analyzing the generic knowledge/performance outcomes in chapter 1 of Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012.*

Analyzing the conditions that make skills (procedural knowledge) applicable to the theoretical statements (declarative knowledge) in DeVito's textbook requires matching statements about communication to statements that show how to apply them to situations. Each chapter begins with a text box that matches particular theories with their coordinate skills. The red text indicates the cognitive connection assumed in the matches:

[Note: The following textboxes are identified by Chapter numbers and all are considered to be **Textbox 3**]

CHAPTER 1: Preliminaries to Human Communication	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
the major <b>elements</b> in the human communication process.	communicate with a clear understanding of the <b>essential elements</b> and how they relate to one another.
the <b>essential principles</b> that explain how communication works.	use <b>the essential principles</b> of human communication to increase your own effectiveness in interpersonal, small group, and public speaking.
the <b>characteristics of the competent communicator</b> .	begin to internalize <b>the characteristics of communication competence</b>

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter:

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
1.1. that learning the major elements of the communication process	will have the outcome that students can expect to have a clear understanding of how they function in communicating.
1.2. that learning how communication works	will have the outcome that effectiveness in communicating will increase
1.3. that learning the characteristics of competent communicators	will have the outcome that you begin to internalize them.

1.1: questionable connection — communicating is not systematic and technical. Abstract terms such as sender, noise, code do not correspond to the largely habitual performance of communicating and past experiences would not very likely be the categories in which past experiences in communicating are stored in the episodic memory.

1.2: a probable connection — although the principles are not elaborated here, that communication is multi-purposeful, requires adjustment, etc. can be applied to students' communicating practices.

1.3: a possible connection (assuming that some students begin internalizing, it depends upon repeated practice (an obstacle). How many repetitions are required for the acquisition of these skills is not known.)

<b>CHAPTER 2: Culture and Communication</b>	
<b>In this chapter you'll learn about:</b>	<b>And, you'll learn to:</b>
the ways <b>cultures differ</b> from one another.	send and receive messages with a recognition of <b>cultural influences and differences</b> .
the forms and principles of <b>inter-cultural situations</b> .	communicate more successfully <b>in inter-cultural situations</b> .

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter:

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
2.1. that learning the ways cultures differ from one another	will have the outcome that students can expect to send and receive messages with a recognition of cultural influences and differences
2.2. that learning the forms and principles of inter-cultural situations.	will have the outcome that students can expect to communicate more successfully in inter-cultural situations.

2.1: possible connection — since the statement does not indicate learning about influences, it is an obstacle to recognizing them.

2.2: probable connection — knowing the protocols (forms & principles) of intercultural communication, would lead to more success in communicating.

<b>CHAPTER 3: The Self and Perception</b>	
<b>In this chapter you'll learn about:</b>	<b>And, you'll learn to:</b>
<b>self-concept, self-awareness, and self-esteem.</b>	communicate with a better understanding of <b>who you are</b> .
the process of self-disclosure.	regulate your self-disclosures and respond appropriately to the disclosures of others.
the nature and workings of perception.	increase your own accuracy in perceiving other people and their messages.
the way impressions are formed and managed.	manage the impressions you communicate to others.

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
3.1. that learning about self-concept, self-awareness, and self-esteem	will have the outcome that students can expect to communicate with a better understanding of who you are.
3.2. that learning about the process of self-disclosure	will have the outcome that students can expect to regulate your self-disclosures and respond appropriately to the disclosures of others
3.3. that learning about the nature and workings of perception	will have the outcome that students can expect to increase your own accuracy in perceiving other people and their messages
3.4: that learning the way impressions are formed and managed	will have the outcome that students can expect to manage the impressions you communicate to others

3.1: possible connection — knowing about an abstract concept does not guarantee that students will apply it to themselves which requires additional self-reflection (obstacle)

3.2: possible connection — knowing about an abstract concept referring to a process does not guarantee that students will apply it to themselves which requires additional self-reflection (obstacle)

3.3: possible connection — knowing about an abstract concept does not guarantee that students will apply it to themselves which requires additional self-reflection (obstacle)

3.4: possible connection — knowing about an abstract concept does not guarantee that students will apply it to themselves which requires additional self-reflection (obstacle)

CHAPTER 4: Listening in Human Communication	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
how listening works.	avoid the barriers to effective listening.
the styles of listening you can use.	adjust your listening so that it's most effective for the specific situation.
how listening varies with gender and culture.	listen with sensitivity to cultural and gender variations.

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
4.1. that learning how listening works	will have the outcome that students can expect to avoid the barriers to effective listening.
4.2. that learning about styles of listening that can be used	will have the outcome that students can expect to adjust to specific situations
4.3. that learning how listening varies with gender and culture	will have the outcome that students can expect to listen with sensitivity to cultural and gender variations

4.1: possible connection: know how something works (e.g., an automobile) does not enable you to avoid barriers to driving it that are not related to its working.)

4.2: possible connection: *knowing about* styles of listening does not imply that you *know how* to use them

4.3: probable connection: the difference between 4.2 & 4.3, is that the latter is about *knowing how*.

CHAPTER 5: Verbal Messages	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
how language works.	use language to best achieve your purposes.
the nature of disconfirmation and confirmation	express confirmation when appropriate.
the principles of message effectiveness	use verbal messages more effectively

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
5.1. that learning how language works.	will have the outcome that students can expect to use language to best achieve your purposes
5.2. that learning	will have the outcome that students can expect
5.3. that learning	will have the outcome that students can expect

5.1: possible connection: deciding how best to achieve your purposes is an additional cognitive requirement to learning how language works

5.2: possible connection: knowing about an abstract concept does not guarantee that students will apply it *appropriately* (obstacle)

5.3: possible connection: knowing abstract principles does not guarantee that students will use them *effectively* (obstacle)

CHAPTER 6: Nonverbal Messages	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
the <b>functions</b> nonverbal communication serves.	<b>communicate more effectively</b> with nonverbal messages.
<b>how</b> nonverbal communication <b>interacts</b> with your verbal messages.	<b>respond appropriately</b> to the nonverbal messages of others.
the <b>channels</b> of nonverbal communication.	<b>encode and decode</b> nonverbal messages more effectively.
<b>the role of</b> culture and gender in nonverbal communication.	communicate <b>with an awareness of</b> cultural and gender influences and differences in nonverbal communication.

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
6.1. that learning the functions nonverbal communication serves	will have the outcome that students can expect to communicate more effectively with nonverbal messages.
6.2. that learning how nonverbal communication interacts with your verbal messages	will have the outcome that students can expect to respond appropriately to the nonverbal messages of others.
6.3. that learning the channels of nonverbal communication.	will have the outcome that students can expect to encode and decode nonverbal messages more effectively.
6.4. that learning the role of culture and gender in nonverbal communication.	will have the outcome that students can expect to communicate with an awareness of cultural and gender influences and differences in nonverbal communication.

- 6.1: possible connection: knowing functions does not guarantee that students will communicate *effectively* non-verbally (obstacle)
- 6.2: questionable connection: know about the interaction of verbal and non-verbal messages is not related to responding appropriately.
- 6.3: questionable connection: knowing about email, for example, does not make encoding or decoding messages more effective.
- 6.4: possible connection: knowing the roles of culture or gender in nonverbal communication does not entail awareness of influences (obstacle).

CHAPTER 7: Interpersonal Communication – Conversation	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
<b>how the process</b> of conversation works.	<b>apply the skills</b> of interpersonal communication to a wide variety of situations.
<b>how you can become</b> a more satisfying and more effective conversationalist.	<b>engage in</b> conversation that is satisfying and mutually productive.

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter:

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
7.1. that learning how the process of conversation works.	will have the outcome that students can expect to apply the skills of interpersonal communication to a wide variety of situations.
7.2. that learning how you can become a more satisfying and more effective conversationalist.	will have the outcome that students can expect to engage in conversation that is satisfying and mutually productive.

7.1: questionable connection: knowing about a process does not make one skilled at it.

7.2: probable connection: learning how to do something will likely result in being able to do it.

CHAPTER 8: Interpersonal Relationship - Stages and Theories	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
the ways in which relationships develop and the stages they go through.	communicate in ways appropriate to your relationship stage.
the theories that attempt to account for our relationship decisions and choices.	assess your own relationship behavior and make adjustments as needed.
the "dark side" of relationships.	deal with relationship jealousy and violence in productive ways.

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter:

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
8.1. that learning the ways in which relationships develop and the stages they go through.	will have the outcome that students can expect to communicate in ways appropriate to your relationship stage.
8.2. that learning the theories that attempt to account for our relationship decisions and choices.	will have the outcome that students can expect to assess your own relationship behavior and make adjustments as needed.
8.3. that learning about the "dark side" of relationships.	will have the outcome that students can expect to deal with relationship jealousy and violence in productive ways.

8.1: possible connection: judging what is appropriate is an additional cognitive ability (obstacle)

8.2: possible connection: knowing abstract theories does not entail using them to assess (obstacle)

8.3: questionable connection: knowing about jealousy and violence does not entail dealing with them productively.

CHAPTER 9: Friends, Lovers, and Families	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
the <b>types and functions</b> of friendship, love, and family relationships.	<b>interact</b> in interpersonal relationships <b>in ways that are appropriate</b> to the type of relationship.
<b>the ways in which</b> culture and technology <b>impact</b> on relationships of all types.	<b>take greater control of</b> what influences your relationship life.

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter:

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
9.1. that learning about the types and functions of friendship, love, and family relationships	will have the outcome that students can expect to interact in interpersonal relationships in ways that are appropriate to the type of relationship.
9.2. that learning the ways in which culture and technology impact on relationships of all types.	will have the outcome that students can expect to take greater control of what influences your relationship life.

9.1: possible connection: judging what is appropriate is an additional cognitive ability (obstacle)

9.2: questionable connection: the impact of culture & technology (two separate areas) could not enable one to take greater control of what influences your relationships. Suggests that one can control the impact of either culture or technology on one's life.

CHAPTER 10: Small Group Communication	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
the <b>stages and formats</b> of small groups.	use small groups to <b>achieve a variety of</b> personal, social, and professional goals.
the <b>structure and functions</b> of idea-generation, personal growth, information sharing, and problem solving groups.	<b>participate effectively</b> in a variety of small groups.

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter:

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
10.1. that learning about stages and formats	will have the outcome that students can expect to achieve a variety of personal, social, and professional goals.
10.2. that learning about the structure and functions of idea-generation, personal growth, information sharing, and problem solving groups.	will have the outcome that students can expect to participate effectively in a variety of small groups

10.1: questionable connection: being able to manipulate a group requires more than knowing about its stages and formats.

10.2: probable connection: on the other hand, knowing about the structure and functions of groups can enable you to participate effectively.

CHAPTER 11: Members and Leaders	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
the <b>kinds of roles</b> members play in groups.	<b>participate more effectively</b> as a group member.
the <b>types of and styles</b> of leadership.	<b>lead a wide variety of groups effectively and efficiently</b>
the role of culture in membership and leadership.	<b>NO COORDINATE PERFORMANCE</b>

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter:

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
11.1. that learning the kinds of roles members play in groups.	will have the outcome that students can expect to participate more effectively as a group member.
1.2. that learning the types of and styles of leadership.	will have the outcome that students can expect to lead a wide variety of groups effectively and efficiently

11.1: possible connection: participating effectively requires a judgment about the situation (obstacle)

11.2: questionable connection: leading a group effectively and efficiently requires more than knowing about the types and styles of leadership.

11.3: n/a

CHAPTER 12: Human Communication in the Workplace - Organizational Communication	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
the <b>nature and types</b> of organizations; the characteristics of organizations.	<b>communicate more effectively</b> in the organizational context.
the <b>types of</b> organizational messages and relationships.	<b>advance your own status and personal satisfaction</b> within the organization.

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter:

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
12.1. that learning the nature and types of organizations; the characteristics of organizations.	will have the outcome that students can expect to communicate more effectively in the organizational context.
12.2. that learning the types of organizational messages and relationships.	will have the outcome that students can expect to advance your own status and personal satisfaction within the organization.

12.1: possible connection: knowing the nature & types of organizations, etc. does not entail communicating in them more effectively which requires other skills (obstacle)

12.2: questionable connection: advances in status, not to mention personal satisfaction, are not the consequence of knowing types of messages or relationships.

CHAPTER 13: Interpersonal, Group, and Workplace Conflict	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
the <b>nature</b> of conflict; the <b>principles</b> of conflict.	<b>approach conflict positively and realistically.</b>
the <b>strategies</b> that people use to manage conflict.	engage in interpersonal and group conflict using <b>productive</b> conflict management strategies.

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter:

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
13.1. that learning the nature of conflict; the principles of conflict.	will have the outcome that students can expect to approach conflict positively and realistically.
13.2. that learning the strategies that people use to manage conflict.	will have the outcome that students can expect to engage in interpersonal and group conflict using productive conflict management strategies.

13.1: questionable connection: not only does abstract knowledge not lead to performance skills without additional cognitive activity, but in this case the ability to approach conflict positively depends upon the emotional makeup of the student and approaching conflict realistically is an ability that depends on practice.

13.2: probable connection: in contrast knowing strategies, assuming they are sound, enables using them.

CHAPTER 14: Public Speaking Topics, Audiences, and Research	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
the very normal nervousness that most people <b>feel</b> .	<b>manage your own anxiety</b> and not let it prevent you from developing and presenting effective speeches.
the first <b>three steps</b> for preparing a public speech.	<b>select</b> an appropriate speech topic, purpose, and thesis.
	<b>analyze</b> and adapt to your audiences.
	<b>research</b> your topic.

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter:

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
14.1. that learning about the very normal nervousness that most people feel.	will have the outcome that students can expect to manage your own anxiety and not let it prevent you from developing and presenting effective speeches.
14.2. that learning first three steps for preparing a public speech	will have the outcome that students can expect to take them

14.1: questionable connection: knowing that nervousness is normal does not necessarily result in managing it

14.2: possible connection: this connection depends on the students believing that they are viable (obstacle)

CHAPTER 15: Supporting and Organizing Your Speech	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
the <b>nature</b> of supporting materials.	support your ideas <b>with interesting and persuasive materials</b> (examples, testimony, statistics).
<b>the main points</b> of your speech.	<b>generate your main points from your thesis statement.</b>
the organizational <b>patterns, introductions, and conclusions for speeches of all types.</b>	<b>organize your thoughts so that your speech is easy to follow and maintains your audience's interest and attention.</b>

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter:

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
15.1. that learning the nature of supporting materials.	will have the outcome that students can expect to support your ideas with interesting and persuasive materials (examples, testimony, statistics).
15.2. that learning what the main points of your speech are	will have the outcome that students can expect to generate your main points from your thesis statement.
15.3. that learning the organizational patterns, introductions, and conclusions for speeches of all types.	will have the outcome that students can expect to organize your thoughts so that your speech is easy to follow and maintains your audience's interest and attention.

- 15.1: questionable connection: know about data is not related to articulating it in interesting or persuasive ways.  
 15.2: questionable connection: "generating" ideas from a statement requires the ability to synthesize them into an expression so that it implies all three ideas which is not related to knowing the main points.  
 15.3: questionable connection: the effect of a coherent & interesting speech is not a necessary result of knowing how speeches can be organized.

CHAPTER 16: Style and Delivery in Public Speaking	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
language and <b>how</b> it influences us.	<b>use</b> language to <b>best achieve</b> your purposes.
<b>ways that speakers use to rehearse</b> their speeches.	<b>rehearse</b> your speech efficiently.
the <b>various methods</b> of presentation and <b>how to use</b> your voice and bodily actions to the greatest advantage.	deliver your speech with <b>maximum impact</b>
the <b>role</b> of criticism in public speaking	<b>criticize</b> speeches <b>constructively</b> .

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter:

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
16.1. that learning about language and how it influences us	will have the outcome that students can expect to use language to best achieve your purposes.
1.2. that learning the ways that speakers use to rehearse their speeches.	will have the outcome that students can expect to rehearse your speech efficiently
16.3. that learning the various methods of presentation and how to use your voice and bodily actions to the greatest advantage.	will have the outcome that students can expect to deliver their speech with maximum impact
16.4 that learning the role of criticism in public speaking	will have the outcome that students can expect to criticize speeches constructively

- 16.1: questionable connection: knowing about language and how language influences us is very vague, whereas purposes are quite specific. Need to specify a particular influence and its relation to a specific purpose. (I understand that this is a generalization that is made more specific in the chapter. However, it should be rephrased. As it stands, the connection is not made.)  
 16.2: possible connection: know ways to rehearse is likely to enable students to rehearse but doing it "efficiently" requires another cognitive component (obstacle)  
 16.3: possible connection: "maximum impact" is unknowable until after the fact (obstacle) but knowing methods, voice control, and gestures would enable delivering a speech  
 16.4: possible connection: "constructively" adds another cognitive component (obstacle)

CHAPTER 17: The Informative Speech	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
the <b>goals</b> and <b>principles</b> for communicating information.	<b>use the</b> principles for communicating information more effectively and efficiently.
<b>the types of informative speeches.</b>	<b>prepare a variety of informative speeches</b> —speeches of description, definition, and demonstration.

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter:

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
17.1. that learning the goals and principles for communicating information.	will have the outcome that students can expect to use the principles for communicating information more effectively and efficiently.
17.2. that learning the types of informative speeches.	will have the outcome that students can expect to prepare a variety of informative speeches—speeches of description, definition, and demonstration.

17.1: possible connection: "more effectively and efficiently" adds two other cognitive components (obstacles)

17.2: probable connection: knowing types of speeches enables preparing them according to type.

CHAPTER 18: The Persuasive Speech	
In this chapter you'll learn about:	And, you'll learn to:
the <b>nature and goals</b> of persuasion and <b>how attitudes, beliefs, values, and behaviors are influenced.</b>	<b>use the strategies of persuasion</b> in a variety of communication contexts.
the <b>major types</b> of persuasive speeches.	<b>prepare a variety of effective</b> persuasive speeches on questions of fact, value, and policy
	<b>prevent yourself</b> from being unfairly or unethically persuaded.

Assumptions about the outcomes of declarative knowledge in the chapter:

DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE	PROCEDURAL OUTCOME
8.1. that learning the nature and goals of persuasion and how attitudes, beliefs, values, and behaviors are influenced.	will have the outcome that students can expect to use the strategies of persuasion in a variety of communication contexts.
8.2. that learning the major types of persuasive speeches.	will have the outcome that students can expect to prepare a variety of effective persuasive speeches on questions of fact, value, and policy
8.3.	will have the outcome that students can expect to prevent yourself from being unfairly or unethically persuaded.

18.1: probable connection: knowing about and how persuasion works is likely to enable using strategies of persuasion

18.2: possible connection: "effective" adds another cognitively ability (obstacle)

18.3: the declarative knowledge component is not provided, if it is intended to be "learning the major types of persuasive speeches" the connection would be questionable because knowing types of speeches is not related to being "unfairly" or "unethically" influenced in that this effect would have more to do with the discursive structure of the speech than with its genre.

As can be seen in the following chart, all 49 pairings of cognitive abilities have to be considered to result in nominal understanding of Communication Studies.

[The expression "you'll learn about" is construed as involving the cognitive ability of "understanding." The text in turquoise indicates the cognitive abilities called for in relation to the declarative knowledge in the preceding column. ? = questionable connection given the lack of specification of the conditions required for the procedure.]

	Understand	And, you'll be able to:	Comment:
1.	? the major elements in the human communication process.	communicate with a clear understanding of the essential elements and how they relate to one another.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
2.	? the essential principles that explain how communication works.	use the essential principles of human communication to increase your own effectiveness in	-no necessary connection between understanding a principle and using it to increase effectiveness in communicating.
3.	? the characteristics of the competent communicator.	begin to internalize the characteristics of communication	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and internalizing it
<b>CHAPTER 2: Culture and Communication</b>			
	Understand	And, you'll be able to:	Comment:
4.	? the ways cultures differ from one another.	send and receive messages with a recognition of cultural influences and differences.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and recognizing it. [The Feynman principle]
5.	? the forms and principles of inter-cultural situations.	communicate more successfully in inter-cultural situations.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
<b>CHAPTER 3: The Self and Perception</b>			
	Understand	And, you'll be able to:	Comment:
6.	? self-concept, self-awareness, and self-esteem.	communicate with a better understanding of who you are.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
7.	? the process of self-disclosure.	regulate your self-disclosures and respond appropriately to the disclosures of others.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and regulating your behavior.
8.	? the nature and workings of perception.	increase your own accuracy in perceiving other people and their messages.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and increasing accuracy in perceiving
9.	? the way impressions are formed and managed.	manage the impressions you communicate to others.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
<b>CHAPTER 4: Listening in Human Communication</b>			
	Understand	And, you'll be able to:	Comment:
10.	? how listening works.	avoid the barriers to effective listening.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and controlling your behavior
11.	? the styles of listening you can use.	adjust your listening so that it's most effective for the specific situation.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
12.	? how listening varies with	listen with sensitivity to cultural and	-no necessary connection between

	gender and culture.	gender variations.	understanding the concept of listening and listening with sensitivity.
<b>CHAPTER 5: Verbal Messages</b>			
	<b>Understand</b>	<b>And, you'll be able to:</b>	<b>Comment:</b>
13.	how language works.	use language to best achieve your purposes.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it as a means to achieve your puposes.
14.	the nature of disconfirmation and confirmation	express confirmation when appropriate.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
15.	the principles of message effectiveness	use verbal messages more effectively	-no necessary connection between understanding principles and applying them more effectively.
<b>CHAPTER 6: Nonverbal Messages</b>			
	<b>Understand</b>	<b>And, you'll be able to:</b>	<b>Comment:</b>
16.	the functions nonverbal communication serves.	communicate more effectively with nonverbal messages.	-no necessary connection between understanding the concept of the nonverbal functions of communication and being able to communicate <i>effectively</i> non-verbally.
17.	how nonverbal communication interacts with your verbal messages.	respond appropriately to the nonverbal messages of others.	-no necessary connection between understanding the concept of nonverbal communication and responding to it.
18.	the channels of nonverbal communication.	encode and decode nonverbal messages more effectively.	-no necessary connection between understanding the concept of a channel and the activity of encoding and decoding.
19.	the role of culture and gender in nonverbal communication.	communicate with an awareness of cultural and gender influences and differences in nonverbal communication.	-no necessary connection between understanding the concepts and using them in nonverbal communications. [The Feynman principle]
<b>CHAPTER 7: Interpersonal Communication – Conversation</b>			
	<b>Understand</b>	<b>And, you'll be able to:</b>	<b>Comment:</b>
20.	how the process of conversation works.	apply the skills of interpersonal communication to a wide variety of situations.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
21.	how you can become a more satisfying and more effective conversationalist.	engage in conversation that is satisfying and mutually productive.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
<b>CHAPTER 8: Interpersonal Relationship - Stages and Theories</b>			
	<b>Understand</b>	<b>And, you'll be able to:</b>	<b>Comment:</b>
22.	the ways in which relationships develop and the stages they go through	communicate in ways appropriate to your relationship stage.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
23.	the theories that attempt to account for our relationship decisions and choices.	assess your own relationship behavior and make adjustments as needed.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
24.	the "dark side" of relationships.	deal with relationship jealousy and violence in productive ways.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and dealing with the situation to which it refers.
<b>CHAPTER 9: Friends, Lovers, and Families</b>			
	<b>Understand</b>	<b>And, you'll be able to:</b>	<b>Comment:</b>
25.	the types and functions of friendship, love, and family relationships.	interact in interpersonal relationships in ways that are appropriate to the type of relationship.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and using it as a guideline for behavior.

26.	?	the ways in which culture and technology impact on relationships of all types.	take greater control of what influences your relationship life.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and using it as a guideline for behavior.
<b>CHAPTER 10: Small Group Communication</b>				
		<b>Understand</b>	<b>And, you'll be able to:</b>	<b>Comment:</b>
27.	?	the stages and formats of small groups.	use small groups to achieve a variety of personal, social, and professional goals.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and using it as a guideline for behavior.
28.	?	the structure and functions of idea-generation, personal growth, information sharing, and problem solving groups.	participate effectively in a variety of small groups.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
<b>CHAPTER 11: Members and Leaders</b>				
		<b>Understand</b>	<b>And, you'll be able to:</b>	<b>Comment:</b>
29.	?	the kinds of roles members play in groups.	participate more effectively as a group member.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and using it as a guideline for behavior.
30.	?	the types of and styles of leadership.	lead a wide variety of groups effectively and efficiently	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and using it as a guideline for behavior.
31.	-	the role of culture in membership and leadership.	NO COORDINATE PERFORMANCE	
<b>CHAPTER 12: Human Communication in the Workplace - Organizational Communication</b>				
		<b>Understand</b>	<b>And, you'll be able to:</b>	<b>Comment:</b>
32.	?	the nature and types of organizations; the characteristics of organizations.	communicate more effectively in the organizational context.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and using it as a guideline for behavior.
33.	?	the types of organizational messages and relationships.	advance your own status and personal satisfaction within the organization.	-no necessary connection between understanding the concept of organizational messages and personal satisfaction although there is a connection with advancing status.
<b>CHAPTER 13: Interpersonal, Group, and Workplace Conflict</b>				
		<b>Understand</b>	<b>And, you'll be able to:</b>	<b>Comment:</b>
34.	?	the nature of conflict; the principles of conflict.	approach conflict positively and realistically.	-no necessary connection between understanding the concept of conflict and behaving in a conflict situation positively and realistically. .
35.	?	the strategies that people use to manage conflict.	engage in interpersonal and group conflict using productive conflict management strategies.	-no necessary connection between understanding a strategy and using it productively.
<b>CHAPTER 14: Public Speaking Topics, Audiences, and Research</b>				
		<b>Understand</b>	<b>And, you'll be able to:</b>	<b>Comment:</b>
36.	?	the very normal nervousness that most people feel.	manage your own anxiety and not let it prevent you from developing and presenting effective speeches.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and using it as a guideline for behavior.
37.	?	the first three steps for preparing a public speech	select an appropriate speech topic, purpose, and thesis. analyze and adapt to your audiences. research your topic.	Presumably, the first three steps are: select, analyze, and research. However, understanding what the three cognitive processes mean does not entail being to conduct them properly.
<b>CHAPTER 15: Supporting and Organizing Your Speech</b>				
		<b>Understand</b>	<b>And, you'll be able to:</b>	<b>Comment:</b>
38.	?	the nature of supporting materials.	support your ideas with interesting and persuasive materials (examples,	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The

		testimony, statistics).	Feynman principle]	
39.	?	the main points of your speech.	<b>generate</b> your main points from your thesis statement.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
40.	?	the organizational patterns, introductions, and conclusions for speeches of all types.	<b>organize</b> your thoughts so that your speech is easy to follow and maintains your audience's interest and attention.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
<b>CHAPTER 16: Style and Delivery in Public Speaking</b>				
		<b>Understand</b>	<b>And, you'll be able to:</b>	<b>Comment:</b>
41.	?	language and how it influences us.	<b>use</b> language to best achieve your purposes.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
42.	?	ways that speakers use to rehearse their speeches.	<b>rehearse</b> your speech efficiently.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
43.	?	the various methods of presentation and how to use your voice and bodily actions to the greatest advantage.	<b>deliver</b> your speech with maximum impact	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
44.	?	the role of criticism in public speaking	criticize speeches constructively.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
<b>CHAPTER 17: The Informative Speech</b>				
		<b>Understand</b>	<b>And, you'll be able to:</b>	<b>Comment:</b>
45.	?	the goals and principles for communicating information.	<b>use</b> the principles for communicating information more effectively and efficiently.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
46.	?	the types of informative speeches.	<b>prepare</b> a variety of informative speeches—speeches of description, definition, and demonstration.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
<b>CHAPTER 18: The Persuasive Speech</b>				
		<b>Understand</b>	<b>And, you'll be able to:</b>	<b>Comment:</b>
47.	?	the nature and goals of persuasion and how attitudes, beliefs, values, and behaviors are influenced.	<b>use</b> the strategies of persuasion in a variety of communication contexts.	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
48.	?	the major types of persuasive speeches.	<b>prepare</b> a variety of effective persuasive speeches on questions of fact, value, and policy	-no necessary connection between understanding a concept and applying it. [The Feynman principle]
49.	?		<b>prevent</b> yourself from being unfairly or unethically persuaded.	-not clear what to pair this action with conceptually.

Table 3

[RETURN TO FINDINGS](#)

*Analyzing the specific matches between declarative statements and procedural statements in chapter 1 of Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012 with respect to applicability conditions*

1. Inadequate representation of the sources cited

1a. the content and relationship dimension of communication

The "Distinguishing Content from Relationship Messages" textbox:

In *You're Wearing That?*, (2006), Deborah Tannen gives examples of content and relationship communication and the problems that can result from different interpretations. For example, the mother who says, "Are you going to wear those earrings?" may think she's communicating solely a content message. To the daughter, however, the message is largely relational and is a criticism of the way she intends to dress. (Of course, the mother may have intended criticism.) Often, questions that may appear to be objective and focused on content are perceived as attacks, as in the title of Tannen's book. **Identify the possible content and relational** messages that a receiver might get in being asked the following questions:

- You're calling me?
- Did you say you're applying to medical school?
- You're in love?
- You paid a hundred dollars for that?
- And that's all you did?

Content and relationship messages serve *different communication functions*, *Being able to distinguish between these functions is a prerequisite for using and responding to messages effectively.*

**Textbox 4**

Though the textbox references Deborah Tannen, in the chapter the distinction between "Content and Relationship Dimensions," is also attributed to Watzlawick, et. al. (*Pragmatics of Human Communication* Watzlawick, et al., 1967, pp. 51-54). In their account, all messages in communicating have both a content and a relationship dimension. In *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, the content dimension is referred to as a content *message* and the relationship dimension as a relationship *message* (2012, p. 15 and 16). By contrast, in the *Pragmatics of Human Communication* the distinction is not about different types of messages but different aspects of *any* message.

The report aspect of a message conveys information and is, therefore, synonymous in human communication with the *content* of the message. It may be about anything that is communicable regardless of whether the particular information is true or false, valid, invalid, or undecidable. The command aspect, on the other hand, refers to what sort of message it is to be taken as, and, therefore, ultimately to the relationship between communicants. (Watzlawick, et al., 1967, pp. 51-52)

Further, in the textbox, Deborah Tannen is cited as someone who gives examples of the distinction between "content and relationship communication." The scenario in it parallels one in a section of *You're Wearing That? Understanding Mothers and Daughters in Conversation*. Tannen offers an example of "one of the conundrums of mother-daughter relationships: the double-meaning of connection and control" (2006, p. 11). In the example, Loraine's mother asks her the question which Loraine interprets as a criticism.

In interpreting her mother's question as a sign of disapproval, Loraine was also drawing on past conversations. She couldn't count the times her mother had commented, on this visit and on all the previous ones, "You're wearing *that*?" And therein lies another reason that anything said between mothers and daughters can either warm our hearts or raise our hackles: Their conversations have a long history, going back literally to the start of the daughter's life. So anything either one says at a given moment takes meaning not only from the words spoken at that moment but from all the conversations they have had in the past. (Tannen, 2006, p. 14)

Explaining Loraine's interpretation of her mother's question, Tannen, (as do Watzlawick, et al.), notes that "interpretations depend on metamesages-the meaning gleaned from how something is said, or from the fact that it is said at all" (2006, p. 13).<sup>14</sup> For Tannen, interpreting meta-messages depends on non-verbal clues (how something is said) as well as contextual clues (the fact that it is said in this context). Being able to discern the possible meta-messages that indicate what sort of message it is, as Tannen notes, usually depends on "all of the conversations they have had in the past."

In these examples, the declarative knowledge entailed includes nonverbal meta-communication (2012, pp. 52-53; Watzlawick, et al., 1967) since the key to making the distinction is context and intonation or some other gestural aspect of the conversations (Watzlawick, et al., 1967, p. 53). However, it is questionable whether students can apply the distinction between content and relationship functions to the speech acts listed below without non-verbal and contextual clues which are not given in the textbox scenario.<sup>15</sup> Moreover, the speech acts at issue are un-contextualized questions about which students are asked to "identify the possible content and relationship messages:

1. You're calling me?
2. Did you say you're applying to medical school?
3. You're in love?
4. You paid a hundred dollars for that?
5. And that's all you did?

Consider identifying the relationship function of the first question, "You're calling me?" Without a context, it is impossible to understand the question. The second question is similarly difficult to interpret without a context. Questions 3-5 are familiar to some extent and contexts can be inferred from the questions. The question "You're in love?" could be contextualized as a close friend asking his or her companion the question in a tone of surprise based on familiarity with the past relationships or dispositions of his or her companion. Similarly, the question, "You paid a hundred dollars for that?" could be contextualized as a friend expressing surprise at the discrepancy in the evaluation of the item purchased by his or her friend. And, similarly, the question "And that's all you did?" could be contextualized as a friend expressing surprise at the extent of his or her companion's behavior in a specific situation. In every case students have to invent contexts in which the questions might be asked and then interpret the attitude behind the question as friendly or hostile in the case where the relationship was agonistic.

None of the "possible" scenarios imagined by students could approximate the extensive research behind Tannen's observations of mother-daughter relationships. In the case of Watzlawick, Beavin, and Jackson, their view is taken from Jurgen Ruesch and Gregory Bateson's *Communication: The Social Matrix of Psychiatry*:

Whatever communication we consider, be it the transmission of impulses in a neural system or the transmission of words in a conversation, it is evident that every message in transit has two sorts of "meaning" ... On the one hand, the message is a statement or report about events at a previous moment, and on the other hand it is a command—a cause or stimulus for events at a later moment. ... The same thing is true of all verbal communication, and indeed of all communication whatsoever. When A speaks to B, whatever words he uses will have these two aspects: they will tell B about A, conveying information about some perception or knowledge which A has; and they will be a cause or basis for B's later action. ...

This double aspect of all communication is, of course, a commonplace of the psychiatric interview and is indeed the basis of a large part of all differences between the content of consciousness and the unconscious. The patient is continually aware of only one aspect of what he is saying—whether it be the "report" or the "command"—and the psychiatrist is continually calling his attention to that aspect which he would prefer not to recognize. (Ruesch & Bateson, 1968, pp. 179-180)

That *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* does not cite Ruesch and Bateson's cybernetic account of the two aspects of communication is not the problem I am addressing. The problem is that construing a content message as distinct from a relationship message is not only an inaccurate account of the distinction between content and relationship levels of communication, but that the distinction should be related to the concept of meta-messages, in particular non-verbal ones, in the section on "Elements of Communication," a connection that Tannen, Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson as well as Ruesch and Bateson foreground in their delineations of the distinction.

### 1b. Mindfulness

There are no specific skills boxes for communication competence. However, in the section on "The Competent Communicator Thinks Critically and Mindfully" four practices of mindful critical thinking are offered (2012, p. 22). The concept of mindfulness as well as some of the practices are drawn from Ellen J. Langer's *Mindfulness* (1989, pp. 61-79). In *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, mindfulness is regarded as a special kind of "critical thinking":

Mindfulness is a state of awareness in which you're conscious of your reasons for thinking or behaving. In its opposite, mindlessness, you lack conscious awareness of what or how you're thinking (Langer, 1989). To apply interpersonal skills effectively in conversation, you need to be mindful of the unique communication situation you're in, of your available communication options, and of the reasons why one option is likely to be better than the others (Burgoon, Berger, & Waldron, 2000; Elmes & Gemmill, 1990).<sup>16</sup> (2012, pp. 22, , the citations in the quotation are DeVito's)

Langer does not define mindfulness in her 1989 book. She equates it with “the key qualities of a mindful state of being: (1) creation of new categories; (2) openness to new information; and (3) awareness of more than one perspective (1989). In the 2000 article that DeVito cites, the authors note that:

Although mindfulness is often equated with actors producing, comprehending, and interpreting verbal and nonverbal messages in a deliberate, rational fashion that reflects not only forethought but also ongoing monitoring of the discursive stream, it would be a misconstrual of the concept to equate mindfulness with conscious, planful, or strategic communication ... Langer (1989) makes clear that mindfulness refers to active and fluid information processing, sensitivity to context and multiple perspectives and ability to draw novel distinctions. (Burgoon, et al., 2000, p. 106)

Given the remarks by Burgoon, Berger, and Waldron, characterizing Langer’s view of “mindfulness” in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 as “a state of awareness in which you are conscious of the logic and rationality of **your** behaviors and of the logical connections among them” is quite misleading.

After defining mindfulness in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012, DeVito lists four practices.

As you progress through your study of human communication, actively increase your own mindfulness (Langer, 1989):

- **Create and re-create categories.** Group things in different ways; remember that people are constantly changing, so the categories into which you may group them also should change. Learn to see objects, events, and people as belonging to a wide variety of categories. Try to see, for example, your prospective romantic partner in a variety of roles child, parent, employee, neighbor, friend, financial contributor, and so on.
- **Be open to new information and points of view.** This is perhaps especially important when these contradict your most firmly held beliefs. New information forces *you* to reconsider what might be outmoded ways of thinking and can help *you* challenge long-held but now inappropriate beliefs and attitudes.
- **Beware of relying too heavily on first impressions.** Treat first impressions as tentative, as hypotheses that need further investigation. Be prepared to revise, reject, or accept these initial impressions.
- **Think before you act.** Especially in delicate situations such as anger or commitment messages, it's wise to pause and think over the situation mindfully. In this way you'll stand a better chance of acting and reacting appropriately (DeVito, 2012, p. 22)

Given the colon at the end of the first sentence, the practices mentioned seem to be drawn from the declarative and correlative procedural knowledge found in Langer’s 1989 *Mindfulness*.

In his delineation of mindfulness, DeVito offers four ways of increasing mindfulness attributed to Langer. While “create new categories” and “be open to information and points of view” are drawn from Langer, “Beware of relying too heavily on first impressions” and “Think before you act” are not. In her chapter on “The Nature of Mindfulness,” Langer discusses two cognitive dispositions which she includes in her “definition” of mindfulness, “Control over context” and “process before outcome.” Neither of these cognitive dispositions correspond to “Beware of relying too heavily on first impressions” and “Think before you act.” DeVito’s account of Langer’s view is misleading.

It is instructive to match Langer’s discourse (1989) with DeVito’s

Langer’s discourse	DeVito’s delineation of Langer’s conception:
... “the key qualities of a mindful state of being:	“Mindfulness is a state of awareness
“(1) creation of new categories; (2) openness to new information; and (3) awareness of more than one perspective.”  [For Langer, these dispositions are “qualities” of a mindful state and are present together with each other.]	in which you’re conscious of your reasons for thinking or behaving.” [does not correspond to Langer’s text and is presented in the syntax of a definition—“Mindfulness is ...”]
(L1) <b>Creation of new categories:</b> “Categorizing and re-categorizing, labeling and relabeling as one masters the world are processes natural to children. They are adaptive and inevitable part of surviving in the world. Freud recognized the importance of creation and mastery in childhood. [He wrote] Should we not look for the first traces of imaginative activity as early as in childhood? The child’s best-loved and most intense occupation is with his play or games. Might we not say that every child at play behaves like a creative writer, in the he creates a world of his own, or rather, re-arranges the things of his world in a new way which pleases him.”	(D1) <b>“Create and re-create categories.</b> Group things in different ways; remember that people are constantly changing, so the categories into which you may group them also should change. Learn to see objects, events, and people as belonging to a wide variety of categories. Try to see, for example, your prospective romantic partner in a variety of roles child, parent, employee, neighbor, friend, financial contributor, and so on.”  [The conception of a category in this paragraph is logical. Langer’s conception of a category is imaginative. It is closer to a prototypical conception than a logical conception. <sup>117</sup> ]
(L2) <b>Openness to new information:</b> For Langer “mindfully engaged individuals will actively attend to changed signals. Behavior generated from mindful listening or watching, from an expanding, increasingly differentiated information base, is, of course, likely to be more effective.” Openness to new information involves being “open to cues, to another point of view.  [Note that DeVito collapses the two characteristics into one, which suggests that awareness of more than one perspective is equivalent to receiving new information.]	(D2) <b>Be open to new information and points of view.</b> This is perhaps especially important when these contradict your most firmly held beliefs. New information forces <i>you</i> to reconsider what might be outmoded ways of thinking and can help <i>you</i> challenge long-held but now inappropriate beliefs and attitudes.  [In DeVito’s gloss on “open to new information” the concept of “contradiction” plays a prominent role which is in the semantic network of logic. For Langer, contradiction is not a factor. See (L3)
(L3) <b>Awareness of more than one perspective:</b>  “Once we become mindfully aware of views other than our own, we start to realize that there are as many different views as there are different <b>observers.</b> ”  [Langer goes on the point out that the same event can be understood from different perspectives even though they might seem to cancel each other out.]	
	(D3) <b>Beware of relying too heavily on first impressions.</b> Treat first impressions as tentative, as hypotheses that need further investigation. Be prepared to revise, reject, or accept these initial impressions.
	(D4) <b>Think before you act.</b> Especially in delicate situations such as anger or commitment messages, it’s wise to pause and think over the situation mindfully. In this way you’ll stand a better chance of acting and reacting appropriately
(L4) <b>Control over Context.</b> [reframing] “Patients are often certain that pain is inevitable in a hospital. Caught in such a mindset, they assume that, without the help of medication, pain	

cannot be controlled. In our experiment, we tried to learn whether people could control their experience of pain by putting it in a different, more optimistic context. “	
(L5) <b>Process Before Outcome.</b> “... we can see mindfulness as a process orientation.” ... “A true process orientation also means being aware that every outcome is preceded by a process.” For instance, “Awareness of the process of making real choices along the way makes it less likely that we will feel guilty in retrospect. After all, mindful choices are perceived to offer some benefit, or why would we intentionally make them? On occasion, after learning the consequences of a choice, we may wish we had chosen differently, but we still tend not to be quite as hard on ourselves when we know why we did what we did.”	

Table 3

Of course, DeVito is within his rights to adapt Langer to his purposes. However, the slant toward logic, rationality, and information is close to the opposite of what Langer means by “mindfulness.”

## RETURN TO FINDINGS

2. The procedure recommended could not be considered an application of the declarative knowledge identified in the textbox

### Resolving Ambiguity

Here are a few ambiguous situations; for each, indicate what you would say to resolve the ambiguity. If possible, try to share your responses with others in a small group and perhaps combine responses to come up with the ideal way to reduce the ambiguity. Or responses from a larger group can be written on index cards (anonymously), collected, and read aloud for the entire group to evaluate.

1. You've been dating Pat on and off for the past six months. Today, Pat asks you to come to dinner and meet the parents. You're not sure if this means that Pat wants to get more serious (which you do not want) or if it's a simple dinner invitation with no additional motives. How might you **disambiguate** this dinner invitation message?
2. At an appraisal interview, your supervisor says that your work over the last six months has improved considerably-then smiles and says, "But there's always more that I need to do;" and then nonverbally indicates that the interview is over and you can return to work. Since you're considering other job offers, you want to know in more detail how your current employer sees you and your prospects for advancement. How might you **disambiguate** this job appraisal?
3. You receive an e-mail invitation to address the eighth-grade class of your local middle school on careers in communication. The invitation said little more than that a conference on careers is planned and that they'd like to schedule you as one of the speakers. This is too ambiguous for you; you need to know in more detail what will be expected of you. How might you **disambiguate** this invitation to speak?

Messages and *relationships* are often *ambiguous*; instead of assuming one *interpretation* is right and another wrong, it may be useful to try **to disambiguate the message and find out more clearly what**

*the speaker means.*

### Textbox 5

That “communication is ambiguous” is the declarative knowledge in this textbox and the correlative procedural knowledge is “reducing ambiguity” by “disambiguating” the message (2012, pp. 17-18). How to disambiguate is specified as *“instead of assuming one interpretation is right and another wrong, it may be useful to try to disambiguate the message and find out more clearly what the speaker means.”* This is hardly an adequate specification of the relation between ambiguity and the procedure of disambiguating. How could one “find out *more clearly*” what someone else means? If the listener is not “clear” about what a given expression means, whatever ambiguity is involved is related to the listener not the speaker. In my view, there are two ways of reducing ambiguity—(1) one is by examining all of the possible meanings that can be inferred from the utterance and (2) the other is by asking, directly or indirectly, the speaker to clarify what he or she meant. The “Resolving Ambiguity” textbox asks: “How might you disambiguate this ... message?” leaving both approaches open. The three “choice points” textboxes ask “what might you say to reduce the ambiguity?” which suggests only the second approach:

In the first approach clarifying meaning involves considering the meanings that are not covered by the conventional meanings of words. Ordinarily, “in the process of communication, the ‘sender’s’ communicative intention becomes mutual knowledge” (Levinson, 2000, p. 16) because of the conventional nature of language use. On the other hand, the conventional content of what is said “does not include all the inferences that can be made from (a) what is said and (b) all the available facts about the world known to participants” (Levinson, 2000, p. 15) which are the pragmatic dimension of utterances.

Granting that students would be hard pressed to identify “all the inferences that can be made” about the remarks in question, and given the fact that the “Relationship Ambiguity” choice points textbox containing one of the scenarios in the “Resolving Ambiguity textbox” on the same page, students would be likely to construe “disambiguating” as asking, directly or indirectly, the speaker to clarify what he or she meant. Since we do not have access to another person’s thoughts, determining what his or her intentions are depends upon whether he or she discloses them. Thus, the most direct way of finding out what someone else means is to get them to disclose their intentions. This would not be possible unless, in some way, the person was asked what they were.

However, this procedure would not work in the choice points scenarios. In two of the situations described in these textboxes, asking the speaker what he means is more likely to initiate an evasive response than a response that clarifies the meaning of the remark in question.

The three COMMUNICATION CHOICE POINT textboxes: Irreversibility, Silence, and Content and Relationship Messages all propose prompting the speaker to disclose his or her intentions by saying something about them.

**CONTENT AND RELATIONSHIP MESSAGES:** An older relative frequently belittles you, though always in a playful way. But it's uncomfortable and probably not very good for your self-esteem. You're determined to stop the behavior but not lose the relationship. **What do you say? Through what channel?** (2012, p. 24)

**Textbox 6**

**SILENCE:** Your partner (who is extremely sensitive to criticism) talks constantly. There is never any silence, which you desperately crave. You're determined to combat this and create periods of occasional silence. Yet, you don't want to start an argument. **What are some of the things you might say? What are some of the things you'd want to be sure not to say? How might you introduce the topic?** (2012, p. 23)

**Textbox 7**

**IRREVERSIBILITY:** You post a really negative remark on your friend's Facebook wall. The next day you realize you shouldn't have been so negative. You really want to remain friends. You need to say something. **What are your options for communicating your feelings? What communication channels could you use?** (2012, p. 20)

**Textbox 8**

In each case, the person in the situation who must be addressed may be offended by the interlocutor's responses. In each case, the goal is to preserve the relationship. All three scenarios call for a rhetorical response to the situation which is not necessarily governed by the concepts identified.

The "older relative" scenario clearly involves socio-cultural conventions associated with the relationship between an older relative and a person who is younger. Recalling the discussion of the concept of the content-relationship dimensions of communication, would a valid performance in this case be to send a meta-message to the older relative? (In Watzlawick and Tannen's views meta-messages are usually the carriers of the relational aspect of a communication.) The secondary question, "through what channel?" would seem to imply that this would be an appropriate response. Whatever response might be chosen, the concept most relevant to the situation is the rhetorical "effect" discussed on in the section on "Elements of Communication" (2012, p. 12). In any case, it would be difficult to answer the questions in the textbox on the basis of the declarative knowledge identified—"content and relationship messages" without offering an example and explaining its rhetorical force, students would be likely to fall back on their past experiences of similar situations rather than "theorize" their response.

The other two scenarios are similar. In the "silence" scenario, the passage in the chapter on "cultural sensitivity" and communication competence are more relevant than the concept of silence, which by the way, is not a "key term" in the chapter and appears only in discussions of cultural differences. In the "irreversibility" scenario, the concept is not central to the verbal performance requested, which has to do with making amends with a friend. Again, a rhetorical matter.

Given these considerations, of the scenarios in which students are asked to disambiguate ambiguity, only 1 pairing can be considered probable. The other 2 are "questionable."

## RETURN TO FINDINGS

3. The declarative knowledge to be paired with the procedures called for in the textboxes was difficult, if not impossible, to specify

There is another obstacle to making the appropriate connections between declarative and procedural knowledge in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, namely the location of the textboxes which made it difficult to specify the theory to which the requested performance was to apply.

### 3a. the "what do you believe about communication" textbox

The main textbox in the section of the chapter "Elements of Communication" is a test: "What Do You Believe about Communication?" The questions are very general true or false questions—e.g., "Good communicators are born, not made," true or false? The statements about communication presented in the textbox are all false generalities. From the perspective of learning theory, they are not conceptually related to any of the elements of communication discussed in this section.

There are three performance requests: (1) "Consider how these beliefs about communication influence the way you communicate, (2) Then, as you read this book and participate in class discussions and activities, reexamine your beliefs about communication and (3) consider how new beliefs would influence the way you communicate" (2012, p. 8). Since none of these performance requests is linked to the declarative knowledge in the section, they cannot be considered a pairing of theory and practical procedure constituting a belief transformation.

### 3b. the "tips" textbox

The chapter lists six major elements in human communication: (1) context, (2) sources-receivers, (3) messages, (4) channels, (5) noise, and (6) effects. Messages are broken down into (3a) meta-messages, (3b) feedback messages, and (3c) feed-forward messages. (2012, p. 10). Four types of noise are listed (5a) physical, (5b) physiological, (5c) psychological, and (5d) semantic (2012, pp. 11-12). Three effects are identified (6a) intellectual or cognitive, (6b) affective, and (psychomotor) (2012, p. 12). In table 1, the elements are identified by red text in brackets inserted into the text of "Communication Tips."

**If you're the sighted person and are talking with a visually impaired person:**

- Identify yourself [(2) source]. Don't assume the visually impaired person will recognize your voice.
- Face your listener [(2) receiver]; you'll be easier to hear. Don't shout. Most people who are visually impaired are not hearing impaired. Speak at your normal volume.
- Because your gestures, eye movements, and facial expressions [(4) channel] cannot be seen by the visually impaired listener, encode into speech all the meanings you wish to communicate.
- Use audible turn-taking cues [(3b) feedback messages]. When you pass the role of speaker to a person who is visually impaired, don't rely on nonverbal cues; instead, say something like "Do you agree with that, Joe?"
- Use normal vocabulary and discuss topics [(3) messages] that you would discuss with sighted people. Don't avoid terms like "see" or "look" or even "blind." Don't avoid discussing a television show or the way your new car looks; these are normal topics for all people.

**If you are a visually impaired person, interacting with a sighted person:**

- Help the sighted person meet your special communication needs. If you want your surroundings described [(1) context], ask. If you want the person to read the road signs.
- Be patient with the sighted person. Many people are nervous talking with people who are visually impaired for fear of offending [(6) effects]. Put them at ease in a way that also makes you more comfortable.

**Textbox 9**

Despite the references to the elements of communication, the recommended procedures, conceptually, are related to competent communicating, in particular to mindfulness.

In a later section of Chapter 1, five characteristics of the competent communicator are identified: thinks critically and mindfully; is culturally sensitive, ethical, and an effective listener (2012, pp. 22-25). The five tips in table 1 which are procedures — "don't assume," "face your listener," "encode into speech all the meanings you wish to communicate," "Use audible turn-taking cues," and "use normal vocabulary and discuss topics that you would discuss with sighted people" — can be related to mindfulness: "you need to be mindful of the unique communication situation you're in, of your available communication options, and of the reasons why one option is likely to be better than the others" (2013, 22).

Being mindful is not directly connected to the semantic network of the elements of communication. The connections between declarative knowledge of the elements of communication and the advised procedures are weak enough to be considered "questionable." For instance, not assuming a visually impaired person will *recognize your voice* is not in the same conceptual domain as identifying yourself as a *source*. So numerous inferences are required to make the connection.

Consider the tip: "Identify yourself. Don't assume the visually impaired person will recognize your voice" (2012, p. 11). Given the definition of a source/receiver as an encoder/decoder (2012, p. 11), it might be difficult to connect this declarative knowledge with the procedure "identify yourself." However, not assuming that someone will recognize your voice, depending on the circumstances, would be in the

same conceptual domain as “mindfulness.” Given the location of the textbox in the middle of the section on the elements of communication, it would be difficult for readers to sort out whether these tips are examples of using conceptions of the elements of communication or of the characteristics of competent communicators which are delineated 11 pages later. The connections would have to be inferred. This would be possible if the section on communication competence preceded the major elements section. Since the communication competence section occurs two sections after the textbox, making the connection to mindfulness would be questionable. Thus, to a typical reader, the tips textbox concerns the elements of communication.

As it stands, the procedural knowledge in the “communication tips” textbox is difficult to align with the declarative knowledge in the chapter. That readers would make the appropriate connections is questionable and the possibility of a belief transformation remote.

[RETURN TO FINDINGS](#)

4. The "nominal" pairing of declarative procedural knowledge.

The COMMUNICATION CHOICE POINT textboxes

	Concepts	Requested performances	Comments:
5	<b>Irreversibility</b>	What are your options for communicating your feelings? What communication channels could you use?	Generally students are left to depend on their own experience to perform these tasks. How to perform them is not specified.
6	<b>Silence</b>	What are some of the things you might say? What are some of the things you'd want to be sure not to say? How might you introduce the topic?	Generally students are left to depend on their own experience to perform these tasks. . How to perform them is not specified.
7	<b>Content and Relationship Messages</b>	What do you say? Through what channel?	Generally students are left to depend on their own experience to perform these tasks. How to perform them is not specified.

**Textbox 10**

In these textboxes, there are no specifications about how to perform the cognitive tasks involved and the performances, in Reif's terms, are nominal.

[GO TO DISCUSSION](#)

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## Notes:

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<sup>1</sup> This diagram is adapted from Reif's "Learning and Teaching" diagram (Reif, 2008, p. 4).

<sup>2</sup> Reif's terms declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge do not correspond to the declarative memory and the procedural memory. Since in both expressions Reif uses declarative and procedural as modifiers of "knowledge," both kinds of knowledge correspond to the declarative memory also known as the "explicit" memory because one can "declare" what is known. In contrast, the procedural memory is a distinct memory system and is known as the "implicit" memory because it refers to remembering procedures that have been repeated so often persons are no longer aware of them. The declarative memory is subdivided into the episodic and semantic memories. The episodic memory stores experiences which can be recalled (made explicit) and corresponds to Reif's conception of procedural knowledge. (Wheeler, 2000, pp. 597-598)

<sup>3</sup> DeVito defines competent communication in the following way (2012, p. 22): "Communication competence refers to both your knowledge and understanding of how communication works and to your ability to use communication effectively (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1989)." In Spitzberg and Cupach's account of communication competence, the knowledge involved is knowing what to do in a specific situation that will have the most effective results. It is procedural knowledge about communicating rather than about conducting research.

<sup>4</sup> In this study, Fink's conception of "foundational knowledge," Reif's conception of "declarative knowledge," and DeVito's conception of "theory" are regarded as correlative, in the sense of references to the accumulated body of knowledge about communication. In addition, DeVito's conception of "skills" is *provisionally* regarded as "procedural knowledge" in Reif's sense.

<sup>5</sup> I am using the expression, model-of, as a synonym for declarative or foundational knowledge or theory; and I am using the expression, model-for, as a synonym for performance, skill, or procedural knowledge.

<sup>6</sup> In my view skills-like examples of theoretical conceptions and applications of theoretical conceptions are two different procedures. The phrase "skills-like examples," as I understand it, suggests that a theoretical conception can be exemplified by an ability acquired by training. From the list of skills identified in *Human Communication: The Basic Course*, the ability involved is acting as a competent communicator.

<sup>7</sup> Whether DeVito's conception of a skill is an "application" of theoretical conceptions remains an open issue. His conception of a skill is provisionally construed as "procedural knowledge" in Reif's sense, in order to determine the type of belief transformations. The analyses of DeVito's pairings of theory and skill in this chapter show that his conception of a skill is not procedural knowledge in Reif's sense of learning in scientific and complex domains. It differs in that in DeVito's view skills are related to communicative competence rather than communication research.

<sup>8</sup> As expressed in a discourse, a knowledge domain is a conceptual domain which is a synonym in cognitive linguistics for a frame. Thus, Concepts constituting theories are conceptual frames that function within theoretical frameworks. As Croft and Cruse explain in “Frames, domains, spaces: the organization of conceptual structure” (*Cognitive Linguistics*, 2004, p. 14), Charles Fillmore’s use of the term “frame” (2006) parallels Ronald Langacker’s use of the term “domain” (2002). Domains are networks of concepts:

... concepts do not simply float around randomly in the mind. First, there are the relations between words and their corresponding concepts described by structural semantics. But there has been a strong feeling that concepts are organized in another way as well. Certain concepts 'belong together' because they are associated in experience. To use a classic example (Schank and Abelson 1977), a RESTAURANT is not merely a service institution; it has associated with it a number of concepts such as CUSTOMER, WAITER, ORDERING, EATING, BILL. These concepts are not related to RESTAURANT by hyponymy, meronymy, antonymy or other structural semantic relations; they are related to RESTAURANT by ordinary human experience. The concept of RESTAURANT is closely tied to the other concepts, and cannot be isolated from the other concepts. (*Cognitive Linguistics*, 2004, pp. 7-8)

<sup>9</sup> See Langacker’s account of “usage events.” (*Cognitive Grammar* 2008, pp. 457-459). The “strength” of a correlation between conceptual domains in this chapter is “measured” in terms of the *usage* of concepts. Fortunately, there are linguistic tools available for the task. WordNet a lexical database at Princeton University founded by George A. Miller provides a list of “coordinate terms” for every sense of a concept in the database (WordNet, Princeton, 2010).

<sup>10</sup> Because the correlations between the two knowledge types in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 were not specified in the text, it is necessary to describe how they were determined. The *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series generally assumes that “The two work together, each informing and enlarging upon the other” (1994, p. xvii). Aside from this very broad claim for a connection between “theories” and “skills-like examples [or] applications,” the individual connections are unspecified. The linguistic devices known as “connectives” are the only indication in the discourse of the type of relationship that is intended between theories and skills.

Chapter 1 of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012, for instance, begins with the following pairing of declarative and procedural knowledge: “**In this chapter you’ll learn about:** the major elements in the human communication process. **And, you’ll learn to:** communicate with a clear understanding of the essential elements and how they relate to one another.” The formulation “you’ll learn about: [x]. And, you’ll learn to [y]” is the header given to each chapter-opening textbox (“x” represents the declarative knowledge in the chapter and “y” represents its coordinate procedural knowledge). In this formulation it is not clear what the relationship is between the two knowledge domains. Using “and” as a coordinate conjunction leaves the connection unspecified. In all of the chapter-opening textboxes the conjunctions in the statements only suggest that these are two different knowledge domains.

However, as Halliday and Hasan indicate in *Cohesion in English*, “and” is an “additive” type of conjunction” ... “in the form of coordination” (244). Although “and” is sometimes ambivalent, at the same time Halliday and Hasan note that it may serve to convey the speaker’s intention that they should be regarded as connected in some way.<sup>10</sup> I take this to be the case with *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012, namely that the statements about skills (procedural knowledge) “should be regarded as connected in some way” to those about theories (declarative knowledge).

In the absence of the specification of the kind of connection that links the two knowledge domains to each other in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012, the comprehensibility of the connection depends on whether the conceptual domains are related semantically. In other words when “x1” is learned, outcome “y1” is **to be expected** because they are associated by concepts that refer to the same situation (symbolized by the number “1”). Thus, when “the major elements in the human communication process” are learned, the outcome—being able to “communicate with a clear understanding of the[se] essential elements” can be

expected because the communication process is in the same semantic network as communication; both concepts refer to the same type of situation.

This type of semantic connection is not always straightforward. Consider the pairing in Chapter 9 “that learning the ways in which culture and technology impact on relationships of all types” will have the outcome that you can expect “to take greater control of what influences your relationship life” (DeVito, 2012, p. 187). This is a questionable connection. The impact of culture & technology would not enable persons *to take greater control* of what influences their relationship lives. There are at least three conceptual domains that are related to each other in this statement. Two declarative domains (culture and technology) are both linked to one procedural domain (controlling what influences your relationship life). But, knowing what the impact of culture or technology is does not enable persons to control their influence on them. Unlike Fillmore's prototype of verbs belonging to the same frame—buying and selling, knowing a concept and controlling its influence are not part of the semantic frame used to describe the activities to which these verbs refer.

Granting that it is possible to relate the frame, “culture,” to the frame, “control-of-relationship-life,” it would require an extensive explanation of how these domains are related. There are several discussions of the relationship between culture and technology in Chapter 9: “Friendships, Culture, Gender, and Technology” (2012, pp. 190-192), “Love, Culture, Gender, and Technology” (2012, pp. 196-199), “Families, Culture, Gender, and Technology” (2012, pp. 202-203); but, they do not include discussions of the relationship between knowing about culture or technology and controlling the impact and influence of culture or technology on relationships. In other words, the relation between the pairing of knowing and controlling is not specified in a way that shows how they might be understood as part of the same semantic frame.

It would be possible to argue that this connection could be inferred from these passages, but it is questionable that students would be able to make such inferences. The criteria of judging the strength of the connection is the *experiential* correlation of the cognitive abilities involved which is ordinarily expressed by identifying the relevant experiential framework. Undergraduates would lack the knowledge base to draw such inferences from their experiences. The likelihood of students making these connections is very weak.

<sup>11</sup> I omitted textboxes that explained what the function of this type of textbox. I also omitted the two UNDERSTANDING THEORY AND RESEARCH textboxes which described the declarative knowledge in the chapter, namely “theory” and “research” but which was not paired with procedural knowledge.

<sup>12</sup> DeVito also cites Elmes, M. B., & Gemmill, G. (1990). “The psychodynamics of mindlessness and dissent in small groups.” *Small Group Research*, 21, 28-44. However, this is an article about “group mindlessness.”

<sup>13</sup> I perceive the example as a strategy to make the textbook consistent with LGBT guidelines. That is, I think that the gender of “Pat” is deliberately left unidentified to show that DeVito thinks that it's Ok for men to date men or women to date women.

<sup>14</sup> Tannen does not draw her distinction between message and meta-message from Watzlawick, et. al.

<sup>15</sup> Watzlawick, et al. remark “messages can be constructed, especially in written communication, which offer highly ambiguous met communicational clues” (Watzlawick, et al., 1967, p. 53).

<sup>16</sup> Elmes, M. B., & Gemmill, G. (1990). The psychodynamics of mindlessness and dissent in small groups. *Small Group Research*, 21, 28-44. This is an article about “group mindlessness.”

<sup>17</sup> See George Lakoff's *Women Fire and Dangerous Things: What Categories Reveal about the Mind* (1987).

### 3.0 - Should communication textbooks be oriented toward student interests or toward representing the field of Communication Studies?

In the previous chapter, the relations of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge were analyzed from the point of view of their correlation. I made the distinction between theoretical conceptions used in research (1) paired with applications of them to communication situations or (2) paired with skills for communicating in situations. On the one hand, learning is directed toward the education of competent researchers and, on the other hand, toward the education of competent communicators.

This difference manifests itself in the discourse of *Human Communication: The Basic Course*. Every discourse reflects its implied readers. For example, the following sentence provides numerous clues about its implied reader:

Whenever two illocutionary acts contain the same reference and predication, provided that the meaning of the referring expression is the same, I shall say the same proposition is expressed.' (Searle, 1969, p. 29)

The expression, "illocutionary acts," implies a reader who is familiar with J. L. Austin's *How to Do Things with Words* (1962). The reader is also someone for whom the complex relations in the sentence among the terms reference, predication, and proposition is understandable, probably someone familiar with ordinary language philosophy.

In this chapter, I argue that the implied reader of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 is most often an undergraduate student who is not concerned with becoming a Communication Studies researcher. In other words, *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 is, for the most part, designed for undergraduate students who are interested in improving their communication skills in everyday life rather than for undergraduate students who are majoring in Communication Studies as "emerging researchers."<sup>1</sup>

A corroborating indication of the emphasis on student self-improvement rather than on the conduct of communication research is the preponderance of cognitive abilities suited to the former and the relative absence of cognitive abilities suited to the latter.

### 3.1 - CONTEXT OF THE TITLE QUESTION

The dual purposes of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* are related to the dual audiences: whom I will designate as communication "majors" and "non-majors," understanding that these terms describe "implied readers" and *not actual persons*. An implied reader is a linguistic unit. From a linguistic standpoint, the term "implied readers" refers to differences in vocabularies specific to the discourse communities. The expression refers to the connotations of the words in a text. Persons belong to numerous discourse communities and communicate with other members of the groups in the idioms of the groups. A physician, for instance, can discuss technical medical issues with other physicians and the same person can also belong to a discourse community of baseball fans with whom he can discuss baseball issues in a vocabulary specific to that sport. Implied readers are convenient analytic categories used to identify linguistic units in discourses.

DeVito envisions two groups of implied readers: majors and non-majors. Majors are students "who will take additional and advanced courses or who are beginning their majors in communication." The implied readers identified as "non-majors" are students interested in becoming better communicators. DeVito envisions this group of implied readers as students "who will take this course as their only communication course."<sup>2</sup>

The key term in the title question is "interests." I am using the concept of "interests" here as it is sometimes used in philosophic discourse:

Those things that a person needs, or that are conducive to his or her flourishing and success. The central examples of things against someone's interests are the things that harm or injure them. ... People may not desire, or value, what they need; hence peoples' real interests may not be revealed by their immediate choices and preferences. (*The Oxford Dictionary of Philosophy*, Blackburn, 1996, pp. 196-197)

Whose interests are being served in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*?

In this context, my title question concerns both the "interests" of both groups of students being introduced to Communication Studies. As I hope to show in this chapter, DeVito's attempt to satisfy both students who are interested in becoming competent communicators and students who are interested in becoming competent researchers is not a feasible goal. Rather, it results in misrepresenting the field of Communication Studies.

#### *Cognitive abilities invoked in Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*

An index of the emphasis in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* on student interest rather than communication research is the extent to which the cognitive abilities needed for the conduct of research are featured in the textbook. In his *Creating Significant Learning Experiences* (Communication StudiesLE), L Dee Fink offers a "Taxonomy of Significant Learning" (2003, pp. 27-59, Chapter 2, ). He provides a detailed account of the conditions for creating a learning environment in which significant

learning experiences can be fostered. His "taxonomy" provides a template for analyzing the orientation of *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*. If the cognitive abilities emphasized in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* are suited to learning to become a competent communicator (aimed at implied readers who are non-majors) rather than a competent researcher (aimed at implied readers who are majors), then the emphasis in the textbook is on student interests in their personal lives.

### 3.2 - METHOD OF ANSWERING THE TITLE QUESTION

In this chapter I view Reif's account of the complementary relationship between declarative and procedural knowledge that are "condition-dependent" forms of knowledge. Consequently, I examine the situations to which the declarative knowledge is applied, noting which group of implied readers is addressed.

The activities and interactions associated with situations are typical. For example, performing surgery on a person involves surgeons, nurses, someone to administer anesthesia, and, of course the patient. As Charles Fillmore has demonstrated, situations are characterized by specific actions, agents, scenes, and the things in them. He calls this a "cognitive scene," which is a typical scene drawn from experience, for example, a "commercial event":

The elements of this schematic scene included a person interested in exchanging money for goods (the Buyer), a person interested in exchanging goods for money (the Seller), the goods which the Buyer did or could acquire (the Goods), and the money acquired (or sought) by the seller (the Money). ... nobody could be said to know the meanings of these verbs who did not know the details of the kind of scene which provided the background and motivation for the categories which these words represent. Using the word 'frame' for the structured way in which the scene is presented or remembered, we can say that the frame structures the word-meanings, and that the word 'evokes' the frame. (Fillmore, 2006, p. 378)

From the perspective of discourse analysis, the actions, agents, scenes, etc. are identified in texts by the words that refer to them. As Fillmore points out, these schematic scenes are frames that include a semantic network which describe them. In this chapter, I will refer to these schematic scenes or frames by the term situations in order to link Fillmore's argument with Reif's.

Reif uses the term, "situation," in a way that is consistent with Fillmore's use of the term, scene. For example, Reif describes declarative knowledge as "factual knowledge about a *situation* [acquired] *by describing the relevant entities in the situation and the relations among them*" (2008, p. 32). Looking at applicability conditions from the perspective of the situations to which the knowledge domains pertain gives us a way of identifying "student oriented" applications as opposed to "field oriented" applications. The extent to which a textbook is student oriented or field oriented can be measured by identifying situations that pertain to majors, who can be characterized as emergent Communication Studies researchers, or situations that pertain to non-majors, who can be characterized as communicators, who

are interested in communicating more effectively.<sup>3</sup> In some instances a situation may pertain to both. My procedure will be to identify the procedures presented in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012, and then, on the basis of the situations described, to indicate which of them apply only to non-majors, only to majors, or to both.

In considering the difference in the situations, we have to rely on their typicality to identify the implied personae.<sup>4</sup> For example, we can say that undergraduates do *NOT* typically engage in specialized research whereas researchers do. In addition, we can say that the situations differ with respect to their outcomes. Research procedures are expected to resolve problematic situations. Communicating procedures are expected to have particular effects on participants in a communication situation. The former benefits "the field," so to speak, and the latter benefits "the communicator." The need to know whether a theory can be correctly applied motivates research investigations. The need to decide whether a theory can be beneficially applied to a situation motivates personal applications. With this distinction, we can judge whether the situations described in the textboxes are intended to instruct students about how to build a correct model of the situation or how to guide their behavior.

Making the judgment that the description of a situation is oriented toward a student's self-improvement or toward a researcher's investigation of it is possible because there are linguistic markers that identify the implied readers. For example, consider the following "choice points" textbox from Chapter 2 of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012:

**CULTURE VERSUS CULTURE** *You've been invited to dinner, along with several other students, at a faculty member's house. You follow strict religious dietary laws and so you would likely not eat anything and perhaps embarrass your host. If you do attend, what are some of the things you might say about your eating rules? If you decide to refuse, how might you do so politely?* (DeVito, 2012, p. 33)

#### Textbox 1

The theoretical concept in this textbox is "culture versus culture" (intercultural communication). The situation as it is described is clearly oriented toward students. The use of the pronoun "you" refers to the reader who is identified as a student going to dinner at a faculty member's house. The expression "how might you do so politely?" suggests that the answer is, in effect, an instruction about a student's behavior.

Contrast the "culture versus culture" textbox with an "understanding theory and research" textbox on "language and thought":

The linguistic relativity hypothesis claims (1) that the language you speak influences the thoughts you have, and (2) that therefore, people speaking widely differing languages will see the world differently and will think

differently.

Theory and research, however, have not been able to find much support for this claim. A more modified hypothesis currently seems supported: The language you speak helps you to talk about what you see and perhaps to highlight what you see. For example, if you speak a language that is rich in color terms (English is a good example), you will find it easier to talk about nuances of color than will someone from a culture that has fewer color terms (some cultures, for example, distinguish only two, three, or four parts of the color spectrum). (DeVito, 2012, p. 43)

### Textbox 2

In this textbox, the situation—talking about color—is an illustration of the theoretical concept of “linguistic relativity.” The discourse in it is directed toward “emergent researchers”—majors who are interested in becoming researchers.

(Note: Judgments about the valid application of a conception indicate whether a person knows what a concept refers to. In Reif’s terms, they are nominal performances. As I argued in the previous chapter, a person needs to know what a concept means before he or she can use it appropriately, but knowing the meaning of a concept is not equivalent to using it to conduct research.)

### *Cognitive abilities invoked in Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*

In addition to the analysis of interests, I applied Fink’s taxonomy of the cognitive activities that are related to the significant learning goals identified by learning researchers to *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*.

## 3.3 - FINDINGS

In *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, several learning tools (textboxes) ask students to apply the theoretical concepts of a given chapter to situations: choice points, building communication skills, media literacy, reflections on ethics, self-tests, and understanding theory and research.

### *Choice Points*

All 68 of the situations in the “choice points” textboxes are related to non-majors rather than majors who are more likely to be emergent researchers. Most of them use the pronoun “you,” involve situations in which undergraduates are likely to find themselves, and ask questions the answers to which, in effect, are instructions about personal behavior. The situations describe interactions of the

young persons in the photos within the textboxes who are involved in relationships such as dating, attending class, working with colleagues, or giving a speech.

[GO TO DATA](#)

### *Building Communication Skills*

Of the 36 Building Communication Skills textboxes, 20 do not contain technical conceptions. The performances they request clearly imply readers who are non-majors rather than emergent researchers. However, the 16 textboxes whose implied readers are both non-majors and majors do not involve research situations. In some cases, they are imagined situations in which readers are asked to intervene by saying or doing something that will alleviate the difficulties that they or someone else is experiencing. (# 18: "This exercise is designed to stimulate you to examine the factors that might lead you to dissolve a romantic relationship." / #8 "Your steady dating partner for the last five years tells you that spells of depression are becoming more frequent and more long lasting.") In other cases, students are asked to formulate or identify ameliorating responses to the imaginary situations. (#21: "Develop specific messages you might use as a member or a leader of a group in which you see the signs of groupthink.")

In none of the requested performances are students asked to behave as communication researchers. For example, situation #23: ("Here are five kinds of information you might focus on in your workplace analysis; for each, create an example of how this specific knowledge might help a worker new to the organization.") The activities involved in the requested performance are: (a) focus information on your workplace, (b) do a workplace analysis, (c) create an example, (d) help a worker new to the organization. Given the circumstances in which they occur, these are not activities that would characterize a researcher:

- (a) Focusing information about "cultural norms," "communication pathways," "grapevine," "power," and "reward system" on the workplace you are analyzing "to reduce your uncertainty";
- (b) analyze the workplace with these categories so that you will "be better able to fit your messages to the organization, the hierarchy, and your coworkers";
- (c) create examples of how you might "tailor your messages";
- (d) so that "this specific knowledge might help a worker new to the organization."

These activities are centered in situations that undergraduates typically find themselves. Researchers, for example, do not typically "tailor" their messages to fit organizations.

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*Media Literacy*

Of the 17 media literacy textboxes, 4 are oriented toward non-majors. Both non-majors and majors are the implied readers in 12. In these twelve, I find no correlation between declarative and procedural knowledge. Only in one textbox, #9 on “the third person effect,” is the pairing of declarative and procedural knowledge correlative.

[GO TO DATA](#)*Reflections on ethics*

Of the 17 textboxes, the implied readers are non-majors in 6 and the implied readers are both non-majors and majors in the other 11. However there is no correlation between declarative and procedural knowledge in the 17 textboxes.

[GO TO DATA](#)*Self-tests*

The self-test textboxes have a uniform structure. They ask readers how a concept discussed in the chapter applies to their everyday lives. The tests are designed to determine whether the readers have understood the meaning of the concept. The tests conclude with two questions: How did you do? And what will you do? The second question heads a paragraph suggesting various ways readers can improve their performances.

[GO TO DATA](#)*Understanding theory and research*

Of the 36 understanding and theory research textboxes, only 2 pairings of declarative and procedural knowledge are correlative. The other 34 textboxes include situations in which both non-major and majors would find themselves but they are not correlative. 7 textboxes do not include citations for the declarative knowledge contained in them.

[GO TO DATA](#)*Summary*

Of the 191 textboxes, only 5 correlate declarative knowledge with procedural knowledge. This suggests that 97.4% of the textboxes do not provide a basis for significant learning understood as a belief transformation.

186 textboxes ask students to apply the concepts in the various chapters to situations in their everyday lives. The 5 correlative textboxes do ask students to conduct themselves as researchers. Nonetheless, the overwhelming emphasis is on becoming more competent communicators.

*Cognitive Abilities evoked in Chapter 1 of Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*

It is indicative of the emphasis on non-major interests in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* that the performances requested involve cognitive abilities associated with becoming competent communicators rather than competent researchers.

Communication StudiesLE verbs <sup>5</sup>	synonyms in WordNet (first 2 most frequent sets)
Analyze	study, examine, canvass, canvas, break down, dissect, take apart,
Assess	measure, evaluate, valuate, appraise, value,
Connect	link, tie, associate, tie in, relate, link, colligate, link up
Calculate	cipher, cypher, compute, work out, reckon, figure, estimate, count on, figure, forecast
Compare	examine and note the similarities or differences of, liken, equate
coordinate	organize, bring into common action, movement, or condition
Create	make or cause to be or to become, bring into existence
Critique	appraise critically, evaluate, pass judgment, judge
Identify	recognize, name, refer to
Identify similarities	---
Identify interactions	---
Imagine	conceive of, ideate, envisage, think, opine, suppose, reckon, guess
Judge	decide, settle, resolve, adjudicate, evaluate, pass judgment
Make decisions	Make up one's mind, determine, settle, resolve, adjudicate
integrate	incorporate, mix
Relate	associate, tie in, link up, refer, pertain, concern, come to, bear on, touch, touch on
Solve	resolve, find the solution to, work out, figure out, puzzle out, lick, work
Understand	know and comprehend the nature or meaning of, realize, realize, see, read, interpret, translate, infer

**Table 1**

Even using synonyms for the verbs Fink identifies as cognitive activities conducive to significant learning proved difficult in linking the verbs in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012's* requests for performances. Here are the links I found:

<i>Human Communication: The Basic Course#</i>	Cognitive activity	<i>Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012</i> text	Comment:
21	Identify the interaction between ...	engage in conversation that is mutually productive.	Could require identifying various aspects of the interaction
27&28	Connect	participate effectively in a variety of small groups ... as a group member	Could require making connections with the members of the group
30	Identify the interaction between ...	communicate effectively in the organizational context.	Could requires identifying various aspects of the interaction
36	Identify	research your topic	require identifying its subtopics, sources, etc.
37	Analyze	support your ideas	requires analytic ability
39	Coordinate	organize your thoughts	requires ability to coordinate ideas
43	integrate	use the principles for communicating information	Could require integrating the principles for communicating information
45	Make decisions about ...	use the strategies of persuasion	Could require decisions

**Table 2**

Aside from construing the expression "You will learn" to refer to the cognitive ability of understanding, only 1 (#39) is directly connected to Fink's cognitive abilities. The others are indirectly related and *could* involve significant learning.

The results are that out of 49 of the requests for performances, 2 correspond directly to the cognitive abilities identified in Fink's taxonomy of learning goals. In sum, only 8 out of 49 of the requested performances either directly or indirectly involve the cognitive abilities needed for significant learning in complex knowledge domains such as research.

[GO TO DATA](#)

### 3.4 - DISCUSSION

I began this chapter by posing the question: Should communication textbooks be oriented toward student interests or toward representing the field of Communication Studies? The analysis focused on the situations in which procedural knowledge was used in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* as a way of determining whether this textbook was oriented toward students or toward "the field."

With respect to the orientation of the discourse, I examined the various requests for performances to determine whether the implied readers were non-majors, majors, or both. The analysis in this chapter reveals a strong emphasis on personal models for behavior which suggests that *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* is student oriented. The main type of procedural knowledge derived from the theoretical knowledge functions in the learning process as a guide for becoming a more competent communicator.

With the strong emphasis on situations that students typically encounter in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, another consideration about the correlation of declarative and procedural knowledge comes to the forefront.

### *The transposability of models-of and models-for*

In the "Religion as a Cultural System" chapter of *Interpretation of Cultures*, Clifford Geertz describes how persons learn to behave as members of a particular religion. He points out that persons understand religious dogma, in part, through the rituals provided for its enactment. This process converts patterns of experience into symbolic models that can guide us through those experiences. A process, he argues, that is "the distinctive characteristic of our mentality."

The perception of the structural congruence between one set of processes, activities, relations, entities, and so on, and an-other set for which it acts as a program, so that the program can be taken as a representation, or conception—a symbol—of the programmed, is the essence of human thought. The inter-transposability of models *for* and models *of* which symbolic formulation makes possible is the distinctive characteristic of our mentality. (1973, p. 94)

In Geertz's view, perceiving the structural congruence between a model-of and a model-for establishes "powerful, pervasive, and long-lasting moods and motivations" (1973, p. 94).<sup>6</sup> It is instructive to apply Geertz's conception of the "inter-transposability" of model-of and models-for to the pairings of declarative and procedural knowledge, which, in DeVito's terms, are pairings of theories and skills. I illustrate the transposability of the two kinds of models in the following analysis of a textbox on the concept of "organizations."

*Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* includes an "Understanding Theory and Research" textbox on "Approaches to Organizations" (2012, p. 245) in which models-of organizations are matched with models-for behaving in organizations:

### Approaches to Organizations

Organizations may be viewed from several different theoretical perspectives, each of which will give you different insights into what an organization is and how organizational communication may be understood. Four approaches are particularly significant: the scientific, the behavioral, the systems, and the cultural. ... The cultural approach views the organization as a culture or society with, for example, rules, norms, values, and heroes. This approach views the workers and the organization itself as having similar values and goals. Teamwork, pride in work and in accomplishment, commitment to high standards and to the organization, honesty, and a willingness to change in order to grow despite difficulties from competition characterize the effective organization in this view. *What type of organizational approach characterized the work environments you've experienced?* (2012, p. 245)

#### Textbox 3

The procedure linked to the declarative knowledge in this textbox is answering the question: what theoretical perspectives on organizations characterized the work environments you've experienced? This question, in effect, asks readers to apply the theoretical approaches enumerated to their experience of organizations. Consider the cultural model of organizations quoted above. Then consider matching this model of with a "model-for" working at Burger King—a typical work environment for undergraduates—where a person taking orders gives them to persons making the burgers, making fries, making drinks which a different person assembles and gives the package to a customer. Let's stipulate that students consider working at Burger King as learning about "teamwork" from a cultural approach. In this case, are they learning a concept of cooperation toward a shared goal or are they learning a concept of "division of labor"?

Given the "inter-transposability" of models-of and -for, the models of communication students learn depends largely on the situations to which they are applied. When the "coordination" between the declarative knowledge involved and the corresponding procedural knowledge is situated in everyday experience, students learn non-technical models of everyday experiences rather than technical models of communication.<sup>7</sup> If working at Burger King is the situation to which the concept of teamwork is applied, students will construe teamwork as cooperation. On the other hand, if the situation concerns research on organizational structures described in the chapter, students should construe teamwork in terms of concepts of "rules and regulations," "division of labor," "systems of rewards and consequences," and "organizational culture," which are the "major characteristics of all organizations" regardless of the approach taken toward studying them.

In the context of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 orientation toward student experiences, the implication of Geertz's conception of "inter-transposability" is that the belief transformations based on the pairings of theoretical knowledge and skills in the textbook result in learning, for the most part, models-of *everyday* communication. Since the procedures entailed in a model-for behaving in situations must have "structural congruence" with a model of that

situation, students, following the request to examine their work experiences, would have to consider the structure of working at Burger King to be congruent with a theoretical approach to organizations. However, the experience of working at Burger King would not particularize—explicitly specify the details of any organizational theory. A student presented with a theoretical model-of organizations linked to a model-for working at Burger King would be likely to understand the theoretical model in common-sense terms as equivalent to working at Burger King.

In other words what many, if not most, students would learn from the textbox on organizations is that research collaboration is pretty much like their experience of cooperating with other workers at Burger King or a similar workplace. Though not in all cases, the net learning effect is that theoretical models of situations are reduced to the students' understanding of everyday situations. When the coordination between declarative knowledge drawn from research is matched with procedural knowledge drawn from everyday experience, students DO NOT learn anything about research concepts.

Declarative knowledge is more deeply understood through procedural knowledge just as dogma is more deeply understood through religious rituals. You understand the concepts better when you can use them appropriately. Accordingly, declarative knowledge is understood *through the procedure of using it*. As a result, if research concepts used in everyday situations *do not* convey the situated meaning of the research concepts, they are reduced to the way the situation is conventionally conceived in everyday life.

The "organizations" textbox is characteristic of *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*. Of the 191 textboxes in that textbook, only 5 coordinate the declarative knowledge with the procedural knowledge contained in them in the context of research situations. 186 ask students to apply the concepts in the various chapters to situations in their everyday lives, for instance, working at a fast food restaurant.

### *A perspective on research situations that are not a part of student experience*

There are numerous instances of communication research on situations with which undergraduate students do not normally concern themselves. I examined the theoretical models of situations (theories) collected in the *Encyclopedia of Communication Theory* (ECT). My examination showed that many, if not most, communication theories have little utility in situations undergraduates typically encounter nor are they included in the theories/skills matches of *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*. Subtracting entries such as postmodernism which are about historical movements, there are about 300 entries in ECT on communication theories. All of them involve models of situations that *cannot* be usefully applied to everyday experience to make persons better communicators. I offer three instances of communication theories to illustrate this point.

In his article "cognitive dissonance theory" in ECT, Eddie Harmon-Jones writes: "Festinger theorized that when an individual holds two or more elements of knowledge that are relevant to each other but inconsistent with one another, a state of discomfort is created. He called this unpleasant state

dissonance" (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009, p. 110). Although dissonance theory explains numerous situations in which persons experience this kind of discomfort, it would be difficult to use Festinger's model of cognitive dissonance as a model for becoming a better communicator since it is not an antidote for the problem of cognitive dissonance. Festinger's conception cannot be matched with a procedure for avoiding the problem.

Among the theories that are included both in ECT and in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* are politeness theory and expectancy violations theory. In her article on "Politeness Theory" Daena J. Goldsmith writes:

Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson are sociolinguists who proposed politeness theory in 1978 based on their observations of similar patterns of language forms in three different cultures. They noticed that we frequently depart from the most direct, efficient way of performing some action. For example, I could request a drink by saying, "Get me a glass of water," but I might choose, instead, to say something like "Sweetie, some water?" or "Could I trouble you for a little drink, please?" or even "I sure am parched!" A similar range of options for making requests was found among British speakers of English, Indian speakers of Tamil, and Mexican speakers of Tzeltal, leading Brown and Levinson to speculate that some cross-cultural feature of social life motivated these forms. They suggested face was the social force behind these language forms. (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009, pp. 754-755)

In *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, DeVito writes:

To help another person maintain positive face, you speak respectfully to and about the person, *you* give the person your full attention, you say "excuse me" when appropriate. In short you treat the person as you would want to be treated. In this way *you* allow the person to maintain positive face through what is called positive politeness. (p. 70)

In *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, a sociolinguistic theory comparing patterns of language in various countries is turned into an everyday instance of politeness.

Another example is expectancy violations theory. In her ECT article on expectancy violations, Judee Burgoon, one of the researchers who developed the theory, writes:

*Expectations* are enduring cognitions about the anticipated verbal and nonverbal communication of others. Expectations are comprised of two components, the social and the idiosyncratic. At the social level they encompass the roles, rules, norms, and practices that typify a given culture, community, or context. At the idiosyncratic level, they encompass person-specific knowledge related to another's typical communication practices. Predictions for any given individual, message, or transaction rely on a combination of generic expectancies and any individuating knowledge of how the actor's behavior deviates from those general patterns.

... For example, a move closer by a very attractive member of the opposite sex may be "read" as a sign of interest and may be quite welcome. The same move by a repulsive individual may be

"read" as sexual harassment and may be quite unwelcome. (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009, pp. 367-368)

In his "Understanding Theory and Research" textbox, "Space Violations," DeVito writes:

If [an]other person perceives you positively for example, if you're a high-status person or you're particularly attractive-then you'll be perceived even more positively if you violate the expected distance [between persons in conversation]. If, on the other hand, you're perceived negatively and you violate the norm, you'll be perceived even more negatively. (p. 127)

Chances are that students will interpret this situation in everyday terms assuming that, if the person you are talking to perceives you as attractive and you come closer to her or him, the violation will be positively perceived. The interrelations of the theoretical conceptions of expectations (which is not explicated) or of roles, rules, norms, and practices that typify a given culture (which are not mentioned in the textbox) would not be learned as constituents of a model of a typical expectancy violations situation. Moreover students are asked if this theory can be supported *by their experiences*. [Note: this textbox is the only discussion of expectancy violations theory in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012.]

[GO TO DATA](#)

### 3.5 - FUTURE RESEARCH

In the context of the title question—should introductory communication textbooks be targeted at students or at the field?—a related question surfaces.

If a course of study consists in applying the mind to learning and understanding a specific subject, then one would assume that an Introduction to Communication Studies textbook should be targeted at learning and understanding that subject. However, does this assumption pertain to Introduction to Communication Studies textbooks if they are targeted at non-majors? To answer this questions requires a curricular decision—should the curriculum of a communication department introduce its majors to the field by (plan A) having them learn how Communication Studies contributes to becoming a more competent communicator without having them learn how to conduct research contributing to the field? Or by (plan B) combining both goals. Or by (plan C) omitting the ways that Communication Studies contributes to becoming a more competent communicator and focusing on communication theory and how to build it. This can be decided by investigating whether plans A, B, or C produce a more effective group of communication researchers.

This argument brings up another related issue: the relationship between course requirements and non-majors. Can students adequately understand a field in which they are not majoring by learning how to apply some of its concepts to their lives? Reif offers broad criteria about learning in general. However, this question can't be answered without more specific criteria for determining what counts as an adequate understanding of a particular field, for example Communication Studies.

### The next question

In the next chapter I shift the focus of analysis from the relations between declarative and procedural knowledge to the scope of the knowledge that needs to be learned. If we consider the study of communication to be a field-wide set of performances in which declarative and procedural knowledge are joined, how many performances need to be learned to learn the field? One of the effects of focusing on one aspect of an object is that the other aspects of the object are unfocused. If you can't focus on everything, to what should you direct your attention? If the object of attention is the field of communication study, then what should an introductory textbook to communication study cover?

## 3.6 - DATA APPENDIX

The data gathered to support the findings in this chapter are from the various textboxes in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* which request applying the foundational knowledge in the chapter to situations.

### Choice Points textboxes

#	Textbox Title	NOTE: all 68 textboxes are <b>student oriented</b>	pg
1	<b>RELATIONSHIP AMBIGUITY:</b>	<i>You've been dotting someone on and off for a year or so and you'd like to invite your dote to meet your parents (you're anxious to see what they think about your partner) but aren't sure how your dote will perceive this invitation.</i>	17
2	<b>IRREVERSIBILITY</b>	<i>You post a really negative remark on your friend's Facebook wall. The next day you realize you shouldn't have been so negative. You really want to remain friends. You need to say something.</i>	20
3	<b>SILENCE</b>	<i>Your partner who is extremely sensitive to criticism) talks constantly. There is never any silence, which you desperately crave. You're determined to combat this and create periods of occasional silence. Yet, you don't want to start an argument.</i>	23
4	<b>CONTENT AND RELATIONSHIP MESSAGES</b>	<i>An older relative frequently belittles you, though always in a playful way. But it's uncomfortable and probably not very good for your self-esteem. You're determined to stop the behavior but not lose the relationship.</i>	24
5	<b>CULTURE VERSUS CULTURE</b>	<i>You've been invited to dinner, along with several other students, at a faculty member's house. You follow strict religious dietary laws and so you would likely not eat anything and perhaps embarrass your host.</i>	33
6	<b>GIVING DIRECTIONS IN HIGH- AND LOWCONTEXT SITUATIONS</b>	<i>To further appreciate the distinction between high and low context, consider giving directions to same specific place on campus (for example, "Where's the cafeteria?") to someone who knows the campus and who you can assume knows the focal landmarks (which would resemble a high-context situation) and to a newcomer to your campus who you cannot assume is familiar with campus landmarks (which would resemble a low-context situation)</i>	35
7	<b>GETTING YOUR FOOT OUT OF YOUR MOUTH</b>	<i>At work you tell a homophobic joke only to discover that it was resented and clearly violated the organizational norms for polite and unbiased talk.</i>	41
8	<b>CONFLICTING CULTURAL BELIEFS</b>	<i>You're dating a person from a culture very different from your own and your views on important matters (for example, relationship responsibilities, finances, children, and religion) differ widely. You're now wondering if there's any future for this relationship.</i>	45
9	<b>SELF-ESTEEM</b>	<i>Your best friend at work has hit a new low in self-esteem- a long-term relationship failed, an expected promotion never materialized, a large investment went sour.</i>	55
10	<b>CORRECTIVE SELF-DISCLOSE</b>	<i>When you met your current partner with whom you want to spend the rest of your life-you minimized the extent of your romantic post. You now want to come clean and disclose your "sordid" post.</i>	58
11	<b>FIRST IMPRESSION CORRECTION</b>	<i>You made a bad impression at work you drank too much at an office party and played the clown. This is not the impression you want to give, and you need to change it fast. Although you know you can't erase that impression, you need to counteract it in some way.</i>	65

12	<b>OVER-ATTRIBUTION</b>	<i>Your partner over-attributes your behavior, attitudes, values and just about everything you do to your ethnic origins.</i>	67
13	<b>MAKING THE RIGHT IMPRESSION</b>	<i>You've just joined a social networking site which your future employers might look at. How might you write your profile and use the many features of the site to make yourself appear credible and a perfect future employee?</i>	72
14	<b>LISTENING CUES</b>	<i>Friends have told you that people don't address comments directly to you because you don't give listening cues to let the other person know that you're listening and interested.</i>	83
15	<b>LISTENING AVOIDANCE</b>	<i>Your best friend's latest relationship has just broken up, and your friend comes to you in the hope that you'll listen to all the details. This seems to happen about once a week. You're fed up; you're determined not to spend the next three hours listening to this tale of woe.</i>	88
16	<b>DEALING WITH SADNESS AND JOY</b>	<i>The parents of your romantic partner (and best friend) were recently killed in a car accident. And now your partner, who has had many difficult financial times will inherit a large estate.</i>	89
17	<b>HATE SPEECH</b>	<i>Your work colleagues in neighboring cubicles regularly use derogatory racial terms. You really don't want to listen to this and want to protest this kind of talk. At the same time, however, you don't want to alienate people you're going to have to work with for some time.</i>	92
18	<b>REJECTING DIRECTLY</b>	<i>A colleague at work continues to ask you for a date, but you're just not interested. You've used every polite excuse in the book and now feel you have to be more direct and more assertive. What are some of the things you can do to stop these requests but not insult your colleague?</i>	100
19	<b>POLITENESS</b>	<i>After having lunch with a team of interviewers whom you want to impress, you quickly and mentally review the rules of politeness. Unfortunately, you violated just about everyone.</i>	101
20	<b>CONFRONTING A LIE</b>	<i>You ask about the previous night's whereabouts of your romantic partner of two years and are told something you're a/most certain is false. You don't want to break up the relationship over this, but you do want the truth and an opportunity to resolve the problems that contributed to this situation.</i>	105
21	<b>HOMOPHOBIA</b>	<i>You're bringing your college roommate home for the holidays. She's an outspoken lesbian and your parents are homophobic. You want to prepare them for their holiday get-together.</i>	107
22	<b>NONVERBAL IMPRESSIONS</b>	<i>You're going for an interview for the job of a lifetime. You need to make the right impression. You don't know anything about the culture of the organization.</i>	118
23	<b>PROXEMIC Communication Studies</b>	<i>Like the close-talker in an episode of Seinfeld, one of your team members at work maintains an extremely close distance when talking. Coupled with the fact that this person is a heavy smoker and reeks of smoke. You need to say something.</i>	126
24	<b>TOUCH BOUNDARIES</b>	<i>A colleague at work continually touches you- your arm, your shoulder, your waist. These touches are becoming more frequent and more intimate and you want this touching to stop.</i>	129
25	<b>SMELLING</b>	<i>Your colleague in the next cubicle, who you find very attractive and who you'd like to date, wears extremely strong cologne that you find horrendous. You can't continue smelling this horrible scent at work and certainly wouldn't pursue a romantic relationship if this continues</i>	133
26	<b>FEEDFORWARD</b>	<i>You want to break up your relationship with someone you've been dating rather steadily over the last eight months. You want to remain friends but end the romance, something your partner has no idea about. The reason is simply that you realize you're not in love and want to move on and find great love.</i>	145
27	<b>DEALING WITH INTERRUPTIONS</b>	<i>One of your friends repeatedly interrupts you and others and takes the conversation off onto a totally different topic.</i>	149
28	<b>TURNING MONOLOGUE INTO DIALOGUE</b>	<i>You're dating a wonderful person, your ideal in every way except one and that is that you find your conversations are a series of monologues; there is little dialogue.</i>	150
29	<b>APOLOGIZING</b>	<i>You totally forget that you were scheduled to give your speech in class and instead cut class to study for a chemistry test. One norm of your particular class is that if you miss a speech. You're required to give a 1 -minute speech of apology to both the instructor and the class members.</i>	158
30	<b>RELATIONSHIP RESUME</b>	<i>Although you've been mostly honest in your two month Internet relationship, you have padded your relationship resume-lopped off a few years and pounds and made your temporary job seem like the executive fast track. You arrange to meet face-to-face at a local bookstore and you now want to come clean.</i>	168
31	<b>RELATIONSHIP DISSOLUTION</b>	<i>You realize that your six-month relationship is going nowhere, and you want to break it off. It's just not exciting and not taking you where you want to go. You want to avoid making a scene.</i>	173
32	<b>NEGOTIATING EQUITY</b>	<i>You feel your romantic relationship of the last three months has become inequitable-you seem to do more of the work but get few benefits, while your partner does less work but gets more benefits. You want to correct this imbalance before the relationship goes any further.</i>	178
33	<b>JEALOUSY</b>	<i>Your partner is excessively jealous-at least from your point of view. You can't meet other people or even communicate with them online without your partner questioning your fidelity. You're fed up.</i>	181
34	<b>FRIENDSHIP FUNCTIONS</b>	<i>When thinking about your own friendships and the functions they serve, you notice that your friendship all seem to be built around just one of the functions.</i>	188
35	<b>FROM FRIENDSHIP TO LOVE</b>	<i>You have a great friendship with a colleague at work, but recently these feelings of friendship are turning to feelings of love</i>	191
36	<b>LONG-DISTANCE RELATIONSHIPS</b>	<i>After two years of steady dating in high school, you and your partner will go to different colleges. You want to keep the relationship going and perhaps make it permanent after college.</i>	192
37	<b>FAMILIES</b>	<i>You and your dating partner (for about a year) want to move your relationship to a more exclusive</i>	201

		<i>and public one. And you both think it's time for your families to meet (who are different in culture, politics, religion, and just about everything else</i>	
38	<b>IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT</b>	<i>You've been assigned to join a team of four others to work on new accounting procedures As the new member you want to be perceived as both likeable and competent.</i>	<b>208</b>
39	<b>STIMULATING CONTRIBUTIONS</b>	<i>You're in charge of a focus group discussing what they like and dislike about the websites they visit. The problem you anticipate, based on past experience, is that a few members will do all the talking and the rest will hardly talk at all. You want to encourage all members to participate fully.</i>	216
40	<b>INDIVIDUAL ROLES</b>	<i>In a group of workers, one member consistently plays the role of blocker, objecting to everything anyone says. Another member plays the role of self-confessor, revealing feelings no one wants to hear.</i>	<b>227</b>
41	<b>ASSERTING YOURSELF IN A GROUP</b>	<i>In your casual conversations with groups of friends as well as at work meetings, people consistently ignore your cues that you want to say something. And when you do manage to say something, no one reacts. You're determined to change this situation.</i>	<b>229</b>
42	<b>SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP</b>	<i>You're a member of an introductory Internet design team whose leader uses a delegating style which isn't working. Group members are all new to this business and need more direction and guidance. The group members have elected you to clue the leader into appropriate and inappropriate styles.</i>	<b>235</b>
43	<b>SMALL GROUP CONFLICTS</b>	<i>You're leading a group of graduate and under-graduate students, charged with evaluating the core curriculum. The problem is that neither the graduate students nor the undergraduates want to listen fairly to each other.</i>	<b>237</b>
44	<b>VIOLATING ORGANIZATIONAL NORMS</b>	<i>In an animated discussion with an influential colleague you criticize one of the managers who, you discover later, is one of the most loved workers in the organization-no one talks negatively about this person (except you, as it turns out).</i>	<b>249</b>
45	<b>DEALING WITH INFORMATION ISOLATION</b>	<i>One of the workers you're supervising has been isolated, largely because the individual has been extremely negative and doesn't socialize with others in the organization.</i>	<b>252</b>
46	<b>ROMANCE IN THE WORKPLACE</b>	<i>After working together with a co-worker you think you're falling in love. At the sometime, you want to be cautious about pursuing an office romance.</i>	<b>256</b>
47	<b>NETWORKING</b>	<i>You're new on a job that you think you want to remain in for the foreseeable future; the commute is good, the salary is fine, and the workplace environment is ideal. You want to be accepted and you want to advance in the company.</i>	<b>258</b>
48	<b>CONFRONTING A PROBLEM</b>	<i>Your neighbor never puts out the garbage in time for pickup and so the garbage-often broken into by stray animals-remains until the next pickup. You're fed up with the rodents the garbage draws, the smell, and the horrible appearance. You're determined to stop this problem and yet not have your next-door neighbor hate you.</i>	<b>266</b>
49	<b>WIN-WIN SOLUTIONS</b>	<i>Let's say that you and your partner have just received an unexpected \$5,000. You want a new car (your old one is unreliable) and your partner wants to spend it on a vacation (your partner is exhausted and feels the need for a rest).</i>	<b>269</b>
50	<b>AVOIDING CONFLICT</b>	<i>Your work team members all seem to have the same conflict style avoidance. When there is disagreement, they refuse to argue for one alternative or the other or even to participate in the discussion. They just smile. You need spirited discussion and honest debate if your team is going to come up with appropriate solutions</i>	<b>273</b>
51	<b>VERBAL AGGRESSIVENESS</b>	<i>Your work colleague persists in being verbally aggressive whenever you have an argument. Regardless of what the conflict is about, your self-concept is attacked.</i>	<b>276</b>
52	<b>APPROACHING PUBLIC SPEAKING</b>	<i>This is your first experience with public speaking and you're determined to make it a positive one.</i>	<b>285</b>
53	<b>TOPIC APPROPRIATENESS</b>	<i>Stephen a 20-year-old student, gave a speech on flower arranging-a topic so unexpected that members of the audience giggled and avoided eye contact.</i>	<b>290</b>
54	<b>UNFAVORABLE AUDIENCE</b>	<i>In presenting her persuasive speech, Marie sees from the audience's initial reactions that they are totally against her thesis and are tuning her out.</i>	<b>299</b>
55	<b>CORRECTING ERRORS</b>	<i>In her speech Lena says that over 70 percent of the students favored banning alcohol. Toward the end of the speech, she realizes that she mixed up the figures (only 30 percent favored banning alcohol). During the question-and-answer period no one asks about the figures.</i>	<b>310</b>
56	<b>USING DEFINITIONS</b>	<i>Marilyn wants to define vegan and vegetarian and distinguish between them using a variety of types of definitions.</i>	<b>320</b>
57	<b>ORGANIZATIONAL PATIERNs</b>	<i>You are organizing a speech</i>	<b>340</b>
58	<b>UNEXPECTED FEEDBACK</b>	<i>Cathy introduces her speech with a story she found extremely humorous and laughed out loud after she finished it. Unfortunately, the audience just didn't get it- not one smile in the entire audience</i>	<b>356</b>
59	<b>TIME PROBLEM</b>	<i>Jack's speech has run overtime and he's been given the 30-second stop signal. He still has about five more minutes remaining in his speech.</i>	<b>361</b>
60	<b>AUDIENCE INATTENTION</b>	<i>Kenneth is giving a speech on the problems of teenage drug abuse and notices that the entire back rows of his audience have totally tuned him out, they're reading, chatting, working on their laptops, tweeting.</i>	<b>369</b>

61	<b>CRITICIZING A SPEECH</b>	<i>A student has just given a speech on the glory of bullfighting, something Liz defines as animal cruelty. To the speaker, however, bullfighting is an important part of the culture. As Liz bristles inside, the instructor asks her to critique the speech.</i>	<b>370</b>
62	<b>UNEXPECTED EVENTS</b>	<i>Kelly is going to speak on the newest Microsoft operating system that she's been using the last few weeks. Unfortunately, the previous speaker turns out to be a Microsoft program designer who gives a speech on exactly this topic.</i>	<b>383</b>
63	<b>SPEECH OF DESCRIPTION</b>	<i>Angela is giving a speech of description on how children acquire language and notices a woman with a child of the age she's talking about in the audience</i>	<b>389</b>
64	<b>DEFINING</b>	<i>In visualizing his next speech, in which he plans to define the basic tenets of his religion, Michael realizes that most members of his audience have a negative view of his religion.</i>	<b>392</b>
65	<b>DEMONSTRATING</b>	<i>Andy wants to demonstrate to his audience how Twitter works. His audience is probably mixed in terms of their knowledge of Twitter-some know a great deal and others know very little. He wants to make sure that all audience members will pay attention and he'd like to accomplish that right at the start of his speech</i>	<b>396</b>
66	<b>PERSUASIVE APPEALS</b>	<i>Kimball wants to give a speech urging her listeners to support Clean Air. She wants to use both logical and emotional appeals.</i>	<b>408</b>
67	<b>INTRODUCING CREDIBILITY</b>	<i>Teresa has been assigned to compose a brief introduction (about 1 minute in length or about 150 words) about you that she will present before you speak</i>	<b>409</b>
68	<b>FORMULATING A THESIS</b>	<i>Amanda is planning a speech on animal rights.</i>	<b>421</b>

Table 3

As the numbers in red indicate, the implied reader of all 68 textboxes is a non-major.

[RETURN TO FINDINGS](#)

### Building communication skills

#	CODE: # = research orientation, # = student orientation, # = both			page
#	Textbox title	IMPLIED READER = RESEARCHER	IMPLIED READER = STUDENT	
1	<b>DISTINGUISHING CONTENT FROM RELATIONSHIP MESSAGES</b>	Problem with the citation	Did you say you're applying to medical school? • You're in love? • You paid a hundred dollars for that? • And that's all you did?	16
2	<b>RESOLVING AMBIGUITY</b>	Problem with the citation	discuss how you think most of the students at your school feel (not how you feel) about each of the following	17
3	<b>EXPLORING CULTURAL ATTITUDES</b>	These statements were taken from the Human Relations Attitude Inventory (Koppelman, 2005). The author notes that this inventory is based on an inventory developed by Flavia Vega.	In a group of five or six-try for as culturally diverse a group as you can find-discuss how you think most of the students at your school feel (not how you feel) about each of the following	36
4	<b>CONFRONTING INTERCULTURAL DIFFICULTIES</b>	No technical conceptions	-You're in an interracial, interreligious relationship. -Your parents persist in holding stereotypes about other religious, racial, and ethnic groups. -George, a colleague at work, recently underwent a religious conversion.	39
5	<b>DECIDING ABOUT SELF-DISCLOSURE</b>	Self-disclosure is a complex communication process and is especially important because its potential consequences, both positive and negative, are so significant	-Cathy has fallen in love with another man and wants to end her relationship with Tom, a coworker. -Gregory plagiarized a term paper in anthropology. -Roberto, a college sophomore, has just discovered he is HIV positive.	59
6	<b>USING IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES</b>	No technical conceptions	-You're new at work and want your colleagues to like you -You're giving a speech on something you feel deeply about; you want others to believe you. -You know you're going to fail that mid-term and you need a good excuse -You don't have as many computer skills as your resume might indicate and you need to appear to know a great deal	71

			-You want members of the group to see you as the leader and, in fact, to elect you group leader. -You want your colleagues to see you as a fun (but dedicated) worker	
7	EXPRESSING EMPATHY	No technical conceptions	-"I've never felt so alone in my life. Chris left last night and said it was all over. -I just got \$20,000 from my aunt's estate. -My parents bought me a Camry for graduation. What a bummer. They promised me a Lexus:-	86
8	REGULATING YOUR LISTENING STYLE	<i>With specific reference to the five dimensions of effective listening discussed here, what styles would you use in each of the following situations?</i>	-Your steady dating partner for the last five years tells you that spells of depression are becoming more frequent and more long lasting. -Your history instructor lectures on the contributions of the ancient Greeks to modern civilization. -Your brother tells you he's been accepted into Harvard's MBA program. Your supervisor explains the new computerized mail system. -A newscaster reports on a recent Arab-Israeli meeting.	91
9	CONFIRMING, REJECTING, OR DISCONFIRMING	<i>Each type of response communicates a different message; generally, however, confirming messages are likely to increase relationship satisfaction and disconfirming messages are likely to decrease relationship satisfaction</i>	-Enrique receives this semester's grades in the mail; - Elizabeth, who has been out of work for the past several weeks, says, "I feel like such a failure; - Candi's colleague at work comes to her overjoyed and tells her that she was just promoted to vice president of marketing, skipping three steps in the hierarchy and tripling her salary.	106
10	TALKING ABOUT THE MIDDLE	<i>Although most things, people, and events fall between extremes, the common but illogical tendency is to concentrate on the extremes and ignore the middle.</i>	Fill in the word that would logically go where the question mark appears.	112
11	CHOOSING A SEAT	<i>Every nonverbal (and verbal) message that you send has an impact, even the seat you select at a meeting. Your messages always reveal (to some extent) who you are and what others will think of you</i>	Look at the diagram here, which represents a table with 12 chairs, one of which is already occupied by the "boss:- Below are listed five messages you might want to communicate. For each of these messages, indicate (a) where you would sit to communicate the desired message, and (b) any other messages that your seating position will make it easier for you to communicate	125
12	EXPRESSING PRAISE AND CRITICISM	<i>You cannot speak a sentence without using nonverbal signals, and these signals influence the meaning the receiver gets.</i>	In the second and third columns, record the nonverbal signals you used to help you communicate these differences in meaning between praise and criticism	130
13	FORMULATING EXCUSES AND APOLOGIES	No technical conceptions	-Your boss confronts you with your office telephone log. - In talking with your supervisor, you tell a joke that puts down lesbians and gay men. - You're caught in a lie. You told your romantic partner that you were going to visit your parents, but were discovered to have visited a former lover.	159
14	GIVING AND RESPONDING TO COMPLIMENTS	No technical conceptions	First, formulate a compliment in which you say something favorable and positive about another person's reliability, intelligence, sense of style, fair mindedness, independence, perceptiveness, warmth, or sense of humor. Second, assume that the compliment you just formulated was addressed to you. What would you say in response?	160
15	TALKING CHERISHING	<i>Cherishing behaviors [is] a concept that comes from the work of William Lederer (1984).</i>	Prepare a list of 10 cherishing behaviors that you would like to receive from your real or imagined relationship partner	170
16?	REPAIRING	Can you use what you've read about	-Mike and Jim, friends for 20 years, have had a	172

	<b>RELATIONSHIPS</b>	here (as well as your own experiences, readings, observations, and so on) to come up with some reasonable repair advice? <b>Not specific.</b> The only reference is to Dindia & Firzpatrick, 1985 on “affirm each other” on the preceding page.	falling out. - Tom, a junior in college, recently came out as gay to his family - Pat and Chris have been best friends since elementary school. Even now, in their twenties, they speak every day and rely on each other for emotional support.	
17	<b>USING AFFINITY-SEEKING STRATEGIES</b>	In Chapter 3 we introduced the concept of affinity seeking strategies, ways in which you communicate so that another person comes to like you (Bell & Daly, 1984).	After reading about romantic relationships, return to this exercise and compose messages that you'd say to a romantic partner.	189
18	<b>UNTIL THIS DO US PART</b>	<b>No technical conceptions. It would be “guesswork” to relate the “factors” given in the questionnaire to the content of the chapter.</b>	This exercise is designed to stimulate you to examine the factors that might lead you to dissolve a romantic relationship. Here are listed a number of factors that might lead someone to end a romantic relationship. For each factor identify the likelihood that you would dissolve romantic relationships of various types.	197
19	<b>COMBATING IDEA KILLERS</b>	<b>No technical conceptions</b>	As you read down the list of these commonly heard killer messages, formulate at least one response you might give if someone used one of these on you or if you yourself used it to censor your own creative thinking	215
20	<b>LISTENING TO NEW IDEAS</b>	A useful skill for listening to new ideas is PIP'N, a technique that derives from Carl Rogers's (1970) emphasis on paraphrasing as a means for ensuring understanding and Edward deBono's (1976) PIP'N (plus, minus, and interesting) technique.	Try using PIP'N the next time you hear about a new idea; say, in conversation or in a small group.	216
21	<b>COMBATING GROUPTHINK</b>	<i>Grouphink</i> prevents <i>creativity</i> and <i>logical analysis</i> ; <i>watch out</i> for it and <i>try to reduce its influence whenever you can</i> .	Develop specific messages you might use as a member or a leader of a group in which you see the signs of grouphink noted on the left and you wish to use the combat tactic noted in the center column.	230
22	<b>EMPOWERING OTHERS</b>	As Bennis and Nanus (2003) argue, "leadership is not so much the exercise of power itself as the empowerment of others:"	-Your partner is having lots of difficulties - You're managing four college interns who are redesigning your company's website. -You're a third-grade teacher. Most of the students are from the same ethnic-religious group; three, however, are from a very different group.	236
23	<b>WORKPLACE ANALYSIS</b>	Much as you would analyze an audience so as to tailor your messages to them (as will be detailed in Chapter 14), you can analyze a workplace to <b>reduce your uncertainty</b>	Here are five kinds of information you might focus on in your workplace analysis; for each, create an example of how this specific knowledge might help a worker new to the organization	253
24	<b>DEALING WITH ORGANIZATIONAL COMPLAINTS</b>	... the suggestions for effective listening discussed in Chapter 4. The implied reader is not a researcher but the content of ch 4 would be of interest to an emergent researcher.	Assume that you're the leader of a work team consisting of members from each of the major departments in your company.	255
25	<b>MANAGING CONFLICT EARLY</b>	<b>No technical conceptions</b>	This exercise helps you look at your own way of dealing with conflict starters-something someone says that signals to you that this is the start of an interpersonal conflict.	270
26	<b>FINDING WIN- WIN SOLUTIONS</b>	<b>No technical conceptions</b>	To get into the habit of looking for these types of solutions, try generating as many win-win solutions as possible (that you feel the individuals could reasonably accept) for the following scenarios.	272
27	<b>LIMITING A TOPIC</b>	<b>No technical conceptions</b>	As a general rule, focus on <i>depth</i> rather than <i>breadth</i> ; avoid trying to cover too much in short speeches.	294
28	<b>USING CULTURAL BELIEFS</b>	<b>No technical conceptions</b>	Evaluate each of the cultural beliefs listed below in	298

	AS ASSUMPTIONS		terms of how effective each would be if used as a basic assumption by a speaker addressing your public speaking class.	
29	GENERATING MAIN POINTS	No technical conceptions	Try generating two or three main points (suitable for an informative or persuasive speech) from any one of the following thesis statements by asking strategic questions of each.	332
30	CONSTRUCTING CONCLUSIONS AND INTRODUCTIONS	No technical conceptions	Prepare a conclusion and an introduction to a hypothetical speech on one of the topics listed below.	341
31	DISTINGUISH BETWEEN COMMONLY CONFUSED WORDS	No technical conceptions	Using <i>the wrong term is likely to divert audience attention from your main ideas and damage your credibility. When in doubt, check it out.</i>	357
32	CHECKING YOUR PRONUNCIATION	No technical conceptions	Here are some words that are often mispronounced. Consult a print or online dictionary (ideally, one with audio capabilities) and record the correct pronunciations here.	367
33	CLIMBING THE ABSTRACTION LADDER	No technical conceptions	For each of the terms listed below, indicate at least four possible terms that indicate increasing specificity.	391
34	PREPARING AN INFORMATIVE SPEECH	No technical conceptions	Select a topic suitable for an informative speech and develop a preparation outline by doing the following.	397
35	CONSTRUCTING LOGICAL, MOTIVATIONAL, AND CREDIBILITY APPEALS	No technical conceptions	Below are statements suitable as theses for a variety of persuasive speeches. Select any one statement (or its opposite) and construct (a) a logical appeal, (b) an emotional appeal, and (c) a credibility appeal that would prove effective in persuading your class.	410
36	QUESTIONS OF FACT, VALUE, AND POLICY	No technical conceptions	To develop this understanding, select a newspaper (Sunday's edition will work best ), a weekly newsmagazine, or an Internet news site and identify the questions of fact, value, and policy covered in this one issue (as was done in this chapter).	414

Table 4

Of the 36 textboxes, the implied readers of 19 are non-majors. The implied readers of 16 are both non-majors and majors. 1 is difficult to determine.

[RETURN TO FINDINGS](#)

### Media literacy textboxes

#	CODE: # = research orientation, # = student orientation, # = both			
#	Textbox title	IMPLIED READER = RESEARCHER	IMPLIED READER = STUDENT	page
1	WHAT IS MEDIA LITERACY?	"Media literacy" refers to "the ability to understand, analyze, and evaluate media messages, to interact with the media, and to use the available resources to create your own media messages."	Increase your sensitivity to media by examining your own use of media.	37
2	MEDIA MESSAGE ARE CONSTRUCTED & CONSTRUCT REALITY	"Cultivation Theory": Media messages do not reflect reality so much as construct it	Listen to the ways in which the media influence how you see the world and to the ways they present distorted pictures of what is supposed to be reality	62
3	MEDIA USERS CONSTRUCT	"Selective attention & selective exposure": You attend to certain media and to certain	Becoming conscious of the way you use the media is crucial to your gaining control over media	89

	<b>MEANING</b>	media stories and not to others; you expose yourself to certain media and not to others.	messages. Become aware of the types of information you seek out and the types that you filter out.	
4	<b>MEDIA MESSAGES ARE VALUE-LADEN</b>	<b>No technical conceptions</b>	So listen to television programs, for example, with a consciousness of the values that are embedded in the production the sitcom as well as the news broadcast-and how might these influence your thoughts and behaviors.	109
5	<b>PRODUCT PLACEMENT</b>	<b>"Product placement"</b> : the insertion of brand-name products in media.	When you see a product in a movie or television show, keep in mind that advertisers paid heavily for its being there.	120
6	<b>MEDIA MESSAGES ARE INFLUENTIAL</b>	<b>"Media effects"</b> : Media messages are sometime informative but always persuasive	To increase media literacy, try to identify specific ways in which the media have influenced you.	146
7	<b>PARASOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS</b>	- <b>Parasocial relationships</b> are relationships that viewers perceive themselves to have with media personalities (Giles, 2001; Rubin & McHugh, 1987). -Parasocial relationships develop in a three-stage process (Rubin & McHugh, 1987): ... the more you know about the person or character, the more likely you are to develop a parasocial relationship with that character (Perse & Rubin, 1989).	As you interact with the media, ask yourself in what other ways the media encourage parasocial relationships between viewers on the one hand and television and film characters on the other.	166
8	<b>INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS &amp; THE MEDIA</b>	Select a television sitcom or drama or film that deals with interpersonal relationships and <b>analyze it</b>	To increase your media literacy try this:	190
9	<b>THIRD-PERSON EFFECT</b>	-A variety of studies conducted on college students have supported this idea ["third person effect"] (Davison, 1983). -(Hoffner et al., 2001).	Try testing out this theory. For example, survey 10 or 20 people and ask them how influenced they feel they are by, say, media violence or racism. Then ask them if their friends and relatives are influenced by such media messages more than they are. Then conduct the same type of two-step survey with a more socially acceptable message, such as a media campaign on the value of education or the importance of proper diet. On the basis of your research, what can you add to this discussion?	213
10	<b>THE KNOWLEDGE GAP</b>	-Much of the research in this area has focused on the influence of the media in widening this knowledge gap-a concept known as the knowledge gap hypothesis (Severin, 1988; Tichenor, Donohue, & Olien, 1970; Viswanath & Finnegan, 1995). -(Mastin, 1998).	Become more mindful of the knowledge gap as it operates around you-in your community or school-or nationally and internationally. Consider next what you might do-as an individual- to address the inequities caused by the knowledge gap	231
11	<b>ADVERTISING</b>	<b>No technical conceptions</b>	Try keeping a log for one day of all the advertising with which you come into contact. Be prepared-it's going to be a very extensive log. In what ways did these advertisements influence you? How would you describe the techniques advertisers use to achieve their purposes?	247
12	<b>PUBLIC RELATIONS</b>	Public relations (PR) is a communication strategy designed to convey information so as to establish positive relationships between a corporation, agency, or other group and the public (Folkerts, Lacy, & Larabee, 2008; Rodman, 2001; Vivian, 2011).	For one day become especially mindful of the influence of public relation professionals. In what ways are they exerting persuasion on you?	275
13	<b>MEDIA MSGS ARE OFTEN STEREOTYPES</b>	<b>No technical conceptions</b>	An excellent exercise in media literacy is to try to identify examples that support or contradict the idea that media engage in stereotyping.	297
14	<b>AGENDA-SETTING</b>	<b>No technical conceptions</b> (No research is identified & although the delineation of the concept fits McCombs conception, the language used is not technical. Included in a chapter on Public Speaking, McCombs research is not mentioned.)	A good way to see agenda setting is to compare the coverage of two very different media outlets; you'll quickly see agenda setting in action.	322

15	<b>REVERSING MEDIA'S INFLUENCE</b>	Although you generally think of the media influencing you, you can also influence the media-on radio, television, newspapers and magazines, film, and the Internet (Jamieson & Campbell, 1997; Media Education Foundation, 2006a, b; Postman & Powers, 1992):	... if you think a national and local media (television and newspapers) organization unfairly treated a controversy you're interested in, consider the options you have for protesting and for correcting the unfairness you perceive.	358
16	<b>GATEKEEPING</b>	-The concept of gatekeeping, introduced by Kurt Lewin in his Human Relations (1947), concerns both the process by which a message passes through various "gates" and the <i>people</i> or groups, or "gatekeepers" that allow the message to pass. -[Gatekeepers] allow certain information to come through and other information be filtered out (Badon, Powell, & Hickson, 1999; Lewis 1995).	As you interact with the media, consider how gatekeeping operates, who is doing the gatekeeping, and for what purpose.	390
17	<b>THE SPIRAL OF SILENCE</b>	-The spiral of silence theory argues that you're more likely to voice agreement than disagreement (NoelleNaumann, 1973, 1980, 1991; Windahl, Signitzer, & Olson, 1992). The theory claims that when a controversial issue arises, you try to estimate public opinion on the issue and figure out which views are popular and which are not, largely by attending to the media (Gonzenbach, King, & Jablonski, 1999; Jeffres, Neuendorf, & Atkin, 1999). - (Scheufele & Moy, 2000).	As you think about the spiral of silence, consider the ways the process of silence operates in your own media life. For example, do you contribute to this spiral of silence? Under what conditions are you most likely to conform to the predictions of this theory? What are its effects on your self-image and on your popularity with peers?	412

Table 5

Of the 17 textboxes, the implied readers of 4 are non-majors and 13 are both non-majors and majors.

[RETURN TO FINDINGS](#)

### Reflections on ethics textboxes

#	CODE: # = research orientation, # = student orientation, # = both	Textbox title	IMPLIED READER = RESEARCHER	IMPLIED READER = STUDENT	page
1		<b>CULTURE AND ETHICommunication Studies</b>	<b>No technical conceptions.</b>	What ethical obligations do you have for communicating your beliefs about cultural practices you think are unethical when such topics come up in conversation or in class discussions? What are your ethical choices?	46
2		<b>IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT</b>	There are references to "affinity seeking," "credibility," "self-handicapping," self-deprecating," "self-monitoring," and "influence" strategies which are covered in the chapter.	You're interviewing for a job you really want and you need to be perceived as credible and likeable. What are your ethical choices for presenting yourself as both credible and likeable?	72
3		<b>LISTENING ETHICALLY</b>	The chapter is on "listening," the only specific reference to concepts in the chapter is "feedback." The other references are general.	You're teaching a class in communication. In the public speaking segment, one of your students, a sincere and devout Iranian Muslim, gives a speech on "why women should be subservient to men: After the first two minutes of the speech, half the class walks out. During the next class you plan to give a lecture on the ethics of listening. What is your ethical obligation in this situation? What would you say? [Although the context is	93

				teaching, students are asked to imagine themselves teaching.]	
4		<b>LYING</b>	The chapter has a section on lying.	-would you lie to get a well-earned promotion or raise? - Is it ethical to lie to your relationship partner to avoid a conflict and perhaps splitting up? - would you lie to get out of an unwanted date, an extra office chore, or a boring conversation? - Is it ethical to exaggerate the consequences of an act in order to discourage it? - Is it ethical to lie about yourself in order to appear more appealing?	104
5		<b>SILENCE</b>	The chapter has a section on silence.	Your college roommate is selling term papers and uses your jointly owned computer to store them.	137
6		<b>GOSSIP</b>	-In fact, gossip seems universal among all cultures (Laing, 1993), and among some groups gossip is a commonly accepted ritual (Hall, 1993). -Gossip involves making social evaluations about a person who is not present during the conversation; it generally occurs when two people talk about a third party (Eder & Enke, 1991). - (Armour, 2007). - (Leaper & Holliday, 1995; Miller & Wilcox, 1986; Rosnow, 1977). - (Turner, Mazur, Wendel, & Winslow, 2003).	You and your longtime friend Pat are now working in the same company and are competing for the position of sales manager. You know that Pat's resume contains many lies-claiming, for example, a long history of experience. And it is this claimed experience that is likely to land Pat the position over you. ... What would you do?	157
7		<b>RELATIONSHIP ETHICCommunication Studies</b>	... the ethical issues and guidelines that operate within a friendship, romantic, family, or workplace relationship can be reviewed with the acronym ETHICCommunication StudiesEmpathy (Cheney & Tompkins, 1987), Talk rather than force, Honesty (Krebs, 1990), Interaction management, Confidentiality, and Supportiveness (Johannesen, 2001). As you read these guidelines, think about whether you and your relationship partners follow them.	You're managing a work team of four colleagues charged with redesigning the company website. The problem is that Jack doesn't do any work and misses most of the meetings. ... What are your options for dealing with this problem?	177
8		<b>YOUR OBLIGATION TO REVEAL YOURSELF</b>	No technical conceptions.	At what point-if any-do you feel you have an ethical obligation to reveal each of the 10 items of information listed here?	194
9		<b>TELLING SECRETS</b>	In Secrets (1983) ethicist Sissela Bok identifies three types of situations in which she argues it would be unethical to reveal the secrets of another person.	How would you handle the following situations?	210
10		<b>THE LEADER'S ETHICAL RESPONSIBILITIES</b>	The chapter has a section on leadership.	You're leading a discussion among a group of high school freshmen whom you're mentoring. The topic turns to marijuana, and the students ask you directly if you smoke pot.	238
11		<b>FIVE C's of ORGANIZATIONAL ETHICCommunication Studies</b>	The chapter is on "organizational communication," the only specific reference to concepts in the chapter is "channels." The other references are general.	At your workplace management seems to condone sexual harassment; ... What are your ethical choices in this situation? What is your ethical obligation? What would you do?	257
12		<b>ETHICAL FIGHTING</b>	The chapter is on conflict.	At your high-powered and highly stressful	276

				job you sometimes use cocaine with your colleagues. ... Your partner-who you know hates drugs and despises people who use any recreational drug-asks you if you take drugs ... What is your ethical obligation?	
13		PLAGIARIZING	No technical conceptions.	While listening to an impressive speech in your class, you recognize that you've read this exact same material in an obscure online publication. ... What is your ethical obligation in this case?	303
14		COMMUNICATING IN CYBERSPACE	No technical conceptions.	As an experiment, you develop a computer virus that can destroy websites. Recently, you've come across a variety of websites that market child pornography. You wonder if you can ethically destroy these websites.	319
15		CRITICIZING ETHICALLY	No technical conceptions.	You and your best friend are taking this course together. Your friend just gave a pretty terrible speech, and unfortunately, the instructor has asked you to offer a critique.	372
16		SPEAKING ETHICALLY	One interesting approach to ethics that has particular relevance to public speaking identifies four key rules for speakers (Johannesen, 2001; Wallace, 1955).	You're giving an informative speech to explain how the new condom machines on campus will work. ... You figure you don't have time to include all issues, that it's really the responsibility of the audience to ask where the money is coming from, and that the machines will help prevent sexually transmitted diseases. What is your ethical obligation in this situation?	384
17		THE ETHICommunication Studies OF EMOTIONAL APPEALS	No technical conceptions. Although the situation described in the right hand column is clearly not one that undergraduate students would play the speaker's role, it is one in which they could be the listeners. It is not a research situation.	You want to dissuade your teenaged sons and daughters from engaging in sexual relationships. Would it be ethical to use emotional appeals to scare them so that they'll avoid sexual relationships?	406

Table 6

Of the 17 textboxes, the implied readers of 6 are non-majors and the implied readers of 11 are both non-majors and majors.

[RETURN TO FINDINGS](#)

*Self-Tests textboxes*

#	CODE: # = research orientation, # = student orientation, # = both			
#	Textbox title	IMPLIED READER = RESEARCHER	IMPLIED READER = STUDENT	page
1	WHAT DO YOU BELIEVE ABOUT COMMUNICATION?	A True/False test about statements concerning communication <i>that will be discussed</i> in later chapters.	Respond to each of the following statements with T (true) if you believe the statement is usually true or F (false) if you believe the statement is usually false.	8
2	WHAT IS YOUR CULTURAL ORIENTATION?	A multiple choice test about concepts in the chapter.	For each of the items below, select either a or b.	34
3	HOW ETHNO-CENTRIC ARE YOU?	The concept of ethnocentrism is discussed in the chapter. Source of test: James W. Neuliep,	For each statement indicate how much you agree or disagree	44

		Michelle Chaudoir, and James C. McCroskey (2001). A cross cultural comparison of ethnocentrism among Japanese and United States college students. <i>Communication Research Reports</i> . 18 (Spring). 137-146. Copyright© Eastern Communication Association		
4	<b>HOW WILLING TO SELF-DISCLOSE ARE YOU?</b>	<b>The concept of self-disclosure is discussed in the chapter.</b>	Respond to each of the following statements by indicating the likelihood that you would disclose such items of information to, say, other members of this class in a one-on-one interpersonal situation, in a public speaking situation, and in online communication (say, e-mail, blogs, and social networking sites).	56
5	<b>HOW DO YOU LISTEN?</b>	<b>The concept of listening is discussed in the chapter.</b>	Respond to each question [about listening] with the following scale: 1 = always, 2 =frequently, 3 = sometimes, 4 = seldom, and 5 = never	85
6	<b>CAN YOU DISTINGUISH FACTS FROM INFERENCES?</b>	<b>The distinction between facts and inferences is discussed in the chapter</b>	Indicate whether you think the observations are true, false, or doubtful on the basis of the information presented in the report.	112
7	<b>WHAT TIME DO YOU HAVE?</b>	<b>The concept of time communication is discussed in the chapter.</b> Source of test: From "Time in Perspective" by Alexander Gonzalez and Philip G. Zimbardo in <i>Psychology Today</i> , V.19, pp. 20-26.	For each statement, indicate whether the statement is true (T) or false (F) in relation to your general attitude and behavior.	132
8	<b>HOW FLEXIBLE ARE YOU IN COMMUNICATION?</b>	<b>The concept of flexibility is discussed in the chapter.</b> Source of test: From "Development of a Communication Flexibility Measure" by Matthew M. Martin and Rebecca B. Rubin in the <i>Southern Communication Journal</i> , V. 59, Winter 1994, pp. 171-178.	If the decided action or choice identified here is exactly what you would do, make it a 5; if it is a lot like what you'd do, 4; if it is somewhat like what you'd do, 3; if it is not much like what you'd do, 2; and if it is not at all like what you'd do, 1.	152
9	<b>WHAT KIND OF LOVER ARE YOU?</b>	<b>The different types of love are discussed in the chapter.</b> Source of test: Hendrick & Hendrick, A relationship-specific version of the love attitudes scale. In J. W. Heulip (Ed.), <i>Handbook of replication research in the behavior and social sciences</i> (Special Issue). Published by <i>Journal of Social Behavior and Personality</i> . Copyright © 1990 Select Press.	Respond to each of the following statements with T for true (if you believe the statement to be a generally accurate representation of your attitudes about love) or F for false (if you believe the statement does not adequately represent your attitudes about love).	193
10	<b>HOW POWERFUL ARE YOU?</b>	<b>The concept of power is discussed in the chapter.</b>	For each statement, indicate which of the following descriptions is most appropriate, using the following scale: 1 =true of 20 percent or fewer of the people I know; 2 = true of about 21 to 40 percent of the people I know; 3 =true of about 41 to 60 percent of the people I know; 4 =true of about 61 to 80 percent of the people I know; and 5 =true of 81 percent or more of the people I know.	212
11	<b>WHAT KIND OF GROUP MEMBER ARE YOU?</b>	<b>The concept of a group member is discussed in the chapter.</b>	For each statement below, respond with T if the statement is often true of your group behavior or F for false if the statement generally does not apply to your group behavior.	226
12	<b>WHAT KIND OF LEADER ARE YOU?</b>	<b>The concept of a leader is discussed in the chapter.</b>	Respond to the following statements in terms of how you perceive yourself and how you think others perceive you, using a 10-point scale ranging from 10 (extremely true) to 1 (extremely false).	232
13	<b>ARE YOU X, Y, OR Z?</b>	<b>These statements refer to theories of management that have been labeled X, Y, and Z (McGregor, 1980; 2005) which were discussed in the chapter.</b>	Respond to each of the following statements with T if you believe the statement is generally or usually true, or with F for false if you believe the statement is generally or usually false:	248
14	<b>HOW VERBALLY AGGRESSIVE ARE YOU?</b>	<b>The concept of a verbal aggressiveness is discussed in the chapter.</b> Source of test: D. A Infante, C J. Wigley, "Verbal Aggressiveness An Interpersonal Model and Measure," in <i>Communication Monographs</i> . Copyright©	This scale measures how people try to obtain compliance from others.	277

		1986 National Communication Association.		
15	<b>HOW ARGUMENTATIVE ARE YOU?</b>	<b>The concept of argumentativeness is discussed in the chapter.</b> Source of questionnaire: Dominic Infante and Andrew Rancer, "A Conceptualization and Measure of Argumentativeness," <i>Journal of Personality Assessment</i> , 46 (1982). 72-80. Copyright© 1982 Taylor & Francis Group.	This questionnaire contains statements about controversial issues. Indicate how often each statement is true for you personally according to the following scale: 1 = almost never true, 2 = rarely true, 3 = occasionally true, 4 = often true, and 5 = almost always true.	279
16	<b>HOW APPREHENSIVE ARE YOU IN PUBLIC SPEAKING?</b>	<b>The concept of apprehension is discussed in the chapter.</b> Source of test: James C. McCroskey, <i>An Introduction to Rhetorical Communication</i> , Figure 3 .2 "Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA 24)," p. 41, © 1997 by Pearson Education, Inc.	Indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you, using the following scale: 1 =strongly agree; 2 = agree; 3 =are undecided; 4 =disagree; 5 = strongly disagree.	287
17	<b>WHAT'S WRONG WITH THESE CRITICAL EVALUATIONS?</b>	<b>The concept of a critical evaluation is discussed in the chapter.</b>	For the purposes of this exercise, assume that each of the following 10 comments represents the critic's complete criticism. What's wrong with each?	373

Table 7

Of the 17 textboxes, the implied readers of 1 are non-majors and the implied readers of 16 are both non-majors and majors.

[RETURN TO FINDINGS](#)

*Understanding Theory and Research textboxes*

#	CODE: # = research orientation, # = student orientation, # = both			
1	<b>COMMUNICATION THEORIES</b>	A theory is a generalization that explains how something works-for example, gravity, blood clotting, interpersonal attraction, or communication. <b>NO CITATION</b>	<i>Log on to one of the academic databases to which you have access and browse through issues of Quarterly Journal of Speech, Communication Monographs, or Communication Theory (or scan similar journals in your own field of study); you'll be amazed at the breadth and depth of academic research and theory.</i>	13
2	<b>COMMUNICATION RESEARCH</b>	Research is usually conducted on the basis of some theory and its predictions-although sometimes the motivation to conduct research comes from a simple desire to answer a question <b>NO CITATION</b>	<i>What question about communication would you like answered? Research the question and find out if the question has already been answered. If not, how might you go about conducting your own research to secure the answer?</i>	19
3	<b>CULTURAL THEORIES</b>	Consider two very different theories of culture: cultural evolution and cultural relativism. ... The cultural relativism approach, on the other hand, holds that all cultures are different but that no culture is either superior or inferior to any other (Berry, Poortinga, Segall, & Dasen, 1992). This view is generally accepted today and guides the infusion of cultural materials into contemporary textbooks on all academic levels (Jandt, 2004).	<i>Explore these two positions more fully by consulting one or more of the references cited in this chapter. or by logging on to your favorite search engine or database and searching for such concepts as "cultural relativism" "cultural evolution," and "social Darwinism." What might you add to the brief discussion presented here?</i> <b>NOT A RESEARCH PROCEDURE</b>	30
4	<b>LANGUAGE AND THOUGHT</b>	The linguistic relativity hypothesis claims (1) that the language you speak influences the thoughts you have, and (2) that therefore, people speaking widely differing languages will see the world differently and will think differently. <b>NO CITATION</b>	<i>Based on your own experience, how influential do you find language differences to be in perception and thought? Can you recall any misunderstandings that might be attributed to a particular language's leading its speakers to see or interpret things differently?</i>	43
5	<b>THE PYGMALION EFFECT</b>	A widely known example of the self-fulfilling prophecy is the Pygmalion effect (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1992). (McNatt, 2001).	<i>In what ways might this Pygmalion effect be applied at your own workplace?</i>	64

6	<b>THE JUST WORLD HYPOTHESIS</b>	Many people believe that the world is just: Good things happen to good people and bad things to bad people (Aronson, Wilson, & Akert, 2010; Hunt, 2000). ... (Bell, Kuriloff, & Lottes, 1994)	<i>Take a look at your own behaviors. Do you act as you do because of your belief in a just world? For example, do you act fairly because you think you'll be rewarded for it? Do you know people who do act on the basis of this hypothesis-for example, doing good in anticipation of good things happening to them?</i>	66
7	<b>RECONSTRUCTING MEMORY</b>	<i>When you remember a message, do you remember it as it was spoken, or do you remember what you think you heard?</i> (Glucksberg & Danks, 1975).	log on to your favorite database or search engine and search for articles dealing with false memory. In what types of situations is false memory found? What are some of its implications for communication? <b>NOT A RESEARCH PROCEDURE</b>	79
8	<b>CUES TO LYING</b>	Here are some verbal and nonverbal behaviors that are associated with lying (Al-S imadi, 2000; Burgoon & Bacue, 2003; Cody, Goss, & Krayner, 1988; Knapp & Hall, 2009; O'Hair, Bond & Atoum, 2000). (Vrij & Mann, 2001). (Vrij & Mann, 2001).	Can you recall a situation in which you made the assumption that someone was lying on the basis of such cues (or others)? What happened? Should you want to learn more about lying, search for such terms as "lying," "deception," "poker tells," and "falsehood." It's a fascinating subject of study.	82
9	<b>THEORIES OF GENDER DIFFERENCES</b>	Throughout this text, gender differences are discussed in a wide variety of contexts. One researcher distinguishes three perspectives on gender differences in communication (Holmes, 1995):	What arguments could you offer in support of or in opposition to any of these positions? How might you go about conducting research to test any one of these hypotheses?	99
10	<b>THE VERB "TO BE"</b>	The theory of E-prime (or E9) argues that if you wrote and spoke English without the verb to be, you'd describe events more accurately (Bourland, 1965-1966; Bourland & Johnston, 1997; Klein, 1992; Wilson, 1989).	How might you apply the E-prime principle to gain greater understanding of the ways in which you view yourself? To answer this question you might try first to identify yourself (who you are, what you are) in a few sentences using forms of the verb to be and then to rephrase these same sentences in E-prime. What different perspectives do these two versions give you?	111
11	<b>THE FACIAL FEEDBACK HYPOTHESIS</b>	The facial feedback hypothesis claims that your facial expressions influence physiological arousal (Cappella, 1993). In support of the facial feedback hypothesis, people who felt and expressed the emotions became emotionally aroused faster than did those who only felt the emotion (Burgoon, Guerrero, & Floyd, 2010; Hess, Kappas, McHugo, & Lanzetta, 1992). A reasonable conclusion seems to be that your facial expressions can influence some feelings, but not all (Burgoon, Guerrero, & Floyd, 2010).	What effect do you observe when you express your emotions? Do your feelings get stronger? Weaker?	123
12	<b>SPACE VIOLATIONS</b>	Expectancy violations theory, developed by Judee Burgoon, explains what happens when you increase or decrease the distance between yourself and another person in an interpersonal interaction (Burgoon, Guerrero, & Floyd, 2010).	Do your own experiences support this theory of space expectancy violations? What do you see happening when space expectations are violated?	127
13	<b>THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION</b>	Interpersonal communication occupies a part of the continuum toward the more personal and intimate end and is distinguished from impersonal communication by three factors: (1) psychologically based predictions, (2) explanatory knowledge, and (3) personally established rules (Miller, 1978).	Try applying these three factors to your own experiences in interpersonal relationships. Do you experience the kind of progression identified here?	144
14	<b>OPENING LINES</b>	How do you strike up a conversation with someone you're meeting for the first time? How have people tried to open conversations with you? Researchers investigating this question found three basic types of opening lines (Kieinke, 1986).	Do you find support for these conclusions from your own experience? For example, do you find significant gender differences in preferences? What openers do you yourself find most effective? What types do you dislike?	155
15	<b>RELATIONSHIP COMMITMENT</b>	Three types of commitment are often distinguished and can be identified from your answers to the following questions (Johnson,	Has commitment or the lack of it (from either or both of you) ever influenced the progression of one of your relationships? What happened?	169

		1973, 1982, 1991; Knapp & Taylor, 1995; Kurdek, 1995):		
16	<b>ONLINE RELATIONSHIP THEORIES</b>	- <i>Social presence theory</i> argues that the "bandwidth" (the number of message cues exchanged) of communication influences the degree to which the communication is personal or impersonal (Walther & Parks, 2002; Wood & Smith, 2005). - <i>Social information processing (SIP)</i> theory argues, contrary to social presence theory, that whether you're communicating face-to-face or online, you can communicate the same degree of personal involvement and develop similar close relationships (Walther, 1992; Walther & Parks, 2002).	How would you compare the level of closeness that you can communicate in face-to-face and in online situations? Do you feel it's more difficult (even impossible) to communicate, say, support, warmth, and friendship in online communication than in face-to-face communication?	174
17	<b>INTIMACY AND RISK</b>	People who answer yes to these and similar questions see intimacy as involving considerable risk (Pilkington & Richardson, 1988). Such people have fewer close friends, are less likely to have romantic relationships, have less trust in others, have lower levels of dating assertiveness, have lower self-esteem, are more possessive and jealous, and are generally less sociable and extroverted than those who see intimacy as involving little risk (Pilkington & Woods, 1999).	How would you describe your willingness to take relationship risks? What exactly are you willing to risk in establishing a relationship? What exactly are you unwilling to risk?	195
18	<b>LOVE STYLES AND PERSONALITY</b>	This list of the personality descriptions that research finds people assign to each love style (Taraban & Hendrick, 1995):	How would you go about furthering this research on love styles and personality? What type of research might you undertake to increase our understanding of the relationship of personality and love style?	198
19	<b>GROUP POWER</b>	... in low-power-distance groups, you're expected to confront a group leader (or friend or supervisor) assertively; acting assertively denotes a general feeling of equality (Borden, 1991). In high-power-distance groups, direct confrontation and assertiveness toward the leader (or toward any person in authority, such as a teacher or doctor) may be viewed negatively (Bochner & Hesketh, 1994; Westwood, Tang, & Kirkbride, 1992).	Visit one of the online databases to which you have access and search the communication and sociology databases for power. What types of questions engage the attention of researchers?	214
20	<b>GROUP POLARIZATION</b>	Groups frequently make more extreme decisions than individuals—a tendency known as group polarization (Brauer, Judd, & Gliner, 1995; Bullock, et al., 2002; Friedkin, 1999).	Have you ever observed group polarization? What happened? What implications does this theory have for, say, gang members, professors joining a new faculty, or investment analysts?	221
21	<b>STYLES OF LEADERSHIP</b>	Small group communication researchers distinguish three basic types of group leaders: laissez-faire, democratic, and authoritarian (Bennis & Nanus, 2003; Hackman & Johnson, 1991).	Which leadership style—say, in a work situation with colleagues—are you likely to feel most comfortable using? What about as a group member?	233
22	<b>ATTILA'S THEORY OF LEADERSHIP</b>	... consider these leadership qualities, paraphrased from Wes Roberts's <i>Leadership Secrets of Attila the Hun</i> (1987), a study of the warrior who united many of the nomadic tribes in first-century Asia.	Of these five qualities, which do you see as being the most important to you in your personal and social life? What about in your business and professional life?	233
23	<b>APPROACHES TO ORGANIZATIONS</b>	Organizations may be viewed from several different theoretical perspectives, each of which will give you different insights into what an organization is and how organizational communication may be understood. Four approaches are particularly significant: the scientific, the behavioral, the systems, and the cultural. <b>NO CITATION</b>	What type of organizational approach characterized the work environments you've experienced? What do you see as the advantages and disadvantages of each approach to organizations?	245
24	<b>PETER AND DILBERT</b>	-The Peter Principle, developed by college	What evidence can you find that would support or	250

		<p>professor Lawrence J. Peter, states that "in a hierarchy every employee tends to rise to his or her) level of incompetence" (Peter &amp; Hull, 1969).</p> <p>- the Dilbert Principle, articulated by satirist Scott Adams (1997) who also writes the popular Dilbert comic strip: Organizations promote the most incompetent workers to managerial positions where they'll be able to do the least damage.</p>	<i>refute either of these principles?</i>	
25	<b>CONFLICT ISSUES</b>	<p>One study focused on heterosexual couples and identified the four conditions that most often led up to a couple's "first big fight" (Siegert &amp; Stamp, 1994):</p> <p>Another study asked what heterosexual, gay, and lesbian couples argued about most and found that all three types of couples were amazingly similar in their conflict issues. ... (Kurdek, 1994):</p>	<i>Log on to an online database or search a few news sources for recent articles dealing with world conflict. How much of the conflict in the world can be interpreted in communication terms?</i>	266
26	<b>CONFLICT AND GENDER</b>	<p>Not surprisingly, there are significant gender differences in interpersonal conflict. ... (Canary, Cupach, &amp; Messman, 1995; Goleman, 1995; Gottman &amp; Carrere, 1994). ... (Rose &amp; Asher, 1999). ... (Canary, Cupach, &amp; Messman, 1995; Schaap, Buunk, &amp; Kerkstra, 1988). ... (Canary &amp; Hause, 1993; Gottman &amp; Levenson, 1999; Wilkins &amp; Andersen, 1991).</p>	<i>Log on to an online database and search the communication, psychology, and sociology databases for research on gender and conflict. What can you add to the discussion presented here?</i>	267
27	<b>PERFORMANCE VISUALIZATION</b>	<p>The theory of <b>performance visualization</b> argues that you can reduce the outward signs of apprehension and the negative thinking that often creates anxiety through a few simple techniques (Ayres &amp; Hopf, 1992, 1993; Ayres, Hopf, &amp; Ayres, 1994).</p>	<i>Try performance visualization as you rehearse for your next speech. Did it help reduce your apprehension?</i>	286
28	<b>SYSTEMATIC DESENSITIZATION</b>	<p>The theory of systematic desensitization holds that you can reduce fear through a process of gradually adapting to lesser and then successively greater versions of the thing you fear. This technique has been used to deal with many kinds of fear, including public speaking fears (Richmond &amp; McCroskey, 1998; Wolpe 1957).</p>	<i>Create a hierarchy for dealing with communication apprehension. Use small steps to help you get from one step to the next more easily.</i>	289
29	<b>PRIMACY AND REGENCY</b>	<p>As explained in Chapter 3, the rule of primacy tells you that what an audience hears first will be remembered best and will have the greatest effect. The rule of recency tells you that what the audience hears last (or most recently) will be remembered best and will have the greatest effect.</p>	<i>Examine your previous speech or the speech you're currently working on in terms of the order of the main points. What insights does primacy-recency theory give you for ordering your main points?</i>	321
30	<b>CULTURE AND SPEECH ORGANIZATION</b>	<p>High-context cultures prefer indirectness. ... (Lustig &amp; Koester, 2010) ... In contrast, in the United States (a low-context culture) speakers are encouraged to be explicit and direct</p>	<i>As a listener, what type of organization do you prefer? For example, do you prefer a speaker who is direct or indirect? Do you prefer speakers who clearly separate the main points or who consider several points together?</i>	334
31	<b>ONE-SIDED VERSUS TWO-SIDED MESSAGES</b>	<p>When you're presenting persuasive arguments, should you devote all your time to your side of the case, or should you also mention the other side and show why that side is not acceptable? <b>NO CITATION</b></p>	<i>Take a look at print, television, or Internet ads and identify a few ads that use a two-sided approach (Brand A is better than Brand X). What makes a two-sided advertisement effective?</i>	355
32	<b>SPEECH RATE</b>	<p>Are people who speak faster more persuasive? The answer is: It depends (Smith &amp; Shaffer, 1991, 1995).</p>	<i>With specific reference to your next speech, how might you apply this research to increase your own persuasiveness?</i>	365
33	<b>INFORMATION THEORY</b>	<p>In the 1940s, engineers working at Bell Telephone Laboratories developed the mathematical theory of communication-which became known as information theory</p>	<i>Review the speech you're working on now. How much is information? How much does the audience already know? Is this the appropriate balance, or do you need to make adjustments?</i>	385

		(Shannon & Weaver, 1949).		
34	<b>SIGNAL-TO-NOISE RATIO</b>	A useful way of looking at information is in terms of its signal-to-noise ratio. Signal in this context refers to information that is useful to you, information that you want. Noise, on the other hand, is what you find useless; it's what you do not want. <b>NO CITATION</b>	<i>Look around the classroom in which you give your speeches. What sources of potential noise can you identify? What can you do to prevent the audience from focusing on the noise instead of your speech?</i>	393
35	<b>BALANCE THEORIES</b>	The general assumption of balance theories is that people strive to maintain consistency between their beliefs and their behaviors. <b>NO CITATION</b>	<i>How might you use the insights of balance theories in preparing a speech on why the audience should start investing, give up junk food, or quit smoking?</i>	403
36	<b>FOOT-IN-THE-DOOR AND DOOR-IN-THE-FACE</b>	When you have the opportunity to persuade your audience on several occasions (rather than simply delivering one speech), two strategies will prove helpful: the foot-in-the-door and door-in-the-face techniques (Goldstein, Martin, & Cialdini, 2008).	<i>What kinds of opportunities might you have for using either of these techniques? Have they ever been used on you? With what effect?</i>	411

**Table 8**

Of the 36 textboxes, the implied readers of 34 are both non-majors and majors and the implied readers of 2 are majors (emerging researchers).

## RETURN TO FINDINGS

### *Theories in ECT involving research situations with which undergraduates would not be familiar*

Accommodation Theory  
 Accounts and Account Giving  
 Action Assembly Theory  
 Action-Implicative Discourse Analysis  
 Activation Theory of Information Exposure  
 Activity Theory  
 Actor-Network Theory  
 Advertising Theories  
 Affect-Dependent Theory of Stimulus Arrangements  
 10—Afrocentricity  
 Agency  
 Agenda-Setting Theory  
 Aggressiveness.  
 Americanization of Media  
 Anxiety/Uncertainty Management Theory  
 Argumentation Theories  
 Argumentativeness  
 Asian Communication Theory  
 Attachment Theory  
 20—Attitude Theory  
 Attribution Theory  
 Audience Theories  
 Autoethnography  
 Autopoiesis. See Cybernetics  
 Axiology  
 Black Feminist Epistemology  
 Bona Fide Group Theory  
 Broadcasting Theories  
 Buddhist Communication Theory  
 30—Campaign Communication Theories

Chicana Feminism  
Chinese Harmony Theory  
Chronemics  
Citizenship  
Classical Rhetorical Theory  
Co-Cultural Theory  
Cognitive Dissonance Theory  
Cognitive Theories  
Collective Information Sampling  
40—Communiobiology  
Communication Across the Life Span  
Communication and Language Acquisition and Development  
Communication Goal Theories  
Communication in Later Life  
Communication Skills Theories  
Communication Theory of Identity  
Communicative Action Theory  
Community  
Community of Practice  
50—Competence Theories  
Complexity and Communication  
Compliance Gaining Strategies  
Complicity Theory  
Computer-Mediated Communication  
Conflict Communication Theories  
Confucian Communication Theory  
Consequentiality of Communication  
Constitutive View of Communication  
Constructivism  
60—Contextual Theory of Interethnic Communication  
Convergence Theory  
Conversational Constraints Theory  
Conversation Analysis  
Coordinated Management of Meaning  
Co-Orientation Theory  
Corporate Campaign Theories  
Corporate Colonization Theory  
Creativity in Groups  
Critical Communication Pedagogy  
70—Critical Constructivism  
Critical Discourse Analysis  
Critical Ethnography  
Critical Organizational Communication  
Critical Race Theory  
Critical Rhetoric  
Critical Theory  
Cross-Cultural Adaptation Theory  
Cross-Cultural Communication  
Cross-Cultural Decision Making  
80—Cultivation Theory  
Cultural Contracts Theory  
Cultural Identity Theory  
Cultural Indicators  
Cultural Performance Theory  
Cultural Studies  
Cultural Theories of Health Communication  
Cultural Types Theories  
Cybernetics

Deception Detection  
90—Deconstruction  
Definitions of Communication  
Deliberative Democratic Theories  
Dialogue Theories  
Diaspora  
Diffusion of Innovations  
Digital Cultures  
Digital Divide  
Discourse Theory and Analysis  
Documentary Film Theories  
100—Dramatism and Dramatistic Pentad  
Dual-Level Connectionist Models of Group  
Cognition and Social Influence  
Dyadic Power Theory  
Effective Intercultural Workgroup Communication Theory  
Elaborated and Restricted Codes  
Elaboration Likelihood Theory  
Emotion and Communication  
Empathy  
Entertainment-Education  
110—Environmental Communication Theories  
Ethics Theories  
Ethnography of Communication  
Ethnomethodology  
Evaluating Communication Theory  
Expectancy Violations Theory  
Influence Theories  
Face Negotiation Theory  
Facework Theories  
Family and Marital Schemas and Types  
120—Family Communication Theories  
Fans, Fandom, and Fan Studies  
Feminist Communication Theories  
Feminist Standpoint Theory  
Field Theory of Conflict  
Flow and Contra-Flow  
Framing Theory  
Free Flow Doctrine  
Functional Group Communication Theory  
Gay, Lesbian, Bisexual, and Transgender Theories  
130—Gender and Biology  
Gender and Media  
Genderlect Theory  
Gender Role Theory  
Gender Schema Theory  
General Semantics  
Genre Theory  
Globalization Theories  
Grounded Theory  
Group and Organizational Structuration Theory  
140—Group Communication Theories  
Groupthink  
Hawaiian *Ho'oponopono* Theory  
Health Communication Theories  
Heuristic-Systematic Model  
Hindu Communication Theory  
Humorous Communication Theory

Hybridity  
I and Thou  
Identification  
150—Identity Theories  
Ideological Rhetoric  
Ideology  
Immediacy  
Impression Formation  
Impression Management  
Indian *Rasa* Theory  
Information Theory  
Informatization  
Inoculation Theory  
160—Inquiry Processes  
Institutional Theories of Organizational Communication  
Interaction Adaptation Theory  
Interaction Involvement  
Interaction Process Analysis  
Intercultural Communication Competence  
Intercultural Communication Theories  
International Communication Theories  
International Development Theories  
Interpersonal Communication Theories  
170—Interpersonal Deception Theory  
Interpretive Communities Theory  
Interracial Communication  
Intersectionality  
Intrapersonal Communication Theories  
Invitational Rhetoric  
Japanese *Kuuki* Theory  
Journalism and Theories of the Press  
Kinesics  
Language and Communication  
180—Latino Perspectives  
Leadership Theories  
Learning and Communication  
Legal Communication Theories  
Linguistic Relativity  
Materiality of Discourse  
Mathematical Theory of Communication  
Meaning Theories  
Media and Mass Communication Theories  
Media Democracy  
190—Media Diplomacy  
Media Effects Theories  
Media Equation Theory  
Media Ethics Theories  
Media Richness Theory  
Media Sovereignty  
Medium Theory  
Membership Categorization Analysis (MCA)  
Metacommunication  
Metaphor  
200—Metatheory  
Modernism in Communication Theory  
Motivated Information Management Theory  
Muted Group Theory  
Myth and Mythic Criticism

Narrative and Narratology  
Negotiation Theory  
Network Society  
New Media Theory  
New World Information and Communication Order (NWICO)  
210—Nonverbal Communication Theories  
Ordinary Democracy  
Organizational Communication Theories  
Organizational Control Theory  
Organizational Co-Orientation Theory  
Organizational Culture  
Organizational Identity Theory  
Organizational List Theory  
Organizational Socialization and Assimilation  
Organizing, Process of Palo Alto Group  
220—Para language  
Performance Ethnography  
Performance Theories  
Performative Writing  
Persuasion and Social Influence Theories  
Philosophy of Communication  
Politeness Theory  
Political Communication Theories  
Popular Culture Theories  
Positioning Theory  
230—Power, Interpersonal  
Power and Power Relations  
Practical Theory  
Pragmatics  
Presence Theory  
Privacy Management Theory  
Problematic Integration Theory  
Process of Communication  
Propaganda Theory  
Proxemics  
240—Public Opinion Theories  
Queer Theory  
Racial Formation Theory  
Reasoned Action Theory  
Relational Communication Theory  
Relational Control Theory  
Relational Development  
Relational Dialectics  
Relational Maintenance Theories  
Relational Uncertainty  
250—Religious Communication Theories  
Rhetorical Theory  
Rogerian Dialogue Theory  
Rules Theories  
Self-Categorization Theory  
Self-Disclosure  
Semiotics and Semiology  
Sense-Making  
Silence, Silences, and Silencing  
Simulation and Media  
260—Social Action Media Studies  
Social and Communicative Anxiety  
Social Construction of Reality

Social Exchange Theory  
Social Identity Theory  
Social Information Processing Theory  
Social Interaction Theories  
Social Judgment Theory  
Social Justice  
Social Penetration Theory  
270—Social Support  
Spectatorship  
Speech Act Theory  
Speech Codes Theory  
Spiral Models of Media Effects  
Spiral of Silence  
Stakeholder Theory  
Stories and Storytelling  
Structuration Theory  
Style, Communicator  
280—Subliminal Communication  
Symbolic Convergence Theory  
Symbolic Interactionism  
Symbolic-Interpretive Perspective on Groups  
System Theory  
Taoist Communication Theory  
Theory  
Traditions of Communication Theory  
Trait Theory  
Transculturation  
290—Two-Step and Multi-Step Flow  
Uncertainty Management Theories  
Uncertainty Reduction Theory  
Uses, Gratifications, and Dependency  
Validity and Reliability  
Values Theory: Sociocultural Dimensions and Frameworks  
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*Cognitive Abilities invoked in Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*

In *Creating Significant Learning Experiences* Fink offers a taxonomy of the cognitive activities that are related to the significant learning goals identified by learning researchers.

**Cognitive Activities in the following Six Types of Learning**

FOUNDATIONAL KNOWLEDGE		
Remember	Understand	Identify
Use	Judge	Calculate
Critiques	Do (skill)	Create
Manage	Imagine	Coordinate
Solve	Analyze	Make decisions
APPLICATION		
Connect	Relate	Integrate
Identify the interaction between ...	Compare	Identify similarities
SOCIAL INTERACTION*		
Come to see themselves as ...	Understand Others in terms of..	Decide to become
Interact with others regarding ...		
CARING		
Get excited about ...	Be more interested in ...	Value ...
Be ready to ...		
LEARNING HOW TO LEARN		
Read & study effectively ...	Identify sources of info on ...	Frame useful questions
Set a learning agenda	Construct knowledge about ...	Create a learning plan

[\*Note: Fink's category is "Human Dimension."]

**Table 9**

The first three categories in the taxonomy reflect many of the cognitive abilities that scientists employ in their research. The abilities to "remember," "do," and "manage" are certainly involved but in ways that support inquiry rather than define it. Remembering concepts and models-of is a factor in scientific inquiry but it does not need to be "learned" in this context. Similarly, scientists use, manage, and act ("do") as they conduct their inquiries but these are also abilities that do not have to be learned in this context. The cognitive abilities in Fink's taxonomy which I believe are most relevant to learning how to be a communication researcher are:

- Analyze
- Assess
- Connect
- Calculate
- Compare
- Coordinate
- Create
- Critique
- Do (skill)
- Identify
- Identify similarities

Identify the interaction between ...  
 Imagine  
 Judge  
 Make decisions about ...  
 Integrate  
 Manage  
 Relate  
 Solve  
 Understand  
 Use

Construing learning in Reif's terms as a transformation of beliefs and dispositions to act upon them, we can assume that the basic transformation is from not being able to do "x" to being able to do "x." The final state, then, is an ability to do something. With this in mind, consider the activities implied by the verbs in the outcome statements in the generic matches between declarative and procedural knowledge that begin each chapter of *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*. (Note: the generic matches more or less summarize the more specific matches in the chapter.)<sup>8</sup>

The performances identified in the generic pairings of declarative and procedural knowledge in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* are:

you'll learn to:

1. **communicate with** a clear **understanding** of the essential elements and how they relate to one another.
2. **use** the essential **principles** of human communication to **increase** your own effectiveness in interpersonal, small group, and public **speaking**.
3. begin to **internalize** the characteristics of communication competence.
4. send and receive messages with a **recognition** of cultural influences and differences.
5. **communicate more successfully** in inter-cultural situations.
6. communicate with a better **understanding** of **who you are**.
7. **regulate** your **self-disclosures** and respond appropriately to the disclosures of others.
8. increase your own accuracy in **perceiving** other people and their messages.
9. **manage** the **impressions** you communicate to others.
10. avoid the barriers to effective listening.
11. **adjust** your **listening** so that it's most effective for the specific situation.
12. **listen with sensitivity** to cultural and gender variations.
13. **use language** to best achieve your purposes.
14. express confirmation when appropriate.
15. use verbal messages more effectively
16. communicate more effectively with nonverbal messages.
17. **respond appropriately** to the nonverbal messages of others.
18. encode and decode nonverbal messages more effectively.

19. communicate with an awareness of cultural and gender influences and differences in nonverbal communication.
20. **apply the skills of interpersonal communication** to a wide variety of situations.
21. **engage in conversation that is satisfying and mutually productive.**
22. **communicate** in ways **appropriate** to your relationship stage.
23. assess your own relationship behavior and make adjustments as needed.
24. **deal with relationship jealousy and violence** in productive ways interact in interpersonal relationships in ways that are appropriate to the type of relationship.
25. take greater control of what influences your relationship life.
26. **use small groups** to achieve a variety of personal, social, and **professional goals.**
27. **participate effectively** in a variety of small groups.
28. **participate more effectively as a group member.**
29. **lead** a wide variety of groups effectively and efficiently
30. **communicate more effectively in the organizational context.**
31. **advance your own status** and personal satisfaction within the organization approach conflict positively and realistically.
32. engage in interpersonal and group conflict **using** productive **conflict management strategies.**
33. **manage** your own **anxiety** and not let it prevent you from developing and presenting effective speeches.
34. **select** an appropriate speech **topic, purpose, and thesis.**
35. **analyze** and **adapt** to your audiences.
36. **research your topic.**
37. **support your ideas** with interesting and persuasive materials (examples, testimony, statistics).
38. **generate your main points** from your thesis statement.
39. **organize your thoughts** so that your speech is easy to follow and maintains your audience's interest and attention.
40. **use language** to best achieve your purposes.
41. rehearse your speech efficiently.
42. **criticize speeches** constructively.
43. **use the principles for communicating information** more effectively and efficiently.
44. **prepare** a variety of **informative speeches**—speeches of description, definition, and demonstration.
45. **use the strategies of persuasion** in a variety of communication contexts.
46. **prepare** a variety of effective **persuasive speeches** on questions of fact, value, and policy
47. prevent yourself from being unfairly or unethically persuaded

The cognitive abilities that come closest to matching those that pertain to scientific inquiry are highlighted.

<i>Human Communication: The Basic Course#</i>	Cognitive activity	<i>Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012 text</i>	Comment:
21	Identify the interaction between ...	<b>engage in conversation that is mutually productive.</b>	requires identifying various aspects of the interaction
27&28	Connect	<b>participate effectively in a variety of small groups</b>	requires making connections with the members of the group
30	Identify the interaction between ...	<b>communicate effectively in the organizational context.</b>	requires identifying various aspects of the interaction
36	Identify	<b>research your topic</b>	requires identifying its subtopics, sources, etc.
37	Analyze	<b>support your ideas</b>	requires analytic ability
39	Coordinate	<b>organize your thoughts</b>	requires ability to coordinate ideas
43	integrate	<b>use the principles for communicating information</b>	requires integrating the principles for communicating information
45	Make decisions about ...	<b>use the strategies of persuasion</b>	requires decisions

**Table 1**

Only 8 cognitive abilities that can be associated with research inquiries out of the 47 in Fink's taxonomy.

Cognitive Abilities invoked in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012 Exercises*

<b>Chapter 1</b>	
<b>Reading Feedback.</b>	
Based on your own experiences, do you <b>find</b> that people who accurately read and respond to feedback are better liked than those who don't read feedback as accurately?	<b>Remember, judge</b>
<b>Is there a relationship</b> between the ability to read feedback and the ability to communicate information or to motivate or persuade an audience?	<b>Compare</b>
In <b>what ways</b> might the ability to give effective feedback influence the growth or deterioration of a relationship? [apply the concept of feedback to ...]	<b>connect {apply to}</b>
<b>Feedforward.</b>	
In this book there are several examples of feedforward; for example, {1} the cover, {2} the "welcome" section, {3} the tables of contents, {4} each chapter's opening page, {5} each chapter's opening paragraph, and {6} the section headings within chapters.	
<b>What</b> more <b>specific purposes</b> do each of these serve?	<b>specify, connect</b>
<b>Online and Off-line Activities.</b>	
A Pew Internet and American Life Project report {Fallows, 2005} noted that people are more likely to "get news, play games, pay bills, send cards, look up phone numbers and addresses, buy tickets, check sports scores, listen to music, schedule appointments, and communicate with friends" offline than online.	
<b>Why</b> do you think this is the case?	<b>Analyze</b>
Do you <b>think</b> the items on this list have changed <b>since 2005</b> ?	<b>calculate {estimate}</b>
<b>How [manner]</b> will they change over the next 5 years?	<b>calculate {estimate}</b>
Over the next 20 years?	<b>calculate {estimate}</b>
<b>Synchronous and Asynchronous Messaging.</b>	
In face-to-face and chat room communication, messages are exchanged with virtually no delay; communication is synchronous. In other forms of communication- for example, snail or e-mail and blog posts-the messages may be exchanged with considerable delay; communication here is asynchronous.	
<b>What differences</b> <b>[identify]</b> does this lead to in the way you communicate in these various forms?	<b>identify {the interaction between}</b>
<b>Inevitability, Irreversibility, and Unrepeatability.</b>	
<b>Identify</b> one or two guidelines that the concepts of inevitability, irreversibility, and unrepeatability would suggest for any two or three of the following situations: {a} the first day at a new job, {b} asking for a date, {c} a face-to-face job interview, {d} chatting in an online group, {e} posting party photos on some social network site, {f} popping the question, {g} introducing yourself in class, {h} arguing with your romantic partner, {i} seeing an old friend after many years, {j} leading a group of colleagues in a brainstorming session and {k} giving a speech to regain the goodwill of the people.	<b>Identify</b>
<b>Chapter 2</b>	
<b>Cultural Differences.</b>	
<b>How</b> do you <b>feel</b> about the following issues? As you respond, <b>consider</b> the ways in which culture has influenced your responses? • Refusing life-saving medical procedures for children on religious grounds. • Same-sex marriage. • Cockfighting, bullfighting, and fox hunting. • Single-parent adoption. • Medical assisted suicides.	<b>feel, introspect, judge</b>
<b>Choosing a Mate.</b>	
In <b>what ways</b> do your cultural beliefs and values influence the kind of life partner you're looking for?	<b>introspect, identify {interactions between}</b>
Has your culture <b>taught you to value</b> certain qualities in a relationship partner and to devalue others?	<b>introspect, value</b>
<b>Sexual Relations.</b>	

Some cultures frown on sexual relationships outside of marriage; others consider sex a normal part of intimacy. Intercultural researchers {Hatfield, Rapson, 1996} recall a discussion between colleagues from Sweden and the United States on ways of preventing AIDS. When researchers from the United States suggested promoting abstinence, their Swedish counterparts asked, "How will teenagers ever learn to become loving, considerate sexual partners if they don't practice?" "The silence that greeted the question;" note Hatfield and Rapson {1996, p. 36}, "was the sound of two cultures clashing:"	
<b>How</b> have your cultural beliefs influenced <b>what</b> you consider appropriate?	<b>introspect, assess</b>
<b>What's in a Name?</b>	
Some researchers prefer to use the term subculture to refer to smaller cultures within larger cultures; other researchers do not use the term, feeling that it implies that some cultures are less important than others. Some researchers prefer to use the term coculture to refer to a variety of cultures coexisting side by side, whereas others think this term is imprecise, because all cultures coexist {Lustig, Koester, 2010}; these theorists prefer simply to refer to all cultures as cultures.	
<b>How</b> do you <b>feel</b> about the terms subculture, co-culture, and just plain culture?	<b>feel, assess</b>
<b>Cell Phone Etiquette.</b>	
Cell phone users vary widely in how they use their phones in public places, and rules of cell phone etiquette abound.	
What rules of cell phone etiquette do you follow?	<b>Introspect, identify</b>
Where are you most likely to turn off your cell phone?	<b>Introspect, identify</b>
In what public situations are you likely to leave it on?	<b>Introspect, identify</b>
What rules do you follow in the classroom?	<b>Introspect, identify</b>
Chapter 3	
<b>Self-Esteem.</b>	
Popular wisdom emphasizes the importance of self-esteem. The self-esteem camp, however, has come under attack from critics {for example, Baumeister, Bushman,, Campbell, 2000; Bower, 2001; Bushman, Baumeister, 1998; Coover, Murphy, 2000; Hewitt, 1998}. These critics argue that high self-esteem is not necessarily desirable: It does nothing to improve academic performance, it does not predict success, and it may even lead to antisocial {especially aggressive} behavior. On the other hand, it's difficult to imagine how [manner] a person would function successfully without positive self-feelings.	
<b>What</b> do you <b>think</b> [value] about the benefits or liabilities of self-esteem?	<b>value</b>
<b>Predictability and Uncertainty.</b>	
As you and another person develop a closer and more intimate relationship, you generally reduce your uncertainty about each other; you become more predictable to each other.	
Do you <b>think</b> this higher predictability makes a relationship <b>more</b> stable or <b>less</b> stable?	<b>introspect, compare</b>
<b>More</b> enjoyable or <b>less</b> enjoyable?	<b>introspect, compare</b>
<b>Are there</b> certain things about your partner {best friend, lover, or family member} that you are uncertain about, and <b>do you want</b> to reduce this uncertainty?	<b>introspect, want, connect {apply to}</b>
<b>What</b> kinds of messages might you use to accomplish this uncertainty reduction?	<b>connect {apply to}</b>
<b>Self-Disclosure.</b>	
Some research indicates that self-disclosure occurs more quickly and at higher levels of intimacy online than in face-to-face situations {Joinson, 2001; Levine, 2000}. In contrast, other research finds [observe] that people experience greater closeness and self-disclosure in face-toface groups than in Internet chat groups {Mallen, Day,, Green, 2003}.	
<b>What has been your experience</b> with self-disclosure in online and face-to-face situations?	<b>remember, compare</b>
<b>Your Public Messages.</b>	
<b>Will knowing that</b> some undergraduate and graduate admissions offices and potential employers may examine your postings on sites such as MySpace or Facebook influence what you write? <b>[what will you do?]</b>	<b>assess</b>
For example, <b>do you avoid</b> posting opinions that might be viewed negatively by schools or employers?	<b>remember</b>
<b>Do you deliberately post items</b> that you want schools or employers to find?	<b>remember</b>
<b>Online Dating.</b>	
Online dating seems to be losing its stigma as an activity for introverts and the socially anxious.	
<b>Why [reason]</b> do you <b>think</b> perceptions are changing in the direction of greater acceptance of online relationships?	<b>analyze</b>
<b>What</b> is your current implicit personality theory of the "online dater"?	<b>introspect, connect</b>

chapter 4	
<b>Your Listening Self.</b>	
Using the four dimensions of listening effectiveness discussed here {empathic-objective, nonjudgmental-critical, surface-depth, and active-inactive}, <b>how</b> would you <b>describe</b> yourself as a listener when listening in class?	<b>connect, describe</b>
When listening to your best friend?	<b>connect, describe</b>
When listening to a romantic partner?	<b>connect, describe</b>
When listening to your parents?	<b>connect, describe</b>
When listening to your superiors at work?	<b>connect, describe</b>
<b>Listening to Complaints.</b>	
Would you <b>find [feel]</b> it difficult to listen to friends who were complaining that the insurance premium on their Bentley was going up?	<b>feel, judge</b>
Would you <b>find [feel]</b> it difficult to listen to unemployed friends complain that their rent was going up and that they feared becoming homeless?	<b>feel, judge</b>
If you do find a <b>difference</b> , to what do you attribute it?	<b>compare, analyze</b>
<b>Selling by Listening.</b>	
Researchers have argued that effective listening skills are positively associated with salespeople's effectiveness in selling {Castieberry, Shepherd, 1993}.	
Can you <b>think of examples</b> from <b>your own experience</b> that would <b>support</b> this positive association [comparison] between effective listening and effective selling?	<b>remember., analyze</b>
<b>Men and Women Listening.</b>	
The popular belief, as noted in this chapter, is that men listen the way they do to prove themselves superior and that women listen as they do to ingratiate themselves. Although there is no evidence to support this belief, it persists in the assumptions people make about the opposite sex.	
<b>What [identity of cause]</b> do you believe accounts for the <b>differences</b> in the way men and women listen?	<b>compare, analyze</b>
<b>Cell Phone Annoyances.</b>	
Some researchers have argued that listening to the cell phone conversations of others is particularly annoying because you can hear only one side of the conversation; cell phone conversations were rated as significantly more intrusive than two people talking face-to-face {Monk, Fellas,, Ley, 2004}.	
Do you <b>find [feel that]</b> the cell phone conversations of people near you on a bus or in a store annoying, perhaps for the reason given here?	<b>feel, connect</b>
For other <b>reasons</b> ?	<b>analyze</b>
Chapter 5	
<b>Changing Communication Styles.</b>	
When researchers asked men and women what they would like to change about the communication style of the opposite sex, most men said they wanted women to be more direct, and most women said they wanted men to stop interrupting and offering advice {Noble, 1994}.	
<b>What</b> one change <b>would you like to see</b> in the communication style of the opposite sex?	<b>want, connect</b>
<b>Of</b> your own sex?	<b>want, connect</b>
<b>Importance of a Concept.</b>	
A widely held assumption in anthropology, linguistics, and communication is that the importance of a concept to a culture can be measured by the number of words the language has for talking about the concept. So, for example, in Engl'ish there are lots of words for money, transportation, or communication, as all these concepts are important in English-speaking cultures. With this principle in mind, consider the findings of Julia Stanley, for example, who researched terms indicating sexual promiscuity. Stanley found 220 English-language terms referring to a sexually promiscuous woman but only 22 terms for a sexually promiscuous man {Thorne, Kramarae,, Henley, 1983}.	
<b>What [reason]</b> does this suggest about cultural attitudes and beliefs about promiscuity in men and women?	<b>analyze</b>
<b>Directness</b>	
<b>How</b> would you <b>describe</b> the level of directness you use when talking face-to-face versus the level you use in texting or in e-mail or chat rooms?	<b>introspect, compare, describe</b>
If you do notice differences, to <b>what [reason]</b> do you attribute them?	<b>analyze</b>

Chapter 6	
<b>Physical Appearance.</b>	
On a 10-point scale, with 1 indicating "not at all important" and 10 indicating "extremely important," how important is body appearance to your own romantic interest in another person?	calculate
Do the men and women you know conform to the stereotypes of males being more concerned with physical appearance and females more concerned with personality?	remember, connect
<b>Status and Invasion</b>	
One signal of status is an unwritten "law" granting the right of invasion. Higher-status individuals have more of a right to invade the territory of others than vice versa. The boss, for example, can invade the territory of junior executives by barging into their offices, but the reverse would be unacceptable.	
In what ways do you notice this "right" of territorial invasion in your workplace (or your dorm room)?	remember, analyze
<b>Blaming the Victim.</b>	
A popular defense tactic in criminal trials for sex crimes against women, gay men, and lesbians is to blame the victim by implying that the way the victim was dressed provoked the attack. {Some states prohibit this type of defense while others allow it.}	
What [value or usefulness] do you think of this tactic?	value
Is this a legitimate and ethical defense tactic?	judge
<b>Gender and Nonverbal Communication</b>	
. Here is a brief summary of findings from research on gender differences in nonverbal expression {Burgoon, Guerrero,, Floyd, 2010; Guerrero, Hecht, 2006; Pearson, West,, Turner, 1995}: {1} Women smile more than men; {2} women stand closer to one another than do men and are generally approached more closely than men; {3} both men and women, when speaking, look at men more than at women; {4} women both touch and are touched more than men; {5} men extend their bodies, taking up greater areas of space, more than women.	
What problems might these differences create when men and women communicate with each other?	compare, assess
<b>Liking Cues.</b>	
What nonverbal cues should you look for in judging whether someone likes you?	judge
List cues in the order of their importance, beginning with 1 for the cue that is of most value in making your judgment. Do you really need two lists?	calculate, value, judge
One for judging a woman's liking and one for a man's?	judge
chapter 7	
<b>The Negatives of Empathy</b>	
Although empathy is almost universally considered positive, there is some evidence to show that it has a negative side. For example, people are most empathic with those who are similar- racially and ethnically as well as in appearance and social status. The more empathy we feel toward our own group, the less empathy possibly even the more hostility- we feel toward other groups. The same empathy that increases our understanding of our own group decreases our understanding of other groups. So while empathy may encourage group cohesiveness and identification, it can also create dividing lines between "us" and "them" {Angier, 1995b}.	
Have you ever witnessed these negative effects of empathy?	remember, connect
<b>Disclaimers.</b>	
Try collecting and analyzing examples of disclaimers from your interpersonal interactions as well as from the media. For example, what [information] type of disclaimer is being used?	identify, analyze
Why [reason] is it being used?	analyze
Is the disclaimer appropriate?	
What [information] other kinds of disclaimers could have been used more effectively?	imagine
<b>Conversational Etiquette.</b>	
Another way of looking at conversational rule violations is as breaches of etiquette. When you fail to follow the rules of etiquette, you're often breaking a conversational rule. A variety of websites focus on etiquette in different communication situations. Use your favorite search engine and search for such terms as "etiquette + conversation," "cell phone etiquette," or "communication etiquette~"	
Visit one or more websites and record any rules you find [establish after a calculation] particularly applicable to interpersonal communication and conversation.	calculate
<b>Conversational Taboos.</b>	
Not surprisingly, each culture has its own conversational taboos- topics that should be avoided, especially by visitors from other cultures. A few examples: In Norway avoid talk of salaries and social	

status; in Spain avoid discussing family, religion, or jobs, and don't make negative comments on bullfighting; in Egypt avoid talk of Middle Eastern politics; in Japan avoid talking about World War II; in the Philippines avoid talk of politics, religion, corruption, and foreign aid; in Mexico avoid talking about the Mexican-American war and illegal aliens; in the Caribbean avoid discussing race, local politics, and religion {Axtell, 1993}.	
Do you <b>consider</b> some topics taboo?	<b>judge</b>
In particular, are there topics that <b>you do not want</b> members of other cultures to talk about?	<b>want, identify {interactions between}</b>
<b>Why [reason]?</b>	<b>analyze</b>
<b>Interruptions.</b>	
In an analysis of 43 published studies on interruptions and gender differences, men interrupted significantly more than women {Anderson, 1998}. Among the reasons offered to explain why men interrupt more is men's desire to shift the focus to their areas of competence {and away from their areas of incompetence} and to maintain power and control.	
Do you <b>find [feel]</b> that your <b>own experience supports</b> these findings on gender differences in interrupting?	<b>introspect, assess</b>
Based on your experiences, <b>how</b> would you <b>explain</b> the reasons for interrupting?	<b>analyze</b>
Do you <b>notice</b> gender <b>differences</b> in interrupting or in responding to another's interruptions?	<b>compare</b>
Chapter 8	
<b>Positive Behaviors</b>	
One way to improve communication during difficult times is to ask your partner for positive behaviors rather than to try to stop negative behaviors. <b>How</b> might you <b>use</b> this suggestion to replace the following statements? {1} "I hate it when you ignore me at business functions." {2} "I can't stand going to these cheap restaurants; when are you going to start spending a few bucks?" {3} "Stop being so negative; you criticize everything and everyone."	<b>connect</b>
<b>Sexual Relationships.</b>	
As noted earlier, different cultures look at relationships very differently. <b>How</b> do your own cultural beliefs and values influence <b>what</b> you <b>consider</b> an appropriate and an inappropriate relationship?	<b>introspect, judge</b>
Do your cultural beliefs and values <b>influence what you consider appropriate</b> relationship behavior?	<b>judge</b>
<b>In what ways</b> do your cultural beliefs and values <b>influence what</b> you actually do as a relationship partner {as friend, lover, or family member}?	<b>remember, compare</b>
<b>Turning Points.</b>	
Throughout the life of a relationship, there exist "turning points"-jumps or leaps that project you from one relationship level to another. <b>Do</b> men and women see turning points in the same way?	<b>compare</b>
For example, <b>what</b> turning points <b>are most important to women</b> ?	<b>construct</b>
<b>Which</b> are <b>most important to men</b> ?	<b>construct</b>
<b>Flirting Online.</b>	
One research study found that women flirt online by stressing their physical attributes, whereas men flirt by focusing on their socioeconomic status {Whitty, 2003}. Do you observe flirting on the Internet?	<b>remember</b>
If so, <b>how</b> would you <b>describe</b> the way men and women flirt?	<b>remember</b>
<b>Internet Courage.</b>	
Anonymity often leads people to feel more courageous, enabling them to say or do things they would not say or do if their identity was known {Barrett, 2006}. It may be argued that when communicating in chat rooms, where you can conceal your true identity, you're likely to be more assertive, take more chances, and risk possible failure than you would in face-to-face situations. Do you display "Internet courage"?	<b>remember</b>
Do others <b>you know</b> display "Internet courage"?	<b>remember</b>
chapter 9	
<b>Matching Hypothesis.</b>	
The matching hypothesis claims that people date and mate people who are very similar to themselves in physical attractiveness {Walster, Walster, 1978}. When this does not happen-when a very attractive person dates someone of average attractiveness-there may be "compensating factors;" factors that the less attractive person possesses that compensate or make up for being less physically attractive. <b>What [reasons]</b> evidence can you <b>find [discover]</b> to support or contradict this theory?	<b>analyze</b>

<b>How</b> would you go about <b>testing</b> this theory?	<b>connect {apply to}</b>
<b>Romantic Love.</b>	
When researchers asked college students to identify the features that characterize romantic love, the five qualities most frequently noted were trust, sexual attraction, acceptance and tolerance, spending time together, and sharing thoughts and secrets {Regan, Kocan,, Whitlock, 1998}. <b>How</b> would you <b>characterize</b> love?	
Do you <b>notice any differences</b> in the way people talk about love based on gender or cultural differences?	<b>compare</b>
<b>Family Characteristics.</b>	
<b>How</b> would you <b>describe</b> your own family in terms of {1} the defined roles, recognition of responsibilities, shared history and future, and shared living space, and {2} the most often used communication pattern {equality, balanced split, unbalanced split, or monopoly}?	<b>connect {apply to}, describe</b>
<b>Virtual Infidelity.</b>	
Generally online infidelity is seen as a consequence of a failure in communication between the couple {Young, Griffin-Shelley, Cooper, O'Mara,, Buchanan, 2000}. <b>How</b> would you <b>describe</b> online infidelity?	<b>describe construct</b>
<b>What</b> are some potential consequences {positive as well as negative} of online infidelity?	<b>construct</b>
<b>Safety Precautions.</b>	
One study suggests that people who make friends online take safety precautions such as protecting anonymity and talking on the phone before meeting face-to-face {McCown, Fischer, Page,, Homant, 2001}. <b>What</b> safety precautions do you <b>think</b> are reasonable to take in online relationships?	<b>judge</b>
chapter 10	
<b>Small Group Creativity.</b>	
Studies find that persons high in communication apprehension are generally less effective in idea-generation groups than those who are low in apprehension {Comadena, 1984; Cragan, Wright,1990; Jablin, 1981}. <b>Why [reason]</b> do you think this is so?	<b>analyze</b>
<b>Group Norms.</b>	
<b>What</b> norms govern your class in human communication?	<b>remember, connect</b>
<b>What</b> norms govern your family?	<b>remember, connect</b>
<b>What</b> norms govern your place of work?	<b>remember, connect</b>
Do you <b>have any difficulty</b> with these norms?	<b>critique</b>
<b>Chat Groups.</b>	
In research on chat groups, it was found that people were more likely to comment on a participant's message when that message was negative than when it was positive {Rollman, Krug,, Parente, 2000}. Do you <b>find [observe]</b> this to be true?	<b>judge</b>
If so, <b>why [reason]</b> do you think this occurs?	<b>analyze</b>
<b>Developing Criteria.</b>	
<b>What</b> type of <b>criteria</b> would an advertising agency use in evaluating a campaign to sell soap?	<b>assess, connect</b>
A university, in evaluating a new multicultural curriculum?	<b>assess, connect</b>
Parents, in evaluating a preschool for their children?	<b>assess, connect</b>
<b>Uses and Gratifications.</b>	
One study identified seven gratifications you derive from online communication: being in a virtual community, seeking information, aesthetic experience, financial compensation, diversion, personal status, and maintaining relationships {Song, LaRose, Eastin,, Lin, 2004}. <b>How</b> would you <b>describe</b> the gratifications you receive from online groups?	<b>connect {apply to}, describe</b>
Chapter 11	
<b>Group Roles in Interpersonal Relationships.</b>	
Can you <b>identify</b> roles that you habitually or frequently serve in certain groups?	<b>remember, identify {the interaction between}</b>
Do you serve these roles in your friendship, love, and family relationships <b>as well?</b>	<b>remember, identify {the interaction between}</b>
<b>Groupthink.</b>	
<b>Have you ever been</b> in a group when groupthink was operating?	<b>remember, connect</b>
If so, <b>what [reason]</b> were its <b>symptoms</b> ?	<b>analyze</b>
<b>What effect</b> did groupthink have on the process and conclusions of the group?	<b>analyze</b>
<b>leadership Style.</b>	

How would you characterize the leadership style of one of your local politicians, religious leaders, college instructors, or talk show hosts?	
How would you characterize your own leadership style?	assess, connect
For example, are you usually more concerned with people or with tasks?	assess, connect,, compare
Are you more likely to be a laissez-faire, democratic, or authoritarian leader?	assess, connect,, compare
Most important, why [reason]?	analyze
<b>The Emergent Leader.</b>	
The member with the highest rate of participation is the one most likely to be chosen group leader {Mullen, Salas,, Driskell, 1989}. Do you find this to be true of the groups in which you've participated?	remember, judge
Why [reason] do you suppose this relationship exists?	analyze
<b>Gender Differences.</b>	
Do you find [observe] that women and men respond similarly to the different leadership styles?	remember, compare
Do women and men exercise the different leadership styles with equal facility, or are women more comfortable and more competent in certain leadership styles and men more comfortable and competent in other styles?	remember, compare
Chapter 12	
<b>Facilitating Upward and Downward Communication.</b>	
If you ran a company of, say, 40 or 50 employees, how would you go about facilitating both upward and downward communication?	imagine, create
<b>Organizational Behaviors.</b>	
How would you describe the communication behaviors of the following organizational members: a. The person who is determined to rise to the top in the shortest time possible b. The person who just wants to have fun c. The person who wants to meet relationship partners	imagine, describe
<b>Networking.</b>	
Develop a network list of people who might help you get a job in your chosen profession.	identify, come to see yourself as ...
<b>Romance on the Job.</b>	
You've just taken a position at a new firm and you find [feel] that your manager is romantically interested in you. You decide to do a cost-benefit analysis. List all the costs (potential problems and disadvantages) and the benefits (potential advantages) of pursuing this relationship.	feel, calculate
<b>Organizational Hierarchies.</b>	
Some theorists believe that computer-mediated communication will eventually eliminate the hierarchical structure of organizations, largely because CMC "encourages wider participation, greater candor, and an emphasis on merit over status" {Kollock, Smith, 1996}. What [reasons] evidence can you find [observe] to support or refute this claim?	analyze
Chapter 13	
<b>Gender Differences</b>	
Why [reason] do you think men are more likely to withdraw from conflict than women?	connect, compare
For example, what arguments can you present for or against any of these reasons {Noller, 1993}: {a} Because men have difficulty dealing with conflict? {b} Because the culture has taught men to avoid it? {c} Because withdrawal is an expression of power?	analyze, compare
<b>Culture and Conflict</b>	
What does your own culture teach about conflict and its management?	introspect, construct
For example: What strategies does it prohibit?	
Are some strategies prohibited in conflicts with certain people (say, your parents) but not in conflicts with others (say, your friends)?	remember, compare
Does your culture prescribe certain ways of dealing with conflict?	remember, connect
Does it have different expectations for men and for women?	remember, compare
To what degree do these teachings have on your actual conflict behaviors?	remember, calculate
<b>Conflict Style.</b>	
How would you describe your conflict style in your own close relationships in terms of competing-avoiding-accommodating collaborating- compromising?	remember, compare, describe
Is it the same at work?	remember, compare, describe
<b>Online Communication and Interpersonal Conflict.</b>	

In <b>what</b> ways do <b>you find</b> [observe] that online communication can escalate interpersonal conflict?	<b>remember, construct</b>
In <b>what [reasons]</b> ways might texting, e-mailing, or posting on Facebook, for example, help resolve interpersonal conflict?	<b>connect, analyze</b>
<b>Positiveness.</b>	
One study found that, at least in general, people are more positive in dealing with conflict in face-to-face situations than in computer-mediated communication {Zornoza, Ripoll,,Peir6, 2002}.	
Do <b>you find [observe]</b> this to be true?	<b>remember, judge</b>
If so, <b>why [reason]</b> do you think it's true?	<b>analyze</b>

[RETURN TO FINDINGS](#)

[GO TO DISCUSSION](#)

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## Notes:

<sup>1</sup> Though I do not present the requisite data in this chapter to support it, in my view, the same claim can be made for the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series.

<sup>2</sup> Beginning with the 6th edition the audiences are identified in the following terms: "The book is addressed to students who have little or no prior background in communication. For those students who will take this course as their only communication course, it will provide a broad background in both theory and skills in this essential liberal art. For those who will take additional and advanced courses or who are beginning their majors in communication, it will provide the essential theoretical foundation for their more advanced and specialized study." The expressions "broad background in theory and skills" and "essential theoretical foundation" refer to the texts of *Human Communication: The Basic Course*. As I read the sentences, they do not suggest that there are two types of texts. Thus the declarative and "procedural"<sup>2</sup> knowledge in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 as expressed in the text is intended for both audiences. And, by implication, the text is NOT "advanced or specialized." The adjective "essential" in the expression "essential theoretical foundation" suggests that the background (declarative knowledge) offered "covers the major areas and skills of the broad field of human communication" and "comprehensive coverage of the fundamentals of human communication" (2009, p. ix)

I used the text of the 11<sup>th</sup> edition to make my statements more cohesive. The parallel text in the 12<sup>th</sup> edition implies "the broad field of human communication" but does not use these words. Since the field or discipline of communication is an impersonal entity and no persons can be named who govern it, I construe the phrase "the broad field of human communication" as a reference to the researchers whose work is recognized for solving specific problems, or at least, addressing them. Further, I regard the group of scholars and researchers who have this status and can speak for the credibility of their research to be the authoritative body of practitioners in the field. The terms, "field" and "discipline," in my view, personify them. These persons are duly identified by communication societies and publications that are widely used. I refer to the contributors to the recent *Encyclopedia of Communication Theory*, *The Handbook of Communication Science*, the *Communication Yearbook*, and the editors of journals on communication. These persons have responded to the standards required to publish their work. Though the standards may not be identical, they form the group whose expectations I contrast to the expectations of undergraduates who are not interested in becoming communication researchers.

<sup>3</sup> Keep in mind that this distinction is not a reference to actual persons and their motives for taking an introductory course in Communication Studies but to implied readers which is a name for a convenient analytic categories used to identify linguistic units in discourses.

<sup>4</sup> "Persona" is used here in the sense of "dramatis personae," the figures who are portrayed in the scene. Personae can indicate implied readers.

<sup>5</sup> For the most part, the word-forms of the verbs in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 learning outcomes list are not identical to the word-forms of the verbs in the Communication StudiesLE taxonomy. I checked whether they were considered synonyms in *WordNet* which is designed to reflect such semantic connections.

<sup>6</sup> Geertz borrows Kenneth Craik's distinction between models of reality and their translation into symbolic models to deal with reality but changes his formulation to "models of" and "models for" (1973, p. 93).

<sup>7</sup> I used the "cultural approach" to organizations because it allowed me to link the concept of "teamwork" to the processing of an order at Burger King. Consider applying the scientific approach to Burger King:

The scientific approach focuses on the science of increasing productivity and studies the physical demands of the job in relation to the physiological capabilities of the workers. Time and motion studies designed to enable the organization to reduce the time and motions it takes to complete a specific task and thus to increase productivity and profit-are most characteristic of this approach. The scientific approach emphasizes communication as the giving of orders, from management down to the workers. (2012, p. 245)

The model of “time and motion studies” in a typical undergraduate’s experience of working at Burger King would probably be understood in terms of their experience of being “given orders” from management. Without a specification of the procedure for conducting a time and motion study, it would likely be reduced to the everyday experience of being ordered to reduce the time it takes “to complete a specific task.”

<sup>8</sup> The verbs identifying cognitive abilities in the textboxes of Chapter 1 are: consider, re-examine, log onto, think more actively, identify, distinguish, do not assume, disambiguate, say, ask yourself, introduce the topic. Many of the requests are to answer questions such as “what are your options?” or “what would you say?” which are nominal performances. In the textbox on page 19, there is a request to “Research the question.” However, the procedure is unspecified. I pointed out in the previous chapter that the procedural knowledge entailed in disambiguating is not adequately specified. These two candidates for cognitive abilities that foster significant learning have to be discounted as factors in learning how to conduct research in Communication Studies.

## 4.0 - What Should an Introductory textbook to Communication Study Cover?

From a pedagogical perspective, it might be said that information overload applies to textbooks. They have a property called scope. They range over a content area. The question of the scope or coverage of a textbook—how much of the area is surveyed or how many skills are discussed—is a critical pedagogical issue. Can everything be covered? Most of it? A selective coverage? And how are these parameters determined?

If, as is often claimed, everything is communication, how can the extent of the field of communication be calculated? To delimit the vast terrain of communication, textbooks narrow their coverage to what has been researched in the field of Communication Studies before their publication. Even with this parameter, the amount of available material would fill a small library. Obviously, only a selection of material can be covered in a textbook. What should an introductory textbook to Communication Studies cover? Since numerous studies of communication have been written by researchers from other academic disciplines, the boundaries of the field are by no means definitive.

In the previous two chapters, I analyzed the declarative/procedural pairings—the potential for belief transformations—in *Human Communication: The Basic Course*. In this chapter I focus on the question of coverage. Using a template of canonic conceptions drawn from communication theory texts, I analyzed the extent to which *Human Communication: The Basic Course* covers them. Then, using a template of the standard sub-fields of Communication Studies drawn from National Communication Association and the International Communication Association lists, I analyzed the extent to which *Human Communication: The Basic Course* covers them. Finally, I examined the textboxes from the 7<sup>th</sup> to the 12<sup>th</sup> editions that cover various Communication Studies fields to determine the fluxuation in their coverage.

### 4.1 - CONTEXT OF THE TITLE QUESTION

#### *Determining the boundaries of the field of communication studies*

Determining the boundaries of the field of Communication Studies would seem to be a straightforward process but, as the preceding paragraphs suggest, it isn't. We can stipulate that an introduction to Communication Studies needs to survey all of the research up to its publication. That would make the textbook a history of Communication Studies. Approaching the problem from another perspective, we can stipulate that an introduction to Communication Studies should cover the research theories or models that are still being used in Communication Studies. This would be reasonable but still quite difficult, if not impossible, to manage. How can those conceptions be identified? If, for example, we consulted the recently published *Encyclopedia of Communication Theory*, we would discover that not all of the theories included in that volume are still being used by communication researchers. Such extensive coverage is appropriate for an encyclopedia but not so appropriate for a textbook.

As a practical way of delimiting what needs to be covered in an introductory textbook to Communication Studies, I reviewed the most commonly used textbooks on communication theory and

noted what theories are represented in most of them. In effect, I assumed that the editors of those volumes included the theories currently *relevant to learning about communication study* and thus that to use their contents would provide an approximation of what is currently relevant to future communication researchers. Following this procedure produces a list of theories that can be used as a template and matched against the theories included in the textbook series chosen for analysis—*Human Communication: the Basic Course*. Since the criterion of inclusion in this procedure is that the theories or models chosen are relevant to current concerns (2014), the list needs to be compiled from the most recent editions of the textbooks on communication theory.

Theories are usually identified in Communication Studies by their signature conceptions. The list of theories of communication, at the surface, is a list of signature conceptions of communication. As Jaccard and Jabobi point out in their *Theory Construction and Model Building Skills: A Practical Guide for Social Scientists: theories, models, and hypotheses*

... are statements that involve concepts and relationships between them.... All three types of conceptual systems—theories, models, and hypotheses—can be classified for my purposes under the more generic term *theoretical expression*. Henceforth, the terms are used interchangeably in this book, with a full recognition that other social scientists may make distinctions between them. (29)

Following their lead, I will classify the theoretical models mentioned in textbooks on Communication Studies under the generic term *theoretical conceptions*. I use the term, "conception" rather than "expression," because of its importance in conceptual logistics—the theoretical framework on which my project is based.

## 4.2 - METHOD OF ANSWERING THE TITLE QUESTION

The 7<sup>th</sup> edition of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* represents a major shift in coverage: “The seventh edition, revised in light of comments from a large number of instructors, builds on the successful features of previous editions but represents a major revision” (1997, p. xi). From the perspective of coverage:

The seventh edition emphasizes the research and theory in human communication to a much greater extent than previous editions. Theories and theoretically rich concepts new to this edition include communication accommodation theory (Unit 2); the facial feedback hypothesis (Unit 9); protection, equilibrium, and expectancy violations theories of proxemics (Unit 10); relationship rules theory (Unit 12); cognitive restructuring (including performance visualization) and systematic desensitization in communication apprehension (Unit 19); power distances (Unit 21); and cultural imperialism, the spiral of silence, and knowledge gap theories of media (Units 6, 10, and 19). In addition, approximately two hundred new research studies—most from the 1990s—have been carefully integrated into the text. (1997, p. xi)

“Research textboxes” were added which cover:

- the nature of theory (Unit 2)
- the general process of research (Unit 3)
- the three research methods: descriptive, historical critical, and experimental (Unit 4)

- the process of conducting research from asking the question to drawing conclusions (Unit 7)
- a sample descriptive study (Unit 9)
- a sample historical critical study (Unit 12)
- a sample experimental study (Unit 13)
- evaluating research methods and conclusions (Unit 17)
- ethics in research (Unit 21) (1997, p. xii)  
[note—these were dropped in the 8<sup>th</sup> edition and replaced by references to Pearson’s [www.researchnavigator.com](http://www.researchnavigator.com)]

In addition, there is expanded coverage of cultural issues, listening, and mass media. Further, “Those familiar with the previous editions will note a major organizational change” (1997, p. xiv).

Given these substantial changes, I analyzed coverage from the 7<sup>th</sup> edition (1997) to the twelfth (2012). These six editions were published in the last 15 years and provide a reasonable sample of both coverage and also the extent to which the conceptions are “up-to-date” which is the concern of the next chapter.

### *The canonic conceptions template for Communication Studies*

Theoretical conceptions are derived from a systematic network of concepts usually referred to as “theories.” As noted, I use the expression, “signature conception,” to refer to the names given to theories by their authors. In this context, a signature conception is considered a reference to all of the concepts that make up the theory. This presents two significant problems in deploying the names given to theories as indices of the coverage of theories in textbooks.

First, the theories in Communication Studies are far more numerous than the ones included in textbooks on communication theory or *Human Communication: The Basic Course*. The fact that certain theories appear regularly in textbooks on communication theory is an index of their status as canonic (in the sense of commonly used). However, many if not all textbooks on communication theory use Robert Craig’s seven traditions of Communication Studies as an organizing framework. Thus certain theories gain their “canonic status” because they exemplify a tradition rather than because they are used in the context of communication research. Martin Buber’s conception of the “I-Thou” relationship, for example, appears in Littlejohn & Foss’ textbooks on communication theory as an example of phenomenology, one of the seven traditions. However, if a signature conception is selected for inclusion in a textbook to illustrate a tradition, it is not thereby a canonic communication theory, as, I would argue, is the case with Buber’s conception of the “I-Thou” relationship.

Second, the terms that name a theory are not standard. For example, while Griffin discusses Kenneth Burke’s “theory” of “dramatism,” Littlejohn and Foss discuss Burke’s theory of “identification.” Whereas dramatism is usually associated with the dramatic pentad upon which Burke’s rhetorical analysis is based, identification is not one of the pentad terms but a conception of the relationship between a speaker and his audience. As Griffin notes, Burke’s discourse was “round-about” — quoting Marie Hochmuth Nichols: “In part the difficulty arises from the numerous vocabularies he employs. His words in isolation are usually simple enough, but he often uses them in new contexts” (2012, p. 144). While Burke may be an extreme instance, most other theorists present similar problems. Another difficulty is

that, although the names of theories usually refer to the publications of the authors that created them, they can also refer to changes they or subsequent researchers made to the original conceptions.

To deal with these problems I developed the canonic conceptions "template." It is a list of the canonic theoretical conceptions determined by the criterion that they are covered in at least three out of the five textbooks on communication theory identified below. In five recent textbooks on communication theory/theories, the conception and its author(s) were matched to avoid instances in which the names of the conceptions were associated with different authors. For example "structuration" is associated both with Anthony Giddens and Marshall Scott Poole. Their conceptions are related (Poole having modified Giddens's original conception) but differ.

The choice of the textbooks on communication theory was determined on two criteria: the number of editions and their publication dates. Several other textbooks on theory covered only specific sub-fields, for example, Werner J. Severin and James W. Tankard, Jr.'s *Communication Theories: Origins, Methods, and Uses in the Mass Media*.

The entries in *The Encyclopedia of Communication Theory* (ECT) were not included because its coverage is historically oriented and because it was edited by Stephen Littlejohn and Karen Foss who also edited *Theories of Human Communication*. However, the "Chronology" of major events in the history of communication study which is part of ECT was included since it provides an additional criteria for selecting canonical theoretical conceptions and a convenient chart of their development.

The texts chosen for the compilation of the theoretical conceptions template are:

- *A First Look At Communication Theory* (2012, 8th edition) authored by Em Griffin;
- *Theories of Human Communication* (2011, 10th edition) authored by Stephen W. Littlejohn and Karen A. Foss;
- *Introducing Communication Theory: Analysis and Application* (2010, 4th edition) authored by Richard West and Lynn H. Turner;
- "Chronology" in *Encyclopedia of Communication Theory* (2009, 1st edition) numerous authors, often also the authors of the conceptions identified in the chronology;
- *Communication Theories: Perspectives, Processes, and Contexts* (2005, 2nd edition) authored by Katherine Miller.

## 4.3 - FINDINGS

### *The scope of theoretical conceptions in Human Communication: The Basic Course*

I compared the theoretical conceptions listed in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* to the canonic theoretical conceptions common to the five textbooks on communication theory listed in the preceding section.

Canonic theoretical conceptions found in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*

agenda setting (McCombs/Shaw)  
argumentativeness (Infante, D.)  
communication accommodation (Giles)  
computer mediated comm (--)  
expectancy violations (Burgoon, J.)  
groupthink (Janis, J.)  
information (Shannon/Weaver)  
inoculation (McGuire)  
interaction process analysis (Bales)  
kinesics (Birdwhistell)  
linguistic relativity (Sapir/Whorf)  
privacy management (Petronio, S.)  
proxemics (Hall, E)  
relational dialectics (Baxter/Montgomery)  
silence, spiral of (Noelle-Neumann)  
social exchange (Thibaut/Kelley)  
social penetration (Altman/Taylor)  
uncertainty reduction (berger)  
speech codes (Philipsen)

Of the 57 canonic conceptions in the template, *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* covers 19.<sup>1</sup>

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### *The areas of Communication Studies in Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*

Of the 40 areas of study identified by NCA and ICA, *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* covers 12.

Areas listed in the template based on NCA and ICA designation of fields that are *NOT* included in *Human Communication: The Basic Course*:

- Children, Adolescents & the Media
- Comm & Technology
- Comm History
- Environmental Comm
- Ethnicity & Race in Comm
- Feminist Scholarship
- Game Studies
- Gay, Lesbian, Bisexual & Transgender Studies
- Global Comm & Social Change
- Health Comm
- Information Systems
- Instructional & Developmental Comm
- Intergroup Comm
- International Comm
- Journalism Studies
- Legal Comm
- Performance Studies
- Philosophy, Theory & Critique
- Political Comm
- Popular Comm
- Public Relations
- Rhetorical Criticism
- Semiotics
- Theatre & Drama
- Visual Comm

[GO TO DATA](#)

### *The sub-field emphasis in Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*

In formulating the charts to make comparisons feasible, I developed the category, "sub-fields," which combines the areas mentioned above together with subjects of study specific to *Human Communication: The Basic Course*. For instance, to include the sections of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* that discuss concepts such as "the hidden self" I added a sub-field named "basic concepts." This category does not appear in the NCA & ICA list of areas of Communication Studies; however, it is a convenient categorization of concepts, such as "hidden self," which are concepts that do not count as standard areas of study.<sup>2</sup> I identified basic concepts as those that can be included in the constant components of any communication situation: traditionally, sender/receiver, message, code, and context. Thus, a conception such as "the hidden self" can be located in the category sender/receiver. I also added "computer mediated communication," "ethical," and "nonverbal communication" since they account for 10% of the content in *Human Communication: The Basic Course*. Though the terms "language," "social interaction," "rhetorical criticism," and "semiotics" are mentioned in sections of *Human Communication: The Basic Course*, the textbook does not offer available theoretical models of these domains. Most other conceptions in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* can be located in

areas such as interpersonal communication, small group communication, organizational communication, or public speaking.

To show the emphasis placed on the areas in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, I disregarded simple mentions of an area but made note of text boxes. To account for discussions of topics such as the "elements" or "principles" of human communication contained in chapter 1, "Preliminaries to Human Communication," I placed them in the category, "basic concepts," even though it is not a standard Communication Studies field. In my view, discussions of basic concepts should be counted in any chart of the coverage of Communication Studies.

The six editions of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* from 1997 to 2012 feature similar textboxes. Though they are usually shorter than a page in length, I counted them as a page because they are more emphatic than the texts accompanying them. The textbox categories are: theory & research, skills, self-tests (includes choice points in 11<sup>th</sup> & 12<sup>th</sup> editions), media, CMC, and ethics. Though "thinking critically," which appears at the end of each chapter is not a textbox, it has a similar function in that it asks students to apply concepts to situations.

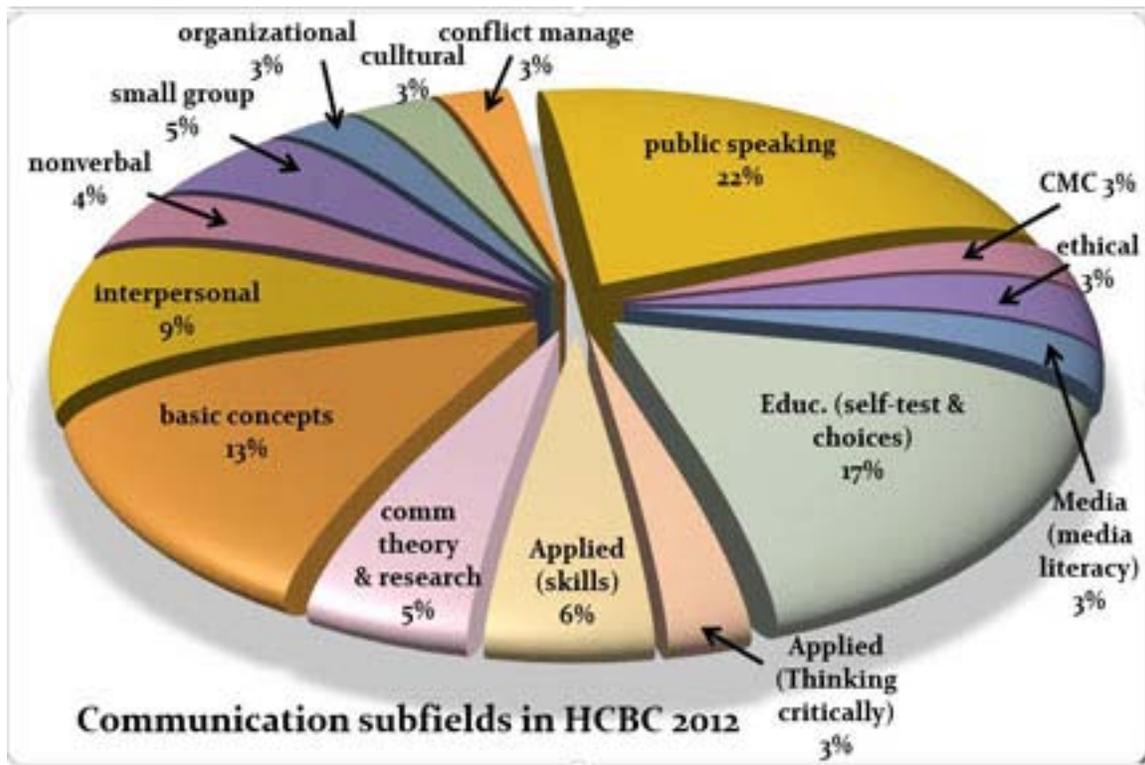


Figure 1

The primary emphasis in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* is on public speaking and interpersonal communication. There is considerable emphasis on practical applications of communication skills which I placed in the category "applied communication" rather than "performance studies" because the applicability of communication conceptions is given special attention in the "specialized" text boxes, "skills" and "choice points."

The treatment of electronic media is confined largely to text boxes on CMC and media literacy. Mass communication, in particular its relation to political communication, is left out of consideration. The discussion of social media is mostly contextualized as the use of Facebook and twitter. Purchasers of the textbook have access to MyCommunicationLab, an online resource that supplements the text. It adds a multimodal dimension to the printed text featuring videos, photos, and visual aids. As it is described in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, it does not affect coverage of Communication Studies but does expand the available learning tools.

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### *The sub-field emphasis in earlier editions of Human Communication: The Basic Course*

It is difficult to compare the coverage of sub-fields in earlier editions of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* because various editions organize their contents differently. For example, whereas in the first edition the various conceptions of self-associated with the Johari window are presented in a unit on "self-awareness," the same conceptions appear in the 12th edition in a chapter entitled "The Self and Perception." Further, neither category is one of the areas listed in NCA or ICA. [Note: Early editions were organized as units which were later incorporated into chapters. See Appendix B for comparative delineation of changes in the "Tables of Contents" for the 12 editions of *Human Communication: The Basic Course*.]

#### *11th Edition of Human Communication: The Basic Course (2009)*

The coverage in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2009* is very similar to *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*. *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2009* added numerous text boxes (called "choice points" in the 12<sup>th</sup> edition). These contain questions about situations in which students have to choose how to communicate. As in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, students who purchase the textbook have access to a correlative MyCommunicationLab. However, at the time of this study, it was no longer available. [Note: this is also the case with the 2006 when MyCommunicationLab was introduced. Prior to that time, a CD Rom accompanied the textbooks.]

#### *10th Edition of Human Communication: The Basic Course (2006)*

The 10th edition of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* has 74 fewer textboxes devoted to self-tests & choice points but is otherwise very similar in its coverage to the 11th & 12th editions. The increase in these textboxes in the 11th edition can be explained by the addition of a new set—that anticipate the "choice points" of the 12th edition.

#### *9th Edition of Human Communication: The Basic Course (2003)*

The 9<sup>th</sup> edition of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* has 18 fewer textboxes devoted to theory & research. Its coverage of CMC is minimal and focused on email.

### *8th Edition of Human Communication: The Basic Course (2000)*

The 8<sup>th</sup> edition does not cover organizational communication and devotes 15 fewer textboxes to ethical concerns

### *7th Edition of Human Communication: The Basic Course (1997)*

The 7<sup>th</sup> edition of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* devotes nearly twice as much coverage to interpersonal communication and its coverage of public speaking is roughly half as long as the other editions in this sequence.

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## *Emphasis on Specific Textboxes from 1997 to 2012*

### *Theory and Research textboxes*

There is a considerable increase in textboxes devoted to theory and research in the 8<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup>, 10<sup>th</sup>, and 11<sup>th</sup> editions. The 2012 edition drops back to the emphasizes in the 8<sup>th</sup> and 9<sup>th</sup> editions

### *Building Communication Skills*

The emphasis of skills peaks in the 9<sup>th</sup> edition, drops slightly in the 10<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> editions and then drops back to the level of the 8<sup>th</sup> edition.

### *Thinking Critically*

The thinking critically segments from the 12<sup>th</sup> to the 8<sup>th</sup> edition match the number of units or chapters in *Human Communication: The Basic Course*. The 7<sup>th</sup> edition has roughly five more units than the other editions.

### *Self-Tests*

There is a very dramatic increase in the number of self-tests in the 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> editions. This increase can be explained, as previously noted, by the addition of a second series of “tests” of the comprehension of the concepts in the chapters, namely, “choice points.”

### *Media Literacy*

The emphasis on the media, which is largely concerned with mass media effects, goes back and forth in emphasis. The emphasis on media in the 12<sup>th</sup> edition returns to the level of the 7<sup>th</sup> edition.

### *Computer Mediated*

The emphasis on CMC in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* is very difficult to track, because it sometimes appears in the text and at other times in textboxes. It is not surprising to see a huge increase in emphasis in 2006. It is surprising to see less emphasis in 2009 and not surprising to see a huge increase in emphasis in 2012. A steady increase in emphasis would have been expected from 1997 to 2012 to parallel the increase in electronic communication devices.

### *Ethics*

After nearly tripling the emphasis on ethical communication in 2003, it drops exponentially from that peak to 2012.

[GO TO DATA](#)

## 4.4 - DISCUSSION

There is a change in the statements about coverage beginning with the 7<sup>th</sup> edition (1997). Prior to that edition, statements about the coverage of the field of communication studies vary. In the first two editions the coverage is identified as: “communication behaviors and events.” From the third to the fifth editions coverage is identified as “the most insightful, the most reliable, the most recent-of what is known about communication.” The sixth edition anticipates the change to “surveys [of] the broad field of communication, including intrapersonal, interpersonal, small group and organizational, public, intercultural, and mass communication. It covers classic approaches and new developments; it covers research, theory, and skills”; this coverage persists up to the twelfth edition.

### *General overview of the coverage in Human Communication: The Basic Course from 1997 to 2012*

- There are two major shifts in coverage in the sequence of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* textbooks from the 7<sup>th</sup> to the 12<sup>th</sup> edition.
  - In the 7<sup>th</sup>. Edition, greater attentions is paid to research and theory and textboxes.
    - Advice on becoming a better communicator is introduced.
  - In the 8<sup>th</sup>. Edition (2000), computer mediated communication is emphasized.
- Mass communication is given more emphasis in editions in the first 6 editions and the units previously devoted to it are dropped in the 7<sup>th</sup> edition and replaced by textboxes in the 8<sup>th</sup> and moved to the CD Rom in the 9<sup>th</sup>.

- Intercultural communication is introduced in the 4<sup>th</sup> edition and the units previously devoted to it are dropped in the 7<sup>th</sup>. Edition
- International, interethnic, and interracial communication are introduced in the 4<sup>th</sup> and dropped in the 8<sup>th</sup>.

### *Specific issues in the coverage of Human Communication: The Basic Course from 1997 to 2012*

- Although the editions after 2009 have increased coverage of CMC and media, there is little attention to research on the impact of cell phones and other small scale devices that have changed electronic communication in significant ways. General Remarks such as “Media literacy aims to educate you to use the available resources to create your own media messages. Blogs, Twitter, websites, and social network sites are making this function relatively easy” (2012, p. 37) are interwoven into the chapters from time to time, but there is no discussion of the enormous research literature about these phenomenon.
- Similarly, although there are references to “the role of culture and gender differences in the principles of communication,” (2012, p. xvi) “Gender differences also occur in computer communication. For example, women chat more for relationship reasons; men chat more to play and to relax,” (2012, p. 12), or “the social expectations for your gender” (p. 29). Feminist theory and research is largely neglected.
- The lack of coverage of visual or multimodal communication which has become increasingly significant in communication practices in the last decade is a significant omission. Although MyCommunicationLab contains multimodal graphics, the textbook does not include any discussion of multimodal theory (Jewitt & Kress, 2003; Kress, 2001, 2005, 2010; Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001, 2006).
- There is no coverage of scientific inquiry or methods in the later editions. (The textboxes “Introducing Theory and Research” introduced in the 7<sup>th</sup> edition and were dropped in the 8th. This consideration was relegated to references to Pearson’s [www.researchnavigator.com](http://www.researchnavigator.com))
- Not only are interdisciplinary issues left out, but so are disciplinary ones.
- No mention is made of major advances in cognitive science and neuroscience pertaining to the study of communication.
- The evolution of conceptions of communication practices, models, and situations is not covered.

### *The Proportionality of coverage*

Throughout the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series of textbooks, the coverage of public speaking is featured. This area by far is given the most coverage.

## 4.5 - FUTURE RESEARCH

There are two areas that need to be examined. The obvious area is comparisons with similar textbooks. However, to do any further research there is a need to develop methods of analyzing textbooks, in particular with the assistance of software. The number of published textbooks in Communication Studies is enormous. The sheer size of their contents discourages analyses.

The second area that needs to be examined is the question of determining what counts as adequate coverage of Communication Studies for undergraduate students? In view of the circumstance that many department of Communication have only a handful of faculty, it could be argued that this issue should be rephrased: what counts as adequate coverage of a sub-field of Communication Studies for undergraduates. This raises another issue: *should* small departments of Communication specialize in a sub-field? Assuming that the answer to the last question is affirmative, the force of the initial question remains in that the graduates of smaller departments might apply to study in larger departments and therefore should be acquainted with the general scope of Communication Studies not just a sub-field. In sum, this issue opens the proverbial can of worms. And, the next worm out of this can is: should the scope of Communication Studies be regulated, and if so, by whom?

### *The next question*

In view of the predominance of conceptual change in research (Kuhn, 1970, 1977; Kuhn & Hacking, 2012; Thagard, 1992; Thagard & Findlay, 2012; Toulmin, 1972), the question of coverage in Introductions to Communication Studies raises a correlative question: How much of a lag is tolerable between the publication of research and its inclusion in textbooks?

## 4.6 - DATA APPENDIX

### *Canonic conceptions*

The following table shows the results of comparing the theoretical conceptions in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* with the canonic conceptions template:

Canonic theoretical conceptions	DeVito	Griffin	Little-john & Foss	ECT chronology	Miller	West & Turner
action assembly (Greene, J.O.)			x	x	x	
agenda setting (McCombs/Shaw)	x	x	x	x	x	
anxiety-uncertainty management (Gudykunst, W.)		x	x	x		x
argumentativeness (Infante, D.)	x		x	x		
attribution (Heider>Burlison)		x	x	x	x	
co-cultural (Orbe)			x	x	x	
cognitive dissonance (Festinger, L)		x	x	x	x	x
communication accommodation (Giles)	x	x	x	x		x
computer mediated comm (--)	x	x	x	x		x
constructivism: cognitive complexity (Delia, j)		x	x	x		
convergence (Kincaid))			x	x	x	x
coordinated management of meaning			x	x	x	x

(Pearce/Cronen)						
corporate colonization (Deetz)		x	x	x		
<b>cultivation (Gerbner)</b>	?	x	x	x	x	x
cultural studies (Hall, S.)		x	x	x		x
cybernetics (Wiener, H.)		x	x	x		
dramatism (Burke, K.)		x	x	x		x
elaboration likelihood model (Petty/Cacioppo/Goldman)		x	x	x	x	
<b>expectancy violations (Burgoon, J.)</b>	x	x	x	x	x	x
face negotiation (Ting-Toomey, S)		x	x	x	x	x
group functionality (Hirokawa/Gouran)		x	x	x		
genderlect styles (Tannen, D.)		x	x	x		
<b>groupthink (Janis, J.)</b>	x	x	x	x		x
<b>information (Shannon/Weaver)</b>	x	x	x	x		
<b>inoculation (McGuire)</b>	x		x	x	x	
interaction adaptation (Burgoon, J.)		x	x	x	x	
<b>interaction process analysis (Bales)</b>	x	x	x	x		
interpersonal eception (Buller/Burgoon)		x	x	x		
<b>kinesics (Birdwhistell)</b>	x		x	x	~	
language & gender (Kramarae, C.)			x	x	x	
<b>linguistic relativity (Sapir/Whorf)</b>	x	x	x	x		~
medium (McCluhan, M.)		x	x	x		x
media dependency (Ball-okeach/DeFleur)			x	x	x	
media effects (Gerbner, Katz, Lazarfeld, Berelson, McLeod, Reeves)		x	x	x	x	x
muted group (Kramarae, C.)		x	x	x	x	x
narrative paradigm (Fisher)		x	x	x	x	x
organizational control (Tompkins/Cheney)			x	x	x	
organizational culture (Pacanowsky, Geertz, O'Donnell-Trujillo)			x	x		x
organizing (Weik)			x	x	x	
planning stragetig interaction (Berger, C.)			x	x	x	
<b>privacy management (Petronio, S.)</b>	x	x	x			x
<b>proxemics (Hall, E)</b>	x	x	x	x		
<b>relational dialectics (Baxter/Montgomery)</b>	x	x	x	x	x	x
<b>silence, spiral of (Noelle-Neumann)</b>	x	x	x	x	x	x
<b>social exchange (Thibaut/Kelley)</b>	x	x	x	x		x
social judgment (Sherif)		x	x	x	x	
<b>social penetration (Altman/Taylor)</b>	x	x	x	x	x	x
speech act (Austin/Searler)			x	x	x	
speech codes (Philipsen)		x	x	x	x	
standpoint (Harding, Collins, Wood/Houston)		x	x	x	x	x
structuration (Poole, M.S.)		x	x		x	

structuration (Giddens)		x		x	x	x
symbolic convergence (borman)		x	x	x		
symbolic interaction (mead)		x	x	x	x	x
system (von bertalanfy)			x	x	x	x
uncertainty reduction (berger)	x	x	x	x	x	x
uses & gratification (palmgren)		x	x	x	x	x

**Table 1**

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*Areas of Communication Studies and Human Communication: The Basic Course subfields*

The areas of communication study listed in the second column below are taken from National Communication Association and the International Communication Association list. I modified the list to include "sub-fields" not in the NCA/ICA lists but which were, in my view, appropriately covered in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* (they are identified by asterisks). The areas covered in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* are checked in the first column and glossed below.

<i>Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012</i>	NCA & ICA list of areas
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> 13	<input type="checkbox"/> Applied Comm
	<input type="checkbox"/> Children, Adolescents & the Media
	<input type="checkbox"/> Comm & Technology
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> 14	<input type="checkbox"/> Comm Education
	<input type="checkbox"/> Comm History
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> 16	<input type="checkbox"/> Comm Theory
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> * 8	<input type="checkbox"/> Computer mediated Comm
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> 14	<input type="checkbox"/> Electronic Media
	<input type="checkbox"/> Environmental Comm
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> * 15	<input type="checkbox"/> Ethical Comm
	<input type="checkbox"/> Ethnicity & Race in Comm
	<input type="checkbox"/> Feminist Scholarship
	<input type="checkbox"/> Game Studies
	<input type="checkbox"/> Gay, Lesbian, Bisexual & Transgender Studies
	<input type="checkbox"/> Global Comm & Social Change
	<input type="checkbox"/> Health Comm
	<input type="checkbox"/> Information Systems

	☐ Instructional & Developmental Comm
☐10☐	☐ Intercultural Comm
	☐ Intergroup Comm
	☐ International Comm
☐2☐	☐ Interpersonal Comm
	☐ Journalism Studies
☐11☐	☐ Language & Social Interaction
	☐ Legal Comm
**☐☐	☐ Mass Comm
☐6☐	☐ Mediation & Dispute Resolution
*☐12☐	☐ Nonverbal Comm
☐5☐	☐ Organizational Comm
	☐ Performance Studies
	☐ Philosophy, Theory & Critique
	☐ Political Comm
	☐ Popular Comm
☐7☐	☐ Public Address
	☐ Public Relations
	☐ Rhetorical Criticism
	☐ Semiotics
☐4☐	☐ Small Group Comm
***☐	☐ Speech Comm
	☐ Theatre & Drama
	☐ Visual Comm

**Table 1**

(\* not included in the NCA or ICA lists. In *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* interviewing is included with public comm. intrapersonal comm is not addressed. \*\*mass comm is implied in some of the “media literacy textboxes” but is not area of emphasis in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*. \*\*\* “speech comm” is not included because “public address” is.)

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*Coverage in Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*

[Red lines represent “pages” of textboxes, blue represent pages of text]

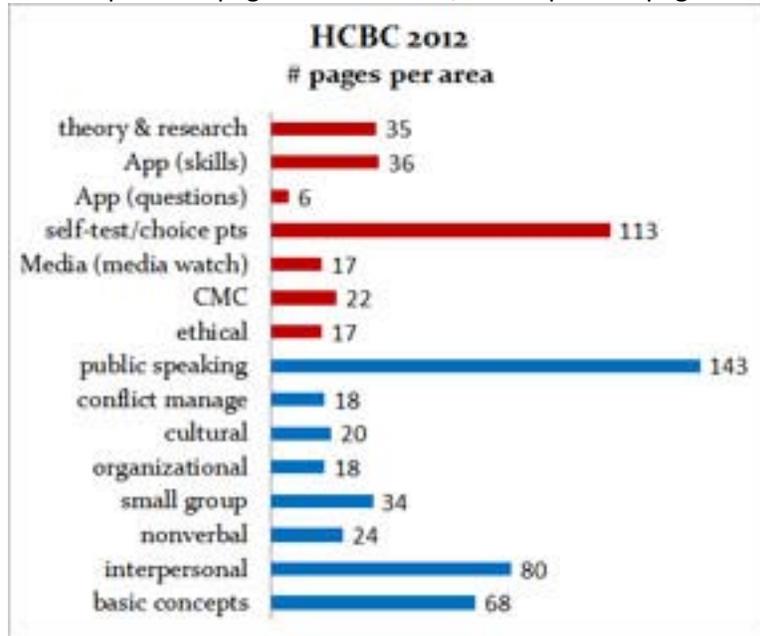


Figure 2

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*Coverage in the Human Communication: The Basic Course series*

[Red lines represent “pages” of textboxes, blue represent pages of text]

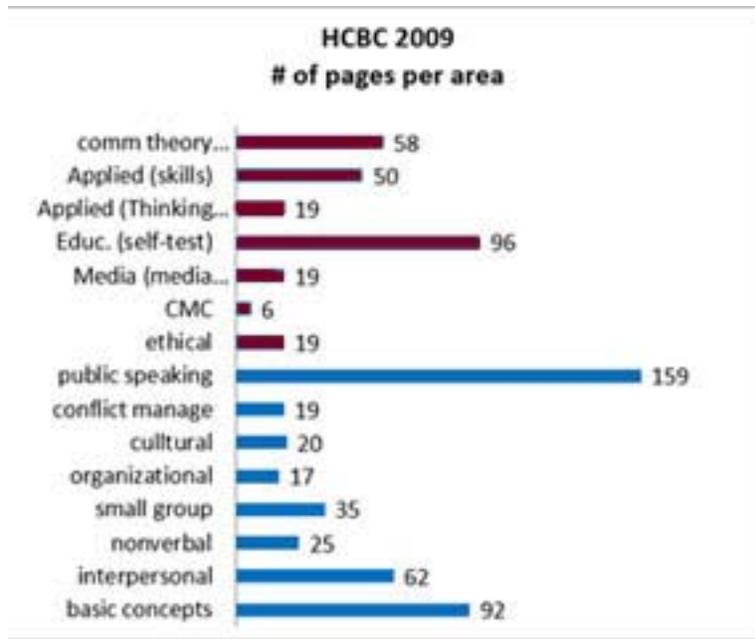


Figure 3

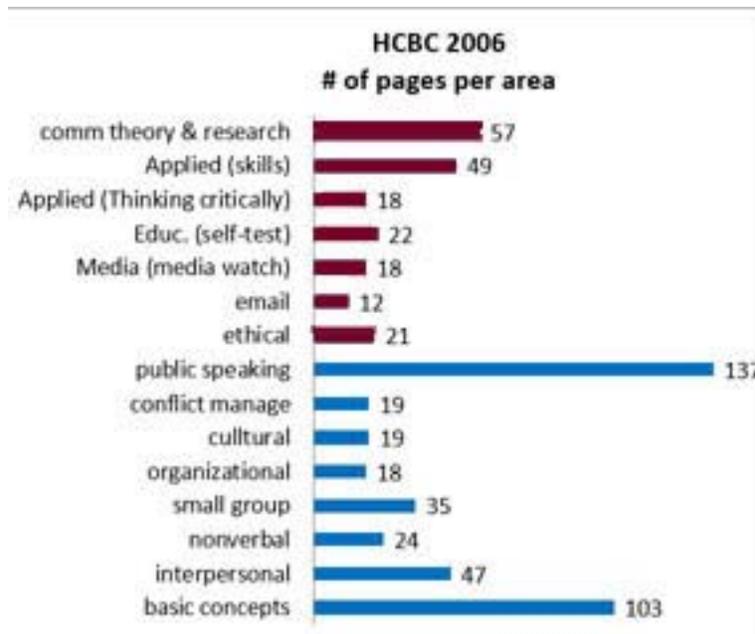


Figure 4

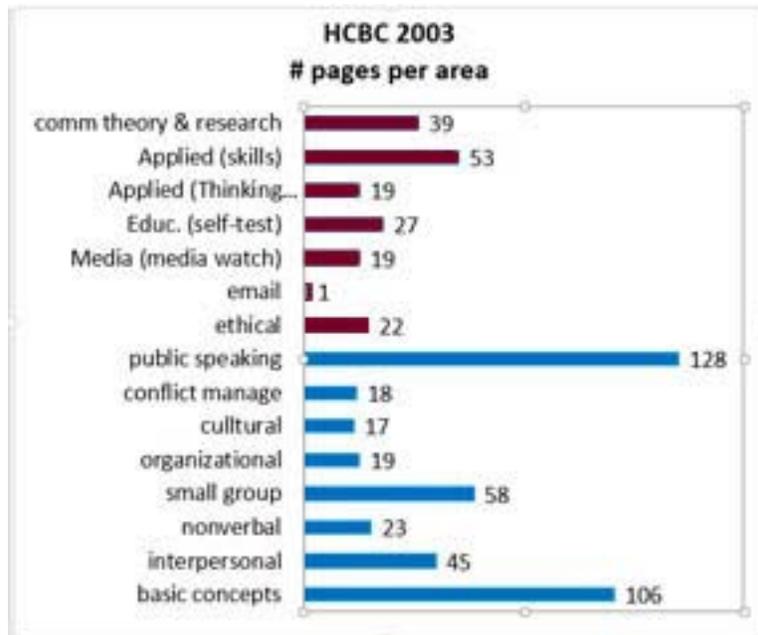


Figure 5

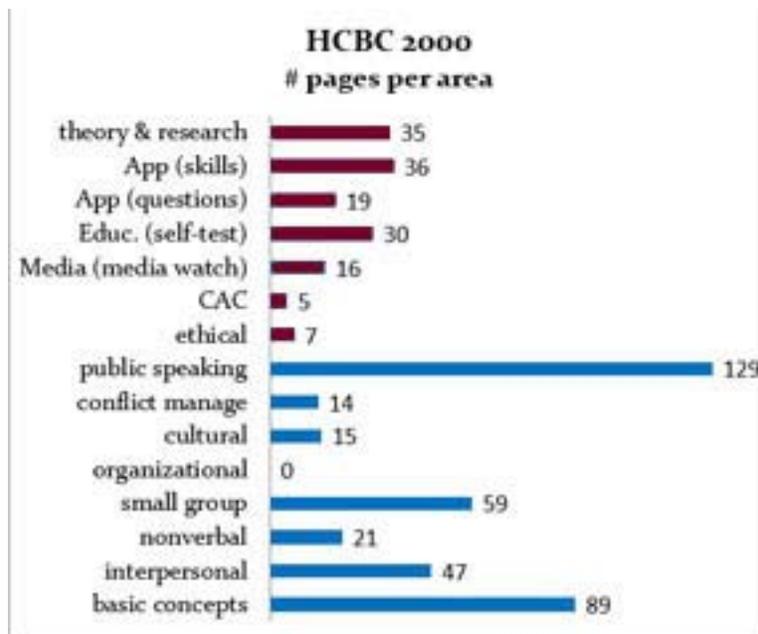


Figure 6

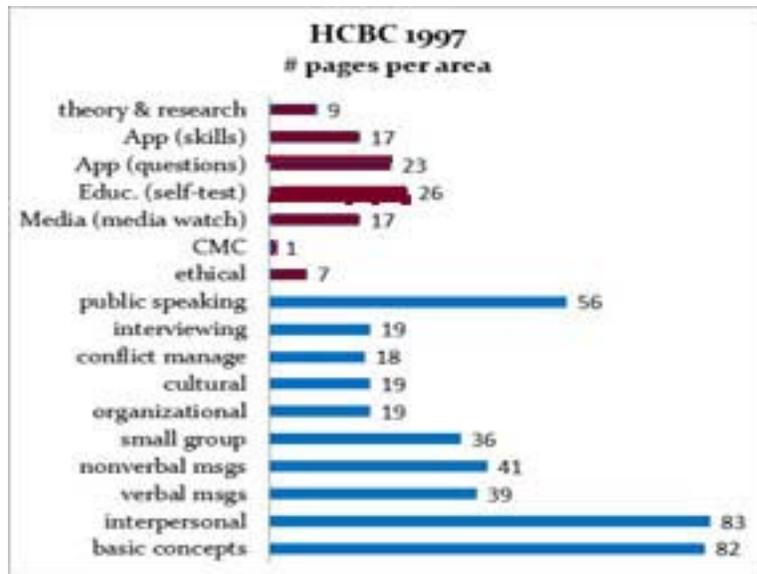


Figure 7

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*Distribution of conceptions in textboxes*

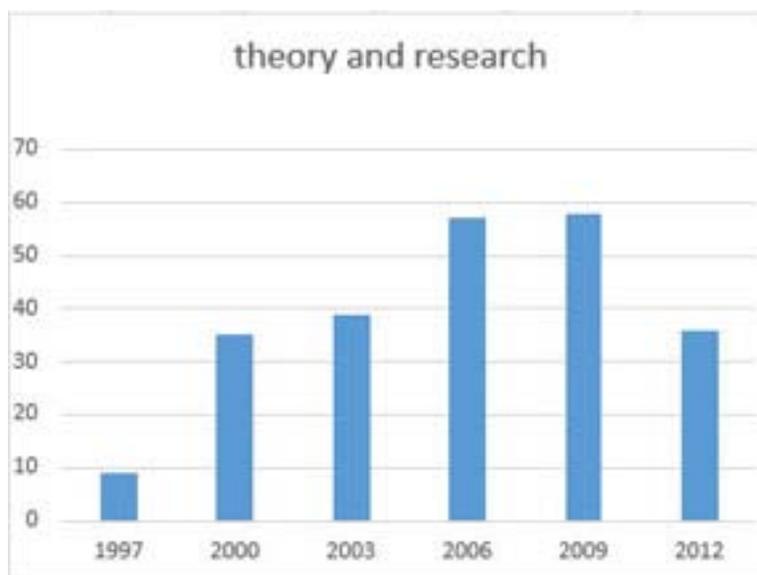


Figure 8

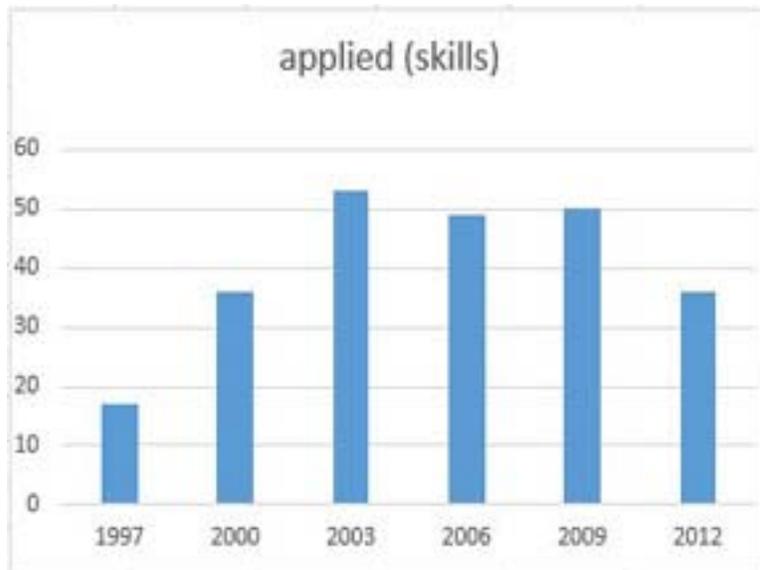


Figure 9

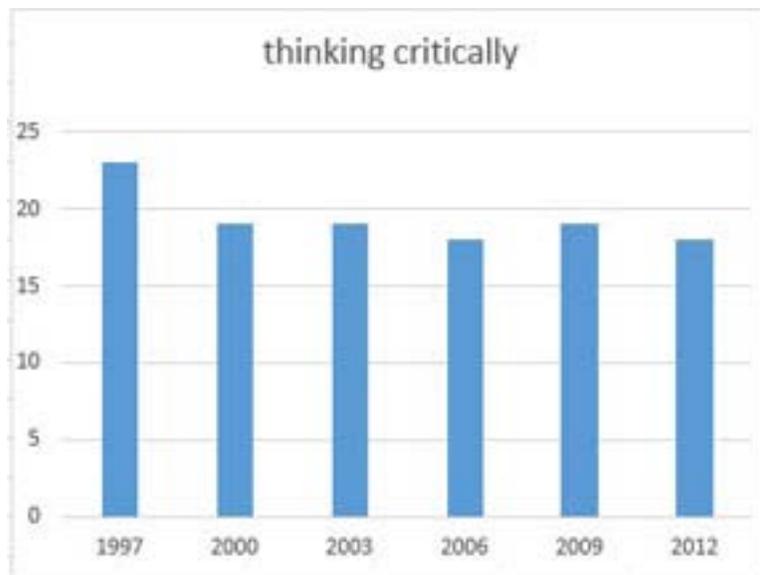


Figure 10

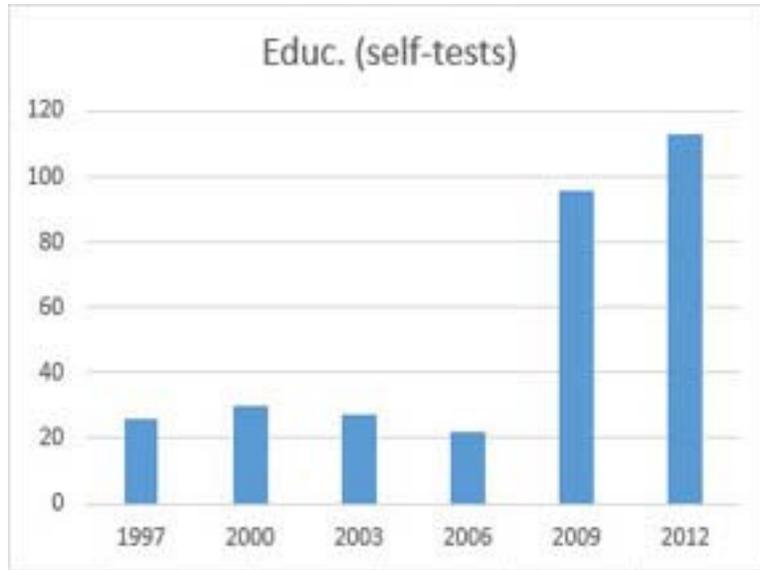


Figure 11

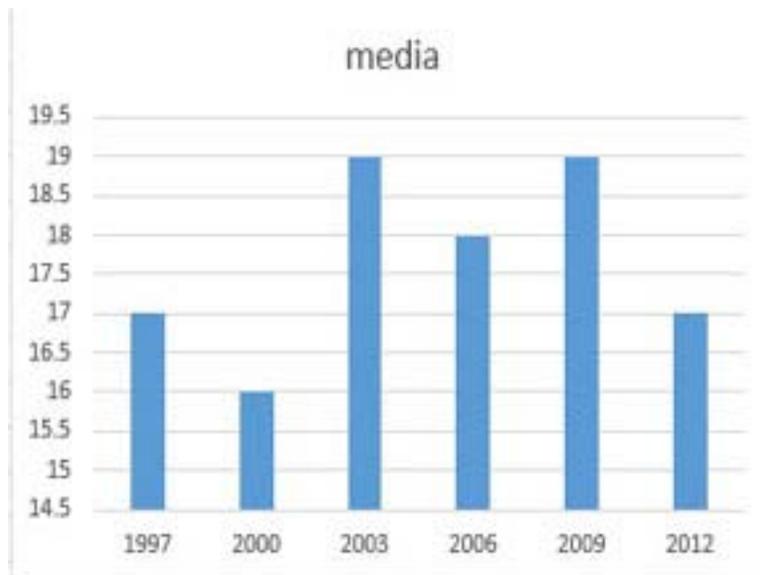


Figure 12

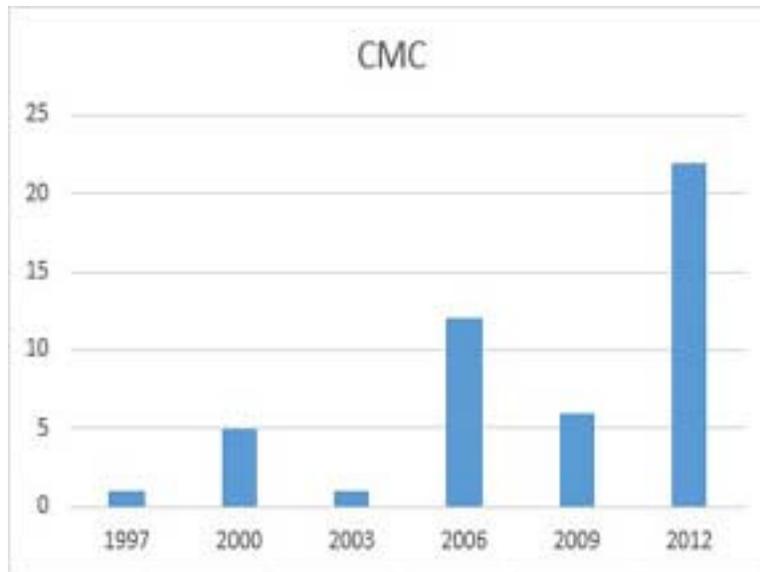


Figure 13

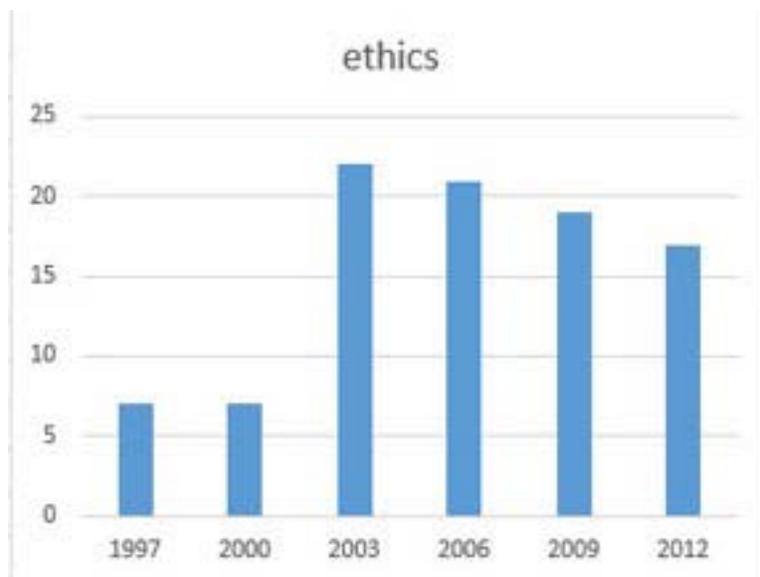


Figure 14

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[GO TO DISCUSSION](#)

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## Notes

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<sup>1</sup> Kinesics, which is described in two textbooks on communication theory s and only mentioned in one, was considered canonic because it is a component of non-verbal communication. Mentions are only counted if they include citations. *Human Communication: The Basic Course* contains a segment on "feminine and masculine culture" as well as a citation from *Language, gender and society* concerning the larger vocabulary for promiscuous women than men but these mentions are not discussions of feminist conceptions such as Deborah Tannen's "genderlect" or to Cheris Kramarae's view of the relations between language and gender. *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 does have a section on "The Gender Context" in the chapter on "Verbal Messages." It considers differences between men and women in conversational contexts. There is a section on "organizational culture" but it discusses "cultural rules," citing Copeland & Griggs, 1985 on organizations in collectivist cultures.

<sup>2</sup> The distinction between "areas of study" and "sub-fields of study" is un-conventional. I use the distinction to account for subjects of study related to Communication Studies which are not considered standard areas or fields (by which I mean not listed in the NCA or ICA websites) but which are discussed at some length in *Human Communication: The Basic Course*.

## 5.0 - How much lag is tolerable between the publication of research and its inclusion in textbooks?

In the previous chapter, I examined the coverage of communication research conceptions in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series. In this chapter I examine a related issue—to what extent is the coverage in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* up-to-date. This is a difficult issue to analyze because of the numerous factors involved. As a result, I narrowed the analysis down to three segments of the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series: the canonic conceptions discussed in the previous chapter, the glossary definitions, and the conceptions in DeVito’s model of communication.

Accordingly, this chapter contains three perspectives on the issue of up-to-date coverage: the gap between the publication of major research conceptions and their inclusion in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series, the frequency with which concepts in the glossaries were redefined, and the currency of the concepts in the model of communication which is the framework for research in the field. I examined the 19 canonic conceptions included in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series with respect to the dates of the publication of the research matched against the dates they were included in the textbooks. I also examined the frequency of definitions revised in the glossaries of the 12 editions of *Human Communication: The Basic Course*. Because most, if not all, research investigations employ concepts related to models of communication, I examined the concepts related to the model of communication in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series with respect to changes in them from the 1<sup>st</sup> to the 12<sup>th</sup> editions (1978, 1982, 1985, 1988, 1991, 1994, 1997, 2000, 2003, 2006, 2009, 2012).

### 5.1 - CONTEXT OF THE TITLE QUESTION

In a digital era the answer to the title question is “very little.” It is now entirely possible to almost simultaneously publish research papers and enter summaries of them into digital textbooks. However that state of affairs is probably still a long way off. In the context of printed textbooks, the answer is probably at the minimum, three years, and at the maximum, four. The textbooks I am studying are published in intervals of three to four years. Thus, a research project whose results are published in 2010 should appear in textbooks published in 2013 or 2014.

### 5.2 - METHOD OF ANSWERING THE TITLE QUESTION

In this study, given feasibility and practicality constraints, I limited my analysis of the lags between publication and inclusion to the canonic conceptions. Out of the 57 canonic conceptions I identified, the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series covers 19. Unfortunately, this is a very small sample. To extend the sample, I reviewed the revisions of the definitions of concepts in the glossaries from the

1<sup>st</sup> edition to the 12<sup>th</sup> edition. To keep conceptions up to date between 1978 and 2012, a period of 34 years, changes would need to be made to the definitions in the glossary since conceptual change is characteristic of research (Kuhn, 1962, 1977; Thagard, 1992; Thagard & Findlay, 2012; Toulmin, 1972; Vosniadou, 2008). Revisions to the glossary definitions is also an index of the degree to which the conceptions in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series were kept up-to-date.

In addition, I reviewed the terms from the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* glossaries used in describing the model of communication featured in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series—encoder, channel, context, message, noise, and decoder as well as terms related to them in the text. I chose the concepts whose inter-relations constitute the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* model of communication because it, explicitly or implicitly, governs any conceptualization of a communicative situation. I examined the basic concepts of the model with respect to their currency and noted changes in their definitions. Of the six concepts, only “noise” was significantly changed by the addition and later retraction of elements attributed to the concept.

### 5.3 - FINDINGS

#### *The publication/inclusion intervals in Human Communication: The Basic Course*

(Note: In the chapter on "coverage," I developed a canonic conceptions template. These are the conceptions commonly discussed in textbooks on communication theory.)

Here is a chart of the publication/inclusion intervals for the 19 canonic conceptions included in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series: [Note: the interval is calculated from 1978 (1st Ed.), the earliest time the conception could have been included.]

CONCEPTION	interval
agenda setting McCombs/Shaw	7 yrs
argumentativeness	3 yrs
attribution	7 yrs
communication accommodation	22 yrs
computer mediated communication	24 yrs
constructivism: cognitive complexity	0 yrs
expectancy violations	19 yrs
groupthink	10 yrs
information	0 yrs
inoculation	21 yrs
interaction process analysis	0 yrs
Kinesics	0 yrs
linguistic relativity	10 yrs
Proxemics	0 yrs
silence, spiral of	19 yrs
social exchange	10 yrs
Social penetration	16 yrs
uncertainty reduction	16 yrs

**Table 1**

On average, an interval of 10.2 years occurs before the canonic conceptions were included in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series.

[GO TO DATA](#)

### The Repetition of Glossary Definitions

Throughout the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series, the glossary definitions, once added, tend overwhelmingly to be repeated verbatim. (See the chart of occurrences in Chapter 7.) For example, out of 985 technical terms, only 31 were revised in earlier editions before their inclusion in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 glossary (3.14%).

Of the 1299 terms in the glossaries of the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series, only 31 were revised after the initial entry.<sup>1</sup>

[XX] = introduction or modification of concepts, [XX] = repetition of previous definition, "?" = why omitted, then added again

	1978	1982	1985	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
adaptors		[XX]										
agenda-setting			[XX]									
ambiguity	[XX]											
attribution theory								[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	
breadth			[XX]									
competence	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[X]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[OO]	[XX]	[XX]
conflict		[XX]										
conversation						[XX]						
conversational maxims							[XX]	[XX]	?	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
conversational turns				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[X]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
credibility	[XX]											
critical thinking						[XX]						
cultural time				[XX]								
Culture	[XX]											
disconfirmation		[XX]										
equality		[XX]	?	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
facial management techniques							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
high-context culture						[XX]						
interpersonal communication	[XX]											
noise	[XX]	[X]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
other-orientation				[XX]								
perception checking							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	?	?	[XX]
positiveness				[XX]								
power play						[XX]						
quality circle			[XX]	?	?	?	[XX]	?	?	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
rigid complementarity				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	?	?	[XX]
self-awareness						[XX]						
self-monitoring				[XX]								
sexual harassment						[XX]						
supportiveness		[XX]										
withdrawal				[XX]								

**Table 2**

Of the 31 definitions that were significantly revised, 21 (or 67.7%) of them were made in the 8<sup>th</sup> edition. By comparison: no revisions in the 6<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> editions; only 1 revision was made in the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup>, and 11<sup>th</sup> editions; and 3 in the 4<sup>th</sup>, 7<sup>th</sup>, and 10<sup>th</sup> editions.

7 revisions may be stylistic rather than conceptual changes perhaps suggested by copy editors. For example, in the definition of “self-awareness,” changing “One's level of intrapersonal knowledge” (6<sup>th</sup> edition) to “The degree to which a person knows himself or herself” in the 8<sup>th</sup> edition, may have been intended to eliminate the Latinate adjective “intrapersonal” as well as to use the active verb “knows” rather than the abstract noun “knowledge.”

3 revisions omit specification of detail, but retain the basic meaning, of the previous definition. For example, in the case of the definition of “cultural time,” the specifications: “Generally, three types of cultural time are identified: technical time refers to precise scientific time; formal time refers to the divisions of time that a culture makes (for example, dividing a semester into 14 weeks); and informal time refers to the rather loose use of such time terms as immediately, soon, and right away” are omitted. However, the sentence defining “cultural time” is retained un-revised.

This leaves 21 probable significant revisions of definitions in the glossaries of the entire *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series. To approximate the extent to which conceptual changes may have been neglected, I examined DeVito's treatment of several of the canonic concepts that have been revised by the researcher(s) using them: agenda setting, expectancy violations, information, social exchange, social penetration, and uncertainty reduction.

### Agenda setting

[XX] = introduction or modification of concepts, [XX] = repetition of previous definition.

edition	year	glossary	Comment:
4 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1988	[XX]	McCombs is <b>not</b> cited as a source for agenda-setting in the 4 <sup>th</sup> edition when the term was introduced.
5 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1991	[XX]	In the 5 <sup>th</sup> edition Shaw and McCombs 1977 text is cited, as is the Agee, Ault & Emery's 1988 reader: <i>Maincurrents in mass communications</i> , (1988).
6 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1994	[XX]	In the 6 <sup>th</sup> edition, Edelstein's “Thinking About the Criterion Variable in Agenda-Setting Research” (1993) is added to the other citations. Shaw & McComb's “The Evolution of Agenda-Setting Research: Twenty-five Years in the Marketplace of Ideas” is added to the bibliography” (1993) Nonetheless, the glossary definition is identical to the initial entry. The discussion is not changed.
7 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1997	[XX]	In the 7 <sup>th</sup> edition, agenda-setting is given a text box and also included in the section on public speaking. The glossary definition remains the same but a second definition referring to agenda-setting in speeches is added.
8 <sup>th</sup> Ed	2000	[XX]	In the 8 <sup>th</sup> edition agenda setting is restricted to speeches. The media aspect of agenda-setting is moved to a “Media Watch” textbox.
9 <sup>th</sup> Ed	2003	[XX]	In the 9 <sup>th</sup> edition, the Media Watch textbox on agenda-setting <b>theory adds sentences on salience and obtrusiveness (Folkerts &amp; Lacy, 2001)</b> . The glossary definition refers to public speaking rather than media.
10 <sup>th</sup> E	2006	[XX]	The 10 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 9 <sup>th</sup> .
11 <sup>th</sup> E	2009	[XX]	In the 11 <sup>th</sup> edition, agenda-setting is limited to public speaking.

12 <sup>th</sup> E	2012	[XX]	The 12 <sup>th</sup> edition adds a “Media Literacy Textbox” on “Agenda-Setting” which differs from earlier discussions, but the glossary definition is the same as in the 11 <sup>th</sup> edition.
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Table 3

In the article on agenda-setting theory in ECT, David Weiss writes that:

Agenda-setting theory, as originally formulated in 1972 by Maxwell McCombs and Donald Shaw, explains the relationships between the emphasis that the mass media place on issues and the importance that media audiences attribute to those issues. While agenda-setting theory started out as an explanation of media impact on political behavior and attitudes during election years specifically, the ways that news media coverage can prioritize issues, or *set the agenda*, for the public—in the decades since McCombs and Shaw’s initial study was published, the theory has inspired hundreds of subsequent explorations into the ways that media and other institutions prime and frame issues and events for their audiences and therefore influence and shape public opinion, either intentionally or unintentionally. As a result, agenda-setting theory has had a profound influence, not only on mass communication and political communication research, but also on the development of various organizational communication, persuasion, and diffusion-of-innovations theories. At the same time, the original theory has been revised by Maxwell McCombs, one of its co-developers, in ways that expand and even contradict one of its key tenets. (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009).

See also: (Agenda-setting research: Where has it been, where is it going?, Rogers & Dearing, 1988) and (M. McCombs, 2004a, 2004b; M McCombs & Ghanem, 2001; 1993).

### Expectancy violations

[XX] = introduction or modification of concepts, [XX] = repetition of previous definition.

edition	year	glossary	Comment:
7 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1997	[XX]	Expectancy Violation Theory is introduced in the 7 <sup>th</sup> edition (J. K. Burgoon, 1978; J. K. Burgoon, Buller, D. B. & Woodall, 1996).
8 <sup>th</sup> Ed	2000	[XX]	The text describing expectancy violations in the 7 <sup>th</sup> edition is moved to an “Understanding Theory and Research Textbox” and shortened by the omission of the last sentence.
9 <sup>th</sup> Ed	2003	[XX]	The textbox introduced in the 8 <sup>th</sup> edition is retained.
10 <sup>th</sup> E	2006	[XX]	The 10 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 9 <sup>th</sup> .
11 <sup>th</sup> E	2009	[XX]	The 11 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 10 <sup>th</sup> .
12 <sup>th</sup> E	2012	[XX]	The 12 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 11 <sup>th</sup> .

Table 4

In her article in ECT on “Expectancy Violations Theory,” Judee Burgoon discusses its development:

Expectancy violations theory (EVT) was developed by Judee K. Burgoon and several colleagues to predict and explain the impact of unexpected communication behavior. Inspired partly by Michael Burgoon’s linguistic-based expectancy theory and by Robert Rosenthal’s expectancy signaling work, it originated as a theory of the effects of interpersonal proxemic violations. It has subsequently been expanded to cover other forms of nonverbal and verbal communication violations.

Initial tests of the theory focused on violations of conversational distance and predicted that close violations exceeding a very close threshold called the threat threshold would have negative consequences regardless of who committed them. However, the results did not support the existence of a threat threshold. The theory was then revised, and the role of violation interpretation became more prominent. Tests of arousal established that both close and far violations elicited arousal, and tests of positive-violation and negative-violation predictions garnered support for such violations as proximity, eye gaze, immediacy, involvement, touch, and posture. The theory has been applied to persuasion, adaptation patterns in interpersonal interaction, intercultural interactions, deception, and group decision making. (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009, p. 367 & 369)

Em Griffin, in his discussion of Expectancy Violations Theory, writes:

When applied to theories, the term *elegant* suggests "gracefully concise and simple; admirably succinct." That's what expectancy violations theory has become. Burgoon has dropped concepts that were central in earlier versions but never panned out. Early on, for example, she abandoned the idea of a "threat threshold." Even though that hypothetical boundary made intuitive sense, repeated experimentation failed to confirm its existence.

Burgoon's retreat from *arousal* as an explanatory mechanism has been more gradual. She originally stated that people felt physiologically aroused when their proxemic expectations were violated. Later she softened the concept to "an orienting response" or a mental "alertness" that focuses attention on the violator. She now views arousal as a side effect of a partner's deviation and no longer considers it a necessary link between expectancy violation and communication outcomes such as attraction, credibility, persuasion, and involvement. By removing extraneous features, Burgoon has streamlined her model. By extending its scope, she has produced a complete theory. Her original nonverbal expectancy violations model was concerned only with spatial violations--a rather narrow focus. But by the mid-1980s, Burgoon had realized that proxemic behavior is part of an interconnected system of nonlinguistic cues. It no longer made sense to study interpersonal distance in isolation. She began to apply the model to a host of other nonverbal variables-facial expression, eye contact, touch, and body lean, for example. Burgoon continues to expand the range of expectancy violations. While not losing interest in nonverbal communication, she now applies the theory to what's said in emotional, marital, and intercultural communication as well. (2012, p. 88)

Burgoon's original model of EVT was in 1978. Since then she has made innumerable changes in her conception of EVT. See (J. K. Burgoon, 1978; J. K. Burgoon & Hale, 1988).

### Information

edition	year	glossary	Comment:
1 <sup>st</sup> Ed	1978	[XX]	DeVito paraphrases Shannon and Weavers delineation of a model of communication.
2 <sup>nd</sup> Ed	1982	[XX]	Although Shannon and Weaver's basic definition ("That which reduces uncertainty") is given in the glossary, from the 2 <sup>nd</sup> to the 7 <sup>th</sup> editions DeVito does not cite them.

3 <sup>rd</sup> Ed	1985	[XX]	
4 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1988	[XX]	
5 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1991	[XX]	
6 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1994	[XX]	
7 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1997	[XX]	
8 <sup>th</sup> Ed	2000	[XX]	Introduces a textbox with a description of the S&W model.
9 <sup>th</sup> Ed	2003	[XX]	The textbox on "Information Theory" has the same text as the one on "What's Information?" in the 8 <sup>th</sup> edition
10 <sup>th</sup> E	2006	[XX]	In the 10 <sup>th</sup> edition sentences were added to the textbox about informative speeches.
11 <sup>th</sup> E	2009	[XX]	The textbox on "Information Theory" in the 11 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the one in the 10 <sup>th</sup> edition
12 <sup>th</sup> E	2012	[XX]	The textbox on "Information Theory" in the 12 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the one in the 11 <sup>th</sup> edition.

Table 5

In his article on "Information Theory" in ECT, Stephen Littlejohn cites Shannon and Weaver's *The Mathematical Theory of communication* (Shannon & Weaver, 1949), which is the source of the definition of information in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series, as "the basic model of information theory" (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009, p. 513). He also cites Klaus Krippendorff whose conception of information differs from Shannon and Weaver's conception and is focused on communication (A Recursive Theory of Communication, Krippendorff, 1994) and published in a collection of essays on *Communication Theory Today*.

Granted that information theory no longer has the impact on communication research that it once did, communication remains a focus in related research areas such as systems theory. See (de Berg, 1995; Luhmann, 1995; Monge & Contractor, 2001, 2003).

### Social exchange

edition	year	glossary	Comment:
4 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1988	[XX]	In the 4 <sup>th</sup> edition, DeVito cites Thibaut and Kelley (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; John W Thibaut & Kelley, 1959).
5 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1991	[XX]	In the 5 <sup>th</sup> edition, he also cites Hatfield & Traupman, (1981) and Walster et al., (1978), but the glossary definition is not revised and the discussion is identical
6 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1994	[XX]	In the 6 <sup>th</sup> edition, <b>the discussion of exchange theory is expanded</b> . Chadwick-Jones (1976); Gergen, Greenberg, & Willis (1980); Thibaut & Kelley (1986) are cited. Hatfield/Traupmann as well as Walster et al are moved to a discussion of "Inequitable Distribution of Rewards and Costs" in the chapter on "Relationship Development, Deterioration, and Repair" but the glossary entry is the same as the initial entry.
7 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1997	[XX]	The discussion of social exchange theory is identical to that in the 6 <sup>th</sup> edition.
8 <sup>th</sup> Ed	2000	[XX]	*In the 8 <sup>th</sup> edition glossary, "terminate" relationships is added to "maintain" relationships. The expanded discussion of social exchange theory is shortened.
9 <sup>th</sup> Ed	2003	[XX]	The discussion of social exchange theory in the 9 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 8 <sup>th</sup> edition.
10 <sup>th</sup> E	2006	[XX]	The discussion of social exchange theory in the 10 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 9 <sup>th</sup> edition.
11 <sup>th</sup> E	2009	[XX]	The discussion of social exchange theory in the 11 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 10 <sup>th</sup> edition.
12 <sup>th</sup> E	2012	[XX]	The discussion of social exchange theory in the 12 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 11 <sup>th</sup> edition.

Table 6

In his article on social exchange theory in ECT, Michael Roloff notes that:

Social exchange theory (Lewis & Reese) is a set of ideas derived from several theories (e.g., equity theory, interdependence theory, resource theory) focused on the manner by which humans acquire resources. The roots of the aforementioned theories are located in several

disciplines including anthropology, economics, psychology, and sociology. Consequently, they differ with regard to their characterizations of exchange. Because of this diversity, scholars using SET as their conceptual framework sometimes differ with regard to the tenets of the theory and its foundational work.

Regardless, a set of assumptions are attributed to SET. These assumptions have guided research on interpersonal (e.g., self-disclosure, relational development, and maintenance) and organizational communication (e.g., negotiation, social networks) and have been incorporated into theories focused on related processes (e.g., dual-concern model of negotiation, investment model, selective investment theory, social penetration theory). (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009, p. 894)

### Social penetration

edition	year	glossary	Comment:
6 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1994	[XX]	Social Penetration Theory is introduced in the 6 <sup>th</sup> edition and (Altman & Taylor, 1973; Taylor & Altman, 1987) are cited. Baxter (1983) is cited in a paragraph about “depenetration.”
7 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1997	[XX]	The discussion of social penetration theory is identical to that in the 6 <sup>th</sup> edition.
8 <sup>th</sup> Ed	2000	[XX]	In the 8 <sup>th</sup> edition is discussion of social penetration theory is shortened. Paragraphs #1 & #2 are combined. Paragraph #3 is broken into two sections and revised accordingly, one section is moved to figure 10.3 as an explanation of it. Sentences are added to the end of the passage.
9 <sup>th</sup> Ed	2003	[XX]	In the 9 <sup>th</sup> edition, the discussion of social penetration theory is further shortened. The graphic that had accompanied it in previous editions is omitted.
10 <sup>th</sup> E	2006	[XX]	The discussion of social penetration theory in the 10 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 9 <sup>th</sup> .
11 <sup>th</sup> E	2009	[XX]	The discussion of social penetration theory in the 11 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 10 <sup>th</sup> . However, the graphic that had accompanied the discussion is returned.
12 <sup>th</sup> E	2012	[XX]	The discussion of social penetration theory in the 12 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 11 <sup>th</sup> .

**Table 7**

In an article on “Social Penetration Theory” in ECT, Vijai N. Giri writes:

Why do some relationships progress quickly, whereas others move very slowly to reach a level of intimacy? These questions motivated Irwin Altman and Dalmas Taylor to propose their social penetration theory (SPT) in the early 1970s. Since then it has been adapted by many theorists in communication studies and has played a prominent role in the understanding of developing relationships. SPT has gone through a fair amount of theoretical development over the years. Originally, it highlighted the development, maintenance, and deterioration of social relationships in a linear fashion, from less intimacy to greater intimacy, to disengagement. Later, the theory was revised to reflect a more cyclical process that depicted penetration as a back-and-forth process in which the tension between public and private always needed to be managed. This entry reviews the basic stages of relationship development and the elaborations on and critiques of the theory. (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009, p. 912)

Em Griffin notes that:

Social penetration theory is an established and familiar explanation of how closeness develops in ongoing relationships. Altman and Taylor's image of multiple wedges penetrating deeply into a multilayered onion has proved to be a helpful model of growing intimacy. But just as these theorists described people continually reappraising their relationships in light of new

experiences, it makes sense for us to reconsider the basic assumptions and claims of their theory. Social penetration theory has many critics. (2012, p. 122)

See also: (Taylor & Altman, 1987)

### Uncertainty reduction

edition	year	glossary	Comment:
6 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1994	[XX]	Uncertainty reduction theory was introduced in the 6 <sup>th</sup> edition and (Charles R Berger & Bradac, 1982; Gudykunst, 1989) are cited.
7 <sup>th</sup> Ed	1997	[XX]	The discussion of uncertainty reduction is revised but the motive seems to be stylistic rather than conceptual change.
8 <sup>th</sup> Ed	2000	[XX]*	* In the 8 <sup>th</sup> edition "The theory holding that ..." replaces "The process by which..." Although uncertainty reduction is defined in the glossary, in the text and in textboxes it is discussed only in relation to strategies for reducing uncertainty.
9 <sup>th</sup> Ed	2003	[XX]	The discussion of uncertainty reduction in the 9 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 8 <sup>th</sup> .
10 <sup>th</sup> E	2006	[XX]	The discussion of uncertainty reduction in the 10 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 9 <sup>th</sup> .
11 <sup>th</sup> E	2009	[XX]	The discussion of uncertainty reduction in the 11 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 10 <sup>th</sup> .
12 <sup>th</sup> E	2012	[XX]	The discussion of uncertainty reduction in the 12 <sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 11 <sup>th</sup> .

**Table 8**

Leanne Knobloch in her article on "Uncertainty Reduction Theory" in ECT writes:

Uncertainty reduction theory (URT), formulated by Charles Berger and his colleagues, strives to explain how people communicate when they are unsure about their environment. The theory, in its original form, limited its claims to the context of strangers meeting for the first time. ... A substantial body of research has tested URT's axioms within the domain of initial interaction. These investigations have produced evidence in favor of some axioms, but not others. For example, studies consistent with URT have documented an association between uncertainty and verbal communication (Axiom 1), the intimacy level of communication content (Axiom 4), similarity between partners (Axiom 6), and liking for partners (Axiom 7). On the other hand, results have provided limited support for the connection between uncertainty and information seeking (Axiom 3).

Other scholarship has extended URT beyond the context of acquaintance. Anxiety/uncertainty management theory, developed by William Gudykunst, expands URT's premises to crosscultural communication. The theory of managing uncertainty, formulated by Michael Kramer, reconceptualizes URT in organizational settings. The relational turbulence model, proposed by Denise Solomon and Leanne Knobloch, addresses the role of uncertainty during times of transition within close relationships. Together, these three theories underscore the wide-ranging influence of URT. (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009, pp. 976-978)

Em Griffin, in *A First Look at Communication Theory*, identifies Berger and Calabrese's 1975 article as the "original statement" of URT (Charles R. Berger & Calabrese, 1975) and identifies two other articles as "further development" (Charles R Berger & Bradac, 1982) and "theory update" (Charles R. Berger & Gudykunst, 1991). (2012, p. 137)

[GO TO DATA](#)

### *The model of communication in Human Communication: The Basic Course*

The model of communication is one of if not the most important organizing structure in textbooks on Communication Studies. The model of communicating in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* is the traditional version of Shannon & Weaver's 1949 model (S&W) as modified in part by Wilbur Schramm in 1954 and published in DeVito's *Communication: Concepts and Processes* in 1971, seven years before the first edition of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* which was entitled *Communicology*. Notably, this edition includes other models of communication, but it his adaption of Schramm's revision of the S&W model that DeVito retains throughout the 12 editions of *Human Communication: The Basic Course*.<sup>2</sup>

The key concepts in the model are: encoder, decoder, channel, context, message, and noise. The terms "channel," "context," "message" have identical definitions in the glossaries of all 12 editions. The definitions of encoder and decoder shift from "that which takes a message" or "something that takes a message" to "a person or device that takes a message." (5<sup>th</sup> & 6<sup>th</sup>) editions, then returns to "something that takes a message." The concept of "noise" changes certain features but retains a core definition in all editions.

#### **The core definitions are:**

**Encoder:** Something that takes a message in one form (for example, nerve impulses) and translates it into another form (for example, sound waves). In human communication the encoder is the speaking mechanism; in electronic communication the encoder is, for example, the telephone mouthpiece. See also decoder.

**Decoder:** Something that takes a message in one form (for example, sound waves) and translates it into another form (for example, nerve impulses) from which meaning can be formulated (for example, in vocal-auditory communication). In human communication the decoder is the auditory mechanism; in electronic communication the decoder is, for example, the telephone earpiece. See also encoder.

**Context:** The physical, psychological, social, and temporal environment in which communication takes place. (The 5<sup>th</sup> through the 7<sup>th</sup> editions use the phrase "social-psychological" instead of "psychological, social, and ...")

**Channel.** The vehicle or medium through which signals are sent.

**Message:** Any Signal or combination of signals transmitted to a receiver.

**Noise:** Anything that interferes with a person's receiving a message as the source intended the message to be received. Noise is present in a communication system to the extent that the message received is not the message sent. (Comments about physical and psychological noise

are added in the 4<sup>th</sup> edition. They are removed in the 8<sup>th</sup> edition. For an account of the changes in the conception of “noise” see the appendix. [GO TO DATA](#))

The following chart shows that the core definitions of these terms are retained throughout the 12 editions:

1978	1st edition	encoder/ decoder	context		message	noise	decoder/ encoder
1982	2nd edition	“ “	“ “		“ “	“ “	“ “
1985	3rd edition	“ “	“ “		“ “	“ “	“ “
1988	4th edition	“ “	“ “	+ channel	“ “ +types	“ “	“ “
1991	5th edition	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “
1994	6th edition	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “
1997	7th edition	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “ +advice	“ “	“ “
2000	8th edition	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “
2003	9th edition	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “ -advice	“ “	“ “
2006	10th edition	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “
2009	11th edition	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “
2012	12 <sup>th</sup> edition	“ “	“ “	“ “	“ “ +new advice	“ “	“ “

**Table 9**

An examination of any of the glossary entries of these concepts describing the model of communication in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series would prove to be “out of date.” It is noteworthy that the concept of “noise” was dropped from Wilbur Schramm’s model in “How Communication Works” — an essay included in all three editions of DeVito’s *Communication: Concepts and Processes* (1971, 1976, and 1981). DeVito evidently revived the concept in the 1st edition of his textbook (1978). The basic definition is retained in all the editions but he adds and subtracts item from it. In the 4<sup>th</sup> edition, he adds the 3 types of noise. In the 7<sup>th</sup> edition he adds advice. In the 9<sup>th</sup> edition, he subtracts the advice given in the 7<sup>th</sup> edition. In the 12<sup>th</sup> edition, he adds new advice.

For a detailed analysis of these concepts go to the DATA APPENDIX

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## 5.4 - DISCUSSION

I begin the discussion with the question: why is an out-of-date concept a problem? The obvious answer is that using an out-of-date concept is the equivalent of using an out-of-date road map in driving from one place to another. An out-of-date map would misdirect the driver. A more subtly pernicious consequence is that what currently constitutes the field of communication studies would not be known. For example, students who are given the modified Shannon and Weaver model of communication would have no conception of the models of communication currently in use by communication researchers.

Aside from not being up-to-date, DeVito's model of communication severs terms from any context of use. Imagine asking a communication researcher to study "any signal or combination of signals transmitted to a receiver"—DeVito's definition of a "message"—in conceptual domains such as new media, globalization, or political discourses. Confronted with the futility of using the definition in any meaningful way in such conceptual domains, students would, and presumably do, find themselves "without a clue."

### *The publication/inclusion intervals in Human Communication: The Basic Course*

An examination of the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series, shows that an average of 10.2 years occurs before the 19 canonic conceptions were included in the textbooks. This, of course, does not account for the fact that roughly 38 canonic conceptions never appeared.

Probably the most significant number in this part of the analysis is 1, which is the only canonic conception included in THE *Human Communication: The Basic Course* SERIES that was published *after* the 1<sup>st</sup> edition in 1978. The 18 other canonic conceptions were published before 1978. It is notable that 15 of them appear in the 12<sup>th</sup> edition.

### *The revisions of glossary definitions in the Human Communication: The Basic Course series*

Since it would be an immense undertaking to determine the gap between the publications of the 1299 concepts frequently repeated in the 12 editions, I settled on noting which definitions had been revised as an index of the extent to which they have been updated. The findings of the analysis of revisions of glossary definitions showed that there were only 21 possible significant revisions of definitions in the glossaries of the entire *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series which has been ongoing for 34 years. This suggests that the definitions were not usually updated.

Though it is difficult to tell which publications the glossary definitions were taken from, it is clear that no changes were made after 2000 (8<sup>th</sup> edition). In fact, with the possible exception of "interpersonal conflict" there were no revisions after 2000 in any glossary definition in the *Human Communication: The*

*Basic Course* series. The more significant fact is that there is no discussion of the changes to the six canonical conceptions in the body of the chapters in which they were discussed.

Of the six canonic conceptions I analyzed in detail, two—agenda-setting and social exchange—were revised *once* to reflect changes in the conception proposed by the researchers involved. However, in the context of 12 editions in which revisions could have been made, 2 is a relatively small number when conceptual changes in all six theoretical conceptions occurred far more frequently. For example, consider agenda-setting:

In *Setting the Agenda: the Mass Media and Public Opinion*, Maxwell McCombs offers an account of the major phases in the historical evolution of agenda-setting theories. McCombs identifies four phases of the historical evolution of the theory:

The initial phase, inaugurated by the Chapel Hill study, was centered on the influence of the media's issue agenda on the public's issue agenda. The second phase elaborated this influence of the news media, exploring a variety of contingent conditions that enhance or constrain agenda-setting effects among the public. The third phase expanded the scope of agenda-setting influence by the media from effects on attention - agendas of objects - to effects on comprehension - attribute agendas. The fourth phase, which is introduced in this chapter, explores the origins of this media agenda. Although there is a clear historical pattern in the appearance of these four phases, they are not historical phases in the sense that, with the appearance of a new phase, the book is closed on the previous phase. All four of these phases continue to be active sites of inquiry. And there remain many additional sites to explore. (2004, p. 118)

In 2005, McComb's added a 5<sup>th</sup> stage in his "A Look at Agenda-Setting: Past, Present and Future" (2005).

DeVito's discussions of agenda-setting do not reflect the various phases of its historical development. In the 7<sup>th</sup> edition, agenda setting is relegated to public speaking. Although from the 8<sup>th</sup> to the 12<sup>th</sup> editions, agenda setting is given a media oriented textbox, the context of the glossary definition remains public speaking. In the 9<sup>th</sup> edition, DeVito adds Folkerts & Lacy (2001) to the citation and adds the concepts salience and obtrusiveness. While this addition does reflect a revision of the discussion of the conception that takes into account a change in the theory, the glossary definition retains the context of public speaking. There is a minor change in the textbox indicating that even public service media messages have agendas. In the 12<sup>th</sup> edition, DeVito paraphrases agenda setting in the media that corresponds to his earlier discussions of it and adds statistics from Google News that show the disparity in coverage; however, he does not cite any sources. There is no discussion of the connections between agenda-setting and other communication theories such as frame analysis.

As I mentioned earlier in this section, it is significant that there is no discussion of the conceptual changes made in the evolution of agenda-setting theory. For instance, the addition of salience and obtrusiveness in the 9<sup>th</sup> edition is not treated as a *change* in the theory but simply as a description of it. Users of the 9<sup>th</sup> edition of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* would have to examine the 8<sup>th</sup>

edition is understand that the conception of agenda-setting had changed which is not a very likely circumstance.

DeVito's treatment of the concept, "agenda setting," in my view is characteristic of his treatment of conceptual change in general. Given the significance of conceptual change in scientific inquiries (Kuhn, 1962, 1977; Thagard, 1992; Thagard & Findlay, 2012; Toulmin, 1972; Vosniadou, 2008), this is a more serious flaw in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series than is usually acknowledged.

*The various definitions of “noise” in the Human Communication: The Basic Course series.*

In their *Introduction to Cognition and Communication*, Keith Stenning, Alex Lascarides, and Jo Calder sum up the limitations of the S&W model:

Shannon and Weaver's model of communication, like so much in science, is simple, if not simplistic... The inadequacies of the model are as revealing as the phenomena it does fit, a common benefit of the simplistic models science entertains. The limitation to finite codes, and the lack of analysis of the message—what is communicated—are the most serious problems and are closely related to each other. A theory of communication that can deal with messages of indefinite length, where the messages themselves build up the context for the messages' interpretation requires memory. An analysis of memory—the storage and retrieval of information during communication—involves us immediately in questions about what the mind of sender and receiver are like. (2006, p. 25)

As I noted in the previous section, the concept of “noise” was dropped from Wilbur Schramm’s model in “How Communication Works” which was first published in 1954. I take this as evidence that in Schramm’s view the concept of noise was not relevant to a “human” model of communication. Schramm writes:

*In engineering terms*, there may be filtering or distortion at any stage. *In human terms*, if the source does not have adequate or clear information; if the message is not encoded fully, accurately, effectively in transmittable signs; if these are not transmitted fast enough and accurately enough, *despite interference* and competition, to the desired receiver; if the message is not decoded in a pattern that corresponds to the encoding; and finally, if the destination is unable to handle the decoded message so as to produce the desired response then, obviously, the system is working at less than top efficiency. (14)

Perhaps the most important thing about such a system is one I have been talking about all too glibly—the fact that receiver and sender must be in tune. This is clear enough in the case of a radio transmitter and receiver, *but somewhat more complicated when it means that a human receiver must be able to understand a human sender*. ... The source can encode, and the destination can decode, *only in terms of the experience each has had*. (Taken from *Communication: Concepts and Processes*, 1971, pp. 15-16, italics and bold mine)

Schramm contrasts engineering model of communication with his “human” model. For him, the key to a successful communication is sharing similar fields of experience. I take this instance of an out-of-date concept to illustrate the problem such concepts pose for students with respect to the learning model I advanced earlier—Reif's model of belief transformation. For example, Schramm's sine qua non condition of communication—shared fields of experience—is dropped from DeVito's model of communication in the 5<sup>th</sup> edition. (See "[Charts of the various models of communication in the \*Human Communication: The Basic Course series\*](#)")

As noted, DeVito revived the concept of noise in the 1st edition of his textbook (1978). In the 4th edition, he introduced a broader interpretation of noise, adding psychological and semantic conditions to the S&W model. The semantic condition—“failure to understand each other's words,” which can be combated by “securing agreement on meaning” and open-mindedness, suggests that “noise” in this context is equivalent to “miscommunication.” The same can be said of prejudice and biases as psychological conditions. From the 8<sup>th</sup> through the 12<sup>th</sup> edition, these conditions are omitted are omitted in the glossaries but retained in the text.

DeVito distinguishes four types of noise, adding physiological to the three types he identified in the 4<sup>th</sup> edition:

1. physical noise: interference external to senders and receivers
2. physiological noise: internal interference caused by physical deficiencies
3. psychological noise: internal interference caused by preconceptions, inattention, bias, prejudice, close-mindedness, and "extreme emotionalism"
4. semantic noise: external interference caused by different meaning systems, linguistic or dialectical differences, jargon, ambiguity, arcane terms (13).<sup>3</sup>

As Lakoff and Johnson would be quick to point out, DeVito, like Shannon and Weaver (1949, p. 4), extends the ordinary meaning of the word "noise" metaphorically. He expands the metaphor to include physiological, psychological, and semantic "interference." Noise in the first sense refers to interference coming from outside the communication matrix. It most commonly refers to sound interfering with hearing. The listener is not responsible for this interference. Unfortunately, when this sense of noise is applied analogously to physiological, psychological, and semantic contexts, it carries with it the connotation of "not the fault of the listener" the receiver of the message. While this is not problematic in the case of physiological noise, it is troublesome in the psychological and semantic domains since the receiver can be an obstacle to a successful communication.

A more serious issue concerns DeVito's conception of the “signal-to-noise ratio.” The concept of a “signal-to-noise ratio” is defined in the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd editions, omitted from the 4th to the 7th editions, reactivated from the 8th to the 12th editions. A separate textbox on “theory and research” containing the concept was introduced in 2003 (9th edition) and retained in the 2006, 2009, and 2012 editions:

### Signal-to-Noise Ratio

A useful way of looking at information is in terms of its signal-to-noise ratio. Signal in this context refers to information that is useful to you, information that you want.

Noise, on the other hand, is what you find useless; it's what you do not want. So, for example, if a mailing list or newsgroup contained lots of useful information, it would be high on signal and low on noise; if it contained lots of useless information, it would be high on noise and low on signal. Spam is high on noise and low on signal, as is static that interferes with radio, television, or telephone transmission.

From the public speaker's point of view, noise is anything that diverts audience attention away from the speech (the signal)—pictures on the walls, writing on the whiteboard, people talking in the hallway, the rustle of newspapers, and so on. The speaker's task is to keep the audience's focus on the speech instead of the noise (12th Ed., 2012, p. 393).

#### Textbox 1

I find it remarkable that a signal in any context can refer to “information that is useful to you, information that you want” while noise refers to “what you find useless; it's what you do not want.” Granting that this textbox occurs in units on the informative speech, given the first sentence which applies it to all information, its import goes beyond public speaking. Since, for DeVito, information applies to “that which is new to the receiver,” this conception of noise would apply to a teacher introducing new conceptions or to a researcher introducing new evidence, and so on. Applied to this context, it would hardly be an effective pedagogical tactic for DeVito to announce to his students: “if what I say is not useful to you, regard it as noise.”

More significantly from the perspective of the learning process which involves a belief transformation, if what is being communicated to receivers is not “useful,” it can be disregarded as “noise”—that is, not worth believing. Furthermore, learners are not responsible for learning in this context even though learning can only be accomplished by them because they are “excused” on the grounds that the knowledge involved is not useful to them.

Out-of-date conceptions of communication restrict students’ abilities to engage their field. For example, the problem that the concept of noise presents to students of communication is captured in Weaver's remark that “With no errors from noise or from other causes, the received signals would correspond precisely to the message symbols sent” (1949, p. 18). This can only apply to the type of electrical signals Shannon and Weaver studied in Bell Labs, e.g., white thermal noise. In human communication, the signals involved are signs whose meanings are not identical, owing to the difference in the memories of the persons communicating. The implication in DeVito's conception of noise is that, if there is no interference, the message sent would correspond to the message received. As Schramm realized, “This is clear enough in the case of a radio transmitter and receiver, *but somewhat more complicated when it means that a human receiver must be able to understand a human sender.*”

These basic concepts of communication in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series are, in my view, “outdated,” having been supplanted by other concepts.

## 5.5 - FUTURE RESEARCH

The obvious need is to examine the lag between the publication of research and its inclusion in communication textbooks. The results of such examinations, if the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series is representative, may reveal a flawed system of publishing textbooks. This raises the question: should the editorial control of academic textbooks be entrusted to textbook companies.

### *The next question*

In chapters 2 and 3, I examined the pairings of declarative and procedural knowledge which are learning tools. I did not discuss the key terms lists, the practice tests, or the glossary definitions. The final question in this study is: should "learning tools" that aid memorization be included in Introductions to Communication Studies textbooks?

## 5.6 - DATA APPENDIX

Chart of the intervals between the publication of a canonic conception and its appearance in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series:

CONCEPTION	AUTHORS	Date pub.	Date entered in <i>Human Communication: The Basic Course</i> 1st Ed. = 1978	interval
agenda setting McCombs/Shaw	McCombs, M. and D. Shaw	1972	1985-1997, rev 2000- 2012	7 yrs
13?argumentativeness	Infante, D.	1982	1994-2012	3 yrs
attribution	Heider D.	1958	1985-2012	7 yrs
communication accommodation	Giles, Howard	1973	2000-2012	22 yrs
computer mediated comm cmc	Rafaeli, S.	1988	2012	24 yrs
constructivism: cognitive complexity	Delia	1982	1982-1988, then dropped	0 yrs
expectancy violations	Burgoon, J.	1978	1997-2012	19 yrs
groupthink	Janis, I.	1972	1988-2012	10 yrs
information	Shannon/Weaver	1949	1978-2012	0 yrs

inoculation	McGuire, W. J.	1964	1985-2006, 2012	21 yrs
interaction process analysis	Bales, R.	1970	1978-2012	0 yrs
Kinesics	Birdwhistell, R.	1952	1978-2012	0 yrs
linguistic relativity	Sapir-Whorf	1921	1988 to 1997	10 yrs
Proxemics	Hall, E	1963	1978-2012	0 yrs
silence, spiral of	Noelle-Neumann	1974	1997	19 yrs
social exchange	Thibaut, J. and H. Kelley	1959	1988-2012	10 yrs
Social penetration	Altman, I. and D. Taylor	1973	1994-2012	16 yrs
uncertainty reduction	Berger, C. R. and R. J. Calabrese	1975	1994-1997, partially rev 2000-2012	16 yrs

Table 10

[RETURN TO FINDINGS](#)

Definitions that have been revised after being entered into the glossary in earlier editions

Defintion	Initial version	revision
adaptors	2: Nonverbal behaviors that, when emitted in private (or in public without being seen) serve some kind of need and occur in their entirety-for example, scratching one's head until the itch is eliminated.	8: Nonverbal behaviors that satisfy some personal need and usually occur without awareness, for example, scratching to relieve an itch or moistening your lips to relieve the dry feeling. Three types of adaptors are often distinguished: <b>self-adaptors, alter-adaptors, and object-adaptors. Generally,</b>
agenda-setting	3: The effect of the media in focusing attention on certain issues and problems. This media ' attention or inattention influences people to see various issues as important or unimportant; generally, the more media attention given an issue, the more will people think it is important. <b>Also, a persuasive technique in which the speaker identifies his or her agenda as the Significant issue and others as insignificant.</b>	8: <b>A persuasive technique in which the speaker argues that 'XYZ is the issue and that all others are unimportant.</b>
ambiguity	1: The condition in which a word or phrase may be interpreted as having more than one meaning.	10: Uncertainty of meaning; the possibility of interpreting a message in more than one way.
attribution theory	8: A theory concerned with the processes involved in attributing causation or motivation to a person's behavior.	10: A theory concerned with the processes through which we attempt to understand the behaviors of others (as well as our own), particularly the reasons or motivations for those behaviors.

breadth	3: The number of topics about which individuals in a relationship communicate.	11: In the social penetration theory of interpersonal relationships, the number of topics about which individuals in a relationship communicate.
competence	1: The knowledge of language that a speaker has in his or her head.	8: competence <b>One of the qualities of credibility which</b> encompasses a person's ability and knowledge. + <b>advice</b>
conflict		
conversation	6: Relatively informal talk in which the roles of speaker and listener are exchanged frequently.	8: <b>Two-person communication usually possessing an opening, feedforward, a business stage, feedback, and a closing.</b>
Conversational maxims	7: The rules that conversation is expected to follow and which differ from one culture to another.	8: <b>Principles that are followed in conversation to ensure that the goal of the conversation is achieved.</b>
Conversational turns	4: The changing <b>(or maintaining)</b> of the speaker or listener role during a conversation, <b>These turns are generally signaled nonverbally. Four major types of conversational turns may be identified: turn-maintaining, by which we indicate our desire to continue in the role of speaker; turn-yielding, by which we indicate our desire to change roles from speaker to listener; turn-requesting, by which we indicate our desire to speak; and turn-denying, by which we indicate our desire not to assume the role of speaker.</b>	8: <b>The process of exchanging</b> the speaker and listener roles during conversation
credibility	1: The degree to which a receiver perceives the speaker to be believable,	8: The degree to which a receiver perceives the speaker to be believable; <b>competence, character, and charisma</b> (dynamism) are its major dimensions.
critical thinking	6: Reasoned and reasonable thinking and decision making.	8: <b>The process of logically evaluating reasons and evidence and reaching a judgment on the basis of this analysis.</b>
cultural time	4: The communication function of time as regulated and as perceived by a particular culture. Generally, three types of cultural time are identified: technical time refers to precise scientific time; formal time refers to the divisions of time that a culture makes <b>(for example, dividing a semester into 14 weeks)</b> ; and informal time refers to the rather loose use of such time terms as <i>immediately</i> , <i>soon</i> , and <i>right away</i> .	8: <b>The meanings given to time communication by a particular culture.</b>
Culture	1: The knowledge concerning the appropriate and inappropriate patterns of thoughts and behaviors of a group	4: <b>The relatively specialized life-style of a group of people-consisting of their values, beliefs, artifacts, ways of behaving, and ways of communicating-that is passed on from one generation to the next.</b>
disconfirmation	2: The process by which one ignores or denies the right of the individual even to define himself or herself.	4: <b>A communication pattern in which we ignore the presence of the other person as well as this person's communications.</b> *
equality	2: A quality of effective interpersonal communication in which the equality of personalities is recognized, and both individuals are seen as worthwhile,	8: <b>An attitude that recognizes that each individual in a communication interaction is equal, that no one is superior to any other. It</b>

	valuable contributors to the total interaction.	encourages supportiveness and is opposed to superiority.
facial management techniques	7: The techniques for, communicating emotions facially, for example, to hide certain emotions or to substitute acceptable for unacceptable emotions.	8: Techniques used to mask certain emotions and to emphasize others, for example, intensifying your expression of happiness to make a friend feel good about a promotion.
high-context culture	6: One in which much of the information in communication is in the context or in the person rather than explicitly coded in the verbal messages	8: A culture in which much of the information in communication is in the context or in the person rather than explicitly coded in the verbal messages. Collectivist cultures are generally high context.
Noise		
other-orientation	4: A quality of effective interpersonal interaction referring to one's ability to adapt to the other person's needs and desires during the interpersonal encounter.	8: A quality of interpersonal effectiveness involving attentiveness, interest, and concern for the other person.
perception checking	7: A technique for increasing your chances of making accurate perceptions.	8: The process of verifying your understanding of some message or situation or feel to reduce uncertainty.
positiveness	4: A quality of effective interpersonal communication referring to the communication of positiveness toward the self, others, and the communication situation generally, and willingness to stroke the other person as appropriate.	8: A characteristic of effective communication involving positive attitudes toward oneself and toward the interpersonal interaction. Also used to refer to complimenting another and expressing acceptance and approval.
power play	6: A type of game or manipulative strategy by which someone repeatedly tries to control another's behavior.	8: A consistent pattern of behavior in which one person tries to control the behavior of another.
quality circle	3: A small group of organizational members who meet voluntarily to address some specific problem. The group is initiated by management to whom the Circle's findings or conclusions are reported. The ultimate aim of a Quality Circle is to improve some aspect of the organization through the decision making of both workers and management.	7: Groups designed to improve quality in the workplace.
rigid complementarity	4: The inability to change the type of relationship between oneself and another even though the individuals, the context, and a host of other variables have changed.	8: The inability to break away from the complementary type of relationship that was once appropriate and now is no longer.
self-awareness	6: One's level of intrapersonal knowledge.	8: The degree to which a person knows himself or herself.
self-monitoring	4: The manipulation of the image that we present to others in our interpersonal interactions, High self-monitors carefully adjust their behaviors on the basis of feedback from others so that they can project the desired image, Low self-monitors do not consciously manipulate their images	8: The manipulation of the image one presents to others in interpersonal interactions so as to give the most favorable impression of oneself.
sexual harassment	6: Behavior that proves annoying or is offensive in a sexual way,	8: Unsolicited and unwanted sexual messages
supportiveness	2: An attitude of an individual or an atmosphere in a group that is characterized by openness, the absence of fear, and a genuine feeling of equality;	4: A quality of effective interpersonal communication in which one is descriptive rather than evaluative, spontaneous rather than strategic, and provisional rather than certain. *

	messages evidencing <i>description, problem orientation, spontaneity, empathy, equality, and provisionalism</i> are assumed to lead to supportiveness.	
withdrawal	4: A reaction to <i>territorial encroachment</i> in which we leave the territory.	5: <i>Withdrawal</i> (1) A reaction to <i>territorial encroachment</i> in which we leave the territory. (2) A tendency to close oneself off from conflicts rather than confront the issues.

Table 11

[\*reverts to the earlier definition in the 8<sup>th</sup> edition.]

## Revisions that may be stylistic

facial management techniques	7: The techniques for, communicating emotions facially, for example, to hide certain emotions or to substitute acceptable for unacceptable emotions.	8: Techniques used to mask certain emotions and to emphasize others, for example, intensifying your expression of happiness to make a friend feel good about a promotion.
other-orientation	4: A quality of effective interpersonal interaction referring to one's ability to adapt to the other person's needs and desires during the interpersonal encounter.	8: A quality of interpersonal effectiveness involving attentiveness, interest, and concern for the other person.
perception checking	7: A technique for increasing your chances of making accurate perceptions.	8: The process of verifying your understanding of some message or situation or feel to reduce uncertainty.
rigid complementarity	4: The inability to change the type of relationship between oneself and another even though the individuals, the context, and a host of other variables have changed.	8: The inability to break away from the complementary type of relationship that was once appropriate and now is no longer.
self-awareness	6: One's level of intrapersonal knowledge.	8: The degree to which a person knows himself or herself.
self-monitoring	4: The manipulation of the image that we present to others in our interpersonal interactions, High self-monitors carefully adjust their behaviors on the basis of feedback from others so that they can project the desired image, Low self-monitors do not consciously manipulate their images	8: The manipulation of the image one presents to others in interpersonal interactions so as to give the most favorable impression of oneself.
critical thinking	6: Reasoned and reasonable thinking and decision making.	8: The process of logically evaluating reasons and evidence and reaching a judgment on the basis of this analysis.

Table 12

[RETURN TO FINDINGS](#)Tracking six canonic definitions through the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series

## Agenda setting

The Human Communication: The Basic Course series	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
			[xx]								

**Table 13**

### 4<sup>th</sup> edition:

The media can also confer status (or perhaps in this case, "focus attention" is a better phrase) on issues and problems. This function is often referred to as *agenda-setting*. The media in effect tell us what is and what is not important. Notice the things we think are important. They are in fact the very things on which the media concentrate. The obvious question is whether they are important and the media therefore concentrate on them, or whether the media concentrate on them and they therefore become important. What does seem clear is that the media surely do lead us to focus attention on their choices of subjects. Although there is clearly no one-to-one relationship between media attention and popular perception of importance (other factors-for example, interpersonal ones-are also operating), the media do set our agendas to some probably significant degree. Recognize too that the media are controlled by persons of enormous wealth and power (whether network owners and executives, advertisers, or directors of multimillion-dollar corporations) who want to retain and increase such wealth and power. What gets attention from the media and influences the bias the media present is dictated largely by this small but extremely influential group that controls the media. The media exist to make profit for this group. (465-466)

### 5<sup>th</sup> edition:

The passages in the 4<sup>th</sup> edition highlighted in yellow above are repeated in the 5<sup>th</sup> edition.

Another approach to media effects is *agenda-setting* theory (Shaw & McCombs, 1977). When you set up an agenda, you list the things you must attend to. In a similar way, the media establish our agenda by focusing attention on certain people and events. (This, of course, is similar to media's function of conferring status that we discussed in Unit 29.) These are the people and events to which we should give our attention or so the media tell us. This theory, as Agee, Ault, and Emery (1988) put it, refers to the "ability of the media to select and call to the public's attention both ideas and events." The media tell us what is and what is not important. Notice the things you think are important and the things you talk about interpersonally. They are the very things on which the media concentrate. In fact, we may argue that nothing important can happen without media coverage. If the media don't cover it, then it isn't important. But, do the media concentrate on events because they are important or does media concentration make them important? (477-478)

### 6<sup>th</sup> edition:

The passages highlighted in the 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> editions are repeated in the 6<sup>th</sup>.

### 7<sup>th</sup> edition:

AGENDA-SETTING In agenda-setting a speaker might argue that XYZ is the issue and that all other matters are unimportant and insignificant. This appeal is heard frequently: "Balancing the budget is the key to the city's survival." "There is only one issue confronting elementary education In our largest cities and that is violence." In almost all situations, however, there are many issues and many sides to each issue. Often the person proclaiming "X is the issue" really means "I'll be able to persuade you if you focus solely on X and ignore the other Issues." (413)

### 8<sup>th</sup> edition:

The media aspect of agenda-setting is moved to a “Media Watch” textbox but the text in which the language of first paragraph of the 4<sup>th</sup> edition is returned, the passages highlighted in yellow are retained, and a new ending is added:

Of course, there are public service media that don't focus on financial gain. But they too have agendas. All communicators have agendas, and the messages from any person or organization establish agendas for the receiver. To what extent does the media establish your agenda? (273)

The passage introduced in the 7<sup>th</sup> edition concerning agenda-setting in public speaking is retained. The glossary definition corresponds to it rather than to the media context.

#### 9<sup>th</sup> edition:

In the 9<sup>th</sup> edition, the Media Watch textbox on agenda-setting theory adds:

Both salience and obtrusiveness influence the media's ability to establish your agenda (Folkerts & Lacy, 2001). The term *salience* refers to the importance of an issue to you. For example, if you live in a high-crime city, then news of crime, crime deterrents, and crime statistics are probably important to you. If the media *cover* such salient issues, then their ability to establish your agenda is enhanced. If they fail to *cover* such issues, then you're less likely to set your agenda on the basis of what the media say. *Obtrusiveness* describes the directness of your experience with an issue. If you *have* direct experience with an issue, then it's obtrusive; if you don't *have* direct experience, then it's unobtrusive. If tuition costs go up, then the tuition issue is obtrusive, because you (presumably) *have* direct experience with it. But if a *volcano* erupts on a faraway uninhabited island, it's unobtrusive. The media's agenda-selling influence is likely to be greater for unobtrusive issues, because you *have* no direct experience with these issues and hence *have* to rely on what the media tell you is or isn't important. (276)

The passage introduced in the 7<sup>th</sup> edition concerning agenda-setting in public speaking is retained. The glossary definition corresponds to it rather than to the media context.

#### 10<sup>th</sup> edition:

The 10<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 9<sup>th</sup>.

#### 11<sup>th</sup> edition:

In the 11<sup>th</sup> edition, agenda-setting is limited to public speaking.

#### 12<sup>th</sup> edition:

The 12<sup>th</sup> edition adds a “Media Literacy Textbox” on “Agenda-Setting” which differs from earlier discussions:

The media are agenda setting organizations; the media tell you what is and what is not important and they do this by focusing attention on certain topics and certain people (the "important" issues and personalities) and giving no or little attention to others (the "unimportant" issues and personalities). Because the media are so important and so pervasive in our lives, we believe them. We believe that the topics the media cover a great deal are, in fact, the important topics of the day. But, on more sober reflection and with our media literacy hat on, we can see that the personalities the media focuses on are not the really important people. For example, on Google News of May 2, 2010, there were 5386 items about Lindsay Lohan and 5318 on Dancing *with the Stars*, but only 2983 on New York's embattled Governor David Patterson and only 707 on the floods in Tennessee. A good way to see agenda setting is to compare the coverage of two very different media outlets; you'll quickly see agenda setting in action. In viewing or reading any of the media's presentation of "important issues" keep in mind that they have each made selections and their selections are telling you what you should be concerned with and what you can dismiss. (322)

The discussion of agenda-setting in the context of public speaking is retained but the corresponding glossary definition of agenda-setting is omitted in the 11<sup>th</sup> edition.

## Expectancy violations

The Human Communication: The Basic Course series	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
						[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]

**Table 14**

### 7<sup>th</sup> edition:

Expectancy violations theory explains what happens when you increase or decrease the distance between yourself and another in an interpersonal interaction (J. K. Burgoon, 1978; J. K. Burgoon, Buller, D. B. & Woodall, 1996). Each culture has certain expectancies for the distance that people are expected to maintain in their conversations. Of course, each person has certain idiosyncrasies. Together these determine "expected distance." What happens when these expectations are violated? If you violate the expected distance to a great extent- small violations most often go unnoticed- then the relationship itself comes into focus. Then the other person begins to turn attention away from the topic of conversation to you and to your relationship with him or her. If this other person perceives you positively-for example, you are a high-status person or you are particularly attractive-then you will be perceived even more positively if you violate the norm. If, on the other hand, you are perceived negatively and you violate the norm, you will be perceived even more negatively. Thus, the positively evaluated person will be perceived more positively if he or she violates the norm, while the negatively evaluated person will be more positively perceived if the distance norm is not violated. (176-177)

### 8<sup>th</sup> edition:

The text describing expectancy violations in the 7<sup>th</sup> edition is moved to an "Understanding Theory and Research Textbox" and shortened by the omission of the last sentence.

### 9<sup>th</sup> edition:

The textbox introduced in the 8<sup>th</sup> edition is retained.

### 10<sup>th</sup> edition:

The 10<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 9<sup>th</sup>.

### 11<sup>th</sup> edition:

The 11<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 10<sup>th</sup>.

### 12<sup>th</sup> edition:

The 12<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 11<sup>th</sup>.

## Information

The <i>Human Communication: The Basic Course</i> series	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
	[xx]										

Table 15

**1<sup>st</sup> edition:**

Perhaps the most famous of all the models of communication is that proposed by Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver, termed the Mathematical Theory of Communication. Communication, according to this model, follows a simple left to right process. The information source, let's say a speaker, selects a desired message from all the possible messages. The message is sent through a transmitter, for example, a microphone, and is changed into signals. In telephone communication these signals would be electrical impulses and the communication channel a wire. The signals are received by a receiver, for example, an earphone of some kind, changed back into a message and given over to the destination, a listener. In the process of transmission certain distortions are added to the signal which were not part of the message sent by the source, and these we call noise. (27)

Information is not defined. It is used in a non-technical sense in the discussion of the elements of communication, in particular messages. Messages are virtually a synonym of information. The chapter on models of communication which contains the passage quoted above is omitted in the second edition. The glossary contains Shannon & Weaver's classic definition. However, they are not listed as sources from the 2<sup>nd</sup> to the 7<sup>th</sup> edition.

**8<sup>th</sup> edition:**

In the 8<sup>th</sup> edition an Understanding Theory and Research textbox is added on "What is Information":

In the 1940s, engineers working at Bell Telephone Laboratories developed the mathematical theory of communication-which became known as information theory (Shannon & Weaver, 1949). This theory defined **information** as that which reduces uncertainty. For example, if I tell you my name and you already know it, then I haven't communicated information-because my message (my name) didn't reduce uncertainty; you already knew my name and so had no uncertainty in this connection. If, on the other hand, I tell you my salary or my educational background or my fears and dreams, that constitutes information, because these are things you presumably didn't know. Although this theory doesn't explain many of the complexities of human communication very well (see Unit 1), it is helpful when you are thinking about the purpose of the informative speech: to communicate information, to tell the members of the audience something they didn't already know, or to send messages that reduce the uncertainty of your listeners about your speech topic.

**9<sup>th</sup> edition:**

The textbox on "Information Theory" has the same text as the one on "What's Information?" in the 8<sup>th</sup> edition

**10<sup>th</sup> edition:**

In the 10<sup>th</sup> edition the following sentences were added to the textbox:

If you don't communicate enough information, the audience will be bored (they'll already know what you're saying). But if you communicate too much information, they'll be overwhelmed. The art of the effective speaker is to strike an appropriate balance.

**11<sup>th</sup> edition:**

The textbox on "Information Theory" in the 11<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the one in the 10<sup>th</sup> edition.

**12<sup>th</sup> edition:**

The textbox on "Information Theory" in the 12<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the one in the 11<sup>th</sup> edition.

## Social exchange

The <i>Human Communication: The Basic Course</i> series	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12 <sup>th</sup>
			[XX]								

**Table 16**

**4<sup>th</sup> edition:**

**Social Exchange and Equity:** The third perspective is that of social exchange and equity theory. This approach is based on an economic model of rewards and costs; it assumes that a relationship is a partnership in which rewards and costs are exchanged. Some patterns of exchange prove productive and others destructive of relationships. (220)

Social exchange theory claims that we develop relationships in which our rewards will be greater than our costs. We involve ourselves in relationships that "will provide us with rewards-basically, those things that fulfill our needs for security, sex, social approval, financial gain, status, and so on. But rewards involve some cost or "payback." For example, in order to acquire the reward of financial gain, an individual might **231** have to give up some degree of freedom. The cost of gaining parental approval might be entering a loveless marriage or giving up a relationship that provided other types of rewards or gains. Using this basic economic-oriented model, the social exchange theory puts into clearer perspective our tendency to seek gain or reward "while incurring the least cost (punishment or loss). If you think about your current or past relationships, you will be able to see quite clearly that the relationships you pursued and maintained have been those that provided you with reward and need fulfillment greater than the cost. Those relationships you did not pursue or that you terminated were probably those whose costs or losses exceeded the rewards; these were the relationships with more dissatisfaction than satisfaction, more unhappiness than happiness, and more problems than pleasures. Most of us have an expectation baseline-a kind of comparison level of what we expect in a relationship. When our expectations are exceeded, we experience relationship satisfaction-as when, for example, we derive greater rewards than we had originally anticipated. When our expectations are not met, we experience relationship dissatisfaction. (230-231)

**5<sup>th</sup> edition:**

The discussion of social exchange theory is identical to that in the 4<sup>th</sup> edition.

**6<sup>th</sup> edition:**

#1 Social exchange theory claims that you develop relationships that will enable you to maximize your profits (Chadwick-Jones, 1976; Gergen, Greenberg, & Willis, 1980; Thibaut & Kelley, 1986), a theory based on an economic model of profits and losses. The theory begins with the following equation: Profits = Rewards - Costs

#2 Rewards are anything that you would incur costs to obtain. For example, in order to acquire the reward of financial gain, you might have to work rather than play. To earn an A in interpersonal communication, you might have to write a term paper or study more than you might want to. Love, affection, status, money, gifts, security, social acceptance, companionship, friendship, and intimacy are just a few examples of the rewards for which you might be willing to work.

#3 Costs are those things that you normally try to avoid, the things you consider unpleasant or difficult. Working overtime, washing dishes and ironing clothes, watching your partner's favorite television show (which you find boring), and doing favors for those you dislike might all be considered costs.

#4 Using this basic economic model, social exchange theory claims that you seek to develop relationships (friendship and romantic) which will give you the greatest profits; that is, relationships in which the rewards are greater than the costs. The most preferred relationships, according to this theory, are those that give you the greatest rewards with the least costs.

#5 If you think about your current or past relationships, you will probably see that the relationships you pursued and maintained were those that provided you with profits, with rewards that were greater than costs. Equally important, the relationships that you did not pursue or that you ended were probably those where there was no profit, that is, those whose costs exceeded the rewards. These were the relationships in which there was more dissatisfaction than satisfaction, more unhappiness than happiness, more problems than pleasures.

#6 When you enter a relationship, you bring a certain *comparison level-a* general idea of the kinds of rewards and profits that you feel you ought to get out of such a relationship. It is your realistic expectations concerning what you feel you deserve from a relationship. For example, in a study of married couples it was found that most people expect reasonably high levels of trust, mutual respect, love, and commitment. Their expectations are significantly lower for time spent together, privacy, sexual activity, and communication (Sabatelli & Pearce, 1986). When the rewards that you get equal or surpass this comparison level, you feel satisfied with your relationship.

#7 However, you also have a *comparison level for alternatives*. That is, you compare the profits that you get from your current relationships with the profits you think you can get from alternative relationships. Thus, if you see that the profits from your present relationship are below the profits that you could get from an alternative relationship, you might decide to leave your current relationship and enter this new, more profitable relationship. (218-219)

#8 **Inequitable Distribution of Rewards and Costs** Generally, and as predicted by social exchange theory, you stay in relationships that are rewarding, and leave relationships that are punishing. Further, you expect and desire equity in your relationships (Berscheid & Walster, 1978; Hatfield & Traupman, 1981). Equitable relationships are those in which the rewards and the costs are almost equally distributed between the two individuals. When partners see their relationship as equitable, they will continue building it. When the relationship is not equitable, it may deteriorate. (232)

**7<sup>th</sup> edition:**

The discussion of social exchange theory is identical to that in the 6<sup>th</sup> edition.

**8th edition:**

Paragraphs #5 & 8 of the 6<sup>th</sup> edition text are omitted.

**9<sup>th</sup> edition**

The discussion of social exchange theory in the 9<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 8<sup>th</sup> edition.

**10<sup>th</sup> edition:**

The discussion of social exchange theory in the 10<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 9<sup>th</sup> edition.

**11<sup>th</sup> edition:**

The discussion of social exchange theory in the 11<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 10<sup>th</sup> edition.

**12<sup>th</sup> edition:**

The discussion of social exchange theory in the 12<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 11<sup>th</sup> edition.

**Social Penetration**

The Human Communication: The Basic Course series	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6 <sup>th</sup>	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
					XX	XX	XX	XX	XX	XX	XX

**Table 17**

**6<sup>th</sup> edition**

#1 Social penetration theories describe relationships in terms of the number of topics that people talk about and their degree of "personalness" (Altman & Taylor, 1973; Taylor & Altman, 1987). This theory is not so much concerned with why relationships develop but with what happens when they do develop; it provides an additional step on the six-stage model just discussed.

#2 **Breadth and Depth of Relationships** In social penetration theory, relationships are described by the number of topics the two people talk about and the degree of "personalness" to which they pursue these topics. The number of topics about which you communicate is referred to as breadth. The degree to which the inner personality-- the core of an individual-is penetrated is referred to as depth.

#3 Let us represent an individual as a circle and divide that circle into parts as in Figure 12.2 (Altman & Taylor, 1973). These parts represent the topics or areas that people talk about (breadth). Further, let's visualize the circle and its parts as consisting of concentric inner circles. These represent the different levels of communication, or the depth. Note that in circle (a) only three of the topic areas are penetrated. Two are penetrated only to the first level and one is penetrated to the second level. In this type of interaction, three topic areas are talked about and they are discussed at rather superficial levels. This is the type of relationship you might have with an acquaintance. Circle (b) represents a more intense relationship, both broader (here four topics are discussed) and deeper. This is the type of relationship you might have with a friend. Circle (c) shows a still more intense relationship. Here seven of the eight areas are penetrated and most of the areas are penetrated to the deepest levels. This is the type of relationship you might have with a lover, a parent, or a sibling.

#4 We can describe relationships-friendships, loves, families-in terms of breadth and depth. In its initial stage, a relationship is normally characterized by narrowness (few topics are discussed) and shallowness (the topics discussed are discussed only superficially). If early in a relationship topics are discussed to a depth which is normally reserved for intimates, you would probably experience considerable discomfort. As already noted (Unit 3), when intimate disclosures are made early in a relationship, you may feel something is wrong with the disclosing individual. As the

relationship grows ~n intensity and intimacy, both the breadth and the depth increase and these increases are seen as comfortable, normal, and natural.

**#5 Depenetration** When a relationship begins to deteriorate, the breadth and depth often (but not always) reverse themselves—a process of depenetration (Baxter, 1983). For example, while terminating a relationship, you might stop talking about certain topics. At the same time you might discuss the remaining topics in less depth. You would reduce the level of your self-disclosures and reveal less of your innermost feelings. (213-215)

**7<sup>th</sup> edition:**

The discussion of social penetration theory is identical to that in the 6<sup>th</sup> edition.

**8<sup>th</sup> edition:**

In the 8<sup>th</sup> edition is discussion of social penetration theory is shortened. Paragraphs #1 & #2 are combined. Paragraph #3 is broken into two sections and revised accordingly, one section is moved to figure 10.3 as an explanation of it. The following sentences are added to the end of the passage:

In some instances of relational deterioration, however, both the breadth and the depth of interaction increase. For example, when a couple breaks up and each is finally free from an oppressive relationship, the partners may-after some time-begin to discuss problems and feelings they would never have discussed when they were together. In fact, they may become extremely close friends and come to like each other more than when they were together. In these cases the breadth and depth of their relationship may increase rather than decrease (Baxter, 1983). (194-195)

**9<sup>th</sup> edition:**

In the 9<sup>th</sup> edition, the discussion of social penetration theory is further shortened. The graphic that had accompanied it in previous editions is omitted.

**10<sup>th</sup> edition:**

The discussion of social penetration theory in the 10<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 9<sup>th</sup>

**11<sup>th</sup> edition:**

The discussion of social penetration theory in the 11<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 10<sup>th</sup>. However, the graphic that had accompanied the discussion is returned.

**12<sup>th</sup> edition:**

The discussion of social penetration theory in the 12<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 11<sup>th</sup>

## Uncertainty Reduction

The <i>Human Communication: The Basic Course</i> series	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12 <sup>th</sup>
Uncertainty reduction theor					[XX]						

**Table 18**

### 6th edition:

Communication is a gradual process during which people reduce uncertainty about each other. With each interaction, each person learns more about the other and gradually comes to know that person on a more meaningful level. Three major strategies help achieve this reduction in uncertainty: passive, active, and interactive strategies (Berger & Bradac, 1982).

### 7<sup>th</sup> edition:

All communication interactions involve uncertainty and ambiguity. Not surprisingly, this uncertainty and ambiguity is greater when there are large cultural differences (Berger & Bradac 1982; Gudykunst 1989). Much of your communication tries to reduce this uncertainty so you can better describe, predict, and explain the behaviors of others. Because of this greater uncertainty in intercultural communication, it takes more time and effort to reduce it and to thus communicate meaningfully.

### 8<sup>th</sup> edition:

In the 8<sup>th</sup> edition, although uncertainty reduction is defined in the glossary, it is discussed only in relation to strategies for reducing uncertainty in the text and in textboxes.

### 9<sup>th</sup> edition:

The discussion of uncertainty reduction in the 9<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 8<sup>th</sup>.

### 10<sup>th</sup> edition:

The discussion of uncertainty reduction in the 10<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 9<sup>th</sup>.

### 11th edition:

The discussion of uncertainty reduction in the 11<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 10<sup>th</sup>.

### 12<sup>th</sup> edition:

The discussion of uncertainty reduction in the 12<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to the 11<sup>th</sup>.

[RETURN TO FINDINGS](#)

*Charts of the various models of communication in the Human Communication: The Basic Course series*

**1<sup>st</sup> Ed: 1978**

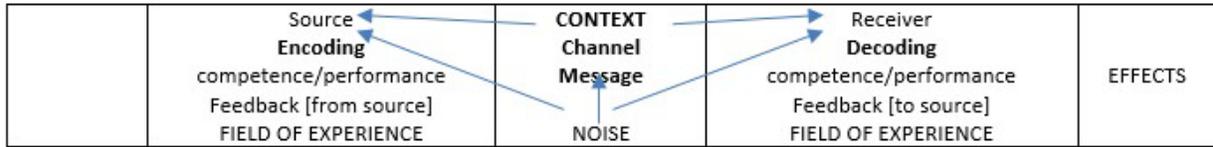


Figure 1

In the 2<sup>nd</sup> edition of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* (titled *Communicology*) the graphical aspects of the model change and three concepts are left out: competence, performance, and feedback. As in the first edition several models of communication are presented.

**2<sup>nd</sup> Ed: 1982**

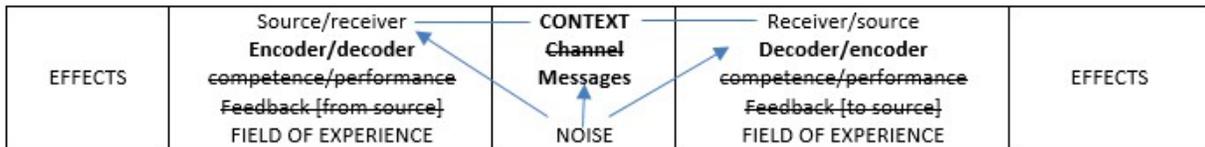


Figure 2

The 3<sup>rd</sup> edition introduces the title *Human Communication: The Basic Course*. The model of Communication in the 3<sup>rd</sup> edition is identical to the one in the 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. But other models are dropped.

**3<sup>rd</sup> Ed: 1985**

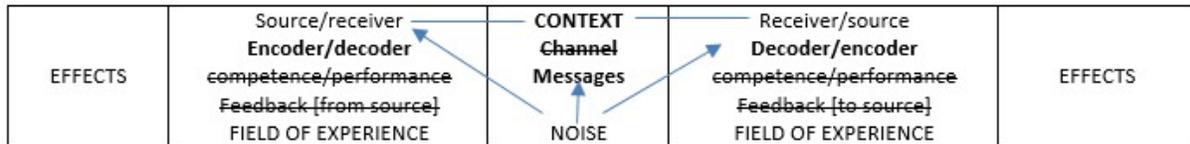


Figure 3

The model of communication in the 4<sup>th</sup> edition is identical to those in the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> editions.

**4<sup>th</sup> Ed: 1988**

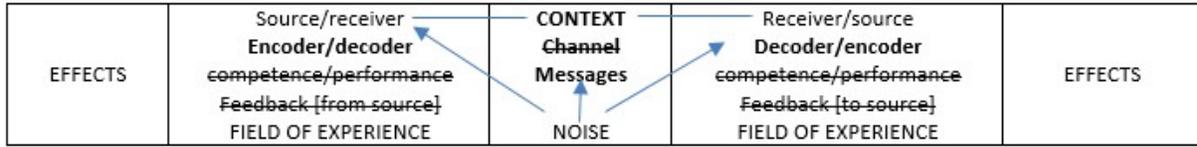


Figure 4

There is a dramatic change in the appearance of the model of communication in the 5<sup>th</sup> edition. In addition, the concepts of feedback and channels are returned to the diagram. The concept of feed-forward is added and the directionality of feedback and feed-forward changes. Significantly, the concept of fields of experience which is critical in Schramm's model is dropped.

**5<sup>th</sup> Ed: 1991**

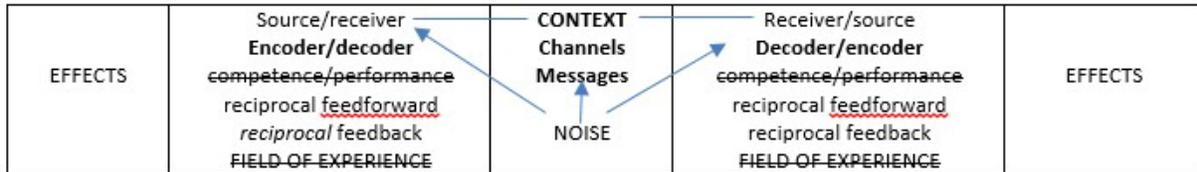


Figure 5

The model of communication in the 6<sup>th</sup> edition is dramatically re-diagrammed and the directionality of feedback and feed-forward is changed again. Also, the concept of competence is returned to the model

**6<sup>th</sup> Ed: 1994**

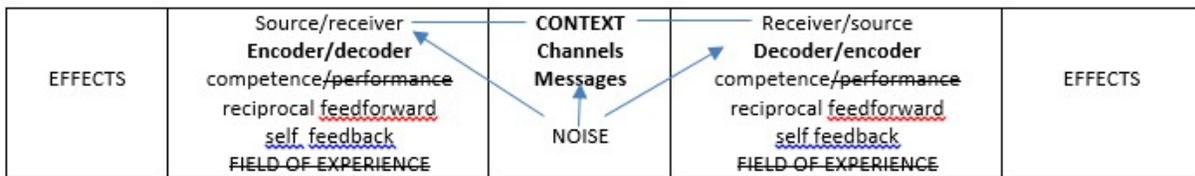


Figure 6

**New diagram with 7<sup>th</sup> edition**

The 7<sup>th</sup> edition of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* inaugurates a new approach to the design and content of the textbook. This is reflected in a new design of the model of communication which is simplified by comparison with the earlier models. The diagram is repeated through from the 7<sup>th</sup> to the 11<sup>th</sup> editions.

**7<sup>th</sup> Ed: 1997**

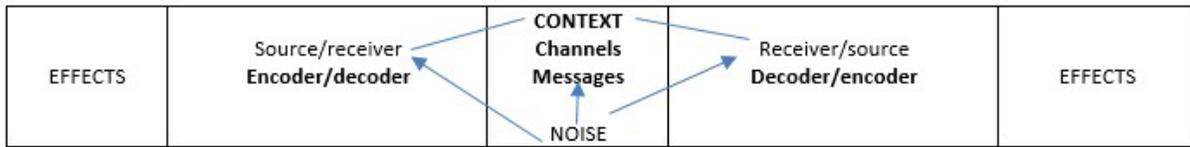


Figure 7

**8<sup>th</sup> Ed: 2000**

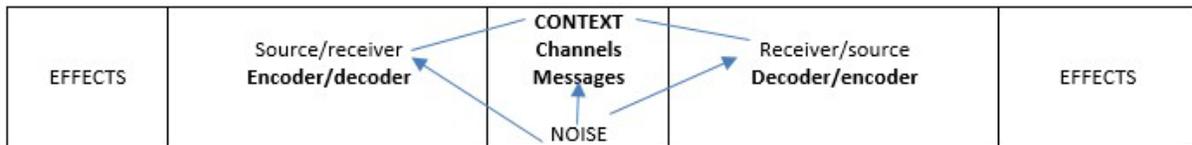


Figure 8

**9<sup>th</sup> Ed: 2003**

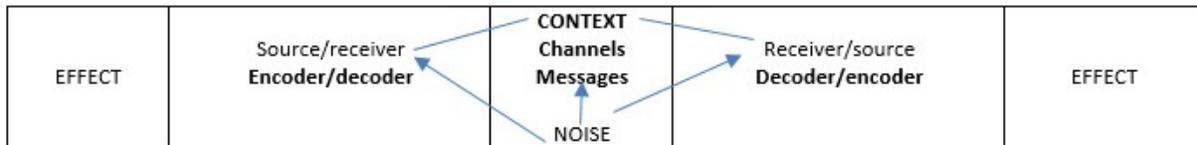


Figure 9

The 10<sup>th</sup> edition omits the concepts of "encoder" and "decoder" in the diagram but retains them in the text and glossary.

**10<sup>th</sup> Ed: 2006**

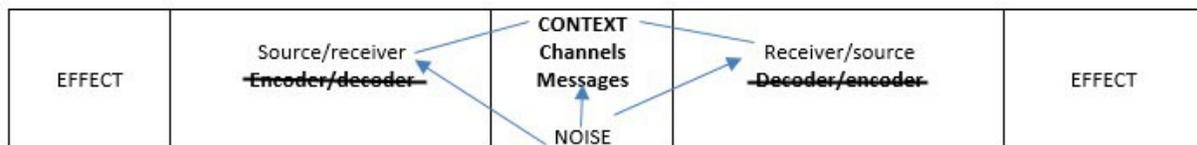


Figure 10

11<sup>th</sup> Ed: 2009

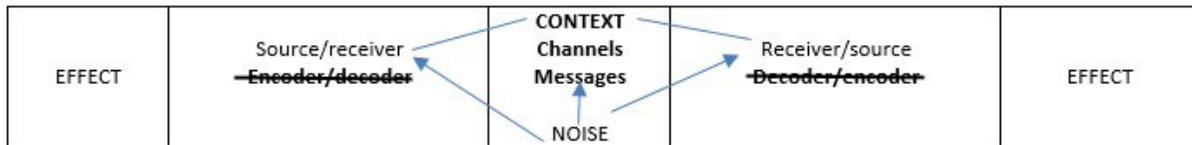


Figure 11

The model of communication in the 12<sup>th</sup> edition is fundamentally the same as in the previous five editions. The only difference is the specification of various contexts.

12<sup>th</sup> Ed: 2012

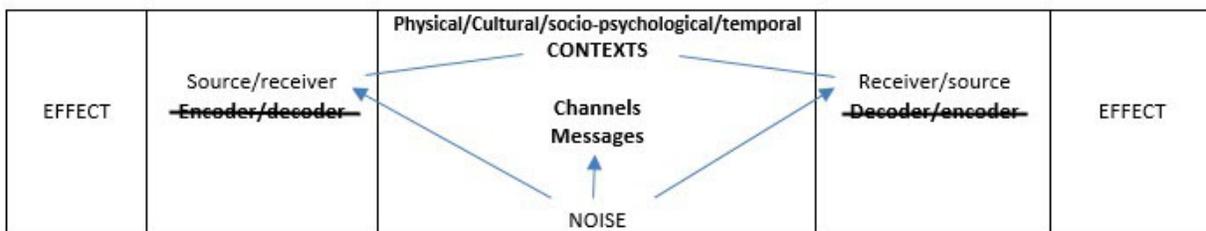


Figure 12

Although the concepts of encoder and decoder are removed from the diagram of the model of communication, the exposition of source and receiver includes them in the chapters in which the diagram appears, "Preliminaries of Human Communication," as does the glossaries in these editions. The core of the model of communication in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series includes the concepts in the Shannon & Weaver model.

*The 12 definitions of noise in the Human Communication: The Basic Course series are:*

1<sup>st</sup> Edition — Noise: Anything that distorts the message intended by the source. Noise may be viewed as anything that interferes with the receiver's receiving the message as the source intended the message to be received. Noise is present in a communication system to the extent that the message received is not the message sent. Noise may originate in any of the components of the communication act, for example, in the source as a lisp, in the channel as static, in the receiver as a hearing loss, in written communication as blurred type. Noise is always present in any communication system and its effects may be reduced (but never eliminated completely) by increasing the strength of the signal or the amount of redundancy, for example.

2<sup>nd</sup> Edition — identical definition

3<sup>rd</sup> Edition — identical definition

4<sup>th</sup> Edition — Noise: Anything that distorts or interferes with the message in the communication system. Noise is present in communication to the extent that the message sent differs from the message received. Physical noise interferes with the physical transmission of the signal or message—for example, the static in radio transmission. Psychological noise refers to distortions created by such psychological processes as prejudice and biases. Semantic noise refers to distortions created by a failure to understand each other's words.

5<sup>th</sup> Edition — identical definition

6<sup>th</sup> Edition — identical definition

7<sup>th</sup> Edition — adds *“Combat the effects of physical, semantic, and psychological noise by eliminating or lessening the sources of physical noise, securing agreement on meanings, and interacting with an open mind in order increase communication accuracy”* at the end.

8<sup>th</sup> Edition — identical definition

9<sup>th</sup> Edition — omits *“Physical noise interferes with the physical transmission of the signal or message—for example, the static in radio transmission. Psychological noise refers to distortions created by such psychological processes as prejudice and biases. Semantic noise refers to distortions created by a failure to understand each other's words”* but retains the passage added in the 7th edition.

10<sup>th</sup> Edition — omits the passage added in the 7th edition.

11<sup>th</sup> Edition — identical definition to the 10th edition.

12<sup>th</sup> Edition — adds *“Reduce the influence of physical, physiological, psychological, and semantic noise to the extent that you can. Use repetition and restatement and, when in doubt, ask if you are being clear.”*

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## Notes

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<sup>1</sup> Deciding whether a definition is repeated is a subjective procedure. Whether a word change is stylistic or conceptual substantive is a judgment call. For example, the definition of a "mixed message" in the 7<sup>th</sup> edition is "Messages that contain contradictory meanings, a special type of which is the double-bind message" and in the 8<sup>th</sup> edition it is defined as "A message that contradicts itself; a message that asks for two different (often incompatible) responses." Is the definition of a mixed message in the 8<sup>th</sup> edition a repetition of the definition in the 7<sup>th</sup> edition? More specifically, is the phrase "message that contradicts itself" the equivalent of "a message that contradicts itself"? And, is "a message that asks for two different (often incompatible) responses" equivalent to a "double-bind message"? In my judgment the messages are equivalent though an argument can be made that messages can ask for two incompatible responses is not necessarily a double-bind message.

<sup>2</sup> Ironically, DeVito's *Communicology* editions of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* have a chapter that discusses various models. For other models see: Narula, *Communication Models* (2006); Severin & Tankard, *Communication Theories: Origins, Methods, and Uses in the Mass Media* (2001); *The International Encyclopedia of Communications* (Barnouw, Gerbner, Schramm, Worth, & Gross, 1989); Beebe, et al, *Communication: Principles for a Lifetime* (2007).

<sup>3</sup> Identifying "jargon" as noise suggests that technical jargon is to be avoided in the study of communication. But the whole notion of field specific definitions of terms which DeVito is teaching in his textbooks depends on the use of precisely this noisy jargon. But the problem does not end there.

## 6.0 - Should "learning tools" that aid memorization be included in Introductions to Communication Studies textbooks?

Tell me and I'll forget,  
Show me and I may remember,  
Involve me and I'll understand.

- Chinese Proverb

I hear, I know.  
I see, I remember.  
I do, I understand.

- Confucius

In previous chapters I analyzed textboxes on “building communication skills,” “choice points,” “self-tests,” “understanding theory and research,” “reflections on ethics,” “media literacy,” and “critical thinking questions” as learning tools for understanding concepts. This chapter focuses on learning tools that are designed to aid memorization.

Communication textbooks are often designed to facilitate the recall of concepts in test-taking — they usually include glossaries, multiple choice exercises, fill-in-the-blank exercises, and other devices to ensure recall. This is made obvious by various pedagogical aids: summaries, lists of key terms, and study notes. That these aspects of the textbook were intended to facilitate memorizing is implicit in the lists of key terms prefaced by the remarks such as “flash cards of these terms are available online.” But, as we have already seen with Reif’s model of “thinking and learning in scientific and other complex domains,” unless declarative knowledge, even when remembered accurately, is linked to procedural knowledge, memorizing concepts does not provide a basis for fully learning them. In this chapter, I show that the learning tools, glossaries, lists of key terms, summaries, and exercises in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* are designed to aid in the memorization of the concepts. In my view, *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* is representative of the entire series in this respect.

### 6.1 - CONTEXT OF THE TITLE QUESTION

In *Why Don't Students like School?* Daniel Willingham remarks that “People are naturally curious, but we are not naturally good thinkers; unless the cognitive conditions are right, we will avoid thinking” (2009, p. 3). As I mentioned in the Introduction, recent studies of undergraduate education—Richard Arum and Josipa Roksa’s *Academically Adrift* (2011), Richard P. Keeling and Richard H. Hersh’s *We’re Losing Our Minds* (2011), and Derek Bok’s *Our Underachieving Colleges* (2006)—conclude that undergraduates have significant difficulties dealing with complex thinking. Bok points out that rote memorizing of course materials is one of the “cognitive conditions” creating the problem:

... researchers have found that students are often unable to think effectively about material in a course or apply what they have learned to new problems and new situations because they have not truly understood the underlying conception on which the course was based. (2006, p. 115)

As I have mentioned several times, Feynman, the Nobel-prizewinning physicist, makes the same point, noting that after teaching a group of physics students about polarized light that his students were able to correctly answer questions about the concepts involved, but unable to apply what they had learned to an experiment. Feynman remarks that “the students had memorized everything, but they didn’t know what anything meant.”

Moreover, students are sometimes subtly encouraged to believe that the acquisition of information about an area of scientific study is all they need to perform as a scientist in it. The pedagogy implicit in numerous textbooks fosters this belief. In this context, consider that various studies have demonstrated that students pass courses in which they do not understand the subject matter. This phenomenon suggests that many students assume that knowing the definition of a concept is sufficient for using it to conduct research.

## 6.2 - METHOD OF ANSWERING THE TITLE QUESTION

As I noted in the first in the introductory paragraph, my focus in this chapter is on the glossaries, key terms lists, tests, and summaries which are designed to facilitate memorization.

With respect to the key terms lists, I called attention to the remarks that implied they were to be memorized. I included examples of texts and summaries to show their design relates to memorization. I also briefly examine some exercises from earlier editions that have been relegated at first to CDs and more recently to the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* website

I treated the glossaries as complementary to the word lists in the sense that they provided the definitions that needed to be memorized. My primary concern was with the research terms defined in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 and I devoted most of my attention to them. These terms were analyzed with respect to their accuracy, clarity and coherence—the extent to which memorizing them would correspond to a viable understanding of the concepts. Since many of the definitions did not seem to be “technical,” I used ordinary dictionary definitions as a measure of the extent to which they could be counted as learning Communication Studies concepts. In this chapter, I only noted the definitions of communication competence skills characterized by performance “advice” since they were analyzed in chapter 2.

## 6.3 - FINDINGS

### *Glossaries and Lists of Key Terms*

The Introduction to *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 describes these learning tools in the following way:

**Key Terms and Glossaries.** A list of key terms at the end of each chapter will help you review the major terms discussed in the chapter. These terms are accompanied by references to the pages of the text on which they're introduced and defined. In addition, a combined glossary of concepts and skills provides brief definitions of the significant concepts in the study of human communication and of communication *skills*. (2012, p. xviii)

In *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 there are approximately 1200 definitions in the glossary. They can be categorized as terms derived from:

1. Korzybski's list of extensional devices (11)
2. dictionary definitions (80)
3. communication competence skills (114)
4. public speaking techniques (130)
5. communication research (855)

As the annotation quoted above makes clear, the glossary and the list of key terms are intended to be used together “to help [students] further master the vocabulary of human communication.” Since the key terms are merely listed, the glossary serves as a summary of the discussion of them in the chapter. With respect to the definitions in the glossary:

- 80 of the definitions in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 are equivalent to dictionary definitions. Some of the terms, defined in ordinary language, depart from dictionary meanings but cannot be considered technical terms:
- 160 of the terms defined are accompanied by “advice”:
- 130 of the terms defined concern techniques of public speaking
- 855 of the terms defined concern theory and research:

My analysis of the definitions led to several conclusions:

### *Non-technical definitions*

The definitions that do not differ from dictionary definitions cannot be considered declarative knowledge relevant to COMMUNICATION STUDIES.

### *Definitions accompanied by advice*

Of the definitions accompanied by advice 36 pertained to communication competence and 99 to theory and research. The advice accompanying the theory/research definitions was not about conducting research or constructing theories but about communication competence. In effect, these definitions paired declarative knowledge with procedural knowledge. In this context, they reflect the orientation of the textbook toward student interests. Including advice about everyday communicating together with a definition of a technical term makes these entries transposable and has the effect of making all 135 definitions conceptions of everyday experiences. For example:

Assertiveness. Willingness to stand up for **your** own rights while respecting the rights of others. *Increase **your own** assertiveness by analyzing the assertive messages of others, rehearsing assertive messages, and communicating assertively by describing the problem, saying how the problem affects **you**, proposing solutions, confirming **your** understanding, and reflecting on **your own** assertiveness* (emphasis mine).

Contrast this definition with Andrew S. Rancer's exposition of the concept in his *Encyclopedia of Communication Theory* article:

*Assertiveness* is considered a constructive **trait** because it involves **verbal and nonverbal symbols** to exert control, obtain justified rewards, and stand up for one's rights. Individuals who are assertive can use symbols aggressively but tend to do so in socially acceptable ways. (2009, p. 45, emphasis mine)

Whereas the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* definition repeatedly directs the definition and advice to students by the use of "you" and "your," Rancer uses the expression "one's rights" and includes several technical terms—trait, verbal and nonverbal symbols.

### *Definitions related to public speaking*

The public speaking techniques terms were not analyzed because I am concerned primarily with terms related to the research areas of COMMUNICATION STUDIES.

### *Definitions related to theory and research*

The definitions of theory and research terms present a number of problems:

- Some conceptions are defined and/or described without citing any authority. Of those a number are not technical and could be found in dictionaries;
- Some are defined in ordinary language and the specialized usage is obscured;
- Some are misleading;
- Some are confusing because they are un-contextualized. [GO TO DATA](#)

## Summaries

There are 18 summaries of the contents of each chapter. As the Introduction to *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* notes, “a summary reviews the essential concepts and principles covered in the chapter” (p. xvii). They are brief statements that present the main points of the chapter in a concise form. As is made clear in the comment about the summaries in mycommunicationlab, the online companion to the printed edition: “Every chapter includes an audio summary that can be streamed online, perfect for students reviewing material before a test or instructors reviewing material before class” (p. xxi). This comment makes it clear that the function of summaries in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* is to memorize the main points in a chapter.

[GO TO DATA](#)

## Objective tests

In addition, mycommunicationlab offers the instructor:

A powerful homework and test manager. A powerful homework and test manager lets you create, import, and manage online homework assignments, quizzes, and tests that are automatically graded. You can choose from a wide range of assignment options, including time limits, proctoring, and maximum number of attempts allowed. The bottom line: MyLab means less time grading and more time teaching.

<http://www.pearsonmylabandmastering.com/northamerica/mycommunicationlab/educators/features/index.html>

And offers the student:

Study Tools: Chapter pre- and post-tests, and chapter exams, videos, and video quizzes assist you in focusing on what you need to know, helping you succeed in the course and beyond.

Digital Flashcards: Ditch the index cards. Your own set of digital flashcards in MyLab lets you study key terms and concepts.

<http://www.pearsonmylabandmastering.com/northamerica/mycommunicationlab/students/features/index.html>

Judging from the printed tests, the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series features “objective tests” such as: fill in the blanks, multiple choice, and matching columns tests. The fact that the tests in later editions can be automatically graded suggests that the tests in MyLab are also “objective.”

[GO TO DATA](#)

## 6.4 - DISCUSSION

A premise of this study is that learning is not memorization. Obviously, memory is involved in learning but memorizing does not constitute learning. In *Applying Cognitive Science to Education*, Frederick Reif identifies one of the obstacles to acquiring the knowledge and thought processes required for a good scientific performance—prior knowledge. In particular the kind of prior knowledge “so mindlessly remembered that it is carried out without significant thought and is thus utterly inflexible” leading to “rote performances” (p. 18).<sup>1</sup>

### *Lists of Key Terms*

At the end of each chapter in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, a list of "KEY TERMS" is provided with the annotation: "flash cards are available online at MyCommunicationLab ([www.mycommunicationlab.com](http://www.mycommunicationlab.com)) to help you further master the vocabulary of human communication" (2012, p. 26). The reference to flash cards makes clear the expectation that these terms will be memorized. But, as learning theorists point out, remembering the meaning of concepts does not enable students to use them correctly.

In addition, definitions are extremely limited in their representation of the meaning of concepts. For example, the term, “unknown self,” which is a key term in chapter 3 on “The Self and Perception,” is defined in the glossary as “That self that contains information not known to either the person himself or herself or to others” (p. 444). That “unknown self” is a quadrant of the Johari Window which was conceived by Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham in 1955 and drawn from *Group Processes: An Introduction* (Luft & Ingham, 1955) is omitted. Even though they are included in the glossary, it would be difficult for a student to know how to use this concept without knowing that the other selves—open self, blind self, and hidden self—are quadrants of the Johari Window. The meaning of the concept depends upon its relations to the other selves.

### *Glossary*

As I noted in the previous section, the glossary is intended to aid students in mastering the vocabulary of COMMUNICATION STUDIES. One would then expect the terms in it to correspond to concepts used in communication research.

#### **Korzybski's list of extensional devices (11)**

#### **Dictionary definitions (80)**

The definitions of extensional devices in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* are not different from ordinary dictionary definitions. There are 80 additional terms in the glossary whose definitions do not differ significantly from dictionary definitions.

Part of the rationale for a glossary is that research terminology is specialized. Definitions equivalent to dictionary definitions do not constitute a learning tool for Communication Study .

### Communication competence skills (114)

36 of the communication skills in the glossary are accompanied with advice in italics. 99 of the definitions of terms associated with communication research include advice. This is consistent with the view of communication research in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, that research conceptions are the basis of communication skills. As I noted in chapter 2, each chapter of *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* begins with a table matching research conceptions discussed in the chapter with the communication skills they might engender. Recall the dual purpose of *Human Communication: The Basic Course*: on the one hand, to cover the field of communication study; and, on the other, to hone student's communication skills. In my earlier examination of the declarative and procedural matches, I noted that if research concepts used in everyday situations do not convey the situated meaning of the research concepts and are reduced to the way the situation is conceived in everyday life, then, as a result, the concepts learned are about everyday life. That analysis can be extended to the glossary.

### Public speaking techniques (130)

The terms in the glossary related to public speaking are not analyzed here because I am concerned primarily with terms related to communication research. A number of concepts in the public speaking chapters are technical terms in COMMUNICATION STUDIES, for example, "statistics" which is included in chapter 15 of *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*: "Supporting and Organizing Your Speech" (see the next section). I treated them as I did the theory and research definitions.

### Communication research (855)

In addition to the general problem that memorizing concepts presents in terms of understanding them, there are other problems with memorizing the definitions in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*.

- *Some conceptions are defined and/or described without citing any authority. Of those a number are not technical and could be found in dictionaries:*

**semantiCommunication Studies:** The area of language study concerned with meaning.

**intrapersonal communication:** Communication with yourself

**model:** A representation of an object or process.

- *Some conceptions are defined in ordinary language and the specialized usage is obscured:*

**argumentativeness:** Willingness to argue for a point of view, to speak your mind.

**argumenativeness:** Given to arguing; disputatious; Of or characterized by argument.

- *Some are misleading:*

**statistiCommunication Studies** Summary numbers such as the mean (or average) or the median (or most common score).

Discussed in chapter 15: "Supporting and Organizing Your Speech," statistiCommunication Studies is described in the chapter as follows:

Statistics, on the other hand, are summary figures that help you communicate the important characteristic of a complex set of numbers such as the mean (the average—the average grade on the test was 86), the mode (the most frequent score in an array—more students scored 85 than any other grade), percentages (the portion of a total, expressed as a portion of 100—96 percent of the students passed). For example, you might compare the percentage of a tuition increase at your school to the national average or to the rate of inflation. To illustrate the growth of instant messaging or twitter as a means of communication, you might note the percentage that usage has grown over the last few years.

In a speech on auto safety, Meagan Hagensick of Wartburg College used numbers effectively to drive home the importance of seat belts (Schnoor, 2008):

One fatality every 13 minutes. One injury every 10 seconds. One accident every 5 seconds. Six million crashes. 2.8 million injuries. 43,000 people killed each year. These numbers are not spawned from a deadly virus or new strain of bacteria; they are the result of avoidable human error. (2012, p. 321)

By contrast, Jaccard and Jacobi in their 2010 textbook, *Theory Construction and Model Building Skills: A Practical Guide for Social Scientists*, offer an appendix, "Inferring Theoretical Relationships from the Choice of Statistical Tests" which describes twelve different statistical methods (2010, pp. 347-354).

- *Some are confusing because they are un-contextualized:*

One of the functions of the glossary is to provide a reminder of a conception discussed in the text. In the case of the unknown self, the glossary definition is un-contextualized. Compare the text of the chapter in which the concept is discussed:

The unknown self represents those parts of yourself that neither you nor others know. This is information that is buried in your subconscious. You may, for example, learn of your obsession with money, your fear of criticism, or the kind of lover you are through hypnosis, dreams, psychological tests, or psychotherapy. (DeVito, 2012, p. 53)

With the glossary definition:

**unknown self:** That self that contains information not known to either the person himself or herself or to others.

Without the context of the subconscious in the glossary definition, it would be difficult to recall that the unknown self is related to the subconscious. In addition, the definition of the "unknown self" in both texts is not identified as one of quadrants in the Johari window. Nor are the other three, the open, the blind, and the hidden selves referred to in the definition of "unknown" self. The definition of the "unknown" self is not associated with the Johari window.

The discussions of key terms in the text of the chapter accompanied by glossary definitions of them is intended to provide a means of "master[ing] the vocabulary of human communication" (2012, p. 26). However, the net effect of emphasizing key terms as vocabulary items is to reduce the discussions to the simplified definitions. Obviously, the definitions of terms are much easier to memorize than the discussions of them in the chapters. The objective tests do not ask students to match the terms with lengthy discussion of them. Instead students are asked to match them with even briefer definitions than the glossary provides. This pedagogy is reductive in the sense that students are motivated to understand simplistic conceptions of research terminologies. In other words, their education is even worse than that of Feynman's students.

### *The effects of disciplinary isolation*

The definition of the "unknown self" brings up the overlap between definitions in different conceptual domains—in this case psychology and communication. As I mentioned in the previous section the conception of the unknown self is a component in the Johari window which was introduced by the American psychologists Joseph Luft and Harry Ingram in 1955. The definition of the unknown self discussed in the previous section is taken from the glossary of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 some 57 years later. Although the Johari Window is still used in business circles, defining it as a part of the self that is "buried in the subconscious" renders its status as a psychological concept questionable.

The concept of the subconscious is usually attributed to Freud:

subconscious 1. *adj.* denoting mental processes that occur outside consciousness. 2. *n.* in Sigmund FREUD's structural model, the concept of the mind beneath the level of consciousness, comprising the PRECONSCIOUS and the UNCONSCIOUS. (APA Dictionary of Psychology, VandenBos, 2007, p. 902)

I have been using Daniel Reisberg's *Cognition: Exploring the Science of the Mind* as my standard for conceptions related to the mind. Judging from the fact that he never mentions the subconscious, we might infer that he regards the concept as, in some sense, outdated. Though a psychologist, his view is drawn from the neuroscientific research on consciousness. (2010, pp. 512-514).

Activities like thinking, remembering, and categorizing all feel quick and effortless. You instantly recognize the words on this page; you easily remember where you were this morning; you have no trouble deciding to have cheddar on your sandwich, not Swiss. As we've seen throughout this book, however, these (and other) intellectual activities are possible only because of an elaborate "support structure"-processes and mechanisms working "behind the scenes." Indeed, describing this behind-the-scenes action has been one of the main concerns of this text.

Psychologists refer to this behind-the-scenes activity as the cognitive unconscious-mental activity that you're not aware of but that makes possible your ordinary interactions with the world.

The concept of the "cognitive unconscious" has for Reisberg and others supplanted the concepts of the subconscious and unconscious. The adjective "cognitive" makes it clear that the processes to which he refers are *cognitive*, even though they are processes of which we are no longer aware because they have become automatic.

In this context, it needs to be noted that, in his "Critiques of Traditional Theories of Dreams" chapter of *The Scientific Study of Dreams*, G. William Domhoff writes: "the chapter discusses every major claim made by Freud and Jung, none of which stands up against the empirical evidence that is available" (2003, p. 135). The fact that Freud's views are currently contested opens up an opportunity to consider conceptual change in an important area.

### *Concluding remark*

As this chapter argues, learning tools by definition should enhance the learning process; but, in the context of Reif's observation that prior knowledge mindlessly remembered is an obstacle to learning, the rote memorizing of concepts built into this textbook qualifies as such an obstacle. For example, memorizing definitions reinforces the belief that technical terms have stable, fixed, and definitive meanings. This belief hinders learning to think like a scientist because conceptual change is at the heart of scientific inquiry (Kuhn, 1962, 1977; 2000; Shapere, 1977; Thagard, 1992; Thagard & Findlay, 2012; Toulmin, 1972).

## 6.5 - FUTURE RESEARCH

Although there are numerous learning theorists who have been working on answers to the questions: what works as learning tools and why, I notice the absence of an area of research in COMMUNICATION STUDIES that would be appropriately entitled, “learning as communication.” This is an area of research that has been neglected in COMMUNICATION STUDIES.

There are many other questions that an analysis of the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* textbook series bring to our attention but which a discourse analysis cannot answer. They involve reasons for omitting or including certain conceptions or procedures. Recognizing that these questions are unanswerable given our methodological procedures, they nonetheless need to be answered with further research using different methods. This circumstance prompts the next question.

### *The next question:*

What happened “behind closed doors” in the publication of the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series?

## 6.6 - DATA APPENDIX

In *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 there are approximately 1200 definitions in the glossary. They can be categorized as terms derived from:

1. Korzybski's list of extensional devices (11)
2. dictionary definitions (80)
3. communication competence skills (114)
4. public speaking techniques (130)
5. communication research (855)

- *18 of the terms defined concern extensional devices:*

In *The Communication Handbook: A Dictionary*, DeVito offers the following definition of extensional device:

**Extensional Devices.** Linguistic devices proposed by Alfred Korzybski (1879- 1950) for making language a more accurate means for talking about the world. The extensional devices include the working devices *etc.* (q.v.), *date* (q.v.), and *index* (q.v.), and the safety devices *hyphen* (q.v.) and *quotes* (q.v.). [Alfred Korzybski, (1933) *Science and sanity; an introduction to non-*

*Aristotelian systems and general semantics.* (Lakeville, Conn.: The International Non-Aristotelian Library.] ( DeVito, 1986)

In *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012, he repeats the 1986 definition drawn from Korzybski's 1933 book accompanied by the advice to think "mindfully with these devices in mind":

**extensional device:** Linguistic device to help make language a more accurate means for talking about the world. Proposed by Alfred Korzybski, the extensional devices include etcetera, date, and index, among others. *Thinking mindfully with these devices in mind.*

The following definitions of these devices appear in *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012:

**date:** An **extensional device** used to emphasize the notion of constant change and symbolized by a mental subscript: for example, John Smith 1999 is not John Smith 2008. Use the date (verbally or mentally) to guard against static evaluation.

**et cetera:** An **extensional device** used to emphasize the notion of infinite complexity; because we can never know all about anything, we should end any statement about the world or an event with an explicit or implicit "etc." Think with the etc., being mindful that there is more to say, see, hear, etc.

**hyphen:** An **extensional device** used to illustrate that what may be separated verbally may not be separable on the event level or on the nonverbal level; although we may talk about body and mind as if they were separable, in reality they are better referred to as body-mind.

**index:** An **extensional device** used to emphasize the notion of nonidentity (no two things are the same) and symbolized by a mental subscript-for example, politician 1 is not politician 2

**quotes:** An **extensional device** to emphasize that a word or phrase is being used in a special sense and should therefore be given special attention.

It is difficult to see how these definitions would seem different from ordinary dictionary definitions.

- *80 of the definitions in Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012 are equivalent to dictionary definitions:*

Part of the rationale for a glossary is that research terminology is specialized. Definitions equivalent to dictionary definitions do not constitute a learning tool for COMMUNICATION STUDIES. For example:

**jargon:** The technical language of any specialized group, often a professional class, that is unintelligible to individuals not belonging to the group; "shop talk."

**accent:** The stress or emphasis placed on a syllable when it is pronounced.

**attractiveness:** The degree to which a person is perceived to be physically appealing and to possess a pleasing personality.

**censorship:** Restriction on people's rights to produce, distribute, and/ or receive various communications.

**cliché:** An overused expression that has lost its novelty and part of its meaning and that calls attention to itself because of its overuse, such as "tall, dark, and handsome" as a description of a man.

**pitch:** The highness or lowness of the vocal tone.

**model:** A representation of an object or process.

**plagiarism:** The act of passing off the work of someone else as your own without acknowledging the source.

**pronunciation:** The production of syllables or words according to some accepted standard; for example, as presented in a dictionary.

- *Some of the terms are defined in ordinary language, but are not technical:*

**Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012 jealousy:** A reaction to relationship threats.

**Merriam-Webster jealousy:** an unhappy or angry feeling of wanting to have what someone else has; an unhappy or angry feeling caused by the belief that someone you love (such as your husband or wife) likes or is liked by someone else.

**Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012 punishment:** Noxious or aversive stimulation.

**Merriam-Webster punishment:** the act of punishing someone or a way of punishing someone

**Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012 narrative:** A long example presented in the form of an anecdote or short story, for example, Aesop's fables.

**Merriam-Webster narrative:** something that is narrated: story, account; the art or practice of narration; the representation in art of an event or story; *also* : an example of such a representation.

- *135 of the terms defined are accompanied by "advice":*

36 of the communication skills in the glossary are accompanied with advice in italics, for example:

**active listening:** A process of putting together into some meaningful whole the listener's understanding of the speaker's total message—the verbal and the nonverbal, the content and the feelings. *If you wish to listen actively, paraphrase the speaker's meaning, express understanding of the speaker's feelings, and ask questions when you need something clarified.*

**cherishing behaviors:** Small behaviors we enjoy receiving from others, especially from our relational partner—for example, a kiss, a smile, or a gift of flowers. *Exchanging such behaviors is one way of increasing relationship satisfaction.*

99 of the definitions of terms associated with communication research include advice. For example:

**abstraction:** A general concept derived from a class of objects; a partial representation of some whole. *Use both abstract and specific terms when describing or explaining.*

**abstraction process:** The process by which a general concept is derived from specifics; the process by which some (never all) characteristics of an object, person, or event are perceived by the senses or included in some term, phrase, or sentence. *Use both abstract and specific terms when describing or explaining.*

**accommodation:** The process of adjusting your communication patterns to those with whom you're interacting. *Accommodate to the speaking style of your listeners in moderation; too much mirroring of the other's style may appear manipulative.*

**assertiveness:** Willingness to stand up for your own rights while respecting the rights of others. *Increase your own assertiveness by analyzing the assertive messages of others, rehearsing assertive messages, and communicating assertively by describing the problem, saying how the problem affects you, proposing solutions, confirming your understanding, and reflecting on your own assertiveness.*

**channel:** The vehicle or medium through which signals are sent. *Assess your channel options (for example, speaking face-to-face, sending e-mail, or leaving a voicemail message when you know the person won't be home) before communicating important messages.*

This is consistent with the view of communication research in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, that research conceptions are the basis of communication skills.

In effect, definitions of technical terms accompanied by advice about how to behave are pairings of declarative and procedural knowledge. For reasons discussed in Chapter 2, the pairings do not constitute belief transformations.

- *130 of the terms defined concern techniques of public speaking*

The public speaking techniques terms are not analyzed because I am concerned primarily with terms related to the research areas of COMMUNICATION STUDIES.

- *855 of the terms defined concern theory and research:*

The bulk of terms defined in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*'s glossary are taken from communication research. Many of the definitions parallel those of the researchers but there are several

problems with memorizing them to obtain an understanding of COMMUNICATION STUDIES which I outline in FINDINGS.

- *Many of the terms defined are also listed as KEY TERMS:*

At the end of each chapter in *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, a list of "KEY TERMS" is provided with the annotation:

In addition, flash cards are available online at MyCommunicationLab to help you further master the vocabulary of human communication. (*Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012*, 26)

The reference to flash cards makes it clear that the expectation is that these terms will be memorized.

- *Some concern communication skills*

In *Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012* communication skills are emphasized. In Chapter 2 on "content" I analyzed these in some detail. So, I will not repeat my analysis here.

#### [RETURN TO FINDINGS](#)

[Example of a \*Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012\* summary from Chapter 1:](#)

The summary of Chapter 1 is basically an outline of the chapter featuring definitions of key terms.

### **Benefits and Forms of Human Communication**

- Communication is the act, by one or more persons, of sending and receiving messages that occur within a context, are distorted by noise, have some effect (and some ethical dimension), and provide some opportunity for feedback.
- Communication study will enable you to improve your presentation skills, relationship skills, interaction skills, thinking skills, and leadership skills.
- The major types of human communication are intrapersonal, interpersonal, small group, organizational, public, computer-mediated, and mass communication.

### **Elements of Human Communication**

- The communication context has at least four dimensions: physical, social-psychological, temporal, and cultural.
- Sources-Receivers are the individuals communicating, sending and receiving messages.
- Messages may be of varied forms and may be sent and received through any combination of sensory organs. The communication channel is the medium through which the messages are sent.
- Metamessages are messages about messages; feedback messages are those messages that are sent back to the source and may come from the source itself or from the receiver; and feed forward messages are those that preface other messages and may be used to open the channels of communication.
- The communication channel is the medium through which the messages are sent.
- Noise is anything that distorts a message; it's present to some degree in every communication transaction and may be physical, physiological, psychological, or semantic in origin.
- Communication always has an effect which may be cognitive, affective, or psychomotor or a combination.

### **Principles of Human Communication**

- Communication is multi-purposeful; we use communication to discover, to relate, to help, to persuade, and to play.
- Communication is a transactional process in which each person simultaneously sends and receives messages.
- Communication is normally a package of signals, each reinforcing the other. Opposing communication signals from the same source result in contradictory messages.
- Communication is a process of adjustment and takes place only to the extent that the communicators use the same system of signals.
- Communication involves both content dimensions and relationship dimensions.
- Communication is ambiguous; messages can often be interpreted in different ways.
- Communication is punctuated; different people divide up the communication sequence into stimuli and responses differently.
- Communication is inevitable, irreversible, and unrepeatable: (1) In any interaction situation, communication is inevitable; you can't avoid communication, nor can you not respond to communication; (2) You can't uncommunicate; and (3) You can't duplicate a

<p>previous communication act.</p> <p><b>The Competent Communicator</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Communication competence is knowledge of the elements and rules of communication, which vary from one culture to another.</li> <li>• The competent communicator is defined as one who thinks critically and mindfully, understands the role of power, is culturally sensitive, is ethical, and is an effective listener.</li> </ul>
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**Table 1**

[RETURN TO FINDINGS](#)

Example of a test from an earlier edition of *Human Communication: The Basic Course*.

**VOCABULARY QUIZ: The Language of Interpersonal Communication**

<p>Match the terms of interpersonal communication with their definitions. Record the number of the definition next to the appropriate term.</p> <p>_____ interpersonal communication</p> <p>_____ captology</p> <p>_____ feedback</p> <p>_____ ambiguity</p> <p>_____ cultural context</p> <p>_____ feedforward</p> <p>_____ relationship messages</p> <p>_____ source–receiver</p> <p>_____ encoding</p> <p>_____ communication as a transactional process</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Messages sent back to the source in response to the source's messages.</li> <li>2. Each person in the interpersonal communication act.</li> <li>3. Information about messages that are yet to be sent.</li> <li>4. Presence of more than one potential meaning.</li> <li>5. The rules and norms, beliefs and attitudes of the people communicating.</li> <li>6. Communication as an ongoing process in which each part depends on each other part.</li> <li>7. Communication that takes place between persons who have a relationship.</li> <li>8. Messages referring to the connection between the two people communicating.</li> <li>9. The study of the persuasive power of computer-mediated communication.</li> <li>10. The process of sending messages; for example, in speaking or writing.</li> </ol>
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**Table 2**

These ten terms and additional terms used in this chapter can be found in the glossary and on flashcards on MyCommunicationKit ([www.mycommunicationkit.com](http://www.mycommunicationkit.com)).

[GO TO DISCUSSION](#)

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## Notes

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<sup>1</sup> Ambrose, et. al. in *How Learning Works* confirms Reif's view of the effects of "prior knowledge" on learning (Ambrose, 2010, pp. 11-15)

## 7.0 - Behind Closed Doors

This chapter contains questions that have occurred to me in the course of my examination of the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series but which cannot be answered by Logistical Discourse Analysis and require other methods, e.g., interviews with DeVito and his editors.

I charted the appearance of conceptions in the glossaries of the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series. This raised several questions I was not able to answer:

- Why are certain terms omitted and then later returned to the glossary?
- Why are conceptions which are still current and which were included in early editions dropped out?
- Why do the conceptions of differing types of love appear and disappear in the glossaries?
- Why do some concepts appear *only* in the 12<sup>th</sup> edition? {See those highlighted in gray.}

[XX] = introduction or modification of concepts, [XX] = repetition of previous definition, **concept** = added to the 12<sup>th</sup> edition

Terms Defined	1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	4 <sup>th</sup>	5 <sup>th</sup>	6 <sup>th</sup>	7 <sup>th</sup>	8 <sup>th</sup>	9 <sup>th</sup>	10 <sup>th</sup>	11 <sup>th</sup>	12 <sup>th</sup>
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011
<b>5 W Pattern</b>											[XX]
A	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
ableism											[XX]
abstraction	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
abstraction process		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]							
accent	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
acceptance speech											[XX]
accommodation		[XX]	[XX]								[XX]
acculturation				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					[XX]
action language	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]							[XX]	[XX]
active listening			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
adaptors		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]							
adjustment		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]							
advantages and disadvantages of relationships											[XX]
affect displays		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]							
affiliative cues											[XX]
affinity-seeking strategies					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
affirmation							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]
agape					[XX]	[XX]					[XX]
ageism									[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
agenda							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
agenda-setting			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
aggressiveness					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
allness	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
alter-adaptors							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
altercast [ing]				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
ambiguity	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
ambiguity tolerance											[XX]
amount of change principle											[XX]
analogy, reasoning from					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
anecdotal evidence											[XX]
anger management											[XX]
antithesis											[XX]
antithetical sentences			[XX]								[XX]
apology						[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
apology, speech of										[XX]	[XX]
Appeals for the suspension of judgment					[XX]	[XX]					

appeal to authority												[XX]
appeal to numbers												[XX]
appeal to tradition												[XX]
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apprehension					[XX]							
arbitrariness		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
Argot	[XX]											
argument					[XX]							
argumentativeness					[XX]							
articulation			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
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assertiveness					[XX]							
assertiveness training group												[XX]
assimilation			[XX]									
asynchronous												[XX]
attack						[XX]						
attention	[XX]											
attitude	[XX]											
attraction		[XX]										
attraction theory					[XX]							
attractiveness, prin of			[XX]				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
attribution			[XX]									
attribution theory							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
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audience participation principle			[XX]									
authoritarian leader	[XX]											
avoidance			[XX]									
B	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011	
	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	
backchanneling cues					[XX]							
balance		[XX]										
bandwagon						[XX]						
barriers to communication						[XX]						
batons		[XX]										
Behavioral approach to organizations					[XX]	[XX]						
behavioral synchrony			[XX]									
belief	[XX]											
beltlining			[XX]									
biological time			[XX]									
biorhythms			[XX]									
bit of information	[XX]	[XX]										
blame			[XX]									
blind self			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						[XX]
blinding	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
body English	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
body language	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
boundary marker			[XX]									
brainstorming	[XX]											
breadth			[XX]									
bromide sentences			[XX]	[XX]								
bypassing	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
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C	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	
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card stacking						[XX]						
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ensorship		[XX]	[XX]				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
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claim and proof pattern												[XX]
clearance					[XX]	[XX]						
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COIK	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
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colloquy			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
color communication							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
commencement speech										[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
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communication apprehension							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
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congruence						[XX]						
connotation	[XX]											
conscious raising group					[XX]	[XX]						
consensus			[XX]									
consistency			[XX]									
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C	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	
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content message									[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
context of communication	[XX]											
contrast (principle of)									[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
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conversation					[XX]							
conversational management								[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]

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cooperation principle					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]				
cosmopolitan leader		[XX]	[XX]								
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credentialing					[XX]	[XX]					
credibility	[XX]										
credibility appeals											[XX]
credibility gap		[XX]	[XX]								
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critical thinking					[XX]						
critical thinking hats technique					[XX]						
criticism					[XX]						
crossed transactions	[XX]	0000									
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cultural approach to organizations				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
cultural display							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
cultural imperialism						[XX]					
cultural rules							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
cultural time			[XX]								
cultural transmission				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
Culture	[XX]										
culture shock			[XX]								
											[XX]
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011
D	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
date	[XX]										
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decoding	[XX]										
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defensiveness				[XX]							
definition											[XX]
delayed reactions	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]				[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
delegating style											[XX]
delivery outline											[XX]
Delphi method					[XX]						
demassification			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
democratic leader	[XX]										
denial							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
denotation	[XX]										
depenetration					[XX]						
depth			[XX]								
deterioration					[XX]						
determinism		[XX]	[XX]				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
dialect	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
dialogue					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
differential probability hypothesis		[XX]									
diffused time orientation			[XX]								
diffusion of innovation theory			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
digital communication		[XX]	[XX]								
direct message											[XX]
direct speech					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	
directive function of communication		[XX]	[XX]								
disclaimer [ing]					[XX]						
disconfirmation		[XX]									
discretness		[XX]									
disinhibition effect											[XX]
displaced speech	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
displaced time orientation			[XX]								
displacement				[XX]							
display rules											[XX]
dissolution <<7e					[XX]						
dissonance	[XX]	[XX]									

distinctiveness			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
dogmatism		[XX]	[XX]								
door-in-the-face technique										[XX]	[XX]
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downward talk				[XX]	[XX]						
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Duchenne smile											[XX]
dyadic communication	[XX]										
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dyadic effect			[XX]								
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dysfunctional effects of mass communication	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011
E	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
earmarker			[XX]								
ectomorphy		[XX]	[XX]								
effect					[XX]						
ego states		[XX]	[XX]								
elementalism	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
emblematic movements		[XX]									
emblems		[XX]									
emergent leader											[XX]
emotion					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	
emotional appeals											[XX]
emotional communication											[XX]
emotional display											[XX]
emotional understanding											[XX]
emotionality in interpersonal communication											[XX]
emotions											[XX]
emotive function of communication		[XX]									
Empathy	[XX]										
employment interview			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]			
encoder	[XX]										
encoding	[XX]										
encounter groups											[XX]
enculturation			[XX]								
endomorph		[XX]	[XX]								
entropy	[XX]	[XX]									
E-prime	[XX]										
equality		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
equilibrium theory						[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
equity theory			[XX]								
Erotic love (eros)					[XX]	[XX]					[XX]
et cetera	[XX]										
ethicizing function of communication	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
ethics	[XX]										
ethnic identity										[XX]	[XX]
ethnocentrism			[XX]								
ethos	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
etymology											[XX]
eulogy										[XX]	[XX]
euphemism			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
evaluation	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
example											[XX]
exclu[deing/sive] talk						[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
excuse						[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
exit interview			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]			
expectancy violations theory						[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
experiential limitation	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]				[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
expert power					[XX]						
expressiveness			[XX]								
extemporaneous speech	[XX]										
extensional device	[XX]										
extensional orientation	[XX]										

extrinsic credibility		[XX]	[XX]									
eye communication						[XX]						
eye movements												[XX]
												[XX]
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011	
F	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	
face-attacking conflict strategies												[XX]
face-enhancing conflict strategies												[XX]
face-saving						[XX]						
facial feedback hypothesis						[XX]						
facial management techniques						[XX]						
facial messages												[XX]
fact, questions of											[XX]	[XX]
fact-inference confusion	[XX]											
factual statement	[XX]											
faith		[XX]										
fallacies of language												[XX]
family							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
farewell speech											[XX]	[XX]
fear appeal		[XX]	[XX]			[XX]						
feedback	[XX]											
feedforward				[XX]								
feminine culture												[XX]
fiction-fact pattern												[XX]
field of experience	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
flexibility						[XX]						
flirting												[XX]
focus group						[XX]						
foot-in-the-door technique											[XX]	[XX]
force			[XX]									
forum			[XX]									
free information			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
friendship						[XX]						
friendship of other gratification												
friendship of self-gratification												
friendship or virtue												
frozen evaluation	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
functional approach to leadership						[XX]						
fundamental attribution error						[XX]						
												[XX]
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011	
G	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	
gain-loss theory			[XX]									
game	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]				[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
gatekeeping	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
gender												[XX]
general semantics	[XX]											
ghostwriting		[XX]	[XX]									
glittering generality							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
gobbledygook			[XX]									[XX]
goodwill speech											[XX]	[XX]
gossip					[XX]							
grammar	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
granfallon						[XX]						
grapevine			[XX]									
group	[XX]											
group norms					[XX]							
group self-esteem									[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
groupthink			[XX]									
gunnsacking			[XX]									
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011	
H	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	
halo effect							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
haptics			[XX]									
hedging					[XX]	[XX]						

heterophily		[XX]										
heterosexist language				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
hidden self			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						[XX]
hierarchy of needs												[XX]
high-context culture					[XX]							
high-order abstraction	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									[XX]
high-power-distance culture									[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
home field advantage						[XX]						
home territories			[XX]									
homophily		[XX]										
honorific	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
horns effect												[XX]
hostile environment harassment										[XX]		[XX]
Human relations approach to organizations			[XX]	[XX]								
Humanistic model of interpersonal effectiveness			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]							
hyperbole												[XX]
hyphen	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]		[XX]						
												[XX]
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I	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	
iconic signals		[XX]	[XX]									
idea-generation group					[XX]							
identification	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									[XX]
ideographs		[XX]										
idiolect	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
idioms												[XX]
illustration												[XX]
illustrators		[XX]										
I-messages					[XX]							
immanent reference, principle of		[XX]	[XX]									
immediacy			[XX]									
implicit personality theory			[XX]									
impression formation												[XX]
impression management												[XX]
imprinting												
impromptu speech	[XX]											
improvement group						[XX]						
inclusion principle				[XX]			[XX]		[XX]	[XX]		
inclusive talk					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]		
index	[XX]											
indirect messages												[XX]
indirect speech					[XX]							
indiscrimination	[XX]											
individual orientation					[XX]	[XX]						[XX]
individual roles (in groups)												[XX]
individualist culture							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
inevitability			[XX]									
inferential statement	[XX]											
informal time terms							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
information	[XX]											
information interview			[XX]									
information overload			[XX]									
information power					[XX]							
information sharing groups						[XX]						[XX]
informative interview				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						[XX]
informative speech												[XX]
in-group talk				[XX]	[XX]							
initial credibility		[XX]	[XX]									
inoculation principle			[XX]		[XX]							
inspirational speech												[XX]
insulation			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
intensional orientation	[XX]											
interaction diagrams	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
interaction management			[XX]									
interaction territories			[XX]									
interaction process analysis	[XX]											

	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011
I	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
interchangeability		[XX]	[XX]								
intercultural communication			[XX]								
interdependency											[XX]
interethnic communication			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
international communication			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
interpersonal communication	[XX]										
interpersonal conflict	[XX]										
interpersonal perception					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	
interracial comm			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
interruptions											[XX]
interview[ing]			[XX]								
intimacy					[XX]						
intimacy claims							[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
intimate distance		[XX]									
intrapersonal communication	[XX]										
intrinsic credibility		[XX]	[XX]								
introduction, speech of											[XX]
introductions										[XX]	[XX]
invasion			[XX]								
involvement [stage]					[XX]						
irony											[XX]
irreversibility			[XX]								
											[XX]
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J	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
jargon	[XX]										
jealousy											[XX]
Johari window					[XX]						
just world hypothesis											[XX]
											[XX]
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011
K	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
kinesics	[XX]										
knowledge gap hypothesis						[XX]					
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011
L	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
laissez-faire leader	[XX]										
language	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
language relativity hypothesis			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
lateral communication			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
leadership			[XX]								
learnability		[XX]	[XX]								
leave-taking cues							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
legitimate power					[XX]						
level of abstraction	[XX]										
leveling			[XX]								
linguistic collusion			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
linguistic determinism	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
linguistic relativity	[XX]	[XX]									
Linguistics	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
listening		[XX]									
local leader		[XX]	[XX]								
logic					[XX]						
looking-glass self					[XX]						
loving		[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
low-context culture					[XX]						
low-order abstraction	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
low-power-distance culture									[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
ludus love					[XX]	[XX]					[XX]
lying											[XX]
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011
M	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
macroscopic approach to communication	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								

Magnitude of change principle			[XX]									
maintenance							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
maintenance strategies							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
mania												[XX]
manic love					[XX]	[XX]						
manipulation			[XX]									
manuscript speech	[XX]											
markers			[XX]									
masculine and feminine cultures								[XX]				[XX]
mass communication	[XX]											
matching hypothesis			[XX]									
meaningfulness						[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
mediated communication									[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
mentoring										[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
mere exposure hypothesis		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
mesomorphy		[XX]	[XX]									
message	[XX]											
message isolation										[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
meta-advice												[XX]
metacommunication	[XX]											
metalanguage	[XX]											
metamessage				[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
metaphor												[XX]
metaskills					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]			
metonymy												[XX]
micromomentary			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
microscopic approach to communication	[XX]		[XX]									
Mindfulness			[XX]									
minimization			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
mixed messages					[XX]							
model	[XX]											
monochromi[c(sm) time orientation			[XX]				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
monologue					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
monomorphism		[XX]	[XX]									
motivated sequence			[XX]									
multiordinality	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
multistep flow of communication					[XX]							
multivalued orientation	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011	
N	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	
name-calling						[XX]						
narcotizing function of communication	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]							
narrative												[XX]
negative face need												[XX]
negative feedback	[XX]											
negative reinforcement	[XX]	[XX]										
negative social proof												[XX]
negatives and positives of conflict												[XX]
netiquette												[XX]
network convergence												[XX]
Networking										[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
neutrality		[XX]	[XX]			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]				
noise	[XX]											
nominal group					[XX]							
nonallness	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
nondirective language							[XX]		[XX]	[XX]		
nonelementalism	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
nonnegotiation			[XX]									
nonverbal communication				[XX]		[XX]						
nonverbal dominance						[XX]						
norm					[XX]							
												[XX]
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011	

O												
object language	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]				[XX]		[XX]	[XX]		
object level	[XX]	[XX]										
object-adaptors		[XX]					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	
objective abstracting	[XX]	[XX]										
obstinate audience		[XX]	[XX]									
olfactory [olfactics] communication	[XX]											
open line program												
open self			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						[XX]
openness	[XX]											
operant	[XX]	[XX]										
operant conditioning	[XX]	[XX]										
operational definition												[XX]
opinion		[XX]	[XX]									
opinion leader			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
oral style			[XX]									
organization			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					[XX]	[XX]
organizational communication										[N]		[XX]
organizational message competence												[XX]
organizational relationship competence												[XX]
orientation												[XX]
other-orientation			[XX]									
other talk							[XX]		[XX]	[XX]		
outing						[XX]						[XX]
overattribution												[XX]
owning feelings					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]				[XX]
oxymoron												[XX]
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011	
P	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	
packaging							[XX]					[XX]
panel			[XX]									
Paralanguage	[XX]											
parallel sentence			[XX]									
parasocial relationship					[XX]							
Participating style												[XX]
passive listening						[XX]						
pauses				[XX]								
perception	[XX]											
perceptual accentuation			[XX]									
perceptual checking						[XX]	[XX]	[XX]				[XX]
performance	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
Performance visualization												[XX]
performative		[XX]										
periodic sentences			[XX]									[XX]
personal distance		[XX]										
Personal interest												[XX]
personal growth group					[XX]	[XX]						
personal rejection			[XX]									
Personality theory												[XX]
personification												[XX]
Persuasion	[XX]											
persuasive interview			[XX]									
phatic communication		[XX]										
phonology	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
pictographs		[XX]										
pictics	[XX]	[XX]										
pitch	[XX]											
plagiarism									[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
plain folks							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
play theory			[XX]									
polarization	[XX]											
policy, questions of										[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
Politeness									[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
politeness strategies												[XX]
polychroni[c]sm time orientation			[XX]				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]

polymorphism		[XX]	[XX]									
positive face need												[XX]
positive feedback	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]							
positive labeling												[XX]
positive reinforcement	[XX]	[XX]										
positive social proof												[XX]
positiveness			[XX]									
power					[XX]							
power communication							[XX]	[XX]				
power distance												[XX]
power play					[XX]							
pragma love					[XX]	[XX]						[XX]
pragmatic love												
pragmatic implication						[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011	
P	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	
pragmatic model of interpersonal effectiveness			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]							
premature self-disclosures							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
presentation												[XX]
presentation method												[XX]
present-focus conflict												[XX]
prevarication		[XX]	[XX]									
primacy effect		[XX]										
primacy-recency							[XX]	[XX]				[XX]
primary relationship							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
primary affect displays			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
primary source												[XX]
primary territories							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
privatization					[XX]							
pro and con pattern												[XX]
problem orientation		[XX]	[XX]									
problem-solving group					[XX]							
problem-solving sequence					[XX]							
process		[XX]										
productivity		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
progressive differentiation							[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
projection	[XX]											
pronunciation			[XX]									
protection theory						[XX]						
provisionalism		[XX]										
proxemic distances							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
Proxemics	[XX]											
proximity					[XX]							
psychological time			[XX]									
public communication	[XX]											
public distance		[XX]										
public speaking	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
public territories			[XX]				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
punctuation of communication		[XX]										
punishment		[XX]	[XX]				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
pupillometries			[XX]									
purr words			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
Pygmalion effect		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						[XX]
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011	
Q	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	
quality circle						[XX]			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
questions of fact												[XX]
questions of policy												[XX]
questions of value												[XX]
quid pro quo harassment										[N]	[XX]	[XX]
quotes	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011	
R	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	
racist language				[XX]								
rapid fading		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]							

Rate	[XX]										
rational emotive therapy			[XX]								
reasoning from causes and effects									[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
reasoning from sign									[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
reasoning from specific instances											[XX]
receiver	[XX]										
receiving											[XX]
recency effect		[XX]									
recurrence, principle of redefinition		[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
reducing uncertainty											[XX]
redundancy	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]			[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
referent power					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]			[XX]
Reflexiveness	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
regulators		[XX]									
rehearsal											[XX]
reinforcements	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
reinforcement packaging principle		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]				
rejection		[XX]		[XX]							
relational abstracting	[XX]	[XX]									
relational [relation-ship] communication			[XX]								
relationship											[XX]
relationship deterioration					[XX]						
relationship development							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
relationship dialectics theory							[XX]	[XX]			[XX]
relationship maintenance							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
relationship message							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
relationship repair					[XX]						
relationship rules											[XX]
reliability		[XX]									[XX]
Remembering											[XX]
research											[XX]
response	[XX]	[XX]					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
restatement											[XX]
restimulating brainstorming											[XX]
reward power					[XX]						
Rhetoric											[XX]
rhetorical question											[XX]
rhythmic movements		[XX]									
rigid complementarity			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]			[XX]
Role	[XX]										
romantic workplace relationships											[XX]
round table						[XX]		[XX]	[XX]		[XX]
rules theory							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011
S	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
scientific approach to organizations			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
Schemata									[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
script									[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
secondary source											[XX]
secondary territories							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
selective attention											[XX]
selective exposure			[XX]								
self reflexive abstracting	[XX]	0000									
self-acceptance	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
self-actualization needs											[XX]
self-adaptors		[XX]					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
self-affirmation											[XX]
self-attribution			[XX]								
self-awareness					[XX]						
self-concept	[XX]										
self-deprecating strategies											[XX]

self-disclosure	[XX]											
self-esteem					[XX]							
self-fulfilling prophecy		[XX]										
self-handicapping strategies												[XX]
self-monitoring			[XX]									
self-reflexive abstracting	[XX]	[XX]										
self-reflexiveness	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
self-serving bias			[XX]									
self-talk							[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
selling style												[XX]
semantic differentiation	[XX]											
semantic differential	[XX]	[XX]										
semantic reaction	[XX]	[XX]										
semantic space	[XX]	[XX]										
semanticity		[XX]	[XX]									
Semantics	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]			[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
semantogenic	[XX]	[XX]										
sequential communication		[XX]	[XX]									
sexist language	[XX]											
sexual harassment				[XX]								
sharpening			[XX]									
shyness		[XX]										
Sign	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
sign language	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
sign, reasoning from					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
signal reaction	[XX]	[XX]						[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
signal & noise ratio		[XX]	[XX]					[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
silence		[XX]										
silencers			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
sin licenses					[XX]	[XX]						
similarity						[XX]						
simile												[XX]
situational leadership						[XX]						[XX]
situational listening												[XX]
slang	[XX]											
slippery slope												[XX]
small group				[XX]								[XX]
small group communication		[XX]										
snarl words			[XX]									
social clock									[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011	
S	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	
social comparison processes			[XX]									
social distance		[XX]										
Social exchange theory			[XX]									
social kinesics		[XX]										
social penetration theory					[XX]							
somatotype		[XX]	[XX]									
source	[XX]											
space binders	[XX]											
spatial distance							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
spatial movements		[XX]										
spatial pattern												[XX]
speaker apprehension			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
specialization		[XX]										
specialized communication system		[XX]										
specific instances, reasoning from					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
specific purpose												[XX]
speech	[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
speech accommodation theory						[XX]						
speech community	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]									
speech of definition												[XX]
speech of demonstration												[XX]
speech of description												[XX]
speech rate							[XX]	[XX]				
spiral of silence theory						[XX]						

spontaneity		[XX]	[XX]				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
stability		[XX]	[XX]				[XX]		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
state apprehension											[XX]
static evaluation	[XX]										
static judgments		[XX]	[XX]								
statistics											[XX]
status		[XX]									
step theories of mass communication			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
stereotype		[XX]									
stimuli	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
stimulus response models of comm	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]				[XX]	[XX]			
storge love				[XX]	[XX]						[XX]
strategy		[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
straw man											[XX]
structural differential	[XX]	[XX]									
structure-function pattern											[XX]
Subjectivity		[XX]	[XX]				[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	
sublanguage	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
superiority		[XX]	[XX]								
supporting materials											[XX]
supportiveness		[XX]									
symbol	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
symbol reaction	[XX]	[XX]									
symmetrical relationship	[XX]										
symposium			[XX]								
symposium-forum					[XX]						[XX]
synchronous communication											[XX]
synecdoche											[XX]
syntax	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
systems approach to organization			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
systematic desensitization			[XX]			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011
T	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
taboo	[XX]		[XX]								
tactile communication	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
tag questions											[XX]
task group						[XX]					
team											[XX]
telling style											[XX]
template outline											[XX]
temporal communication							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
temporal pattern											[XX]
territorial encroachment			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
territoriality		[XX]									
testimonial						[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
testimony											[XX]
theory	[XX]										
thesis			[XX]								
thin entering wedge											[XX]
third verbal level		[XX]									
time binders	[XX]	[XX]									
toast										[XX]	[XX]
topical pattern											[XX]
topoi											[XX]
total feedback		[XX]	[XX]								
touch avoidance			[XX]								
touch communication							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
traditional transmission		[XX]	[XX]								
trait apprehension											[XX]
traits approach to leadership						[XX]					
transactional		[XX]									
transactions		[XX]									
transfer							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
transformational leadership											[XX]
transitions											[XX]

tree diagram											[XX]
trust	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
turf defense			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
turn -denying cues											[XX]
turn -maintaining cues											[XX]
turn -requesting cues											[XX]
turn -yielding cues											[XX]
two step flow of communication	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]						
two valued orientation	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011
U	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
ulterior transactions	[XX]										
uncertainty									[XX]	[XX]	
uncertainty reduction strategies							[XX]	[XX]			[XX]
Uncertainty reduction theory					[XX]						
undelayed reaction	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
universal language	[XX]	[XX]									
universal of communication	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
universal of inter-personal communication							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	
universal of language	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]								
unknown self			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]			[XX]
unrepeatability									[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
upward communication			[XX]								
uses & gratification			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011
V	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
value	[XX]										
value, questions of variable	[XX]	[XX]								[XX]	
verbal aggressiveness					[XX]						
violation			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]				
virtual group											[XX]
visual dominance							[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
vocal qualifiers		[XX]									
vocal segregates		[XX]									
voice qualities		[XX]					[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]
volume	[XX]										
	1978	1982	1988	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2011
W	1st	2nd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
weasel words											[XX]
win-lose solutions											[XX]
win-win solutions											[XX]
withdrawal			[XX]								
word association		[XX]									
written style			[XX]	[XX]	[XX]	[XX]					
Y											
you-messages					[XX]						

There are a number of questions that the inclusion or exclusion of materials raise that are not apparent by examining the recurrence chart.

- Why does advice related to becoming a more competent communicator begin with the 7th edition and why is it omitted in the 11th edition only to be returned in the 12th edition?

- Why are conceptual domains that are current up to the present which were included in early editions dropped out? {e.g., linguistics or digital communication.}
- *Human Communication: The Basic Course* 2012 features numerous gender issues in interpersonal relationships, but does not include feminist theory. {E.g., standpoint theory, muted group theory.}
- Why is rhetoric largely left out the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* with only token attention paid in the 12th edition?
- Why is new media not given more prominence?
- Why are there so few conceptions of research methodology?
- Why has *Human Communication: The Basic Course* been so marketable?  
[Obviously, *Human Communication: The Basic Course* is marketable because teachers of introduction to communication courses select it. So, the question comes down to: why do they choose a textbook that ... ]

There are countless additional questions that are raised by my analysis. I only mention a few that stood out for me.

## 8.0 - Epilogue

I began my analysis with a quote from Thomas Kuhn's *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* and I end with a reminder of it. Though Kuhn laments the circumstance that conceptual change is not represented in textbooks, he offers a rationale for the misleading picture of scientific inquiry that they entail: "[Textbooks] record the stable *outcome* of past revolutions and thus display the bases of the current normal-scientific tradition. ... In the case of textbooks, at least, there are even good reasons why, in these matters, they should be systematically misleading" (1962, p. 137). It is therefore not surprising that there are no discussions of conceptual changes in the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series. Further, that the glossary presents one definition per term which is not questioned or glossed with comments about competing conceptions can also be understood in the context of Kuhn's remarks. However, the repetition of definitions from edition to edition cannot be dismissed. In the span of 35 years significant conceptual changes did occur. In my view, this omission, which is not unique to *Human Communication: The Basic Course*, is the one that most needs attention.<sup>1</sup> I also contend that Kuhn's reasons for leaving out conceptual changes are no longer as compelling as they were to him in the 1960s.<sup>2</sup>

Another issue that requires attention is the pedagogical practice of memorization that is so common a feature in textbooks. Feynman's experience with Brazilian students who could answer questions involving declarative knowledge but were helpless when asked to use that knowledge in a situation that called for it is, in my view, the representative anecdote for what happens to students who are encouraged to memorize concepts rather than to conceptualize situations from the various perspectives researchers in the field have done in their investigations.

In the context of this anecdote we might ask: why does learning what a concept means not lead to being able to use it? Cognitive learning theory would explain this disconnect by pointing out that to be able to use a concept requires conceptualizing. Students need to know how to conceptualize a situation. The problem is that no two situations are identical and that outside the situation in which a concept is learned, that concept will not seem to apply unless it can be re-conceptualized to fit the new situation. Procedural knowledge is, from this point of view, the ability to recognize the *specific* requirements of re-conceptualizing to adapt to new situations.

A third issue that requires attention is that part of the problem of acquiring scientific knowledge, as Reif points out, is the *specification* of the requirements for *using* scientific concepts,

Although the specification of a procedure is seemingly straightforward, some specifications can be more useful than others, especially when they are intended for human use. ... A procedure should be specified at a level of detail that is well adapted to the intended users. Although a procedure consists merely of a sequence of successive steps, might it be better to specify it by a few large steps or by a larger number of small steps? In fact, both extremes may be undesirable.

Thus, a procedure may be difficult or impossible to implement either because it is described in insufficient detail or because it is described in excessive detail. (2008, pp. 106-107)

One of the most important findings in my analysis of the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series is that it offers knowledge and procedures that are inadequately specified for novices in the conceptual domain of Communication Studies. If, as I suspect is the case, the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series is representative of Introductions to Communication Studies in general, then the knowledge that students acquire and construe as foundational will not prepare them for advanced courses.

My analysis of the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series, though far from complete, has proceeded as far as discourse analysis allows. The analysis shows that these textbooks are not an adequate foundation for learning about Communication Studies.

In general, the analysis shows that the *Human Communication: The Basic Course* series does not correspond to the model of learning advocated by contemporary learning researchers. The transformation of beliefs that constitutes learning and results in the discovery of new knowledge is not a likely outcome for the users of *Human Communication: The Basic Course*. In the context of introducing undergraduates to Communication Studies, learning can be described as the discovery of new conceptions. Obviously, memorizing is not discovery.

Jerome Bruner, in *On Knowing: Essays for the Left Hand*, remarks that: "We know from studies of children who tend to be early overachievers in school that they are likely to be seekers after the 'right way to do it' ... they develop rote abilities and depend on being able to "give back" what is expected rather than to make it into something that relates to the rest of their cognitive life" (1962, p. 88). For Bruner, the act of discovery is central to learning because "... the most personal of all that [a person] knows is that which he has discovered for himself" (1962, p. 82).

... discovery, whether by a schoolboy going it on his own or by a scientist cultivating the growing edge of his field, is in its essence a matter of rearranging or transforming evidence in such a way that one is enabled to go beyond the evidence so reassembled to new insights: It may well be that an additional fact or shred of evidence makes this larger transformation possible. (1962, pp. 82-83)

Bruner asks: "How important is it, then, for us to encourage the young to learn by discovery?" (1962, p. 82). From his perspective, the experience of discovery is a crucial element in learning.

Another proponent of the view of learning as discovery or, in Reif's account, of acquiring the ability to perform in ways they were earlier not able to, is Paul Thaggard, who has researched the process of scientific discovery. For him, "the thrill of discovery is a major part of the motivation that impels scientists to labor intensively toward sometimes elusive goals" (2012, p. 103). On the basis of this well-founded premise, he argues that:

... the understanding of discovery is relevant to science education because of the need to motivate students to acquire new concepts, theories, and methods. Motivation should be increased if students are not simply force-fed a stock of information to acquire, but can also get some sense of the thrill of figuring things out for themselves. (2012, p. 104)

Thagard links discovery to creativity, reminding us of Kuhn's contention that scientific creativity is obscured by textbooks. For Thagard creativity is a process of "convolution:"

... human creativity requires the combination of previously unconnected mental representations constituted by patterns of neural activity. Then creative thinking is a matter of combining neural patterns into ones that are both novel and useful. I advocate the hypothesis that such combinations arise from mechanisms that bind together neural patterns by a process of convolution. (2012, p. 107)

Central to the cognitive process is conceptual binding of previously unrelated conceptions, a process that parallels Fauconnier and Turner's "conceptual blending" (Thagard & Findlay, 2012, p. 139). However, a very significant component of the creative process in their view is emotion (Thagard & Kroon, 2006 Chapter 10). The process of convolution is an exciting experience to one degree or another. A correlative cognitive process is analogizing which allows persons to map concepts unto each other in novel ways, with the sometime result of discovery. This conclusion matches Fauconnier and Turner's emphasis on the metaphoricity of conceptual blending (Fauconnier & Turner, 2002). And, this view is also shared by L. D. Fink, among other learning theorists, who regards "caring" as a condition of significant learning in his *Creating Significant Learning Experiences*:

Sometimes a learning experience changes the degree to which students care about something. This may be reflected in the form of new feelings, interests, or values. Any of these changes means students now care about something to a greater degree than they did before, or in a different way. .... When students care about something, they then have the *energy* they need for learning more about it and making it a part of their lives. Without the energy for learning, nothing significant happens. (Fink, 2003, p. 32)

DeVito is to be applauded as the author of a textbook who cares—about the subject, his student readers, and about teaching and learning which Fink identifies as one of the principles of fine teaching. While this is surely a necessary condition of learning, it is not a sufficient one.

My analysis of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* can be summed up in the following statement: *Human Communication: The Basic Course* does not provide a learning environment that fosters discovery; instead it hinders discovery.

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## Notes

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<sup>1</sup> Kuhn's insight that textbooks present scientific concepts as stable and agreed upon has inspired extensive research into learning how to think like a scientist. Given the role of conceptual change in scientific inquiry (Kuhn, 1962, 1970, 1977; Kuhn, Conant, & Haugeland, 2000; Thagard, 1992; Thagard & Findlay, 2012; Toulmin, 1972; Vosniadou, 2008) in my view conceptual changes should be covered in Introductions to Communication Studies.

<sup>2</sup> In 1962 Kuhn wrote that "In the case of textbooks, at least, there are even good reasons why, in these matters, they should be systematically misleading" (1962, p. 137). More than a half a century later, there is no reason why conceptual changes cannot be covered. In fact, they are covered in Communication Theory Textbooks (Griffin, 2012; Stephen W. Littlejohn & Foss, 2011; Stephen W Littlejohn & Foss, 2009). Moreover, the availability of electronic texts removes the reason that "space" is limited. And, there are compelling reasons why conceptual changes need to be studied.

## 9.0 - Appendix: Analyzing Performances

Reif describes how to analyze a good performance. He begins by posing the question: "What kinds of knowledge and thought processes are needed for good performance in scientific or similar complex domains—and what instructional methods can be devised to facilitate students' learning of such knowledge and thinking?" (2008, pp. 2-3). Reif argues that to construct a test of a good intellectual performance, you must start with a clear description of what the performance *can or should do*, that is, of the final state of the transformation. This description of what the performance does "... must satisfy the following two requirements: (1) it must be *observable* (so that it focuses on what can actually be observed, without speculating about any knowledge or thought processes in the person's mind). (2) It must be *operational* (so that it specifies what one must actually *do* to determine whether the specified performance has been achieved)" (2008, pp. 11-12). In complex intellectual domains the declarative knowledge involved is a theory or model which is most often represented by an inter-related set of concepts—for example, the proposition: "All communication takes place in a context that has at least four dimensions: physical, social-psychological, temporal, and cultural" (DeVito, 2012, p. 8).

If we wish to analyze the cognitive abilities involved in using the concept of "context," we need to ask: what would be observable and operational about such identifying a communication context? For a performance to be observable, it has to be situated. Once situated, student would need to identify the contextual dimensions of communicating in that situation. Further, from the perspective of the learning process, students would have to recognize aspects of the situation that they were not previously able to. In Reif's model of a good performance several additional requirements must be met: it must be usable, effective, efficient, flexible and reliable. Meeting these requirements involves a number of cognitive abilities.

Returning to the example of a communication context, we might assign students a chapter of Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012 for the next class and then ask them to contextualize reading the textbook. They would, given the definition of context in Human Communication: The Basic Course 2012, be asked: what are the physical, social-psychological, temporal, and cultural dimensions of this activity? The answers would range across a broad spectrum of student experiences. A viable answer among others would be that the following four dimensions can be understood as:

1. the psychological character of the textbook,
2. the social-psychological pressures to get a good grade in the course,
3. the temporal constraint of reading the chapter before the next class,
4. the cultural significance of going to college and obtaining a degree,

Although the context includes much more than this minimal set of identifiers, these identifications would qualify as appropriate answers.

Reif's second set of requirements—usable, effective, efficient, flexible and reliable—are more difficult to analyze. Whereas the first set of requirements involve the cognitive ability to recognize the type of

situation by calling upon the memory of past experiences, the second set involves different abilities centered in problem solving. For example, what would make the concept of a communication context useable would be a problem to be solved such as one posed by the probability that a quiz would be given about the chapter during the next class. In this situation knowing that context of the assignment includes a quiz would be *useful* in making a decision about reading the chapter. Perhaps, this student has planned a trip to visit his girlfriend the day the quiz would be given which has a higher priority for him than getting a good grade. In addition, his attitude toward having a college degree might be that a college degree no longer carries the cultural weight that it once did. Reviewing these various aspects of the context would be "useful" in making a decision in the case of this assignment which would make the decision to take the planned trip "efficient" especially knowing that reading subsequent chapters assigned would be sufficient to pass the course. This allows for "flexibility" (can be adjusted to different situations) with respect to passing the course. The decision might also be considered "reliable" (can be successfully applied with increasing effectiveness) in that this particular student used a similar strategy in other courses with success. Applying the concept of context to the "assignment" situation, declarative knowledge is appropriately used procedurally.

In addition to the requirements that procedural knowledge must be observable and operational, Reif calls attention to the circumstance that declarative knowledge is not applicable to any and every situation and may be used inappropriately in certain situations. He argues that "particular knowledge must be accompanied by applicability conditions specifying when it may be applied" (2008, p. 37). He describes two "applicability" conditions:

Any kind of knowledge may be accompanied by conditions specifying when it is appropriate. Such condition-dependent knowledge may be of the form "If condition C is true, statement S is true," where the statement S is an instance of *declarative* knowledge. (For example, "If the temperature is less than 32 degrees Fahrenheit, water assumes the solid form of ice").

Alternatively, such condition-dependent knowledge may be of the form "If condition C is true, perform action A," where action A is an instance of *procedural* knowledge. (For example, "If you want to shut off the water, turn the faucet clockwise.") Such condition-dependent procedural knowledge is also called a *rule*. Indeed, directions for performing many tasks (for example, for using devices or assembling equipment) are often specified in terms of such rules. (2008, p. 37)

The first applicability condition concerns *validity* and the criterion is semantic. The second applicability condition pertains to "directions for performing a task," and concerns *specification*—the directions need to be specified so that the declarative knowledge can be applied to situations. Specifying directions to take pertains to the compatibility of the cognitive operations involved.

## 10.0 – Appendix: Comparative Chronology of the Editions of *Human Communication: The Basic Course*

The Tables of Contents (TOC) of the Editions of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* are compared to those of the subsequent Edition.

Annotated charts of the coverage in the editions of *Human Communication: The Basic Course* are given in chapter 4 on “Coverage.”

### *Comparison of V01 and V02 Brief TOCs*

V01 DeVito BRIEF TOC	V02 DeVito BRIEF TOC
<b>PART ONE COMMUNICATION AND THE SELF</b>	<b>PART ONE COMMUNICATION 1</b>
Unit 1 Universals of Communication 5	Unit 1 Preliminaries to Communication 2
Unit 2 Models of Communication 22	
Unit 3 Postulates of Communication 37	Unit 2 Communication Postulates 21
Unit 4 Self-Awareness 49	Unit 3 Communication and the Self 35
Unit 5 Disclosing the Hidden Self 63	
Unit 6 Credibility 76	
Unit 7 Ethical Considerations in Communication 94	Unit 4 Communication and Ethics 49
<b>PART TWO COMMUNICATION MESSAGES 115</b>	<b>PART TWO MESSAGE RECEPTION 71</b>
	Unit 5 Preliminaries to Message Reception 72
Unit 8 Perception in Communication 113	Unit 6 Perception 85
Unit 9 Listening in Communication 143	Unit 7 Listening 101
<b>PART THREE VERBAL MESSAGES 117</b>	<b>PART THREE VERBAL MESSAGES</b>
	Unit 8 Preliminaries to Verbal Messages 118
	Unit 9 Language in Society 130
Unit 10 Verbal Interaction: Nine Principles 157	Unit 10 Principles of Verbal Interaction 146
Unit 11 Verbal Interaction: Six Barriers 169	Unit 11 Barriers to Verbal Interaction 157
	<b>PART FOUR NONVERBAL MESSAGES 173</b>
Unit 12 Characteristics of Nonverbal Communication 185	Unit 12 Preliminaries to Nonverbal Messages 174
Unit 13 Kinesics 196	Unit 13 Kinesics 191
Unit 14 Proxemics 208	Unit 14 Proxemics 209
Unit 15 Paralanguage 219	Unit 15 Paralanguage and Silence 228

Unit 16 Attitudes in Communication 228	
Unit 17 Attitude and Behavior Change 239	
<b>PART THREE COMMUNICATION CONTEXTS 257</b>	
	<b>PART FIVE INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION 243</b>
Unit 18 Preliminaries to Interpersonal Communication 261	Unit 16 Preliminaries to Interpersonal Communication 244
Unit 19 Attraction in Interpersonal Communication 278	
	Unit 17 Interpersonal Relationships: Development and Deterioration 263
	Unit 18 Self-Disclosure in Interpersonal Communication 281
Unit 20 Conflict in Interpersonal Communication 288	Unit 19 Conflict 297
Unit 21 Assertiveness in Interpersonal Communication 303	
Unit 22 Transactional Analysis in Interpersonal Communication 315	
	<b>PART SIX SMALL GROUP COMMUNICATION 321</b>
Unit 23 The Nature of Small Group Communication 334	Unit 20 Preliminaries to Small Group Communication 322
Unit 24 Members and Leaders in Small Group Communication 354	Unit 21 Members and Leaders in Small Group Communication 338
Unit 25 Small Group Analysis and Evaluation 370	Unit 22 Small Group Analysis and Evaluation 357
	<b>PART SEVEN PUBLIC COMMUNICATION 371</b>
Unit 26 Preliminaries to Public Communication 382	Unit 23 Preliminaries to Public Communication 372
Unit 27 The Speech in Public Communication 394	
	Unit 24 Supporting Materials in Public Communication: Amplification and Argument 394
	Unit 25 Supporting Materials in Public Communication: Psychological Appeals and Speaker Credibility 415
	Unit 26 Structure and Style in Public Communication 436
Unit 28 The Speaker and Receiver in Public Communication 419	Unit 27 The Speaker and Receiver in Public Communication 470

	<b>PART EIGHT MASS COMMUNICATION 501</b>
Unit 29 The Nature of Mass Communication 441	Unit 28 Preliminaries to Mass Communication 502
Unit 30 The Functions of Mass Communication 454	Unit 29 The Functions of Mass Communication 524
Unit 31 The Flow of Mass Communication 465	Unit 30 The Flow of Mass Communication 540
[culture]	
Unit 32 Culture, Subculture, and Communication 476	
[language]	
Unit 33 Language Relativity and Universal Languages 491	
[intercultural]	
Unit 34 Some Intercultural Communication Conflicts 507	

*Comparison of V02 and V03 Brief TOCs*

V02 DeVito BRIEF TOC	V03 DeVito BRIEF TOC
<b>PART ONE COMMUNICATION 1</b>	<b>PART ONE: PRELIMINARIES 1</b>
Unit 1 Preliminaries to Communication 2	PRELIMINARIES TO HUMAN COMMUNICATION 2
Unit 2 Communication Postulates 21	SEVEN POSTULATES OF COMMUNICATION 17
Unit 3 Communication and the Self 35	THE SELF IN COMMUNICATION 27
Unit 4 Communication and Ethics 49	
<b>PART TWO MESSAGE RECEPTION 71</b>	
Unit 5 Preliminaries to Message Reception 72	
Unit 6 Perception 85	PERCEPTION 45
Unit 7 Listening 101	LISTENING 58
<b>PART THREE VERBAL MESSAGES</b>	<b>PART TWO: LANGUAGE AND VERBAL INTERACTION 71</b>
Unit 8 Preliminaries to Verbal Messages 118	PRELIMINARIES TO LANGUAGE AND VERBAL INTERACTION 72
Unit 9 Language in Society 130	SOCIAL ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE AND VERBAL INTERAC110N 105

Unit 10 Principles of Verbal Interaction 146	PRINCIPLES OF LANGUAGE AND VERBAL INTERACTION 92
Unit 11 Barriers to Verbal Interaction 157	BARRIERS IN LANGUAGE AND VERBAL INTERACTION 81 [was 2 <sup>nd</sup> in this section]
<b>PART FOUR NONVERBAL MESSAGES 173</b>	PART THREE: NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION 115
Unit 12 Preliminaries to Nonverbal Messages 174	
	12 SPACE, TOUCH, AND COLOR COMMUNICATION 136
Unit 13 Kinesics 191	
Unit 14 Proxemics 209	
Unit 15 Paralanguage and Silence 228	13 PARALANGUAGE, SILENCE, AND TIME 153
<b>PART FIVE INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION 243</b>	PART FOUR: INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION 167
Unit 16 Preliminaries to Interpersonal Communication 244	14 PRELIMINARIES TO INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION
Unit 17 Interpersonal Relationships: Development and Deterioration 263	
	15 FRIENDS AND LOVERS 191
	16 PRIMARY RELATIONSHIP AND FAMILY COMMUNICATION
Unit 18 Self-Disclosure in Interpersonal Communication 281	
Unit 19 Conflict 297	17 IMPROVING INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION 226
<b>PART SIX SMALL GROUP COMMUNICATION 321</b>	PART FIVE: GROUPS AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION
Unit 20 Preliminaries to Small Group Communication 322	18 PRELIMINARIES TO GROUP COMMUNICATION 240
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*Comparison of V03 and V04 Brief TOCs*

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13 PARALANGUAGE, SILENCE, AND TIME 153	13 PARALANGUAGE AND TIME · 170
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15 FRIENDS AND LOVERS 191	
16 PRIMARY RELATIONSHIP AND FAMILY COMMUNICATION	
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21 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION 277	19 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION 273
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	28 INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION: BARRIERS AND GATEWAYS 435
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29 THE FUNCTIONS OF MASS COMMUNICATION 418	
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*Comparison V04 & V05 DeVito brief TOCS*

V04 DeVito BRIEF TOC	V05 DeVito BRIEF TOC
<b>PART ONE PRELIMINARIES 1</b>	<b>PART 1 FOUNDATIONS 2</b>
1 PRELIMINARIES TO HUMAN COMMUNICATION: NATURE, COMPONENTS, AND PURPOSES 2	1. Preliminaries to Human Communication
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3 THE SELF IN COMMUNICATION: AWARENESS AND DISCLOSURE 28	3. The Self in Communication 35
4 PERCEPTION 47	4. Perception 53
5 LISTENING 61	5. Listening 68
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16 IMPROVING INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION AND CONFLICT MANAGEMENT 219	16. Improving Interpersonal Communication and Conflict Management 226
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21 PRELIMINARIES TO PUBLIC COMMUNICATION: STEPS IN SPEECH PREPARATION {IN BRIEF} AND SPEAKER APPREHENSION 310	21. Preliminaries to Public Communication 322
22 ORGANIZING THE PUBLIC SPEECH 326	22. Organizing the Public Speech 340
23 STYLE AND LANGUAGE IN THE PUBLIC SPEECH 349	23. Style and Language in the Public Speech 359
24 DELIVERY IN PUBLIC SPEAKING 362	24. Delivery in Public Speaking 370
25 THE INFORMATIVE SPEECH 378	25. The Informative Speech 384
26 THE PERSUASIVE SPEECH 394	26. The Persuasive Speech 401
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*Comparison V05 & V06 Human Communication: The Basic Course brief TOC*

V05 DeVito BRIEF TOC	V06 DeVito BRIEF TOC
PART 1 FOUNDATIONS 2	PART 1 FOUNDATIONS 2
1. Preliminaries to Human Communication	Unit1 Preliminaries to Human Communication 4
2. Principles of Communication 20	Unit2 Principles of Communication 24
3. The Self in Communication 35	Unit3 The Self in Communication 41
4. Perception 53	Unit4 Perception 58
5. Listening 68	Unit5 Listening 76
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30. Theories of Mass Communication 470	Unit 25 Theories of Mass Communication 471
Feedback: Mass Communication 484	

*Comparison V06 & V07 Human Communication: The Basic Course brief TOC*

V06 DeVito BRIEF TOC	V07 DeVito BRIEF TOC
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Unit2 Principles of Communication 24	unit 2 Principles of Communication 20
Unit3 The Self in Communication 41	unit 5 The Self in Communication 68
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Unit4 Perception 58	unit 3 Perception 34
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PART 2 MESSAGES: VERBAL AND NONVERBAL 96	part 2 Messages: Verbal and Nonverbal 104
Unit 6 Preliminaries to Verbal and Nonverbal Messages	unit 7 Preliminaries to Verbal and Nonverbal Messages 106
Unit 8 Verbal Message Principles 125	unit 8 Verbal Message Principles 122
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*Comparison V07 & V08 Human Communication: The Basic Course brief TOC*

V07 DeVito BRIEF TOC	V08 DeVito BRIEF TOC
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unit 2 Principles of Communication 20	2. Principles of Human Communication 20
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unit 3 Perception 34	3. Perception 37
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unit 9 Verbal Message Barriers 140	
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Communication and Relationships 190	
unit 13 Interpersonal Communication: Conversation 208	9. Interpersonal Communication: Conversation 152
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unit 15 Friendship, Love, and Family Communication 250	
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unit 18 Members and Leaders in Small Group Communication 314	14. Members and Leaders 260
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	17. Style and Delivery in Public Speaking 334
	18. The Informative Speech 362
	19. The Persuasive Speech 379
[MASS COMMUNICATION replaced by text boxes throughout]	

*Comparison V08 & V09 Human Communication: The Basic Course brief TOC*

V08 DeVito BRIEF TOC	V09 DeVito BRIEF TOC
PART ONE Foundations of Human Communication 1	ONE Foundations of Human Communication 1
1. Preliminaries to Human Communication 1	1. Preliminaries to Human Communication
2. Principles of Human Communication 20	2. Principles of Communication 19
5. The Self in Communication 73	6. The Self in Communication 95
6. Culture and Communication 89	3. Culture and Communication 35
3. Perception 37	4. Perception 55
4. Listening 56	5. Listening 77
7. Verbal Messages 107	7. Verbal Messages 113
8. Nonverbal Messages 129	8. Nonverbal Messages 133
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10. Interpersonal Relationships 174	9. Interpersonal Communication: Conversation 158
9. Interpersonal Communication: Conversation 152	10. Interpersonal Relationships 181
11. Interpersonal Conflict 200	11. Interpersonal Conflict 205
12. Interviewing 219	
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	12. Interviewing 225
13. Small Group Communication 238	13. Small Group Communication 245
14. Members and Leaders 260	14. Members and Leaders 266
PART FOUR Public Speaking 279	PART FOUR Public Speaking 285
15. Public Speaking Topics, Audiences, and Research 279	15. Public Speaking Topics, Audiences, and Research 285
16. Supporting and Organizing Your Speech 307	16. Supporting and Organizing Your Speech 314
17. Style and Delivery in Public Speaking 334	17. Style and Delivery in Public Speaking 343
18. The Informative Speech 362	18. The Informative Speech 371
19. The Persuasive Speech 379	19. The Persuasive Speech 389
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	20. The Mass Media 415
	21. Emotional Communication 426
	22. Criticism in the Public Speaking Classroom 441
	23. Developing Special Occasion Speeches 456

*Comparison V09 & V10 Human Communication: The Basic Course brief TOC*

V09 DeVito BRIEF TOC	V10 DeVito BRIEF TOC
ONE Foundations of Human Communication 1	PART ONE Foundations of Human Communication 1
1. Preliminaries to Human Communication	1. Preliminaries to Human Communication
2. Principles of Communication 19	2. Principles of Communication 21
3. Culture and Communication 35	3. Culture and Communication 36
4. Perception 55	4. Perception 57
5. Listening 77	5. Listening 77
6. The Self in Communication 95	6. The Self in Communication 95
7. Verbal Messages 113	7. Verbal Messages 112
8. Nonverbal Messages 133	8. Nonverbal Messages 133
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9. Interpersonal Communication: Conversation 158	9. Interpersonal Communication: Conversation 159
10. Interpersonal Relationships 181	10. Interpersonal Relationships 182
11. Interpersonal Conflict 205	
THREE Interviewing and Small Group Communication 225	
12. Interviewing 225	
13. Small Group Communication 245	11. Small Group Communication 208
14. Members and Leaders 266	12. Members and Leaders 228
	13 Interpersonal and Small Group Conflict 245
PART FOUR Public Speaking 285	PART THREE Public Speaking 266
15. Public Speaking Topics, Audiences, and Research 285	14. Public Speaking Topics, Audiences, and Research 266
16. Supporting and Organizing Your Speech 314	15. Supporting and Organizing Your Speech 297
17. Style and Delivery in Public Speaking 343	16. Style and Delivery in Public Speaking 325

18. The Informative Speech 371	17. The Informative Speech 356
19. The Persuasive Speech 389	18. The Persuasive Speech 377
CD-ROM Units	CD-ROM Units
20. The Mass Media 415	19. The Mass Media 415
21. Emotional Communication 426	20. Emotional Communication 426
22. Criticism in the Public Speaking Classroom 441	21. Criticism in the Public Speaking Classroom 441
23. Developing Special Occasion Speeches 456	23. Developing Special Occasion Speeches 456

*Comparison V10 & V11 Human Communication: The Basic Course brief TOC*

V10 DeVito BRIEF TOC	V11 DeVito BRIEF TOC
PART ONE Foundations of Human Communication 1	PART ONE Foundations of Human Communication 1
1. Preliminaries to Human Communication	1 Preliminaries to Human Communication 2
2. Principles of Communication 21	The Principles of Human Communication 19
3. Culture and Communication 36	2 Culture and Communication 33
4. Perception 57	
	4 Listening in Uman Communication 81
5. Listening 77	
	3 The Self and Perception 55
6. The Self in Communication 95	The Self in Human Communication 56
7. Verbal Messages 112	5 Verbal Messages 100
8. Nonverbal Messages 133	6 Nonverbal Messages 123
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9. Interpersonal Communication: Conversation 159	1 Interpersonal Communication: Conversation 150
10. Interpersonal Relationships 182	8 Interpersonal Relationship Stages and Theories 171
	9 Friends, Lovers, and Families 191

11. Small Group Communication 208	10 Sma116roup Communication 214
12. Members and Leaders 228	11 Members and Leaders 233
13 Interpersonal and Small Group Conflict 245	12 Interpersonal and Small Group Conflict 251
	13 Human Communication in the Workplace: Organizational Communication 272
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15. Supporting and Organizing Your Speech 297	expanded sections
16. Style and Delivery in Public Speaking 325	
17. The Informative Speech 356	Informative Speech 394
18. The Persuasive Speech 377	18 The Persuasive Speech 409
	19 The Special Occasion Speech 436
CD-ROM Units	[incorporated in text]
19. The Mass Media 415	
20. Emotional Communication 426	
21. Criticism in the Public Speaking Classroom 441	
23. Developing Special Occasion Speeches 456	

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*V11 & V12 Human Communication: The Basic Course TOCs*

v11 DeVito TOC	v12 DeVito TOC
I Preliminaries to Human Communication 2	<b>1 Preliminaries to Human Communication 2</b>
The Benefits, Forms, and Purposes of Human Communication 3	<b>Benefits and Forms of Human Communication 3</b>
The Benefits of Human Communication 3	The Benefits of Human Communication 3
The Forms of Human Communication 4	The Formsof Human Communication 4
The Purposes of Human Communication 7	
The Elements of Human Communication 10	<b>Elements of Human Communication 8</b>
Defining Communication 12	
Communication Context 12	Communication Context 8
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Messages 14	Messages 10
Channels 16	Channels 10
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Communication Is a Package of Signals 20	Communication Is a Package of Signals 14
Communication Is a Process of Adjustment 20	Communication Is a Process of Adjustment 14
Communication Involves Content and Relationship Dimensions 22	Communication Involves Content and Relationship Dimensions 15
Communication Is Ambiguous 25	Communication Is Ambiguous 16
Communication Is Punctuated 26	Communication Is Punctuated 18
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27 Communication Is Inevitable, Irreversible, and Unrepeatable 27	a Communication Is Inevitable, Irreversible, and Unrepeatable 19
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What Do You Believe about Communication? 11	
What Is Media Literacy? 7	
The Areas of Ethics 18	
Communication Theories 21	
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Distinguishing Content from Relationship Messages 25	
Resolving Ambiguity 28	

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	The Competent Communicator Is Culturally Sensitive 22
	The Competent Communicator Is Ethical 23
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	The Transmission of Culture 29
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The Aim of a Cultural Perspective 38	The Aim of a Cultural Perspective 32
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Exploring Cultural Attitudes 43	
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Self-Awareness 57	Self-Awareness 52
Self-Esteem 59	Self-Esteem 53
Self-Disclosure 61	<b>Self-Disclosure 55</b>
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