Appendix A: Chapter Outlines

Chapter 1: Outline

I. Communication defined: the process of creating meaning through symbolic interaction
   A: A linear model of people interacting uses channels (including mediated communication) to convey messages from different fields of experiences (environments). This is similar to exchanging injections of communication back and forth.
   B: A transactional model shows both sending and receiving is simultaneous. At any given moment we are capable of receiving, decoding, and responding and overcoming noise at the same time the other communicator is receiving, decoding, and responding while overcoming noise.

II. Characteristics of communication: It is a symbolic relational process, not individual (not something we do to others but rather something we do with others). We use things, processes, ideas, and events arbitrarily with agreed-upon linguistic rules and customs to make communication possible.

III. Types of communication include intrapersonal, dyadic/interpersonal, small group, organizational, public, and mass.

IV. Communication challenges abound in this changing world. Technology has replaced face-to-face speech as the primary form of communication for today’s college student.
   A. Social media differs from mass communication in the variable size of the target audience. While mediated communication and face-to-face share many similarities there are differences in richness, synchronous communication, and permanence. Social media is used for information, relationships, personal identity, and entertainment.
   B. To communicate competently with social media you must choose the best medium, be careful what you post, be considerate, balance with face time, and be safe.

V. Communication is used to satisfy physical, identity, social, and practical needs.

VI. Effective communicators have communication competence.
   A. Communication competence is defined as achieving one’s goals in a manner that, ideally, maintains or enhances the relationship in which it occurs.
   B. There is no one “ideal” way to communicate because competence is situational and relational at the same time.
C. Competence can be learned providing the student is open to a wide range of behaviors, has the ability to choose the most appropriate behavior, develops skill at performing these behaviors, and employs empathy and perspective taking with the cognitive complexity to construct a variety of frameworks for viewing an issue. Self-monitoring and commitment to the relationship are also necessary for effective communication competence.

VII. Recognizing what communication is “not” helps avoid misconceptions.
A. Communication does not always require complete understanding nor will it solve all problems.
B. Communication is not simple and more is not always better.
C. Very often the “meaning” of the communication rests in people, not in words.
Chapter 2: Outline

I. Nothing is more fundamental to understanding how we communicate than our sense of self.
   A. Self-concept is the relatively stable perceptions that each of us holds about ourselves. This mental mirror reflects our view of our “self.”
   B. Personality is the characteristic ways you think and behave across a variety of situations. The reflected appraisal describes how you develop an image of your “self” from the way you think others view you. We particularly value the opinion of our significant others as vital to our self-esteem.

II. Our self-concept affects our behavior, which in turn affects how others view us, and we read that reaction and apply it to our self-concept.
   A. The self-fulfilling prophecy occurs when a person expects an outcome and behaves in a way to make the outcome more likely to occur.
   B. The self-fulfilling prophecy is an important force in communication as we often behave how we are perceived we are going to behave, thus reinforcing the perception.

III. Just like others’ perception of us often influences our interaction, our perception of others affects our interaction with them.
   A. We use a selection process to collect data for our perception. We pay attention to contrasts and change, we have motives, and we are influenced by moods.
   B. We arrange the information we gather in an organization, classifying people according to physical constructs, role constructs, interaction constructs, and psychological constructs.
   C. Our interpretation offers some sense of our perceptions. The degree of involvement, relational satisfaction, personal experience, assumptions, expectations, and knowledge all influence interpretation.
   D. The negotiation of this collected data is influenced by physiological things such as age, health and nutrition, biological factors, and neurology.
   E. Cultural influences provide a filter for interpretation. Sex and gender roles also affect perception; so do occupational and relational roles.
   F. We all have our own story, our narrative, a framework of explaining behavior and shaping communication.

IV. Shared narratives may be desirable but are hard to achieve. Often we undertake the process of attaching meaning to behavior. This attribution leads to some common perceptual tendencies.
   A. We make snap judgments based on stereotyping. We judge ourselves more charitably than we judge others, we pay more attention to negative
impressions than positive ones, and we are influenced by what is most obvious.

B. We also err when we cling to first impressions even if later proved wrong, and we tend to assume others similar to us are “like” us.

V. One solution to overcoming these tendencies is to have the ability to apply empathy.

A. Perspective taking gives us the ability to take on the other’s viewpoint. While not to be confused with sympathy, empathy identifies with the other. Empathy allows for understanding without requiring you to agree with the reasons.

B. Good intentions and empathy are best used to handle perception checking. This involves describing the behavior, offering at least two interpretations, and making a request for clarification.

VI. The communication strategies people use to influence how others view them are called identity management.

A. Our perceived self is a reflection of self-concept—who, in moments of honest reflection, we believe we are. Our presenting self is the way we want to appear to others.

B. The term face is used to describe the presenting self and facework is the verbal and nonverbal ways we maintain our presenting image.

C. We have multiple identities we present in a multiple of settings. We perform in tandem with others, we collaborate, as we sometimes think we are expected to perform.

D. We do this both consciously and unconsciously; sometimes we are aware of the image we are projecting but at other times we slip into roles without planning or consciously trying. We differ in the degree of identity management depending on our self-monitoring.

VII. We usually manage our identities to follow social rules.

A. Social rules govern our behaviors as we strive to meet expectations and to accomplish personal goals.

B. While mediated communication limits potential for accurate perception, it is used for identity management. Strangers change their age, history, personality, and even gender. This form of deception, known as “catfishing,” gained national prominence recently with the exposé of a fraud perpetrated on a nationally known collegiate football figure.

C. There is a fine line of distinction between managing identities and remaining honest. The decision must come from within as complete self-disclosure, absolute blunt honesty, is rarely appropriate.
Chapter 3: Outline

I. Defining culture is not easy. The simplest definition is to say it is the language, values, beliefs, traditions, and customs people share and learn.
   
   A. Coculture is a group within the culture. Membership in a coculture often shapes the nature of communication.
   
   B. Salience describes the weight we attach to cultural characteristics.

II. Cultural differences are generalizations but cultural values and norms shape communication.
   
   A. Cultures valuing the individual more are said to be individualistic, whereas collectivistic cultures put group above self. Two distinct ways members of various cultures deliver messages are high context and low context.
   
   B. Cultures have ways of coping with unpredictable situations. The level of uncertainty avoidance reflects reaction to ambiguous circumstances. The extent of the gap between social groups who possess resources and those who don’t is called power distance. Greater or lesser power distance signals class separation or class equality.
   
   C. Some cultures value silence in communication whereas others insert talking as required social acceptance. There is a tendency to regard some cultures as masculine, feminine, and androgynous.
   
   D. Race and ethnicity mostly involve superficial qualities but have social significance. Stereotyping and prejudice often accompany noted differences between ethnicities and race. Regional differences shape feelings of belonging and are often indicated via accents.
   
   E. Cultures attach communicative value in gender identity and sexual orientation, religion, physical ability or disability, age, and socioeconomic status.

III. Different verbal and nonverbal communication codes hamper cross-cultural communication.
   
   A. Language and identity are closely tied to prestige.
   
   B. Verbal codes such as directness or indirectness, elaborate or succinct, and formality or informality affect characterizations and perceptions.
   
   C. Nonverbal codes offer a range of interpretations and symbolism. Proximity, eye contact, touch, volume, and gestures are all measured with an eye toward culture.

IV. Decoding the verbal and nonverbal systems across cultures is a challenge.
   
   A. Translation does not guarantee clarity.
   
   B. Comprehending patterns of thought is more important than literal translation.
V. The best development of intercultural communication competence hinges on a wide range of appropriate behaviors.

A. Increased contact produces contact hypothesis and better relationships.
B. A tolerance for ambiguity averts fear and apprehension of the “different.”
C. Open-mindedness can combat *ethnocentrism*: the attitude that one’s culture is superior to another.
D. Education, knowledge, and skill are developed through passive observation, active strategies, and self-disclosure.
E. Most of all, patience and perseverance reward effort. Culture shock or adjustment shock causes confusion, disorientation, resentment, and disappointment. Have patience. Continue the effort.
Chapter 4: Outline

I. **Language** is defined as a collection of *symbols* governed by rules and used to convey messages between individuals.
   A. Language is symbolic, with the meanings resting in people, not the words.
   B. Language is rule governed. *Phonological rules* govern sound, *syntactic rules* govern structure, *semantic rules* deal with meaning, and *pragmatic rules* cover interactions.
   C. The use of language shapes attitudes through naming, credibility, status, sexism, and racism.
   D. How we use language reflects back on us through power, affiliation, attraction and interest, and responsibility.

II. Most language misunderstandings are easily remedied if you recognize them.
   A. Words or phrases having more than one meaning are called *equivocal language*. Often misinterpreted because they can be taken “the wrong way,” equivocal phrasing can also be ambiguous and misleading.
   B. *Relative words* gain their meaning by comparison; the misunderstanding arises from variations in contrast.
   C. *Slang* is a language used by a group of people whose members belong to a similar coculture, whereas *jargon* is a specialized vocabulary that functions as a kind of shorthand for people with common knowledge or experience.
   D. Overly *abstract language* uses objects, events, and ideas to describe varying degrees of specificity. A book is not just a book: it can be hardback or paperback, a textbook or a novel, large print or on an e-reader.
   E. Abstract language refers to events or objects only vaguely. It is used to avoid confrontations, to hint, or to generalize, thus causing confusion and misunderstanding.

III. Three bad linguistic habits often result in disruptive language that stimulates trouble.
   A. Confusing facts and opinions: an *opinion statement* masked as a *factual statement* leads to conflict.
   B. Confusing facts and inferences: arriving at a conclusion from interpretation and not labeling the *inferential statement* as opinion leads to difficulty.
   C. Using *emotive language* that sounds descriptive but signals attitude causes problems.

IV. Evasive language is designed to mislead or antagonize. It purposefully avoids clear communication.
   A. To substitute a pleasant term for a more direct but potentially less pleasant one is to use *euphemisms*. 
B. To be deliberately vague in a way that can be interpreted in more than one way is to use equivocation.

V. There are similarities and there are differences in how the genders use language.
A. In terms of content, men are more likely to talk about recreation, technology, and nightlife, whereas women tend to favor discussing relationships, friends, family, and emotions.
B. Women concentrate more on personal problems first; men joke and kid around and tease.
C. Men use language more to accomplish a task, women to support, demonstrate, and share values.
D. Women ask questions; men make statements.
E. Similarities exist and the differences blur when men and women use profanity and vocal fillers, have shared occupations, and exist in mutually similar socioeconomic strata.
F. Often psychological sex roles play more of an influence than biological sex in how the genders use language.
Chapter 5: Outline

I. **Listening** and **hearing** are not the same thing.
   A. Listening occurs when the brain reconstructs electrochemical impulses into a representation of the original sound and gives them meaning.
   B. Listening requires **attending**, **understanding**, **responding**, and **remembering**.
   C. **Listening fidelity** is the degree of congruence between what a listener understands and what the sender was attempting to communicate.
   D. Listening is not a natural process where all listeners receive the same message.
   E. **Mindful listening** requires effort whereas **mindless listening** is passive with low-level processing of information.

II. There are several faulty listening behaviors we all possess.
   A. **Pseudolistening** is to imitate the real thing; **selective listening** responds only to a part of the message.
   B. **Defensive listening** turns innocent remarks into attacks and **ambushing** collects information in order to attack back.
   C. **Insulated** listeners avoid and **insensitive** listeners are unable to look beyond the words and take things at face value.
   D. **Stage hogging** takes place when listeners turn all conversations onto themselves.

III. The causes of poor listening are many.
   A. Message overload, rapid thought, and psychological and physical noise are some reasons for poor listening.
   B. Other reasons are hearing problems, faulty assumptions, talking has more advantages, cultural differences, and media influences.

IV. There are a number of reasons people invest effort into listening.
   A. **Task-oriented listening** aims to be **informational listening** by looking for key ideas, asking questions, **paraphrasing**, and taking notes.
   B. **Relational listening** aims at emotional connections by taking the time to listen for unexpressed thoughts and feelings and encouraging further comments.
   C. **Analytical listening** aims to enhance the relationship and understand the message. This is done by listening before evaluating, separating the message from the speaker, and searching for value.
   D. Applying analytical listening to see if a message stands up to scrutiny is one element of **critical listening**. The goal here is to examine the speaker’s evidence and reasoning, gauge the speaker’s credibility, and examine the emotional appeals being employed.

V. **Supportive listening** is aimed to help the speaker deal with personal dilemmas.
A. While this has grown into an industry of its own with counseling and advice for medical conditions, eating disorders, sexual orientation, divorce, shyness, addition, loneliness, safety, and exercise there is also the online anonymity support avenues prompting faster revelations in a shorter period of time.

B. Generally speaking, women are more likely than men to give supportive responses when presented with another person’s problems.

C. Supportive responses come in the form of advising, judging, analyzing, questioning, comforting, prompting, and reflecting.

D. Before committing, be sure your support is welcomed. You should evaluate the situation, the other person, and your own strengths and weaknesses.
Chapter 6: Outline

I. Messages expressed through nonlinguistic means are nonverbal communication.
   A. Such messages do have communicative value, although they are primarily relational.
   B. While nonverbal communication is ambiguous, it differs from verbal communication because of complexity and flow.
   C. Nonverbal encoding and decoding skills are strong predictors of popularity, attractiveness, and socioemotional well-being.

II. There are important differences in the way people use and understand nonverbal behavior.
   A. Cultures have varying nonverbal languages in gestures, the use of silence, the use of space and distance, eye contact, and even frequency of interruptions.
   B. Gender roles are often stereotypical, but generally speaking women tend to smile more, use more facial expressions, touch others more, stand closer to others, and make more eye contact.

III. Nonverbal communication functions along with verbal communication for more effective communication.
   A. Nonverbal communication uses repeating to aid in memory, substituting to communicate emblems with precise meaning within a cultural group, and complementing to reinforce or go along with verbal communication.
   B. The process of placing emphasis on oral messages is the nonverbal function of accenting. Nonverbal communication is also used for regulating—signaling the beginning or the end of communication and controlling the pace.
   C. Two other nonverbal communication functions are the often-misunderstood practice of contradicting and the usually uncomfortable art of deceiving.

IV. There are many tools at our disposal for sending nonverbal messages.
   A. Body movements are the most noticeable and include posture and gestures.
   B. The face and the eyes have powerful nonverbal impact. Expressions reflecting many emotions are called affect blends, where two or more expressions show different emotions.
   C. One great nonverbal tool is the voice. Paralanguage is the word used to describe nonverbal but vocal messages such as volume, emphasis, tone, speed, pitch, pauses, and any disfluency such as stammering and vocal fillers.
D. Appearance is a message sender involving physical attractiveness, clothing, and hygiene.

E. Physical touch can “speak” volumes. The use of distance and the way people and animals use space is called proxemics. Intimate distance is from skin contact to about 18 inches out from the body. Personal distance starts at about 18 inches and can go out four feet. Social distance starts at four feet and extends to twelve feet. Public distance goes from twelve feet on out. Distance is something we like to decide depending on how we feel toward the other person, the context of the conversation, and our personal goals.

F. Where personal space is our invisible bubble we carry around and adjust depending on the influences, territoriality is fixed. A room, a building, a neighborhood, or even a larger area to which we assume some kind of “rights” is our territory. “My desk,” “my office,” “my yard,” and “my city” are typical expressions of territoriality. We grant people with higher status more personal territory and greater privacy.

G. The physical environment people create reflects and shapes nonverbal interactions, and the study of how human beings use and structure time (known as chronemics) expresses both intentional and unintentional messages.

V. Knowledge about nonverbal messages can improve communication skills, can allow the listener to be more attuned to others, and can make communicators more aware of the messages they send.

A. It pays to tune out words and focus on meaning, usually sent nonverbally.

B. Since nonverbal communication is ambiguous, always perform perception-checking practices.

C. Pay attention to your own nonverbal practices. Record a video of “you being you” in an average conversation and then turn off the volume. What are you “saying” by what you are “doing”? That is the message others get.
Chapter 7: Outline

I. Factors influencing our choice of relational partners include superficial as well as contemplative reasons.
   A. Appearance, similarity, complementary characteristics, and reciprocal attraction affect our relationship choices.
   B. We favor individuals we deem capable of competence and use self-disclosure to build liking.
   C. In many cases relationships form due to proximity and the social exchange theory of costs versus rewards.

II. All dyadic communication is contextually interpersonal communication.
   A. Qualitatively interpersonal communication occurs when people treat one another as unique individuals.
   B. Impersonal communication is the opposite, peripheral and fleetingly superficial.
   C. While mediated communication reduces the frequency and quality of face-to-face interaction, it is used by some to enhance the quantity and quality of interpersonal communication. The social support and asynchronous nature of mediated communication contribute to an easy, anonymous courage, resulting in greater self-disclosure.

III. Virtually every verbal statement contains two kinds of messages.
   A. Content messages focus on the subject being discussed.
   B. Relational messages express feelings and attitudes.
   C. The dimensions of relational communications include affinity, respect, immediacy, and control.
   D. Metacommunication is a term used to describe messages that refer to other messages.

IV. A developmental model of the rise and fall of relationships contains phrases of coming together and coming apart.
   A. Coming together is indicated by initiating, experimenting, intensifying, integrating, and bonding.
   B. Differentiating starts the process of coming apart, followed by circumscribing, stagnating, avoiding, and terminating.
   C. Not all relationships follow all the progressive steps, and they usually are fluid and transitory between the stages.

V. Seeking important but often incompatible goals in a relationship results in a dialectical model that demonstrates the creation of dialectical tensions.
   A. These tensions include a connection–autonomy dialectic, a predictability–novelty dialectic, and an openness–privacy dialectic that requires agile juggling.
B. Managing these dialectical tensions requires the strategy of recognizing denial, overcoming disorientation, using a selection process for the alteration between one end or the other, compartmentalizing different areas in a segmentation tactic, using moderation or compromise to handle the tension, and reframing that could result in reaffirmation.

VI. Even the closest relationships involve a mixture of alternating “we” with “me.”
A. Intimacy is defined as a close union, contact, association, or acquaintance.
B. Physical closeness, intellectual sharing, emotion involving an exchange of important feeling, and shared activities provide various states of intimacy.
C. Women appear more willing to share their thoughts and feelings, and cherish personal talk. Men grow close to one another by doing things together. Generally speaking, men value doing for or with as intimacy.
D. Personal preferences influence intimacy styles more than gender. People typically orient to either words of affirmation, quality time, acts of service, gifts, or physical touch.
E. Cultural variances affect how much intimacy is desired.

VII. The process of deliberately revealing information about oneself that is significant and that would not normally be known is called self-disclosure.
A. The social penetration model has as its first dimension the breadth of information volunteered. This includes the range of subjects discussed. The second dimension is the depth of shifting from non-revealing to personal messages.
B. Another model of self-disclosure is reflected in the Johari Window, where your likes and dislikes, goals, secrets, and needs are then divided into a part you know about and the part you don’t know about imposed one atop the other with things others know about you and things you want to keep to yourself. There is an open area and a blind area, a hidden area and an unknown area, and items move from one area to the other through self-disclosure.
C. Self-disclosure is influenced by culture and usually occurs in dyads. It is usually symmetrical and occurs incrementally. While relatively scarce, self-disclosure uses the guidelines of: is the person important to you, is the risk reasonable, is it appropriate, will it be reciprocated, and is it constructive, clear, and understandable?

VIII. Three common alternatives to self-disclosure are lies, equivocation, and hinting.
A. Altruistic lies are defined as intended to be harmless or even helpful. Yet the discovery of lies causes feelings of dismay and betrayal.
B. Equivocation has perceived value as a balance between harsh truths and lying.
C. Hints are more direct than *equivocal language* but depend on the other person’s ability to pick up the unexpressed message.

Chapter 8: Outline

I. Personal relationships are a lot like the weather. The *communication climate* of a relationship refers to the emotional tone involved. The degree to which people see themselves as valued affects the climate.
   A. *Confirming responses* offer recognition, acknowledgment, and endorsement.
   B. *Disconfirming responses* show disagreement, disrespect, disinterest, and negativity.
   C. *Escalatory spirals* build from one disconfirming message affecting the climate to a stronger one to an even stronger one to a full-fledged storm! *Avoidance spirals* lessen communication through withdrawal, disregard, less investment, and even ignoring the other person involved.
   D. Positive communication climates come about with the *Gibb categories* of evaluation versus description, control versus problem orientation, strategy versus spontaneity, neutrality versus empathy, superiority versus equality, and certainty versus provisionalism.

II. Communication *conflict* is the expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce rewards, and interference from the other parties in achieving their goals.
   A. Conflict is expressed through nonassertion, direct aggression, passive aggression, indirect communication, and assertion.
   B. *Assertive communication* messages are by far the most productive and involve using behavioral descriptions, interpretation of the other’s behavior, a description of personal feelings, a description of consequences, and a statement of intention.
   C. Men and women approach conflict differently, with men thriving on competition and women gravitating toward emotional connections.
   D. Cultural variances offer differences in dealing with conflict such as individualistic goals versus collectivist concerns.
III. Every conflict is a struggle, to which there are four possible outcomes: *Win-Lose*, *Lose-Lose*, *Compromise*, or *Win-Win*.

A. Win-Win satisfies the needs of everyone involved. The steps to achieving Win-Win are: identify your problem and unmet needs, make a date, describe your problem and needs, partner check back, solicit partner’s needs, check understanding of partner’s needs, and negotiate a solution.

B. Steps to negotiation are: identify and define the conflict, generate a number of possible solutions, evaluate the alternative solutions, decide on the best solution, and follow up.
Chapter 9: Outline

I. A group consists of a small collection of people who interact with each other, over time, in order to reach goals.
   A. A team is a group but members work together on a higher level. Teams share clear and inspiring goals, a results-driven structure, competent team members, unified commitment, a collaborative climate, standards of excellence, external support and recognition, and principled leadership.
   B. Virtual groups are teams who interact with one another through mediated communication, without meeting face to face. This form of interaction has advantages in terms of ease and expediency of overcoming geographical challenges and leveling the status differences of rank, age, and gender.

II. Two forces drive group communication: (1) group goals, which are the outcomes you seek to accomplish together, and (2) individual goals, the personal motives of each member.
   A. Most groups meet to achieve a collective task, but social goals of fraternization are equally important.
   B. Individuals participate in groups for many personal reasons; these can become disruptive if the goal consists of a hidden agenda, because it is often in conflict with the group goals.

III. All groups and teams have rules and all groups have norms.
   A. A rule is the official guideline.
   B. Norms are the unspoken standards. Social norms govern how members relate and procedural norms are for operations. Task norms govern how members get the job done.

IV. The more complex the structure of groups, the greater effect this has on the flow of information.
   A. All-channel networks allow group members to share the same information.
      In a chain network information moves sequentially. In a wheel network, clearinghouse gatekeepers are used to disperse information.
   B. Patterns of behavior by members within the group or team are called roles. Formal roles are assigned and designated. Informal roles serve functions but are rarely acknowledged by the group in words. Informal roles fall into two categories: task roles help and social roles, maintenance, continues the relationships. Dysfunctional roles, which are unfortunately too common in groups or teams, prevent the group from being effective.
   C. Three role-related problems occur when (1) important informal roles go unfilled, (2) competition causes divisiveness, or (3) one member becomes a victim of role fixation (acting out a role whether or not the situation requires it).

V. All groups or teams have a leader or leaders.
A. The authoritarian leadership style relies on legitimate, coercive, and reward power to influence others. In the democratic leadership style members share in the decision making. In the laissez-faire leadership style the leader relinquishes the power and leaves the group rudderless. A situational leadership style changes with the circumstances.

B. Transactional operators are motivated primarily by personal glory. Team players work to keep members happy and to maintain harmony. Transformational leaders respect the power of teamwork and encourage positive morale.

C. Even in groups that begin with no official leaders, a member or members will become the emergent leader.

VI. If every group or team has a leader then there must be followers.

A. Isolates are indifferent and communicate little outside their environment. Bystanders tend to hang back and watch. Participants attempt to have an impact. Activists are more engaged and passionate. Diehards will, literally, sacrifice themselves for the cause.

B. Followers hold the power. This ability to influence others has many guises. Legitimate power arises from the title or position one holds. Expert power comes from knowledge and competence. Connection power exists when a member has the ability to develop relationships that help the group. Reward power is gained by granting or promising a pay-off. Coercive power involves threats, intimidation, and punishment.

C. Referent power comes from the respect, liking, and trust of others.

D. Power is group centered. A leader only has the power granted by the group. Power is distributed among group members and occurs in degrees; it is not an either-or concept.
Chapter 10: Outline

I. In most cases groups can produce more solutions to a problem than individuals.
   A. Problem-solving groups are more effective because they have more resources, an improved rate of accuracy, more commitment, and increased diversity.
   B. Groups are justified if the job is beyond the capacity of one person, if individual tasks are interdependent, if there is more than one possible decision or solution, and if there is potential for disagreement.

II. Groups are most effective when members feel good about one another.
   A. Cohesiveness, the degree to which members feel connected with and committed to the group, helps a group to be effective.
   B. Cohesiveness is boosted when there are shared or compatible goals, progress toward those goals, and shared norms and values.
   C. Other contributors to cohesiveness are the lack of perceived threat between members, interdependence of members, and a perceived threat outside the group.
   D. Two other components of cohesiveness are the feelings of mutual attraction and friendship and shared group experiences.

III. Many problem-solving groups develop along predictable stages when organizing and strategizing.
   A. Members approach the initial orientation stage quite tentatively. Once the reason for the group is identified there is a conflict stage of positions and viewpoints. Give-and-take discussions should progress to a sense of unity and cooperation; thus, the emergence stage develops as the members become a group. Once the group works together the members support and defend each other in the reinforcement stage.
   B. Problem-solving groups use a number of formats and approaches to present their results. Breakout groups are offshoots of a larger group, problem census approaches might be used to make a list of ideas to discuss. A focus group does not decide the outcome but rather provides solicited feedback.
   C. Parliamentary procedure provides specific rules for discussion and decision making. A panel discussion involves roundtable contributions with audience members observing and eavesdropping. A symposium presentation occurs when the members divide the topic and each delivers information uninterrupted. Forum groups encourage input and participation from nonmembers. Dialogue encourages give-and-take and listening to others without superiority with a goal toward understanding.
IV. Often emotions hamper rational differences of opinion in a group, so a template for reflective thinking and decision making is useful.
A. A structured approach for a problem-solving group would be to identify the problem, analyze the problem, develop creative solutions, evaluate possible solutions, implement the plan, and follow up on the solution.
B. The decision-making process has several options. Majority control allows quick votes but could exclude 49% of the members. Expert opinion works well if someone has the knowledge but stumbles if not everyone accepts the expert. Minority control has a few decide for the many but overlooks the input of the many. Authority rule is autocratic, efficient, and, at times, dictatorial, but failure to consult members can leave them feeling ordered rather than asked. **Consensus** means all members agree on the decision.
The problem there is that full and complete agreement is very difficult to achieve without compromise.

V. Even groups with the best intentions encounter stumbling blocks to effectiveness.
A. **Information underload**, the scarcity of accurate and current input, hinders good results. **Information overload** can overwhelm group members by causing complications and distractions. Unequal participation is the bane of all experienced group members. Unfair balance of responsibilities, a reluctant or absent member, a dysfunctional member demonstrating lack of cooperation: these bog down progress and stifle results.
B. A strong tendency to “go along to get along,” the pressure to conform, often overwhelms dissent when a contrary perspective could be useful.
Chapter 11: Outline

I. The three steps to preparing a speech are: choose a topic, determine your purpose, and find information.
   A. Pick a topic that interests you. Pick a topic early. More time means more research and practice.
   B. The purpose statement of your speech is expressed in a complete sentence that describes exactly what you want your speech to accomplish. This specific purpose should stem from your overall general purpose to inform, persuade, or entertain.
   C. The purpose statement should be results-oriented, specific, and realistic.
   D. The thesis statement tells your listeners the general idea.

II. Two things to always consider in preparing a speech: the audience and the occasion.
   A. Audience analysis involves identifying and adapting your remarks to your listeners.
   B. Audience members are there for a reason. You need to know the audience purpose. Characteristics such as age, gender, cultural diversity, group membership, and so on are audience demographics. What is the audience attitude? What are their beliefs and values?
   C. A second step in preparation takes into account the time, place, and audience expectations.

III. Now you are ready to find information.
   A. Use online research if you can verify its credibility, objectivity, and currency. Is the material accurate and truthful, is it non-biased, and is it recent?
   B. Use library catalog sources, reference works, periodicals, databases, and interviews for accurate information. Survey research is another venue to explore for source material and involves distributing questionnaires to peers and other contributors.

IV. You are getting the material ready, so how about the fear of giving a speech?
   A. Facilitative communication apprehension involves some nervousness and anxiety. That is to be expected. Confidence reinforced by practice and more practice addresses the usual butterflies common to all.
   B. Debilitative communication apprehension involves panic, the fight-or-flight reflex, and crippling self-doubt. Previous negative experiences, irrational thinking, the fallacy of catastrophic failure (anticipating that something awful will happen), the fallacy of perfection expected from the listeners, the fallacy of approval (where you think you have to please everyone), and the fallacy of overgeneralization (where you blow things totally out of proportion) all contribute to debilitative anxiety.
C. Fight back by using the nervousness to your advantage, understanding the difference between rational concerns and irrational fears, maintaining a receiver orientation (this is for them and not about you), keeping a positive attitude where your visualization is one of success, and being prepared. Practice ahead of time and anticipate all possible challenges.

V. The decision on how to present the speech is your next step of preparation.
   A. An *extemporaneous speech* is planned in advance and presented in a conversational tone. An *impromptu speech* is spontaneous and unplanned. A *manuscript speech* is written out and then read word for word. A *memorized speech* is learned and presented without notes.
   B. Other delivery considerations include appearance, movement, posture, facial expressions, gestures, and eye contact.
   C. Auditory aspects of delivery include volume, *rate, pitch*, word choice, and *articulation*.
   D. The four most common articulation challenges are *deletion, substitution, addition,* and *slurring.*
Chapter 12: Outline

I. Building a speech starts with a strong foundation. The outline is that foundation.
   A. A **working outline** is a construction tool to map out your speech. This is for your eyes only, informal and rough, used to refine and solidify ideas.
   B. A **formal outline** uses a consistent format and set of symbols.
   C. Speaking notes are used to jog your memory. These are usually brief phrases and keywords organized to aid the flow and progression of the speech.
   D. Following a standard format contributes to neatness, ease of scanning, and coordination of main points and sub-points.

II. The outline must be organized in a logical pattern.
   A. **Time patterns** organize things in chronological order: first came this, then this, then lastly this.
   B. **Space patterns** are organized according to area: moving from east to west or smaller to larger.
   C. **Topic patterns** follow types or categories: well-known to less familiar, classifications that progress to the next step or stage.
   D. **Problem-solution patterns** describe what is wrong and propose a way to make things better. This is a popular format for persuasive speeches.
   E. **Cause-effect patterns** discuss what happened and then the consequences of what happened.
   F. Monroe’s motivated sequence gets attention, addresses a need, offers satisfaction, paints a beneficial visualization, and then calls for action.

III. Moving from one portion or component of the speech to the next is accomplished by using **transitions**.
   A. Transitions help relate one point to the next. They move the flow from highlight to highlight and soothe the hectic stop-start of presenting.
   B. Transitions connect and bond the components of the outline pattern to conversational delivery.

IV. Every speech starts with an **introduction**.
   A. The first goal of an introduction is to capture the attention of the audience. There are many approaches possible, but the most important thing to remember is you want the audience to pay attention.
   B. An effective introduction states the speaker’s thesis by previewing main points.
   C. The beginning of your speech sets the mood and tone of the speech. You must demonstrate the importance of your topic to the audience and establish your credibility.
V. Although some anxious speakers have their doubts, every speech has a conclusion. It will end!
   A. The conclusion should restate the thesis, review main points, and provide a memorable final remark.
   B. Bad conclusions ruin an otherwise good speech, so remember the four “don’ts”: don’t end abruptly, don’t ramble, don’t introduce new points, and don’t apologize.

VI. Charisma and character do not guarantee the audience’s attention unless you have supporting material.
   A. The role of supporting material is to clarify, prove, make interesting, and make memorable.
   B. Various types of supporting material include definition, example, statistic, analogy/comparison-contrast, anecdote, and quotation/testimony.
   C. The narration style of presenting means telling a story or relating an incident. Citation uses someone else’s work; you are using it as a statement of fact.
Chapter 13: Outline

I. There is a lot of information out there, almost too much. How do you cope?
   A. Information overload is a form of stress where people get confused and have trouble sorting out the wheat from the chaff.
   B. Information anxiety results in mind clutter and frustration over what to discard and what to turn into knowledge.
   C. Effective public speakers use information to give knowledge to the listeners.

II. Informative speeches primarily have to do with content and purpose.
   A. Content speeches deal with objects, processes, events, and concepts.
   B. Speeches dealing with purpose involve descriptions, explanations, and instructions.
   C. Informative speeches tend to be noncontroversial and do not attempt to change the audience’s opinions.
   D. Persuasive speeches advocate change and expect resistance to acceptance.

III. The techniques of informative speaking help an audience understand and care.
   A. Formulate a specific informative purpose statement. Create information hunger. Make it easy to listen. Use clear, simple language. Use a clear organization and structure.
   B. It is very beneficial to use supportive material effectively. Emphasize important points. Generate audience involvement and encourage audience participation. Use signposts that emphasize upcoming material. Use visual aids.
   C. There are a wide variety of choices for visual aids, such as objects and models, diagrams, word charts, number charts, pie charts, bar charts, column charts, line charts, chalk and whiteboards, posters and pads, handouts, projectors, power point, Prezi, keynote, video, vocal citations, audio, and physical demonstrations.
   D. Visual aids should be evaluated for simplicity, size, attractiveness, appropriateness, and reliability.
Chapter 14: Outline

I. **Persuasion** is the process of motivating someone, through communication, to change a particular belief, attitude, or behavior.
   A. Persuasion is not coercive but it is usually incremental.
   B. The *social judgment theory* is used by listeners to compare the opinions of the speaker to ones they already hold.
   C. The preexisting opinion is known as the *anchor* and any movement or change goes along a diagram of *latitude of acceptance, latitude of rejection*, and *latitude of noncommitment*.
   D. Persuasion is interactive. Persuasion differs from coercion in that it is ethical. *Ethical persuasion* is communication in the best interest of the audience that does not depend on false or misleading information to change the audience’s attitude or behavior.

II. There are several types of persuasion depending on the proposition being advanced.
   A. *Propositions of fact* come up when there are two or more sides and the audience is being asked to choose.
   B. *Propositions of value* explore the worth of an idea, person, or object.
   C. *Propositions of policy* recommend a specific course of action.

III. Persuasion offers two possible desired outcomes. *Convincing* the audience to change a way of thinking is one desired outcome. The other is to set about to *actuate* an audience into a specific behavior.
   A. *Direct persuasion* is used to make the message clear early in the speech.
   B. *Indirect persuasion* deemphasizes the purpose to allow a hostile or unfriendly audience time to adjust to the proposal.

IV. Persuasion has been called a “reason-giving discourse.” The technique, therefore, of creating a persuasive message involves proposing claims and backing those claims up with accurate reasons.
   A. There must be a clear, persuasive purpose with a message that is structured carefully.
   B. The speaker needs to describe the problem, describe the solution, describe the desired audience response, and then combine the solution with the desired audience response. One recommended way to do this is to use the *motivated sequence*.
   C. Solid *evidence* is mandatory in persuasion, and this includes *emotional evidence* that evokes feelings.

V. Too often the ethical approach of persuasion is hampered by errors in logic. A *fallacy* of logic can negate any possible movement the listener might have been contemplating.
A. The *ad hominem fallacy* attacks the person instead of the argument. A *reductio ad absurdum fallacy* takes the argument to ridiculous extremes. *Either-or fallacy* proposals issue ultimatums and set up false alternatives.

B. Additional logical errors take place when the speaker uses the _post hoc fallacy_. This mistakenly assumes one event caused another because they happened sequentially. An *argumentum ad verecundiam* involves relying on the testimony of someone who has a title or fame but is not an expert. Mass appeal is often used via the *argumentum ad populum*, also called bandwagon. Just because many approve does not mean it is the correct decision.

VI. High on the list of priorities for a persuasive speech is the need to appreciate your *target audience*.

A. Persuasive speakers should establish a common ground and organize according to the expected response.

B. The speaker needs to neutralize potential hostility and build *credibility* as a speaker. To have credibility means you are believable.

C. Competence means expertise on the subject. Character implies trustworthiness, and charisma means likability.

D. Aristotle referred to these qualities as *ethos* to mean credibility, *pathos* to appeal to emotion, and *logos* to affect reasoning and logic.