Credibility in Business Communication

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1983 Southeast ABCA Regional Conference

Proceedings

Credibility in Business Communication

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Southeast Regional Conference
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AMERICAN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION ASSOCIATION

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Conference Coordinators:

Robert B. Mitchell
Marian Crawford Webber
Department of Management
College of Business Administration
University of Arkansas at Little Rock

International Business Communication

INTERNATIONALIZING BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

by M. Gerald Lathan
Memphis State University
Memphis, Tennessee

ABSTRACT

With an increasing number of American business men and women becoming involved in international business activities, it is becoming even more important that we learn to communicate on an international scale. Almost every American firm is involved in and affected by international business. Modern business people must be familiar with the economies, politics, and cultures of foreign countries. At the top of priorities must be the ability to communicate--verbally and nonverbally. An understanding of cultural differences, languages, and writing systems is necessary to send and receive maximum messages with minimum barriers. Gestures and facial expressions do not have universally understood meanings. There are certain topics of conversation and certain illustrations in public speaking that are best left untouched in some countries. There are specific techniques that can be used in the classroom to develop awareness of these differences and similarities and to develop understanding of the messages being sent by foreign business correspondents.

INTRODUCTION

Ever since the mid-1960's when large international business firms became a very important force in the international economy as well as the individual national economy, all aspects of exporting and importing of goods and services, international licensing agreements, international leasing agreements, short-term investments and borrowing in other currencies, and a wide variety of other foreign business activities have steadily increased.

Now there are over 35,000 U.S. businessmen who live and work overseas, over 30,000 U.S. business firms involved in exporting, and over 6,000 large companies with direct foreign investments. It is difficult to point to a firm of any size that is not involved in or affected by some aspect of international business.[1]

To educate or train people for international business, one must include all the job responsibilities that must be performed with familiarity with the economies, politics, and cultures of various foreign countries. Overriding this knowledge is the supreme ability to communicate with business people in regard to native business policies, as well as similarities and differences in languages and nonverbal communication.

There is a wide variety of people who work in various capacities involving international business, yet never travel abroad. Still they must fully understand the environment in which their firm's foreign operations are located in order to communicate with the company's overseas personnel or the personnel of foreign companies with which they carry on these operations.

AACSB Encourages an International Curriculum

The AACSB has had a strong influence on the internationalization of the curriculums of collegiate schools of business when in 1974 it changed its accreditation standards so as to require the curriculum to "reflect the 'world-wide' as well as the domestic aspects of business."[2]

According to the AACSB standards, the purpose of the curriculum should be to provide for a broad education preparing the student for imaginative and responsible citizenship and leadership roles in business and society--domestic and worldwide.

There are international business programs or majors in international business for college students, but in most schools only a small percentage of students are enrolled in any of these courses. Three methods are suggested for internationalizing the business curriculum:

1. Require an international course in each department of the school of business, ex., international accounting, international finance, etc.

2. Provide courses in each department that can be electives for students, with the requirement that each student take one international course from some department (It may be outside their major department).

3. Internationalize each course in the college of business where it is deemed appropriate.

It is to this last suggestion for internationalizing the business communication course that this article lends its support and ideas toward accomplishing.

RECEIVING INTERNATIONAL MESSAGES

First, let us look at some situations on the international scale that require an understanding of cultural differences in order to accept and act upon the communication involved.

Without an understanding of Japanese language and its writing systems, their business letters may seem strange and unpredictable. Until about 50 years ago, Japanese wrote letters, particularly personal letters, in accordance with the traditional form and style, using a roll of paper, a brush, and India ink. Although this method of writing is changing, the well-established format for writing business letters is still maintained in modern Japanese business to a large extent. The modern Japanese business letter may still begin with the salutation and follow with:

1. A remark about the season or weather,

2. An inquiry about the receiver's health (in personal letters) or congratulations on the receiver's prosperity (in business letters), and

3. Thanks for a gift or some other kindness recently received (in personal letters) or patronage (in business letters).

Then, the main message appears (usually the first item covered in American business letters.)

Afterward, a closing remark or summary and good wishes for the receiver's health or prosperity are necessary before the complimentary close. The date, the sender's name, and the receiver's name with an appropriate title complete the format of the letter. Therefore, the letter style is characterized by politeness and formality and will seem much less vivid than English letters.

Furthermore, for domestic business, a telephone call or a personal visit is preferred to letters in Japan; because letters are not always considered the highest form of courtesy. Among the Japanese, there is much less room for misunderstanding than in international transactions.

American students are taught that in refusal letters, as in most "bad-news" letters, we do not make a reference to the "bad-news" situation by apologizing in the beginning of the letter. However, Japanese business letters that contain refusals also contain an apology at the beginning. Japanese sales letters cannot be as vivid, personal, aggressive, high-pitched, or hard sell as American letters, because it would immediately turn the Japanese customer away. The Japanese seldom write application letters for job hunting, nor do they go directly to prospective employers.[3]

Another communication issue which has been identified as leading to difficulties during American-Japanese business transactions involves discussions of profit and profitability. It may be that Americans and Japanese have different conceptualizations of the word profit and that these differences lead to what general semanticists call bypassing. The American doing business with the Japanese must realize that he should define what he means by profit before he negotiates--so that he meets the Japanese conception with one of his own. Clear definition of terms, even if the definitions conflict, is absolutely necessary for successful communications.[4]

Many Japanese corporations are building factories in the United States, which increases the need for American business men and women to understand the customs of the Japanese and their methods of communication. A recent Newsweek article points out that "for Tennesseeans, Japan is more than just a foreign experience. . . . and the open Southern style doesn't always sit well with the traditionally reserved Japanese."[5] Many Japanese companies with U.S. operations regularly take employees back to Japan for training. The exercise is primarily aimed at convincing workers that Japanese companies are not paternalistic, sexist, uncreative and mechanistic, which is the Western stereotype of Japanese industry.[6]

Masked Meanings

Now let us turn our attention to another group of foreigners with which American industry regularly does business--the Latin Americans. In a discussion of "The Masked Meanings of Nonverbal Messages", Jackson points out that Latin Americans and North Americans will find conversation strained if the two are unfamiliar with the cultural background of the other. Latin Americans tend to stand closer during conversation, in which case North Americans would gradually inch away to protect the personal space he or she feels comfortable with.

Because they may not understand the other's nonverbal language, the North American will be anxious to get away from the aggressive Latin, while the Latin American will view the North American's actions as cold and aloof.[7]

Regardless of how many expressions we think are universal, gestures and facial expressions do not have universally understood meanings. In one culture it may not be proper to reveal emotions to others while in another emotions should be vividly expressed in strong hand movements and facial expressions. In a Latin American culture, downcast eyes do not necessarily convey a message of insubordination and insolence; instead, it is a sign of respect. On the contrary, direct ey contact shows contempt and disrespect. Managers who supervise people with a variety of cultural backgrounds will find that an understanding of these difference in backgrounds will make the task of managing much more productive and rewarding.[8]

Sealed with Formality

Jerry Dillehay of the Tennessee State Department of Conversation relates his experience in reporting accounts of his activities as a Peace Corps volunteer in Chile. He wrote his experiences in report form to which he was accustomed. A Chilean secretary then took his cover letter for the report and changed it to conform to the desired format of the Chilean Ministry of Agriculture. For example, since business correspondence in Spanish-speaking countries is much more formal, letters contain elaborate titles such as "Your Esteemed Gracious Don (Mr.) Hernado. It is considered vulgar to address anyone in a business letter as "you". In speaking and in writing friendly personal letters, it is acceptable to use "tu" (you); however, in business letter writing the former is considered vulgar, and the term "usted" (you) is preferred. Furthermore, the latter (usted) changes the conjugation of verbs and adjectives from those used with "tu".

Business letters in Spanish-speaking countries are much longer, because they contain much wider margins than the American business letter. The block style is used exclusively. No abbreviations, no reference lines, and no codes are used. To do so would be an insult to the receiver. There is no letterhead, as such, for business letters. Instead, a cover sheet with the business seal printed in the center of the page is used for all business letters. The receiver of a letter writes his initials at the end of the letter and places an embossed seal over the initials to show receipt of the letter.

The Top-Five Foreign Customers

To further understand some of the cultural differences that the American business person may deal with in foreign business transactions, here is an examination of the top five foreign countries with which the United States deals.[9] First of all, the American people are more informal than formal, they arrive on time, and keep about an arm's length between themselves when conversing. They move frequently during conversation and are relatively frank.

In Canada, French-speaking Canadians are outgoing and open but more reserved than Americans. Therefore, they may be suspicious of new ideas. Canadian gestures are similar to American gestures. Dress is more conservative and somewhat more formal than in the U.S. As in the U.S., punctuality is important in business meetings. Appropriate rules of etiquette are observed more rigidly than in the U.S. Promptness in showing gratitude is important. Touching is acceptable when done in a brotherly manner. Eye contact is important during conversation.

A bow is the traditional greeting in Japan. Reserve and modesty are traditionally emphasized. Compliments are graciously denied. (The Japanese feel an obligation to give an object that is complimented to the person who has given the compliment.) Correct posture is emphasized in Japanese culture. Laughter can be a sign of distress or embarrassment, as well as a sign of joy or amusement. Loyalty to one's superiors takes precedence over personal feelings. Employees are hired for life; therefore, being fired is considered a disgrace. Age and tradition are highly honored but are not allowed to impede progress. An interesting comparison between Japanese and Chinese communication is that spoken Japanese and spoken Chinese are not clearly related, but the written languages are directly related.

Mexicans usually stand close while talking, sometimes touching each other's clothing. Refusing another's offer is considered impolite. The Mexican people generally appreciate a foreigner's efforts to speak Spanish, but political and historical topics should be avoided. Because individuals are more important than schedules, the concept of time is relaxed. Most Mexicans tend to identify with their Indian rather than Spanish heritage.

In England, references to politics in public speeches should be avoided. The English appreciate short introductions of speakers. Punctuality is a plus in English business meetings. Mutually confidential, intimate, and concerned attitudes reap the best results. Englishmen appreciate good listeners and those who are not too complimentary. Excessive gestures with the hands and gestures of intimacy are not looked upon favorably unless the intimacy is expressed toward old and dear acquaintances. Although verbal and nonverbal communication with the English is much the same as with Americans (naturally), there are some differences. Like driving on the left side of the road, the British have some words and phrases that are peculiar to their culture. Instead of saying "Hello," on the phone, the English businessman most likely would say, "Are you there?" and "on time" is referred to as "to time".

Germans appreciate informative speeches that contain new and intellectually stimulating ideas. References to music and literature and an indication of the speaker's appreciation and understanding of such are valued by the German people. However, they enjoy almost any topic that is well organized and developed. Conversing with the hands in the pockets is considered disrespectful. Visitors who speak German are appreciated. Visitors and correspondents should be familiar with the metric system. Schedules are listed according to the 24-hour clock (for example, 6:30 pm would be 18:30). German women never smile at strangers on the street.

Similar or Different?

Similarities and differences in languages are quite interesting and sometimes amusing. In Jamaica, speed bumps are called sleeping policemen. In Mexico, the movie Grease is advertised as Vaselina, and in Colombia, it is called Brillantina. However, taxi is spelled exactly the same in English, French, German, Swedish, Spanish, Danish, Norwegian, Dutch, and Portuguese; but eskimos have 20 different terms for the word snow.

How to Internationalize

It is suggested that some of these cultural differences and communication customs be emphasized throughout the business communication course, either by the instructor or by guest speakers. Some college campuses may have access to foreign business people who might act as guest speakers in communication classes with the specific purpose of pointing out similarities and differences between communication practices in foreign business and those practices of our domestic businesses. Some collegiate schools of business have on their faculty professors who have foreign cultural and/or business backgrounds. These may be used in much the same way as guest speakers from business and industry.

Perhaps the best we can hope for in internationalizing business communication is to raise the awareness level of students for differences in principles and practices of international communication.

Dr. Lathan is assistant professor and teaches business communication at Memphis State University, Memphis, Tennessee. He has written articles for the ABCA Bulletin and The Journal of Business Education and has made presentations at ABCA-Southeast and ABCA-Southwest.

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A TALE OF TWO WORLDS: ON COMMUNICATION BARRIERS FOR GLOBAL CORPORATIONS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Richard David Ramsey, Southeastern Louisiana University
Peter Wright, Southeastern Louisiana University
Jagjit S. Brar, Southeastern Louisiana University

ABSTRACT

With the rapid advance of transportation and electronics, the challenges of international business communication have come to loom increasingly large among the problems of business communication in general. And, in particular, international business communication has come increasingly to concern the communication problems of global corporations in Third-World markets. Third-World countries, which collectively contain most of the earth's population, have been taking a skeptical view of global corporations based in the First World. Global corporations need to counter this view with skillful handling of political currents, corporate logistics, and high technology. Above all, the global corporation should adopt a corporate policy which seeks to instill in rank-and-file First-World workers who interact with Third-World foreigners an appreciation of the role of interpersonal communication across cultural lines.

INTRODUCTION

The world has shrunk. Rapid intercontinental transportation and instantaneous electronic communication around the globe have combined to make foreign capitals much more accessible now than the national capital was to most people a hundred years ago.

The great advances in transportation and electronic communication have served to draw in virtual juxtaposition nations and cultures rooted in millennia of differences. Further, international differences which formerly were unknown or obscure have become observable and categorical. Likewise, by corollary, nations whose wide separation once prevented them from discerning their similarities and mutual interests can now see the need for flocking together and cooperating for common objectives. The world in the 20th century is seen as divided not so much by geography as by economics--as divided into the First World, the Second World, and the Third World.[1]

Concurrently, since the heyday of the British East India Company, the world has seen the steady unrelenting rise of multinational companies or global corporations (GCs). Based (with rare exception such as Pemex) in the First World, the GCs have increasingly become beset with the problems of international business communication. The problems of international business communication no longer include just the need to understand foreign languages and cultures, for since World War II these differences have mingled with additional difficulties which touch the very core of the concept of international business: central to these new difficulties is the difference between the First World and the Third World in perception of the role of the GC based in the First World. This difference in perception has become the most severe wide-scale strategic barrier to international business communication between the First World and the Third World.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE PRESENT SITUATION

The European and American dominance in the world through the first half of the 20th century promoted an atmosphere conducive to the GC based in the West (Doz, 1979). The leaders of Third-World nations became predisposed toward encouraging GC involvements within their borders as being advantageous to the host countries in the Third World.

This perception among the Third World of a kind of symbiotic relationship with the GCs was to begin changing dramatically with World War II.[2] Basically, the War did two things: (1) it served as a catalyst for many Third-World nations to work themselves free from colonial subservience to the First World; and (2) it left unprecedentedly enormous chunks of Europe and Asia under Communist control, with the effect that the poorer nations of the Third World could vie for the attention of the First World and of the Communist bloc--in effect the individual nations of the Third World could threaten to ally themselves with the First World or the Second World on the basis of which could offer the best bid in terms of foreign aid, trade, etc. Declarations of political independence were accompanied by nationalistic desires for economic independence, and GCs were more and more viewed as being simply surrogates for the former colonialist powers.

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[1]We use the term First World to mean the countries of Australia, Japan, New Zealand, North America, and Western Europe. The Second World means the Communist bloc. The Third World encompasses all other countries. Other terms used to signify the First World vis-à-vis the Third World include rich nations / poor nations, advanced countries / developing countries, developed countries / underdeveloped countries, etc.

[2]For a discussion of the ramifications of the postwar economic order relative to the Third World, see Serfaty, 1981, pp. 10-15.

In the meantime, however, the managements of many GCs failed to comprehend why and how the wind had changed direction: they continued to perceive the GCs as the Good Samaritan who brings the balm of economic development, while their host governments came to view the GCs as the robbers who leave Third-World countries in the ditch. The larger the GC, the more likely it came to be viewed negatively in the Third World.[3]

TRENDS

This unsettled and uneasy situation is still very much alive today, and the Western-based GC which fails to come to grips with it will soon be swimming upstream in the Third World. In Islamic markets, for example, it is no longer enough simply to know the local language and traditions--what is required now is additionally a grasp of the way in which Coca-Cola, Exxon, and McDonald's may, even if only by their very names, be perceived as villains who betoken all the perfidious evils of American culture (cf. Wright, 1981).

We see this abstract perception of the Western-based GC as taking several more concrete forms:

- Third-World GCs, or multinational companies based in the Third World, will seek to counter the First-World GC with products of equal value but lower price. Nationalistic pressures will encourage Third-World citizens to forsake goods produced in the First World and instead to buy products produced in the Third World.

- Cartels will arise to speak as a common voice for the Third World. These cartels will generally ignore the differences among their members and will instead channel their energies toward influencing policy in the First World. One such cartel already in existence is OPEC, a consortium of petroleum-exporting countries in Latin America and the Middle East.

- Forums for redistribution of wealth will become more commonplace. The Brandt Report and the Cancún Conference of 1981 are only harbingers of future multinational forums which will press for virtual line transfer of funds to offset the imbalance in the wealth of nations.

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[3] It is also true that the managements of GCs have widespread, and indiscriminate, negative impressions of Third-World governments, despite the notable stability which some Third-World countries have. John S. McClenahan (1982, p. 84) describes the relationship between the GC and the Third World as follows:

> The U. S. and the world's developing nations supposedly have a deep distrust of each other. The U. S. is often pictured as an unprincipled exploiter of natural and human resources, while Third World countries are frequently seen as progenitors of a new international economic chaos. The differences are, allegedly, irreconcilable.

- Linkages will be required by host governments between GC operations and GC benefits to the host governments, as measurable in hard cash. Mere "economic development" will no longer be enough. The host government may view the GC as a nefarious enterprise but as one to be tolerated so long as it furnishes some bacon to the host country.

- Revolutionary movements will perceive GCs as simply economic fronts for First-World governments with imperialist designs. Additionally, Marxist-Leninist propaganda, seeking to undermine First-World influence in the Third World, will attempt to lend every support to this perception.

- Nationalization will in a few regions be an ever-present possibility. Wherever this threat of nationalization emerges, it will serve as a deterrent to GC expansion and as a stimulant to curtailment of GC operations.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR CORPORATE STRATEGIES

To enhance their communication in the international sphere and particularly in Third-World markets, Western-based GCs will need to take special measures to compensate for the prejudicial perception which will exist against their products. Strategically, and officially, the GC will have to adopt a corporate policy aimed at maximizing the GC's positive image and at minimizing the GC's being perceived as a tool of First-World power; tactically, and perhaps unofficially, the GC should ensure that individuals working for the company, particularly in the Third World, will be aware of the communication problems and will adopt personal behaviors in speech and manner which will reenforce the policy.

We see the best corporate policy as enhancing better business communication in the Third World by addressing at least three important general arenas:

1. In politics, the GC will need to establish a political-analysis department within its corporate structure. Many companies have, in fact, already hired political scientists and former U. S. Foreign Service officers into advisory roles (Alsop, 1981). Compromises based on political and economic considerations will figure into a GC's desire to compete, and in some cases even to survive, in Third-World markets. The GC's political-analysis department will be charged with the task of evaluating each case individually and of ascertaining the best course of action under the restraints imposed by law.[4]

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[4]Concerning these restraints, we think particularly with regard to the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act of 1977; about this Act, see Ramsey, Parsinia, Kinard, and Wright, 1983. For more background on the Third-World political relations of GCs, see Bergsten, Horst, and Moran, 1978, pp. 385-395.

2. In logistics or supply management, that GC will function best which can decentralize or disaggregate its production as much as expedient to the Third World. While maintaining control from the First World (which is, after all, generally more immune to political upheavals), the GC should seek to moderate the perception that it is an outsider to the Third World. Every action must be undertaken to encourage a perception that the GC is in fact part of the indigenous fabric of the host country--at worst a symbiotic relationship or cooperative venture, not an exploitative connection. The management must, however, exercise foresight to avoid putting too much of the GC's operation into one place, since disaggregation into several places will in the long term be more cost effective than collectivization into one place which may suffer a political upheaval.

3. In technology the GC based in the First World must preserve the edge. Otherwise the GC will lose out to the cheaper labor of the Third World and the Communist bloc, since it is the First World's technology which draws the Third World and the Second World into a client relationship to the First World. We see the First World's advantage in technology as being preserved along two fronts: (1) capital for corporate education, research, and development, and (2) confidentiality of technological secrets and control of ultra-sophisticated equipment (for example, restraints against release of high-technology computer main-frames to governments whose long-term objectives are inimical to human rights as generally defined in the First World).

Above all, nonetheless, any policy is only so good as the people who implement it. In the area of international business communication, we believe that irreparable harm has been done by enlightened and well-meaning corporate managements whose rank-and-file subordinates either (1) failed to get the message about communication in foreign lands or (2) failed to display sympathetic and respectful behaviors toward the cultures of foreigners. All too often the American worker assigned to a Third-World location has set a good example in self-motivation, know-how, and responsibility, only to be a net liability to the company because of poor interpersonal communication involving such communicative acts as indiscretionary speech habits (profanity) or observable lack of empathy for a foreigner's way of doing things (for example, the American worker who displays disapproving facial expressions whan an Islamic worker announces that he must stop work to pray). On such personal levels as this, communication, or, more specifically, bad communication,[5] has contributed greatly to the result that American companies have become personae non gratae in whole regions such as Latin America and Iran. In other words, one of the most pivotal foci of international business communication is strictly face-to-face interpersonal communication couched in international business.

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[5] Actually, in the general role of communication, it has been pointed out that good communication is likely to be defined in terms of the effects of bad communication: *viz.*, "Good communication is that something provided to avoid bad communication" (Wycoff, 1982, p. 17).

For a GC to ignore these Third-World challenges is to invite certain death in international business. Most of the earth's population already lives in the Third World, often in countries with strategic seaports and untapped geologic resources. If present demographic trends persist, one can expect at least a continuance of the present population ratio; and, if medical progress occurs in Third-World countries while birth rates remain the same, the percentage of population in the Third World will rise even higher in the 21st century.[6]

CONCLUSION

As air travel and satellite communication develop further, GCs based in the First World will need to develop more expertise in policy of international business communication and in implementation of such policy. The success and even survival of the GC will depend on its ability to maneuver politically, logistically, and technologically in Third-World markets. Above all, nonetheless, success in the Third World will require that the GC accomplish at the rank-and-file level a visible acceptance and understanding of Third-World cultures.

[6] Analysis of population trends can be found in Thomlinson, 1975, pp. 37-95, and in the more Malthusian argument of Kaplan and Dickneicker, 1973.

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Organizational Dimensions

COMMUNICATING POLICY CHANGES WITHIN AN ORGANIZATION: AN ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT/COMMUNICATION MODEL

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ABSTRACT

The effective communication of change in today's organization is both difficult and challenging. This paper introduces as organization development/communication model that can assist managers in introducing policy changes in organizations in a more effective as well as efficient (economical) manner.

INTRODUCTION

> "It must be considered that there is nothing more difficult to carry out, nor more doubtful of success, nor more dangerous to handle, than to initiate a new order of things."
> (Machiavelli)

Niccolo Machiavellie, centuries ago, recognized the difficulty of communicating change within an organization. Even today this is a paramount problem in most organizations--how to successfully manage that ever-present, yet ever-elusive, process we call change. Recognizing this problem, recent communication theory textbooks are including chapters devoted to communicating change in organizations (Seiler, Baudhin & Schuelke, 1982; Lewis, 1980; Baskin & Aronoff, 1980). The purposes of this paper are to develop a model for communicating a policy change within an organization, and to specify a particular statistical method to be used within the model in measuring perception of change within an organization.

When a change in policy is being contemplated by top management, the traditional method has been through hierarchial authority, or power (Steiner and Minor, 1977). There appears to be two logical approaches by management in considering its organization's reception to this change. These approaches are as follows: (1) Assume it will be resisted, disregard possible repercussions, and implement it anyway using hierarchial authority. (2) Assume it will be resisted and utilize some recent Organization Development technique for introducing change (from complete reorganization to sensitivity training). Both of these alternatives may have negative results. The model and the measurement technique suggested in this paper will add a third alternative, which could negate the disadvantages of the two previous alternatives. As a result, management will have a better insight into how to control introducing change within its organization, to include possible time and money savings.

To make the assumptions that change will automatically be resisted, regardless of its nature or extent, is a testable hypothesis in itself; which, however, is not the intention of this paper. But, for an organization to make that assumption and then implement the change anyway, not knowing if it will, in fact, be resisted, is playing with a possibly dangerous situation. If the change is highly resisted and no attempt is made to introduce it properly, dysfunctional conflict may develop, which in the final analysis could either delay or prevent the successful implementation of the change. Much time and money can be wasted by introducing change that is resisted without taking steps to find out why it is resisted. After this is determined, steps can be taken to either adjust the policy or educate the organization as to why it is necessary.

To make the assumption that change will be resisted, but recognizing the importance of introducing it properly, also has its drawbacks. Usually a somewhat indepth analysis would follow as to why it is resisted and what can be done to overcome the resistance and minimize conflict within the organization. In large organizations this would probably involve a relatively new discipline known as Organization Development (OD).

Although there does not seem to be a precise definition of OD, most definitions revolve around this idea--"...a cluster of activities undertaken to help the organization meet the challenges of pervasive change." (Rush) The emphasis put on OD seems to be a planned approach to introducing change within an organization with the minimum amount of dysfunctional conflict. Some techniques used in conjunction with OD are Managerial Grid seminars, sensitivity training, survey-based feedback, complete company reorganization, etc. Regardless of the technique used, they all infer a somewhat sophisticated educational approach to planning change, which involves two important variables--time and money.

In summary, the two alternatives to introducing change within an organization mentioned earlier can be thought of as the two extremes of a continuum. One extreme would be the management approach of assuming resistance, but introducing change anyway without any consideration of its possible negative effects on the organization. The other extreme would represent the management approach of assuming resistance, but recognizing its negative effects on the total organization and utilizing some OD technique to help introduce the change with the least amount of dysfunctional conflict.

AN OD/COMMUNICATION MODEL

This model (see Figure 1) is based on the assumption that all policy change will not be resisted. Some, in fact, may be desired. For management to make the intuitive assumption that all policy changes will be resisted, leads to the two approaches already discussed, both of which can have adverse results. This model approaches the contemplated policy change by first determining whether the change will be accepted or rejected by the organization. The instrument used to determine this is the questionnaire, and the statistical technique suggested is the Binomial test.

The questionnaire would consist of a brief statement explaining the proposed policy change and one question asking whether the employee would accept or reject the proposed policy change. A possible example would be a statement asking if employees would accept or reject (favor or not favor) a change in working hours from the present five-day, eight-hour work week to a four-day, ten-hour work week. The questionnaire would than be administered to a random sample of company employees. Employees would not sign the questionnaire so that any fear of company reprisal would be eliminated.

If desired, the population could be dichotomized into management and non-managment personnel. The questionnaire (intervention instrument) is coded so that the results could be analyzed at various levels in the organization (see Table I). This way acceptance or rejection statistics could be examined not only for the entire organization but its various sub-units (both employee levels as well as functional levels). In this way, potential problem areas (i.e. high resistance) within the organization could be better identified resulting in more effectively placed communication or OD intervention treatments.

Before the results of the questionnare are analyzed, management must decide upon a suitable hypothesis which they want to test. For the purpose of this model, the suggested method of testing hypothesis is the Binomial test. This test was selected for three basis reasons: (1) It is simple to perform and explain, (2) It fits the type of questionnaire being used; that is, the person answering either accepts or rejects the statement, and (3) It is usually powerful enough to reject the null hypothesis when it should be rejected.

Following our example mentioned earlier, the company might decide to test the following hypothesis:

H_0 (the null hypothesis): $p \geq p^* = 1/2$

H_1 (the alternative hypothesis): $p < p^*$

The letter "p" represents the probability of accepting or rejecting the proposed change. The "p*" would indicate the specified percentage of the population that management feels ought to accept or reject the proposed change in the work week. The "p*" chosen by management would be determined by the degree of acceptance that they desired to test. It should be mentioned here that the object of this specified number is not to infer that management should presuppose that the proposed change will be 100% accepted.

As pointed out in Stephen Robbins' recent book, Managing Organizational Conflict, change is related to conflict, and some conflict is desired in order for a firm to progress and survive. (Robbins) Therefore, a certain degree of conflict, or rejection of a policy change appears to be healthy. This amount of resistance is subjective and would have to be decided by management.

In this example, management is testing the "H_0" that one half or greater of the employees would accept the proposed change. This can be tested by utilizing the test procedure for the Binomial test. (Conover) If the results indicate that half or greater of those surveyed would accept the change, management might decide to implement this change.

Change, desired or not, most often is a period of apprehension. Frederick S. Perls has said it very eloquently in the foreword of Gestalt Therapy Veribatim, "To suffer one's death and to be reborn is not easy." (Perls) He was alluding to the vulnerability of the individual at this time. When one leaves an old life or an organization departs from the old way, the individual is giving up a place, life, or territory where there is at least certainty. Even if that certainty is an undesirable state, it is certain with definte parameters that provide a comfort zone for the person. This is the change phase of the Lewinian unfreezing, change, refreezing process. (Lewin) After the refreezing phase, comfort begins to be reestablished.

During the change process, when one is vulnerable, there is a need for proper support systems to be in place. It is not our purpose to present a communication model here. There are already communication models adnauseam. The reader is encouraged to select one that fits his/her style. What we are proposing with the effective communication guidelines in Table II is that the process, whatever is used, provide for these contingencies. Planning premising provides a look into the future, or an attempt to chart a course for the individual. It is helpful for the person to see that there has been some forecasting of the future and that the person has been part of that process.

The appropriate channel is so very important that we felt a need to include it in the guidelines. Particularly during the change process, the person must be comfortable with the way he/she is receiving information. If one is not comfortable with the channel, he/she is most likely to reject the process.

Proper coaching with feedback from those involved let us know if we are on course and provides an opportunity to learn a new method in small steps. Needless to say, this is also a vital part of the implementation phase to follow.

Although the entire process in the guideline is to serve as a support system, the organization must be aware of the need to develop such systems. In addition, part of the unfreezing process should include an intervention on the part of management to teach the development and use of support systems.

Returning to the results of the Binomial test, if the results indicate that $p < p^*$, then management needs to reevaluate the proposed change. The change might be deleted, inferring that the cost of properly introducing the change outweighs the present value of the benefits associated with the change. If management decides that the proposed change is necessary and is worth the expense of implementing it various OD interventions can be used to bring about this change.

In the event of an OD intervention to bring about the change in the organization, one should be aware of the communication levels affected by the various intervention strategies. Table II presents this intervention.

The use of this matrix is presented in the SE-ABCA Proceedings for 1982. (Cochran & Hinckle) The interested reader is referred to this publication for an indepth exploration. The contingency matrix in Table III presents the more common OD intervention strategies that are found in the literature.

After this is completed, the change will be officially implemented and management returns to the Communication Guidelines presented in Table II.

This brings us to the follow-up section of the model. A follow-up procedure is suggested during some period after implementation (probably less than a year). The procedure suggested is the same as the original procedure utilized at the beginning of the model--the questionnaire and the Binomial test procedure. If the results indicate that the implemented change has been accepted, then no further action is necessary, unless future follow-up procedures are determined to be necessary by management. On the other hand, if the results indicate that the implemented change has not been accepted properly, then the model reverts back to the reevaluation section of the model. Here, further analysis will decide whether to delete the change, modify it, or implement more behavioral science techniques in order to change the attitudes of the company toward the change.

Before leaving the model, it seems appropriate to mention a possible psychological advantage inherent in using this model. Its continued use can help to educate the members of the organization in the realization that the company does not think that the employees will reject all changes introduced from above. This may, in turn, have a positive effect on members of the organization in that they will feel that top management is concerned about what they think and that management believes the employee can intelligently make a decision about change. In essence, management will say, "We know that you are open-minded to change." This, in itself, could increase the organization's reception to change, which according to Jerome is the basis for progress. (Jerome)

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the OD/Communication model is a simple, logical guide to introducing policy changes within an organization. Its basic premise to that all changes will not be resisted by the majority of the organization. In fact, some changes will be desired by a majority. By following this model, the executive should be able to better assess the reaction to change within his organization. And after all, by controlling change, one is but controlling the basis for progress.

All aspects of this model and supporting tables fit noticeably into the contingency approach to management. This provides the manager with a diagnostic tool that can be used throughout the change process to guide him/her in his/her intervention.

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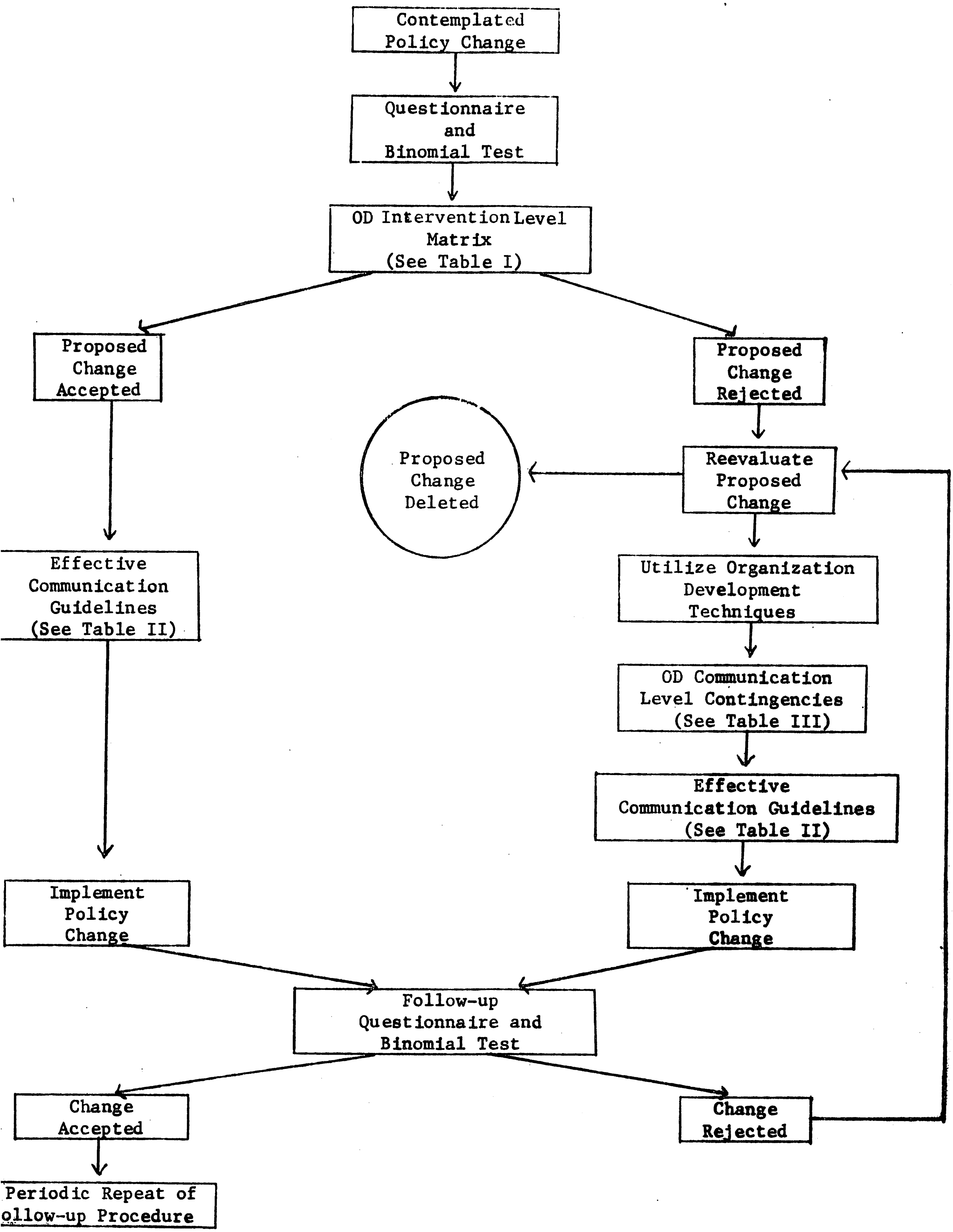

FIGURE THE ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT/COMMUNICATION MODEL

TABLE I

ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT
INTERVENTION LEVEL MATRIX

Employee Levels	Functional Sub-Divisions A	B	C	D
Top Management				
Mid-Management				
First Line Supervision				
Non-managerial Employees				

TABLE II

EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION
Guidelines

-Planning Premises - Communication
- that we have anticipated our changing environment
- that we have anticipated the impact of the change throughout the organization
- why we need the change
- how the change will effect the individual, department, and organization as a whole

-Select appropriate channel

-Proper coaching by management

-Allowance for feedback mechanisms

-Developing Support System

TABLE III

THE O.D. - COMMUNICATION LEVEL CONTINGENCY MATRIX

ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTION STRATEGIES	PRIMARY COMMUNICATION LEVELS AFFECTED: Intra-personal	Inter-personal	Organi-zational
Laboratory Training	x		
Counseling	x		
Self Awareness	x		
Stress Management	x		
Values Clarification	x		
Process Consultation		x	
Confrontation		x	
Team Building		x	
Transactional Analysis		x	
Quality Circles		x	
Survey Feedback			x
Contracting			x
Grid			x
Management By Objectives			x
Organizational Behavior Modification			x
Gestalt Orientation			x
Quality of Work Life			x
Structural Interventions			x

Curriculum Development

JOB PREFERENCES OF ANOTHER GROUP OF UNDERGRADUATE BUSINESS MAJORS (WHAT MAKES A JOB GOOD OR BAD?): A RECOMMENDED REPLICATION REGARDING SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGEMENT AND BUSINESS COMMUNICATION EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study were to describe values, in terms of job preferences, of a group of undergraduate business majors and to compare these findings with a prior study. The results indicate that, for these business majors, there was a relatively stable hierarchy of self and other preferences; and the two hierarchies were positively related to each other. The comparison between the original and present study showed a difference.

INTRODUCTION

Blumenfeld (1965) suggested that, as the values of the individual become incongruent with the values of the institution, the individual will forsake the institution. More recently, Jurgensen (1978) reported an extensive study over a 30-year period in which 57,000 job applicants of a public utility ranked the importance of 10 factors that they perceived make a job good or bad, i.e., individual values. The instrument itself (Job Preferences blank) has an extensive background (Jurgensen, 1947; 1948; 1949; 1961; 1967).

At the 1982 meeting of the Western American Business Communication Association, Blumenfeld, Jourdan, and Andrews (1982) reported a study in which they investigated, using the Job Preferences blank, job preferences of a group of undergraduate Business majors (potential managers), recommending that the study be replicated.

THE ORIGINAL STUDY

In that study, the importance of understanding career motivations of students of Business Administration (particularly Business Communication), from the points of view of (1) business communication students, (2) universities, and (3) employing organizations, was indicated. Overall purpose of that empirical research was to describe values, in terms of job preferences, of a group of undergraduate Business majors (potential managers). Specific sub-purposes were to investigate (1) interrater reliability of self preferences, (2) interrater reliability of preferences attributed to others, and (3) relationship between self and other preferences.

Participants were 23 undergraduate students (Business majors) enrolled in the required introductory Business Communication course at a large privately-supported urban university in the west. Dependent variable was the Job Preferences blank. Respondents ranked ten job characteristics under two conditions: (1) respondent's preferences (self) and (2) respondent's perception of others' preferences (others). The ten factors were Advancement, Benefits, Company, Co-workers, Hours, Pay, Security, Supervisor, Type of Work, and Working Conditions.

Kendall's coefficient of concordance (W) (Siegel, 1956) was obtained to quantify interrater reliability of the self preference ratings and the others preference ratings. Spearman's rank order correlation (Rho) (Siegel, 1956) was obtained to quantify relationship between self and other preference ratings. Obtained Ws (self and others, respectively) were .27 and .29 ($ps < .01$). Obtained Rho (relationship between self and others) was .22 ($p > .05$).

Potential data limitations were not of sufficient magnitude to preclude data interpretation. However, the caveat regarding generalization (emphasis added) from these findings to other settings was emphasized. Preference hierarchies were rostered and discussed. Implications for Management and Business Communication education and development vis-a-vis students, universities, and employing organizations were indicated.

It was concluded that: (1) self preferences demonstrated adequate interrater reliability (relatively stable preference hierarchy); (2) others preferences demonstrated adequate interrater reliability (relatively stable preference hierarchy); and (3) there was essentially a zero relationship between self and others preferences.

For those particular 23 potential managers, there was a relatively stable hierarchy of self and others preferences. However, the two hierarchies were essentially unrelated to each other. It was recommended that the study be enlarged and replicated (emphasis added) in other academic and non-academic settings.

The present study follows from that recommendation, i.e., "In terms of the use of this research paradigm outside of the setting of the present study, as indicated and planned, it would be desirable to replicate the study in other academic settings and in employing organizations. Hierarchies within and across universities and employing organizations may (1) differ, (2) cluster in subsets, or (3) be the same. Our best guess is that they would differ. In any of these events, however, the data would be worthwhile and of utility -- minimally from an internal point of view. The present research was intended to be situation-specific. It was not intended to be generalizable. The recommended enlargement and replication, and the accumulation of data (trends), may permit cautious generalization." The present study represents that recommended replication, i.e., use of the research paradigm in another, comparable, setting.

As suggested in the original study, students of Business Administration are often present (and/or one of the primary sources of future) managers, i.e., potential managers. The present authors, also having interest in the career motivations of students of Business Communications and Management, concurred that the (re)application of the Jurgensen instrument to another group of Business Administration students with interest (potential managers) (albeit again required) in Business Communication would provide additional information of interest and utility (minimally as another local, pilot study) from three points of view, i.e., (1) Business Communication student, (2) university, and (3) employing organization.

Implications *vis-a-vis* career development and Management and Business Communication education and development again seem readily apparent. The question of generalizability of obtained results is also addressed by the present study.

IMPORTANCE OF UNDERSTANDING CAREER MOTIVATIONS OF BUSINESS COMMUNICATION STUDENTS

From the Point of View of the Business Communication Students.

It seems reasonable to suggest that individuals with a set of job preference values congruent with circumstances surrounding actual work will experience greater job satisfaction than those individuals for whom the relationship between personal values and realities is zero, or, even worse, negative. Therefore, from the point of view of the Business Communication student, it would be worthwhile to be aware of, have, and/or develop a hierarchy of job preferences so as to enhance subsequent career satisfaction.

From the Point of View of the University

Following from the above, knowledge of Business Communication student preferences (particularly *vis-a-vis* university and/or organizational realities) could enhance the efficiency of such traditional university activities as recruiting, selection, counseling, curriculum development, and placement. For example, such data might increase selection system effectiveness of management education and development programs *per se*. Again, it is suggested that understanding of values could facilitate efficient career development and professional management education and development.

From the Point of View of the Employing Organization.

Parallel to the above regarding universities, knowledge of Business Communication student values in juxtaposition with organizational realities might facilitate (make for a better "fit") traditional organizational activities such as recruiting, selection, assimilation, personnel development, and/or organizational development. In the cases of the organization and the university, the condition of the labor market, i.e., number of applicants *vis-a-vis* number of positions, would indicate whether the individual would have to accomodate the university/organization, or whether the university/organization would have to accomodate the individual.

THE PRESENT STUDY

As indicated, the present study is seen as another local, and pilot, investigation of the efficacy of the instrument itself (again in a Business Communication education and development setting), toward the possibilities of developing (1) a larger study within the same university, (2) a subsequent comparison of that larger study with data from other larger studies in other universities, and (3) more sophisticated and elaborate types of applications vis-a-vis career development and Management and Business Communication education and development as suggested above. The present investigation again addresses the issues of (a) interrater reliability and (b) relationship between self ratings and perceptions of others -- in another setting. In addition, however, the present study addresses the issue of the generalizability of the original study.

PURPOSE(S)

Overall purposes of this empirical research were to describe values, in terms of job preferences, of another group of undergraduate Business majors (potential managers), and to compare these findings with those of the original study.

Specific sub-purposes were to investigate (1) interrater reliability of self preferences, (2) interrater reliability of preferences attributed to others, (3) relationship between self and others preferences of another group of potential managers, and (4) to compare these findings with those of the original study.

DATA COLLECTION

Participants

Participants in the original study, 23 undergraduate students (Business majors) enrolled in the (required) introductory Business Communication course at a large privately-supported urban university in the West, have already been described (Blumenfeld, Jourdan, & Andrews, 1982); and those data will not be re-presented here.

Participants in the present study were 24 undergraduate students enrolled in the (required) introductory Business Communication course at a large state-supported non-urban university in the Southeast. In this course, students study communication theory, writing fundamentals, correspondence, reports, and oral presentations. The group may be described as follows: 9 were males; 4 were freshmen, 7 were sophomores, 3 were juniors, and 10 were seniors; all were business majors, with Quantitative Methods and Accounting being predominant areas of declared concentration; ages ranged from 18 to 39, with a median of 26; 17 were single; 21 indicated no dependents; 5 were not employed, 18 were employed part-time, and 1 was employed full-time; years of full-time employment ranged from 0 to 10, with a median of less than 1; 5 had supervisory responsibility 13 indicated that they provided more than half of their financial support;

10 indicated an intention to attend graduate school; median reported grade point average was slightly less than B; and 17 were from the state of the university in terms of where they had gone to high school.

Dependent Variable

As with the original study, the dependent variable in this study was the Job Preferences blank (Jurgensen, 1978). As Jurgensen indicates, although the design of the form may appear simplistic in terms of today's elaborate classifications of intrinsic and extrinsic work factors (e.g., Herzberg,1966; Lawler, 1966; Maslow, 1970; Mayo, 1946; McClelland, 1961), it includes the ten factors generally considered at the time of its development to be of primary importance to workers.

The 10 factors are (1) Advancement (opportunity for promotion), (2) Benefits (vacation, sick pay, pension, insurance, etc.), (3) Company (employment by a company for which are are proud to work), (4) Co-workers (fellow workers who are pleasant, agreeable, and good working companions), (5) Hours (good starting and quitting time, good number of hours per day or week, day or night work, etc.), (6) Pay (large income during year), (7) Security (steady work, no lay-offs, sureness of being able to keep your job), (8) Supervisor (a good boss who is considerate and fair), (9) Type of Work (work which is interesting and well liked by you), and (10) Working Conditions (comfortable and clean, absence of noise, heat, cold, odors, etc.).

Respondent ranks the ten job characteristics under two conditions: (1) respondent's preferences (self); and (2) respondent's perception of others' preferences (others).

Regarding self preferences, the instructions read "Decide which of the following is more important to you. Place 1 in front of it. Then decide which is second most important to you and place 2 in front of it. Keep on numbering the items in order of importance to you till the least important is ranked 10. All items are important, but people differ in the order in which they rank them. Give your preferences, not what you believe others think."

The instructions for the others ratings are as follows "Now number the factors as you think they would be ranked by other persons. Consider others who are in your type of work. Also consider those who are like you in age, number of dependents, and education. Rank the factors from 1 (most important) to 10 (least important). Be sure to give what you think others prefer."

The Job Preferences blank was (again) administered in a relatively unobtrusive manner, i.e, no coaching, no tie-in with course content, and no explanation of the purpose of the data collection except those instructions appearing on the instrument.

Summary of Data Collection

Participants in the original study were 23 undergraduate students (Business majors), enrolled in the (required) introductory Business Communication course at a large privately-supported urban university in the West, who completed the Job Preferences blank. Each respondent ranked ten job characteristics under two conditions: (1) self and (2) others. The ten factors were Advancement, Benefits, Company, Co-workers, Hours, Pay, Security, Supervisor, Type of Work, and Working Conditions.

DATA ANALYSIS

Comparisons of the Demographics of the Two Groups of Potential Managers

By inspection comparisons of demographic data were accomplished.

Self Preferences

W (Siegel, 1956) was obtained to quantify the interrater reliability of the self preference ratings. Comparison of original and present *Ws* was made. *Rho* (Siegel, 1956) was obtained to quantify the relationship between the self preference hierarchies produced in the two studies.

Others Preferences

W was obtained to quantify the interrater reliability of the others preference ratings. Comparison of original and present *Ws* was made. *Rho* was obtained to quantify the relationship between the others preference hierarchies produced by the two studies.

Relationship Between Self and Others Preferences

Rho was obtained to quantify the relationship between self and others preference ratings. Comparison of original and present *Rhos* was made.

RESULTS

Comparison of Demographics of the Two Groups of Potential Managers

Demographics of the two groups were essentially the same, although the present group may be characterized as containing a slightly higher proportion of females, a few more juniors, fewer marketing and finance majors, a few more marrieds, a slightly higher proportion of part-time employed, a few were providing more than half of their financial self-support, and a slightly higher proportion of out of state individuals.

Self Preferences

In the present study, *W* for self preference ratings was .34 ($p < .01$). Order of preferences was type of work (most preferred), pay, advancement, security, supervisor, hours, benefits, co-workers, company, and working conditions (least preferred). *W* in original study was .27 ($p < .01$). *Rho* between studies was .45 ($p > .05$).

Others Preferences

In the present study, W for others preference ratings was .39 ($p < .01$). Obtained hierarchy was pay (most preferred), advancement, type of work, benefits, security, hours, company, supervisor, co-workers, and working conditions (least preferred). W in original study was .29 ($p < .01$). Rho between studies was .94 ($p < .01$).

Table 1 summarizes ranks assigned to self and others job preferences in the two studies. Table 1 also reports the four obtained interrater reliabilities (Ws), and the two inter-study hierarchy relationships (Rhos).

TABLE 1

Group Ranks of Self and Others Job Preferences
of Two Groups of Undergraduate Business Majors (Potential Managers)
(Study 1, N = 23; Study 2, N = 24)

Factor	Self-1	Self-2	Others-1	Others-2
Advancement	2	3	2.5[a]	2
Benefits	10	7	4	4
Company	7	9	8	7
Co-workers	3	8	9	9
Hours	9	6	5	6
Pay	5	2	1	1
Security	8	4	7	5
Supervisor	4	5	6	8
Type of Work	1	1	2.5[a]	3
Working Conditions	6	10	10	10
Interrater Reliability (W)	.27**	.34**	.29**	.39**
Inter-study Relationship (Rho)	.45[ns]		.94**	

[a]Tie

** $p < .01$

Relationship Between Self and Others Preferences

In the present study, Rho was .82 ($p < .01$). In the original study, Rho was .22 ($p > .05$).

DISCUSSION

Potential Data Limitations

The following perceived potential data limitations are classified as either threats to internal experimental validity or threats to external experimental validity (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). An experiment has internal validity to the extent that the results are interpretable; an experiment has external validity to the extent that the (interpretable) experiment generalizes to other settings.

Internal Validity

As these are self-reports, there is no check on the veracity of the reports. There is the implicit, and tenable, assumption that behavior follows reported perception.

The possibility exists that students reported "what they were supposed to report." This seems unlikely, given the non-threatening, unobtrusive, conditions under which the data were collected.

There is no measure of longitudinal stability of these self-reports. Present data do not address this issue. However, Jurgensen's data suggest stability exists; and a more recent study in a sample quite similar to that involved in the present study indicated adequate stability (Blumenfeld, Borek, & Zimmatore, 1981).

It is always possible that respondents merely made random responses. However, the subsequently obtained positive indices of interrater reliability blunt this possiblity.

As indicated, although essentially the same, there were slight demographic differences between participants in the two data bases. Also, while the original school may be characterized as being "urban," the present school may better be characterized as being "non-urban" (although reasonably close to a major city). The two groups are not totally comparable, i.e., matched samples. As "cultural differences" potentially exist within and across (all) organizations, neither of these two conditions (particularly the second one) is seen as a critical limitation. Indeed, it is such a question of "cultural differences" that the research addresses, i.e., generalizability across samples.

External Validity

No claim of external validity is made for this experiment. External validity, as always, is an unknown. The results are, by definition, tied to their source(s). This was the intention. It is unlikely that one could (better, should) generalize from these findings to other potential managers. In point of fact, the question of generalizability was the thrust of the present study.

Summary

These potential data limitations are not perceived as being of sufficient magnitude to preclude data interpretation. However, once again, the caveat regarding generalization from these findings to other settings is emphasized. While the experiment has internal validity, the extent of its external validity, is, as always, an unknown.

Self Preferences

W of .34 ($p < .01$), while numerically modest, indicates that self preferences demonstrated adequate interrater reliability. A relatively stable hierarchy of preferences emerged, i.e., type of work (most preferred), pay, advancement, security, supervisor, hours, benefits, co-workers, company, and working conditions (least preferred). There is more consistency of preferences than one might perhaps expect. As suggested, vis-a-vis Management and Business Communication education and development, this information could be utilized by three interested parties--students, universities, and employing organizations. More efficient resource allocation might be accomplished.

In the original study, *W* of .27 ($p < .01$), also numerically modest, also indicated self preferences demonstrated adequate interrater reliability. A relatively stable hierarchy of preferences emerged, i.e., type of work (most preferred), advancement, co-workers, supervisor, pay, working conditions, company, security, hours, and benefits (least preferred).

Rho between the (reliable) self hierarchies produced in the two studies was .45 ($p > .05$). As the coefficient fails to meet the conventional definition of statistical significance (.05), the interpretation is that there is essentially no relationship between the two hierarchies. The more preferred job attributes in the present study were type of work, pay, and advancement, while the more preferred job attributes in the original study were type of work, advancement, and co-workers. The less preferred job attributes in the present study were working conditions, company, and co-workers, while the less preferred job attributes in the original study were benefits, hours, and security. The job attributes contributing most to the lack of agreement were co-workers, security, working conditions, benefits, hours, and pay.

Others Preferences

W of .39 ($p < .01$), while are again numerically modest, indicates that others preferences also demonstrated adequate interrater reliability. Once again a relatively stable hierarchy of preferences emerged, i.e., pay (most preferred), advancement, type of work, benefits, security, hours, company, supervisor, co-workers, and working conditions (least preferred). Implications are essentially the same as those touched upon in regard to self preferences. This is, once again vis-a-vis Management and Business Communication education and development, they have potential utility for students, universities, and employing organization toward better satisfying personal and/or organizational goals.

In the original study, W of .29 ($p < .01$), again also numerically modest, also indicated others preferences demonstrated adequate interrater reliability. Once again a relative stable hierarchy of preferences emerged, i.e., pay (most preferred), advancement and type of work (tied), benefits, hours, supervisor, security, company, co-workers, and working conditions (least preferred).

Rho between the (reliable) others hierarchies produced in the two studies was .94 ($p < .01$). They were essentially the same. The more preferred job attributes ascribed were pay, advancement, type of work, and benefits. Then came hours, security, and supervisor. The less preferred job attributes were company, co-workers, and working conditions.

Relationship Between Self and Others Preferences

Rho in the study was .82 ($p < .01$), indicating the two (reliable) hierarchies were positively related to one another. Having knowledge of one hierarchy results in having knowledge (albeit imperfect) of the other hierarchy. In comparing the two hierarchies, i.e., self and others, in the present study, the more preferred job attributes in both hierarchies were pay, type of work, and advancement. The less preferred job attribute in both hierarchies were working conditions, co-workers, and company. The balance of the job factors tended to cluster toward the middle.

Rho in the original study was .22 ($p > .05$), indicating the two (reliable) hierarchies were unrelated to one another. Having knowledge of one hierarchy resulted in having no knowledge of the other hierarchy. In comparing the two hierarchies, i.e., self and others, in the original study, it was noted that, while the more preferred job attributes in the (reliable) self hierarchy were type of work, advancement, and co-workers, the more preferred job attributes in the (reliable) others hierarchy were pay, advancement, and type of work. Conversely, while the less preferred job attributes in the (reliable) self hierarchy were benefits, hours and security, the less preferred job attributes in the (reliable) others hierarchy were working conditions, co-workers and company. Job attributes contributing most of the lack of systematic relationship between self and others ratings (i.e., sources of disagreement) were benefits, co-workers, hours, pay and working conditions. Those potential managers viewed themselves as having different values than their peers. Unfortunately, time/space constraints preclude discussion of this demonstrated self-others discrepancy. One might but speculate.

It is worth noting, in passing, that (in the case of both sets of data) depending upon who one reads, e.g., Herzberg (1966), Lawler (1966), Maslow (1970), Mayo (1964), McClelland (1961), these positions in the hierarchies, in both studies, may, or may not, confirm prediction from theory, i.e., pay.

Implications and Applications for Management and Business Communication Education and Development

As indicated (and independent of the generalizability issue), in terms of career development and Management and Business Communication education and development, these kinds of data (although not necessarily these particular data, due to external experimental validity consideration) could be of practical utility to Business Communication students, universities, and/or employing organizations in terms of the processes of attraction, induction, and development association with career motivation and accomplishment, i.e., career development.

From the Business Communication student's point of view, these kinds of data could have implication and application in terms of career choice; from the university's point of view, these kinds of data could have implication and application in terms of recruiting, selection, counseling, curriculum development, and/or placement; and from the employing organization's point of view, these kinds of data could have implication and application in terms of the processes of recruiting, selection, assimilation, personnel development, and/or organizational development. The general hypothesis is that congruity leads to career choice/job satisfaction while incongruity does not lead to career choice/job satisfaction. Further, it is suggested that incongruity leads to less efficient use of human, fiscal, and physical resources, e.g., drop-out, turnover, performance decrement.

Again, extensive discussion of specific applications is precluded by time/space constraints. As one intriguing example of application, however, Jurgensen (1978) indicates use of these kind of data in development of recruiting devices resulted in a decrement in employee turnover. The paradigm is a form of market research (from both the points of view of the buyer and the seller). As inferred previously, additional applications vis-a-vis career development and Management and Business Communication education and development exist.

Summary

For these particular 24 undergraduate Business Communication students (potential managers), as with the original 23 undergraduate Business Communication students (potential managers), there was a relatively stable hierarchy of self and others preferences. However, unlike the original study, the two hierarchies in the present study were positively related to each other.

Self preference hierarchies of the two studies demonstrated essentially no relationship. Other preference hierarchies of the two studies demonstrated a very high positive relationship. Implications and applications vis-a-vis management education and development were indicated.

Future Research

Future research, within the setting of the present study (in addition to the planned enlarged replication of the present study and subsequent comparison with other similar data bases), might include investigations of the following: relationship within individuals in terms of self and others ratings; perceptions of organizations/recruiters; differences between majors; differences between "entering and exiting" students; comparison of present data with the Jurgensen Normative data base; and, as suggested, use of this type of a scale for purposes of selection and/or program development.

In terms of the use of this research paradigm outside of the setting of the present study, once again, as indicated and planned, it would be desirable to continue to replicate the study in other academic settings and in employing organizations. Hierarchies within and across universities and employing organizations may (1) differ, (2) cluster in subsets, or (3) be the same. Our best guess (still) is that they would differ, present data providing partial support. In any of these three events, however, the data would be worthwhile and of utility -- minimally from an internal point of view.

The present research was intended to be situation-specific, while also addressing the question of generalizability. It was not intended to be generalizable beyond the two data bases. Again, continued recommended replication, and the accumulation of data (trends), may permit cautious generalization.

The data collection instrument, essential simplicity notwithstanding, has, again, however, been demonstrated to produce adequate interrater reliability, in at least three situations (Jurgensen's 30-year study, the original study, and the present study). It appears to be a functional device. Use for the several purposes described is recommended.

SUMMARY

Importance of understanding career motivations of students of Business Administration (particularly Business Communication) from the points of view of (1) Business Communication students, (2) universities, and (3) employing organizations was indicated. A previous study in which job preferences of a group of 23 potential managers were described . Although implications and applications for Management and Business Communication education and development were seemingly apparent, the (appropriate) question of generalizability of obtained results was raised.

Overall purposes of this empirical research were to describe values, in terms of job preferences, of another group of undergraduate Business majors (potential managers), and to compare these findings with those of the original study.

Specific sub-purposes were to investigate (1) interrater reliability of self preferences, (2) interrater reliability of preferences attributed to others, (3) relationship between self and others preferences of another group of potential managers, and (4) to compare these findings with those of the original study.

Participants in the original study were 23 undergraduate students (Business majors) enrolled in the (required) introductory Business Communication course at a large privately-supported urban university in the West; participants in the present study were 24 undergraduate students enrolled in the (again required) introductory Business Communication course at a large state-supported non-urban university in the Southeast.

Dependent variable again was the Job Preferences blank. Respondents ranked ten job characteristics under two conditions: (1) respondent's preferences (self) and (2) respondent's perception of others' preferences (others). The ten factors were Advancement, Benefits, Company, Co-workers, Hours, Pay, Security, Supervisor, Type of Work, and Working Conditions.

As with the original study, (1) $\underline{W}$ was obtained to quantify interrater reliability of self preference ratings; (2) $\underline{W}$ was obtained to quantify interrater reliability of others preference ratings; and (3) Rho was obtained to quantify relationship between self and others preference ratings.

Comparisons were made with the original study, i.e., by inspection comparisons of demographic data; Ws of, and Rho between, self hierarchies produced

in the two studies; Ws of, and Rho between, others hierarchies produced in the two studies; and Rhos between self and others hierarchies produced in the two studies.

In the present study, W (self) was .34 ($p < .01$). W (others) was .39 ($p < .01$). Rho (self and others) was .82 ($p < .01$). In the original study, W (self) was .27 ($p < .01$). W (others) was .29 ($p < .01$). Rho (self and others) .22 ($p > .05$). Rho (self) between Study 1 and Study 2 was .45 ($p > .05$). Rho (others) between Study 1 and Study 2 was .94 ($p < .01$).

Potential data limitations were not of sufficient magnitude to preclude data interpretation. However, these data reinforced the original caveat regarding generalization. That caveat was again emphasized.

Preference hierarchies from both studies were rostered, compared, and discussed. Implications for Management and Business Communication education and development vis-a-vis Business Communication students, universities, and employing organizations were again indicated. These implications were perceived to be independent of the generalizability issue.

CONCLUSIONS

Regarding sub-purposes, it was concluded that: (1) self preferences demonstrated adequate interrater reliability (relatively stable preference hierarchy); (2) others preferences demonstrated adequate interrater reliability (relatively stable preference hierarchy); and (3) there was a positive relationship between self and others preferences.

Comparing present findings with those of the original study, it was concluded that: (1) there was essentially a zero relationship between the two studies regarding self preference; (2) there was a high positive relationship between the two studies regarding others preference; and (3) the lack of positive self-others preferences relationship in the original study (i.e., essentially zero) did not exist in the present study, i.e., positive relationship.

Overall, it was concluded that, for these particular 24 potential managers, there was a relatively stable hierarchy of self and others preferences; and the two hierarchies were positively related to each other.

Present data differs from the original data in two ways: (1) systematic positive relationship between self and other preferences, and (2) others hierarchy was different.

It was again recommended that the study continue to be enlarged and replicated in these and other universities and in employing organizations.

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DICTATION SKILL--A KEY TO HIGHER PRODUCTIVITY

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ABSTRACT

Because dictation is an integral part of the modern communication process, productivity-oriented organizations are demanding that employees utilize this efficient method of creating communication. Business students preparing for positions in such organizations will be expected to possess the necessary skills of dictation. Since business communication is one of the best courses in which to teach dictation skills, such training should be integrated into the existing course content so that students can gain confidence in their ability to dictate effectively.

INTRODUCTION

Office productivity is of major concern to today's manager. As stated by Feld, "A critical problem facing the business world today is the low rate of productivity. While the office work load has been doubling every ten years, productivity in the office has gone up only 4 percent" (Feld, 1981, p. 28).

Certainly one way to increase office productivity is to teach present and future managers how to dictate business communications. Far too many executives and aspiring executives in today's business office opt for writing their letters and reports in longhand, possibly because of a fear of dictating and/or a lack of knowledge of how to dictate. According to Cheryl Luke, "Estimates are that 75 percent of business correspondence is written in longhand by the executive before it is given to the secretary for typing." She suggests that such a practice could be a very important factor in the skyrocketing costs of the written correspondence in today's business office. Citing figures furnished by the Dartnell Corporation, she says that dictating a letter can save up to 80 percent of the cost of writing it in longhand (Luke, 1978, p. 26).

IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING DICTATION SKILLS

Many other authorities agree on the importance of teaching dictation skills to future as well as present office workers. Feld writes, "Training bosses in the art of dictating would clearly have a big impact on office productivity." She says that two-thirds of the secretaries who participated in a 1978 survey conducted by Laura B. Folsom and Joyce D. Estaville in Oklahoma City reported that the dictation skills of their bosses were fair to poor. The major weaknesses mentioned include verbal mannerisms, lack of enunciation, and lack of a uniform dictation rate. Many managers reported similar problems in their own dictation. This lack of skill in dictating is perhaps the reason so many executives choose the longhand method (Feld, 1981, p. 28).

Feld also reports that, according to a 1978 study made by John D. Gould and Stephen J. Boles, of the IBM Research Center, Yorktown Heights, New York, dictating to a secretary is faster than dictating to a machine, and both of these methods are faster than writing. Feld suggests that perhaps face-to-face dictation is faster than machine dictation because the dictator can rely on the secretary's initiative and does not have to dictate complete instructions regarding transcription, mailing addresses, punctuation, and spelling (Feld, 1981, p. 28).

Luke states that "Dictation should be included as an integral, deliberately planned part of a business communication course, not as a 30-minute lecture or a one-hour 'crash' course exposure to fancy word processing equipment in the form of a field trip" (Luke, 1978, p. 26).

Hennington writes, "For many students the college class in business communication is their only opportunity to develop dictating style that is effective and unpretentious (Hennington, 1980, p. 21).

Members of the business community, reports Overfield, believe there is a need for training in the skills needed for machine dictation. She says that many office managers report that their employees will not and cannot dictate (Overfield, 1981, p. 20).

NEED FOR TEACHING FACE-TO-FACE DICTATION

Many of the articles concerning dictation written in recent years have, for the most part, emphasized the importance of teaching students and business people skills in machine dictation. Some authors have dismissed dictation to secretaries as outmoded, saying that new technology makes this method obsolete. While the need for machine dictation skills is apparent, a number of recent articles and studies strongly support the need for face-to-face dictation skills.

Both types of dictation skills are very important for business people today, according to Hennington, who writes, "If your students are reaching for management responsibilities, they must develop skill in dictating both face to face and to a machine" (Hennington, 1980, p. 21).

Peterson states, "Shorthand skills and, to a lesser degree, machine transcription, will be required of the modern office worker. It has been estimated that 80 percent of the correspondence work now given to the secretary is handwritten in complete draft form. As management becomes aware of the inefficiency of this system, shorthand will be more widely used" (Peterson, 1980, p. 30).

Hennington also reports that figures from a Dartnell survey made in 1977 show an unmistakable trend toward increased use of shorthand dictation for secretaries who work their way from entry-level to top-level positions. For 74 percent of the top-level secretarial jobs, shorthand is required. A national survey (1976) of management attitudes toward office productivity conducted for FORTUNE indicated that top-level secretarial positions still require shorthand. Eighty-seven percent of the top management respondents and 71 percent of the middle management respondents reported that they dictated some or all of their office correspondence; the majority of this dictation was given to secretaries (Hennington, 1979, p. 2).

"Despite today's technological developments, shorthand is still very much in demand in the business world. Most executives are well aware that a secretary with shorthand can save them both time and money, and they are therefore willing to pay more for those with the skill," writes Anderson (Anderson, 1980, p. 24).

In a recent study, Barnes found that the majority of secretaries employed by large businesses in the Dallas-Fort Worth area use manual shorthand (Barnes, 1981-82, p. 149).

DICTATION UNIT IN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION CLASS

Because both types of dictation skills are vital to business people, both machine and face-to-face dictation practice are included in business communication classes at Lamar University whenever possible.

At the beginning of the dictation unit, students complete questionnaires concerning work experience and attitudes toward dictation. After the lecture and class discussion on effective dictation practices, students are first given the opportunity to dictate to dictating machines or tape recorders and to have their efforts evaluated. Transcription students are asked to transcribe the cassette tapes the business communication students produce.

Then, for the face-to-face dictation, the business communication class and the advanced shorthand class meet together. Unless the classes normally meet at the same time, this procedure involves some juggling of schedules; the results, however, are well worth the effort.

Business communication students are given letter or memo case problems at the beginning of the period. They are then allowed time for reading the problems and organizing their thoughts. During this time, the "dictators" may jot down words or phrases, but they may not write complete sentences or paragraphs.

The dictators are then assigned a "secretary," to whom they dictate their letters. The secretaries transcribe the letters, making one carbon copy. If the letter needs no changes or corrections, the dictator signs it and submits it to the business communication instructor; if changes are needed, the letter is retyped before it is submitted. The shorthand student turns the carbon copy in to the shorthand instructor, who checks it as a transcription assignment.

Following the face-to-face sessions, students in both classes complete questionnaires to determine whether perceptions of dictation have changed as a result of the class experience. The comments from the pre-dictation questionnaire are then compared to the comments from the post-dictation questionnaire.

Constructive criticisms, as well as compliments, of each group for the other are discussed in the class periods following the dictation session.

A comparison of pre- and post-dictation questionnaires from a recent class indicated significant changes in student attitudes toward dictation. (Although the majority, 69 percent, of the students worked full or part time, none of them had used any form of dictation on the job.) Student comments from the initial questionnaire indicated that many were afraid of face-to-face dictation. Even so, most students felt that they would prefer to dictate to a person rather than to a machine. Several responses indicated that students felt the machine dictation was too impersonal; they perceived that the secretary could give them feedback that could not be obtained from a machine.

Others responded that they would prefer to dictate to a machine so that initial errors could be corrected before another person heard them. These students indicated they would be embarrassed if another person heard their mistakes in drafting the message.

According to the comments on the post-dictation questionnaires of this group, 99 percent of the dictators felt that the face-to-face dictation experience was beneficial. Some students reported learning that dictating is easier and faster than writing letters in longhand. Others felt that it is more difficult than they had expected but that with practice, they believed that they could do well. Many of the neophite dictators also reported that they had gained confidence and were not so fearful of dictating as they were beforehand. Most were enthusiastic about the face-to-face dictation project, and many suggested that it be done more than once during the semester. One student, when asked what he had learned from the experience, wrote, "How great it would be to have a secretary."

The confidence, knowledge, and understanding gained by the participants in this unit are most helpful to them. Because students learn to increase their productivity potential by increasing their confidence and proficiency in face-to-face dictation, business communicaton instructors should include face-to-face dictation practice in their courses.

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Writing Techniques

RHYTHM AND SOUND IN BUSINESS WRITING

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ABSTRACT

Since the clearest and most effective writing invariably sounds good when read aloud, the ears are never-failing critical mechanisms for the business writer. When the reader's voice rises and falls naturally, when it stresses the central point of each sentence, when it speaks in rhythmic cadences of varying lengths, and when it builds to major and minor crescendos of emphasis in the text as a whole--the writing is clear, emphatic, beautiful, and memorable. But when the reader's voice stays at a uniform level and tone, never stresses much of anything, phrases in monotonous rhythmic units, and fails to reach a climax of emphasis--the writing is muddy, unemphatic, bland and forgettable. Rhythmic business writing is readable and performance oriented, highlighted by balances and parallelism, artful repetition, antithesis, and alliteration. By simply writing as s/he would speak, the business writer invests the words with natural rhythms. These basic speech cadences, sharpened by attentive editing, produce truly speakable (and therefore readable) prose.

INTRODUCTION

What makes your voice rise and fall as you read a well-written passage aloud? The writer's rhythm. What makes you stress and draw out some words and not stress others as you read? Rhythm. Why do you read some parts of the passage fast and other parts slowly? Rhythm. Why do you pause at certain points and read straight through others? Rhythm. Why does virtually anyone reading a well-written passage aloud modulate, stress, pace and cadence basically as you do? Because the author's internal voice, and thus the author's pen, spoke with rhythm. And what rhetorical device have I attempted in <u>this</u> paragraph? Yes, rhythm.

Why do people <u>listen</u> to a well-written passage whether it contains welcome and vital news or not? Because of its rhythmic cadences. Because it sounds good, they find it attractive--no matter how repulsive its message. On the other hand, no matter how compelling the subject of a passage, no one will <u>want</u> to listen to it or read it if it sounds monotonous, awkward, effete and static. The reader's eyes may be focused squarely on the print, but the reader's mind will be planning a trip to Sanibel, or to the grocery, or even to the water fountain--anything to avoid the rhythmless sludge on the page.

DISADVANTAGES OF NON-RHYTHMIC PROSE

Now take such a passage of sludge--one you have to literally force your resistant eyes through--flip on a tape recorder, and (without practicing first) read it aloud. As you read, you may feel like a tourist trying to drive through my home town of Coral Gables, Florida, without a map. To break the monotony of the flat terrain, the city founders made all the streets a whimsical mesh of irregular curves. This would be tolerable if street signs were visible, but the names of the streets (all Spanish city names and so not easily recognizable to most visitors) are engraved on ground-level stones, often half buried in the grass. Because the signposts are so unreliable, even the cab drivers need maps, and long-time residents have been known to lose their own homes when approaching them from an unusual angle. A general rule of thumb for finding places in Coral Gables is this: If you have not been there before, add an extra half hour to your driving time. So it is with reading non-rhythmic prose aloud. One has to allow extra time for mistakes and re-readings. The whole is, in a word, unreadable: the voice strikes no highs and lows but hovers in a monotonous range; the stresses, if indeed any are present, sound artificial; the pace is not keyed to meaning, but limps through unpronounceable sound combinations, gallops through simple structures packed with too-dense meaning, or trots through endless loose verbiage tacked onto the ends of sentences. There are pauses all right, but they are desperate hesitations as the reader tries to find a way through a maze of prose that is going nowhere. Since there are no rhythmic or verbal signposts to follow, every reader will feel his way through the catacombs of such prose differently, hoping only for enough stamina to drive his or her eyes toward the light of white space at the end of the paragraph.

Although most business writing texts refer dutifully to "proper emphasis" in writing (Brusaw, Alred, & Owen, 1976, p. 155), Richard Lanham alone gives rhythm and sound the attention they deserve as components of effective business prose. Calling prose rhythm the writer's "one intuitive guide," he advances an axiom: "If prose is hard to read aloud, it will be hard to read silently" (Lanham, 1981, pp.42-43). True, most readers do not read aloud or even whisper to themselves. Yet the silent reader is nonetheless listening to what Lanham calls an "inner ear which voices prose to ourselves." And when that voice "atrophies" (speaks monotonously or stalls altogether), the eye usually refuses to push forward on its own (Lanham, 1981, p. 18). Obviously, writers neglect what he calls the "spoken dimension" of prose only at their peril. "If we ignore it," Lanham warns, "it will not go away; it will come back to plague us" (Lanham, 1981, p. 45).

THE WRITER AS LISTENER

Clearly, writers cannot write speakable prose unless they are themselves listening to what they write. And this listening process, Ken Macrorie would add, must go on while they are composing. Though I am not ready to agree with Macrorie's rather mystical notion that an unconscious "voice takes over in your writing" and that "all you need do is take dictation as fast and accurately as you can" (Macrorie, 1980, p. 52), he is probably correct in saying that "the writers who achieved strong effects through rhythm or other techniques of sound had usually achieved them unconsciously" (Macrorie, 1980, p. 6). Such writers may simply have been listening to their own internal (conscious or unconscious) voices as they wrote. They may have been more concerned with sound than with appearance. To put it another way, they may have been thinking of their readers as audience (derived from the Latin "to hear") rather than as viewers. The result is felicitous.

Other, more orthodox commentators on the craft of writing have told novices to be guided by the sound of their words. McCrimmon, for instance, urges students to read their "paper aloud and hear whether the sentence structure is monotonous"(McCrimmon, 1976, p. 136). Strunk and White, in their classic, The Elements of Style, define an author's style as "the sound his words make on paper" (Strunk & White, 1979, p. 66). Zinsser, too, argues that readers "hear what they are reading--in their inner ear--far more than you realize." That is why, he explains, "the good writer of prose must be part poet, always listening to what he writes" (Zinsser, 1980, pp. 38-39).

What happens when writers fail to listen to themselves, or when the internal voice they are listening to "stutters" (to use Macrorie's term? The result may sound something like this passage from a 1980 South Atlantic Bulletin book review (whose author will remain anonymous here):

> Among the planter-aristocrats, where the dueling code flourished, order was often achieved by some sort of perilous balance between passion and restraint: the duel was resorted to after all else failed and was preserved as long as it was as some sort of ritualistic mode for signifying a commitment, even a rage for social order (SAB, 1980).

Well-intentioned as the author may have been, he has committed a verbal atrocity with his three passives ("was . . . achieved by," "was resorted to," and "was preserved"), together with his "as long as it was as," a hiccuping series of nine monosyllables highlighted by an unfortunate cluster of three "as's," used in two different contexts. Add to that the disturbing repetition of "s's" in the same phrase, and the result is unspeakable in every way.

However, this trangression can be outdone over and over by some pompous, polysyllabic material I myself have written. Take, for instance, this excerpt from my dissertation:

> Cheek's denunciatory tone betrays the deep discomfiture that the pervasive resistance to the 1540 Bible caused not only him but also the young king with whom he enjoyed an unusually close association (Trammell, 1978, p. 67).

That sounds like the prose of a writer afflicted with what Lanham calls "Tin Ears" (Lanham, 1981, p. 44), a symptom of the graduate-student disease known as "dissertationese." Had I ever really heard my awkward formality or the hideous alliteration in the phrase "denunciatory tone betrays the deep discomfiture," I would simply have transposed the sentence into something like this:

> Universal hatred for the 1540 Bible distressed not only Cheek but also the young king.

ADVANTAGES OF RHYTHMIC BUSINESS WRITING

Word Economy

Aside from sheer readability, what are the specific advantages of rhythmic and felicitous sound in business writing? First, they make the writer's statement more economical. To make the sentence from my dissertation sound better, I had to cut boldly through dense verbiage, slicing out two relative clauses, three adjectives, one prepositional phrase, three articles, and one adverb. Not until the fat and gristle were gone did the essential rhythms of the sentence emerge--the parallelism between "not only Cheek but also the young king," as well as the rising, climactic build of the sentence from "Universal hatred" to "the young king." The words I cut out Lanham would refer to as the "LF" or "lard factor" of my original sentence. And the rhythmic improvement in my revised version proves the truth of his observation: "Squeezing the lard out of prose seems sometimes to liberate a natural rhythm, modest but clear, that was waiting to be freed" (Lanham, 1981, p. 47). Further, several of the words I carved out were multisyllable ones ("denunciatory," "discomfiture," "pervasive," "resistance," "unusually," and "association") that Lanham says "monotonize the rhythm." The prepositional phrases in the original, too, are rhythm monotonizers, whose short, choppy segments give a sentence a "da-da-dum, da-da-dum" sound (Lanham, 1981, p. 46). Therefore, the rhythms one discovers in a sentence give one a criterion for elimination. When I let the fundamental rhythms of the sentence in my dissertation take over, I knew what to keep, what to cut, and what to combine.

Sometimes, of course, economy is not so much cutting words as combining words. In my revision, for example, "denunciatory tone betrays the deep discomfiture" telescoped to a single word--"distressed." It simply was not necessary to get into either "tone" or the "deep"-ness of Cheek's anxiety. And "the young king, with whom he enjoyed an unusually close association" became "the young king." My original statement was overqualified, violating one of Middlemen's caveats for writing lively prose: ". . . don't qualify a sentence to death; be bold" (Middleman, 1981, p. 57). Nobel Prize for Literature winner Isaac Singer says this another way: "The writer's best friend is the waste basket" (Singer, 1981). Aside from the increased rhythmic and aesthetic appeal concise sentences have, they are above all cost efficient for the business person. With less to write, less to type, and less to read--everyone saves time and money.

Clarity

Tied in with economy is the second key advantage of sound-conscious writing: added clarity. Certainly the most serious problem with the passage from the book review is its obscurity. Obviously, too, the revised version of the dissertation sentence focuses far more sharply on the central meaning of the sentence--that both Cheek and the king were upset. In revising that passage, of course, I was at an advantage--at least I knew what I meant to say in the original. I can offer no revision of the review because--even after rereading the passage and the article in which it appears--I still cannot say for sure what the author meant. The awkward passives, the verbiage, as well as the interlocking phrases and clauses, have obfuscated the meaning entirely. Someone reading the passage starts and stumbles, halts and then hammers, emphasizing everything or nothing, because there is no way of knowing what is really the point.

For an author editing an unclear and ungainly sentence, rhythmic considerations can be an organizing factor. The key rhetorical modes for expressing rhythm--parallelism, alliteration, antithesis, and repetition--all serve as frameworks for sorting out the material in a sentence. The first step, of course, is to discover the main idea of the sentence and to construct a sentence which gives that idea priority by putting it in the main clause or clauses. Second, one needs to decide how much of the remaining subordinate material can stay without cluttering the sound of the sentence, without turning its statement into chatter. Third, one can search the subordinate baggage for parallel ideas which could work well into rhythmic parallel constuctions. If there is a possibility for introducing such parallel ideas with correlatives ("either . . . or"; "not only . . . but also"; "both . . . and"; or even "first," "second," and "third") the editor has an automatic organizing device--a series of verbal signposts for routing the reader through the sentence. A series of repeated grammatical forms--single words, paired words, phrases or clauses--serves the same double function. It organizes <u>and</u> it sets up a euphonious repetition.

Alliteration, too, can clarify. At the very least, it associates the meaning of the alliterated words, establishing the relationship of the ideas those words represent. Such is the case with this excerpt from Donald Hall's chapter on "Clarity, Coherence, Unity" in his book <u>Writing Well</u> (note the alliteration in the titles):

> No rules can govern resolution and rhythm, only example and exhortation because the click of the box is original (Hall, 1981, p. 167).

Here the repeated "r's" tie together "rules," "resolution," and "rhythm," while "ex's" unite the somewhat disparate concepts of "example" and "exhortation." And, finally, the "x" in "box" echoes "example and exhortation" and associates their salutary activity with the unique "click" of the camera box. Often, too, the alliteration adds an onomatopoetic effect, which in turn underscores the meaning still further. Listen to another passage, in which Hall repeats "s's" and soft "c's" to suggest the smoothness and sonority of the rhythm he is describing:

> These rhythms satisfy our elementary need for order, like the cycling of seasons and tides (Hall, 1981, p. 166).

Alliteration and rhythmic paralleling can work well together, too, to clarify meaning. It was a happy marriage of these devices that I was attempting a couple of paragraphs ago in the phrase "starts and stumbles, halts and hesitates, emphasizing everything and nothing." Interestingly enough, the whole phrase just came to me, and I recognized the alliteration and pairing only as I listened to it resounding in my head before I wrote the words down. A passage like this would sound contrived <u>only</u> if I resisted the natural rhythms and echoes of speech and forced the ideas into the unnatural sort of alliteration I chose in the dissertation passage.

Similarly, an antithetical or contrasting construction can sort out material. Antithesis works best, as Lanham points out, if the ideas being contrasted are placed close together and in similar phrases (Lanham. 1981, p. 34). As D'Angelo explains, antithesis is essentially a variety of parallelism, "in which contrasting ideas are juxtaposed in balanced or parallel structures" (D'Angelo, 1980, p. 388). Never even mentioning the rhythmic attributes of antithesis, he goes on to argue that "a writer can convey his or her ideas more clearly because of the emphasis afforded by the contrast" (D'Angelo, 1980, p. 389). Biblical phraseology is, of course, permeated with antithetical structures, virtually all of which enlighten a theological or ethical point. Many of these passages turn, like the following (chosen randomly from Matthew), on the pivotal conjunction "but":

> The light of the body is the eye: if therefore thine eye be single, thy whole body shall be full of light. But if thine eye be evil, thy whole body shall be full of darkness.

Note the verbatim repetition of the two parallel clauses, except for the two contrasted pairs I have underlined: "single" versus "evil," and "light" versus "darkness." The repetition of the exact wording naturally raises the reader's expectation that all the words will be the same and therefore heightens his or her surprise that the repeated phrase is in two crucial words entirely antithetical. Naturally, antithesis as the business writer uses it is less formal, less oratorical than the Biblical contrasts. The following examples come from speeches made at the Kiwanis International Meeting in New Orleans last year. Said Jeffrey Magone, President of Key Club International: "For although we are three separate organizations, we are dependent upon one another." The repeated "we are" subject-verb in both clauses makes the two contrasting complements "three separate organizations" and "dependent upon one another" stand out more obviously. Another speaker used the same contrasting-pair structure analyzed in the Biblical quote, complete with the pivotal "but":

> Concern can be expressed by organizations, but love can only be expressed by individuals (Magone & Brand, 1981).

And, perhaps more than any other business sector, advertising has exploited antithesis for decades to clarify the contrast between before and after ("Tide's in--Dirt's out"), "our" product and "theirs," and so on.

Emphasis

Still another advantage sonorous writing offers is emphasis. It might be argued that artificial means of emphasis (italics, exclamation points, dashes, colons, intensives and superlatives) are sufficient. But these are to writing what gestures are to speech--gingerbread which often detracts from meaning. The most effective emphasis is achieved through skillful use of sound and rhythm. These factors alone make the mental voice of the reader rise and fall with emphasis. One develops these rhythms by putting things as naturally as possible. Then the key ideas will fall at the beginning and end of the sentence, the points of natural emphasis. The great stylists are in consensus about this, though they express it variously. Brusaw says bluntly, "If a sentence expresses the writer's meaning simply and directly, it has the proper emphasis" (Brusaw, Alred & Owen, 1976, p. 155). Blanshard puts it this way: "Plain men know by a sort of instinct where to hit hard" (Blanshard, 1954, p. 57). They never cover their emphasis with doublespeak. Macrorie's research shows that emphatic rhythms emerge when the writer has focused on "truth-telling":

> . . . we were surprised to realize that the writers who achieved strong effects through rhythm or other techniques of sound had usually achieved them unconsciously. When praised for an artistic effect, they frequently said, "What?" and listened with amazement to what they had written" (Macrorie, 1980, pp. 6-7).

However, most writers are afraid to count on the here-now, gone-next-paragraph rhythms of natural,speech-like prose, remembering their personal lapses from cadenced and emphatic writing. Certain external checks are therefore in order during the editing process to ensure that the writer does not inadvertently cancel out the natural rhythms. First, once can make sure that key ideas occupy the emphatic positions at the beginning and end of each sentence, and of each paragraph for that matter. This means whacking off ambling, incidental phrases in these positions and replacing them with vigorous, important lead-offs and wrap-ups. Second, one can put the main ideas in main clauses and subordinate ideas in subordinate elements. This move provides focus not only for the sense, but also for the sound, of the sentence. As Brusaw points out, a "compound sentence carries no special emphasis because it contains two coordinate independent clauses" (Brusaw, Alred, & Owen, p. 156). And without emphasis, one could add, the sentence has no special rhythms either. Even more problematic than the compound structure would be the complex sentence in which the positioning of the key ideas runs counter to the natural stresses of the sentence. When this happens, the effect is usually comic, as in the following sentence, where the main idea is in a subordinate element and the subordinate idea in a main clause:

> The Joneses had lunch at Sam & Carl's, filing suit for divorce shortly afterwards.

Third, one can check to see that each sentence and paragraph unit builds to a crescendo of emphasis rather than trails off from the same. Parallel structures naturally build in emphasis, but only if the parallel ideas are arranged climactically in order of importance. If the parallel elements are arranged anti-climactically, as in the following sentence, the climax is aborted and the effect, again, comic:

> Elisa feared she would lose her job, her husband, her free time.

A climactic effect can also come from an occasional periodic sentence, where the key clause is saved for the end. Yet, "If unimportant details pile up at the end of a sentence, they may get more emphasis than they deserve, and the reader may feel that the sentence is 'running down,' because he expects important information at the end and does not get it" (McCrimmon, 1976, p. 136). Such is the case in the following sentence, where again sense and word placement are at cross purposes:

> Wall Street scored its heaviest gains in six years yesterday, as tabulated by E. F. Button and reported in their evening stock market report, aired at 5:35 Miami time.

One further device by means of which rhythmic sound can emphasize sense is repetition. As Macrorie points out, writers who "care" about their subjects tend to repeat words, phrases, and whole clauses (Macrorie, 1980, p. 51). Obviously, excessive repetition can be monotonous, but the effective sort of repetition underscores meaning, as in this marvelously onomatopoetic sentence from McPhee's article on the Olympic basketball player Bill Bradley. Here the repetition of Bradley's name three times in 10 words (as if he were three men in one) suggests the speed with which Bradley oould suddenly change course and outfox his opponent:

> If the man [opposing guard] moves over so that he will be directly in Bradley's path when Bradley comes out of the turn, Bradley can scrap the reverse pivot before he begins it, merely suggesting it with his shoulders and then continuing his original dribble to the basket, making his man look like a pedestrian who has leaped to get out of the way of a speeding car (McPhee, 1978, p. 17).

McPhee's repetition has purpose and provides a strong triple center from which the long and loose participial phrases at the end of the sentence can range out. Therefore, the thrice-repeated "Bradley" helps integrate the whole sentence and even the whole paragraph, where the name echoes several more times. But the repetition of "Bradley" is only one facet of the pattern of repetitions in McPhee's paragraph. Actually, the sentence I have cited is the last of three successive sentences structured in the "If [the opponent does so and so] . . ., Bradley can . . ." pattern, each explaining one way Bradley outsmarts his opponent with half pivots.

A writer can emphasize just as effectively, though, by breaking a repetitive pattern and thus varying the reader's pace. This can be done by simply making one sentence noticeably longer or shorter than the previous one. When parallel rhythms and cadences build throughout a paragraph (as in the McPhee passage), a terse simple sentence at the end will bring what Lanham calls "large-scale emphasis,. . . climax and finality" (Lanham, 1981,p. 20). Yet sentence length which varies too predictably can in itself be dull. Variations work best after repetitions. Macrorie expresses the "repeat-plus-vary" formula this way:

> <u>One two</u> can be repeated once without boring your reader--one two, one two. But if you're going to do it a third time, you better vary it--one two, one two,<u>one two three</u> (Macrorie, 1980, p. 46).

Further variations have to be keyed to the subject matter and to the reader's ability to absorb the sense. The reader should not be raced through complicated ideas, nor be plodded slowly through simple ideas. Generally, the dense, complicated ideas are best expressed in simple structures, and simple ideas in complex or compound/complex sentences. Other ways to vary the pace are to shift from predominantly active to passive, from predominantly subject-verb-object-or-complement format to an inverted or interrupted word order, from predominantly loose sentences (with main clause at the beginning) to periodic (with main clause withheld to the end). Short, simple sentences; appositives; parallel structures; series without conjunctions can speed up the pace. Long sentenees; subordinated elements; involuted structures; repetition of conjunct ons within a series can slow the pace. Easy-to-pronounce words can speed up the pace; hard-to pronounce words can slow it. It is this infinite variety which distinguishes the rhythm of prose from that of poetry. And it is this variety that make rhythmic prose uniquely appealing to the reader.

Reader Appeal

Perhaps the most important reason why the business writer should pay attention to sound and rhythm is that they are a rich source of reader appeal. Holman calls prose cadence "one of the most subtle and pleasing of the stylistic qualities" (Holman, 1974,"Cadence").Variety is obviously more pleasureful than monotony, movement than stasis. But more than this, control of rhythm and sound impose a kind of beauty on a collection or words. This is the process Weber refers to as "an alchemic dream within our grasp--the transmutation of base everyday matter into the poem of life" (Weber, 1974, p. 187). Words then become an art form which increases the reader's responsiveness and receptiveness to the message. Holman explains this "heightened emotional response" as "a series of fulfillments or gratifications of expectation" set up by the rhythms themselves (Holman, 1974, "Rhythm"). Zinsser feels the reader responds positively out of appreciation for the writer's "effort to entertain him" (Zinsser, 1980, p. 38). Some argue that prose rhythm satisfies an elemental need of humankind. Lanham comes closest to the truth, though, in saying that prose with strong sounds and rhythms "invites the reader to perform." Through clear "performance clues," the writer transforms the reader from spectator to performer. This performance dimension unites the reader's voice with the author's; it involves the reader as participant. And because the reader has become part of the act of creation s/he likes the prose, responds to it--and remembers it.

Memorability

Unquestionably, rhythmic prose is more memorable than monotonous prose. Think back to some passage you learned as a teenager--the Preamble to the Declaration of Independence, the Gettysburg Address, the twenty-third Psalm, a top-ten hit. You may or may not remember the words or even the central idea at first. But chances are you will remember the rhythms. An if you remember the rhythms, you will eventually reconstruct the whole. Prisoners of war tell about reassembling entire Psalms or poems during their years in confinement. Without nudging my memory in the least, I can put together "Sh-<u>Boom</u>, Sh-Boom, <u>Ya</u>-da-da-<u>da</u>-da-da, <u>Ya</u>-da-da-<u>da</u>-da, Sh-<u>Boom</u>, Sh-Boom" from my junior high days. Certainly it is not power or content that makes me recall those lyrics. The rhythmic cadences alone bring them back. If rhythmic prose can reach across decades in this way, why shouldn't it stay in the heads of employees, management, customers? Why shouldn't business communication be rhythmic, concise, clear, emphatic, involving and memborable? Why shouldn't it <u>sound</u> good?

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METAPHOR: A NEGLECTED TOOL FOR THE BUSINESS COMMUNICATOR

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ABSTRACT

This paper poses three questions. First, what is metaphor? Second, is metaphor an appropriate concept for the business communication class? Third, how might an awareness of metaphor be useful for business communicators?

The paper reviews various definitions of metaphor ranging from Aristotle's original definition to more recent definitions. Metaphor is discussed as not only appropriate for the business communication class but as a major part of the class - yet probably neglected. Examples from business communication textbooks are used to illustrate that metaphor is used in our discipline, yet this use seems largely unconscious or automatic.

The paper discusses the advantages of an increased awareness of metaphor for business communication teachers and practitioners. In particular, research is reviewed which demonstrates metaphor might help business writers to be more concrete, vivid, concise, coherent, flexible, memorable, and persuasive.

INTRODUCTION

Browse through any of the new business communication textbooks you have received recently. How many contain the word "metaphor" in the index? Of the fifteen or so new textbooks I have received over the past two years, only one lists metaphor in the index (Wells, 1981). Admittedly, this selective review of indices does not provide a scientific basis for concluding that metaphor is a neglected concept in business communication. However, if the indices of our textbooks are supposed to indicate "important or key topics" (Huseman, Lahiff, and Hatfield, 1981, p. 221), then metaphor has, in this sense, been neglected.

What is metaphor? Is metaphor an appropriate concept for the business communication class or is it best left to the creative writing class? How might an awareness of metaphor benefit the business communicator? An important assumption underlying this paper is that metaphor is probably a very important part of the dynamics of the business communication class meeting. However, another assumption is that the role and importance of metaphor is largely unnoticed and that the preceding questions are seldom asked - much less answered. A primary purpose of this paper, therefore, is to provide some answers to the foregoing questions.

WHAT IS METAPHOR?

A Definition

According to the Random House College Dictionary, metaphor is defined as "the application of a word or phrase to an object or concept it does not literally denote, in order to suggest comparison with another object or concept, as in 'A mighty fortress is our God.'" Four important characteristics of metaphor are conveyed by this definition. First, metaphor concerns symbols: in particular, words and/or phrases. Second, metaphor involves transferring symbols. In fact, the word metaphor comes from the Greek verb "metapherein," which means to carry from one place to another (Miller, 1979, p. 156). Third, metaphor involves transferring symbols from objects or concepts they literally denote to objects or concepts they do not literally denote. A word or phrase is used to designate something it does not ordinarily designate. Fourth, this transference is done in order to suggest comparison. When I say "Information is food for thought," I am suggesting information can be understood, in part, by comparing it with food: "...information is best consumed in bite sizes" (Lesikar, 1980, p. 104).

Types of Metaphor

Metaphor can be further understood by examining types of metaphor. In his definition of metaphor, Aristotle notes four types. In particular, he defines metaphor as "the application of an alien name by transference either from genus to species, or from species to genus, or from species to species, or by analogy, that is, proportion" (Levin, 1982, p. 24). Aristotle's definition of metaphor has both its detractors and proponents and readers who are interested in the theoretical debate might benefit from Levin (1982). For the purposes of this paper, however, Aristotle's four types are used primarily as a basis for further understanding metaphor by examining different types and examples.

Aristotle's first and second types of metaphor are based on the general-particular (genus-species) relationship, or in a sense, the "abstraction ladder" concept. In the first type, the abstract term (genus) is used instead of the more concrete or particular term (species). For example, Aristotle illustrates the first type of metaphor in this sentence: "Here stands my ship" (Levin, p. 24). In this example standing is seen as the genus while "riding at anchor" would be the more specific referent in the category. In the second type, the more specific referent is used in place of the abstract. For example, a supervisor might admonish a tardy employee by saying "John, you've been tardy a million times this week." In this example the more specific term (a million) is used in place of a general term (many). (This statement, while being metaphorical, also exemplifies hyperbole. See Bergmann, 1982, p. 240, for a discussion of the relationship between metaphor and other tropes.)

Admittedly the preceding examples are somewhat trite. They seem to lack novelty - a prerequisite for metaphor. Levin (1982) notes that Aristotle's first two types have been criticized for these characteristics and offers the following rejoinder:

> The point is that the species/genus relationship by its very nature imposes narrow limits on any metaphor that might result

> from its exploitation...I believe, however, that to criticize Aristotle's theory of Metaphor on the grounds that a good part of what it describes or generates is poetically banal is to misjudge Aristotle's intention...to explain how knowledge is acquired..." (pp. 29-30).

Thus, while these first two types of metaphor may not produce the most novel metaphors, they do serve to make us aware of the abstract-concrete referent relationship - as does the abstraction-ladder concept (itself a metaphor).

Aristotle's third type of metaphor involves a transference from species to species. Furthermore, this transference takes place within a common genus. In a sense, Aristotle's type 3 metaphor is similar to the type 2 metaphor in that a specific reference is used in place of the general referent. However, Levin notes that the type 3 metaphor is somewhat more complex than the type 2 in that the genus-species relationship is less obvious. While the type 1 and type 2 metaphors may be evoked by a single metaphorical statement, the type 3 requires a comparison of two statements. Levin explains the nature of this type metaphor for Aristotle's examples - "Drawing off his life with the bronze" and "Severing with the tireless bronze" - as follows:

> We set up the proportions for Aristotle's Type 3 as follows:
>
> (3) a. life : draw away :: life : cleave
> b. water : cleave :: water : draw away.
>
> ...we place what counts as the normal expression on the right side of the proportion, and the metaphor on the left... Two proportions are necessary to represent Type 3 since there is substitution in both directions, i.e., 'draw away' is used with 'life' instead of 'cleave', and 'cleave' is used with 'water' instead of 'draw away'. In other words, where in Type 1 and Type 2 interchange between specific and generic terms yields one metaphor, that resulting from a single substitution, in Type 3 interchange yields two metaphors, one resulting from each of the two substitutions (p. 32).

The basis of Aristotle's fourth type of Metaphor is analogy: A is to B as C is to D. This type metaphor is seen in the popular television commercial which tells us: "A breakfast without orange juice is like a day without sunshine." The implication here is that orange juice is to our breakfast what sunshine is to our day.

Levin notes that the type 4 metaphor is an extension of types 1 - 3, yet of a different nature. Metaphors of types 1-3 are based primarily on species-genus relationships and the transferences which take place do so within logically defined categories. For type 4 metaphors there is also a species-genus relationship. Sunshine may be part of our day and orange juice may be part of our breakfast. Beyond these genus-species relationships, however, the type 4 metaphor requires that an individual see the similarities between the two types of experience. This reasoning by analogy adds the extra dimension to the type 4 metaphor.

Another Definition

Aristotle's definition is only one of an increasing number of answers to "what is metaphor?" For example, Ortony (1980) feels the standard dictionary definition of metaphor fails to explain fully the nature of metaphor and proposes the following three criteria as conditions for stating that an expression is a metaphor:

(1) The expression must be contextually anomalous if interpreted literally,
(2) Whatever "tension" arises between the expression and context must be resolvable, and
(3) The speaker's intentions and his or her expectations about the receiver's reaction should be considered.

Ortony's first condition addresses the situation where a complete sentence may be interpreted literally in some contexts and metaphorically in other contexts. The primary focus here is to expand the standard dictionary definition of metaphor to include sentences and larger units of text (in addition to words and phrases) and a consideration of text. For example, the complete sentence "Regardless of the danger, the troops marched on" may or may not be interpreted as a metaphor. Within the context of any army in battle, the sentence is not likely to be metaphorical. However, in the following context, the sentence is clearly metaphorical:

> The children continued to annoy their babysitter. She told the little boys she would not tolerate any more bad behavior. Climbing all over the furniture was not allowed. She threatened to not let them watch TV if they continued to stomp, run, and scream around the room. Regardless of the danger, the troops marched on (Ortony, 1980, p. 72).

Thus, metaphor involves not only transferring words or phrases, but entire sentences. Furthermore, context plays a key role in defining when an expression is metaphorical.

Ortony's second condition emphasizes another dimension of metaphor, that of tension and its role in the comprehension of metaphor. According to Ortony "All metaphors give rise to what is usually called metaphorical 'tension,' which is a result of the conceptual incompatibility inherent in a metaphor taken in its context. The comprehension of the metaphor requires the elimination of the tension, that is, the elimination of aspects of the meanings of words, phrases, or sentences that when interpreted literally give rise to tension" (Ortony, 1980, p. 73). For example, when a friend says "The jailor complimented me today," I must pause a second. The term "jailor' confuses me. The term creates a certain "tension" when trying to understand the sentence until I place the term within the context of my friend's perception of her job as a jail. Her job is like being in jail and therefore her boss is the jailor.

According to Ortony, this second condition is necessary in order to exclude from a definition of metaphor all expressions which are unresolvable contextual anomalies. For example, if in the context of a job interview the interviewer asks "Why do you want to work for our company?" and the interviewee responds "Square turtles often giraffe under the moon," it would seem no amount of processing could resolve the "tension" conveyed by the interviewee's response. Certainly the interviewee is not speaking literally. However, the response cannot be considered metaphorical unless some contextual information serves to reduce the tension. Ortony does not define metaphor to include nonsense.

Ortony's third condition requires that a definition of metaphor include some consideration of the communicator's intentions and his or her expectations about their recognition. However, exactly what should be considered is not clearly stated except to note that "one might require that the speaker intend to speak metaphorically, and that in order to do so must believe that the tension elimination condition holds, and probably also that the contextual anomaly condition holds" (Ortony, 1981, p. 74). It should be noted that a major purpose of Ortony's was to provide an outline of a definition of metaphor that extends the standard dictionary definition. Thus it seems the third condition is presented primarily as a category for further study and exposition.

Simile and Metaphor

Metaphor and simile are closely related concepts and some examples used in this paper are more correctly defined as simile rather than metaphor. For example, of the two statements "information is like food, it is best consumed in bite sizes" and "information is food for thought," the first is simile and the second is metaphor. While both figures of speech involve comparison, the comparison is implicit in metaphor and explicit in simile, the explicit comparison being noted usually by the introductory words "like" or "as". Miller (1980, p. 156) also notes that some authors discriminate between the two concepts by concluding that metaphor asserts identity while simile denotes not identity but merely similarity. While this distinction may be necessary for some purposes, I feel that it is not critical to this paper and thus include examples of both simile and metaphor. Moreover, Miller (1980) and others (e.g., Bergmann, 1982) provide analyses which stress the role of similarity (and not identity) in the dynamics of metaphor. The reader, however, should keep in mind these distinctions as they may be appropriate for other purposes (e.g., see Reinsch, 1971).

METAPHOR IN THE BUSINESS COMMUNICATION CLASS

Is metaphor an appropriate concept for the business communication class? When I ask my students this question the first response is generally "No". Underlying this response seems to be the belief that metaphor is a literary device - something for the poet and the creative writing class in English. A little reflection, however, leads to the conclusion that metaphor is not only an appropriate concept, it is essential.

This essential nature of metaphor in the business communication class is emphasized by Reddy's discussion of the conduit metaphor (Reddy, 1979). Reddy notes that the language used to communicate about communication is structured around the conduit metaphor where ideas are objects, words are containers, and communication is transmitting. Communication is conceptualized as a process where ideas (objects) are put into words (containers) which are sent or transmitted along a conduit to a receiver who removes the objects from their containers (ideas from the words). Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p. 11) offer the following examples of the conduit metaphor:

It's hard to get that idea across to him.
It's difficult to put my ideas into words.
Try to pack more thought into fewer words.
His words carry little meaning.

Most every teacher of business communication will recognize the conduit metaphor whether or not she uses that specific term. Some of the emphasis in a business communication class is devoted to ensuring that students know that this perspective of communication can be dangerous, particularly that words are not containers for meaning. Meaning is in people, not in words. However, how often is it emphasized that our discussion of communication (and other topics) is metaphorical? Moreover, how pervasive is metaphorical thinking within our discipline? How many of the concepts, principles, and guidelines of business communication have metaphorical "roots"?

Our business communication textbooks make good use of metaphor (and simile). For example:

-- Like people, words have personality (Lesikar, 1980, p. 100).
-- Camouflaged verbs (Lesikar, 1980, p. 102).
-- Thus, like food, information is best consumed in bite sizes (Lesikar, 1980, p. 104).
-- All games are played by rules. And the game of communication is no exception (Himstreet and Baty, 1981, p. 7).
-- At least as harmful as Information Hog is the indiscreet person who...is like a badly made sieve (Wolf, Keyser, and Aurner, 1979, p. 50).

These examples illustrate the pedagogical value of the metaphor for the business communication class. Words are seen as having personality and thus the student learns some words are dull, some are extroverted. Verbs "hide" in sentences by acting like a noun, are hard to find, and thus hinder vivid communication. Thus, metaphor can be a useful communications tool. However, only when we become aware of the role and importance of metaphor can we begin to use it to become more successful communicators. Furthermore, unless we and our students are aware of metaphor, we are susceptible to its dangers and disadvantages. Words are not containers.

IMPLICATIONS OF AN AWARENESS OF METAPHOR

The previous sections have already hinted at the advantages which might accrue to the individual who is aware of metaphor. The purpose of this section is to enumerate some more specific advantages and disadvantages.

In general, an awareness of metaphor should lead to a more enjoyable and productive life. This proposition is based on the assumption that an awareness of forces which influence our lives allows us to exercise some control over those forces and thus move our lives in directions of our choosing. This advantage is based on Lakoff and Johnson's (1981, p. 3) perspective of metaphor: "If we are right in suggesting that our conceptual system is largely metaphorical, then the way we think, what we experience, and what we do every day is very much a matter of metaphor." As students and teachers of business communication we are very much concerned with the process by which reality is perceived and its role in message encoding. If Lakoff and Johnson are right, then metaphor may be at the center of our discipline. (For an interesting proposition that reality is a metaphor see Weick, 1979).

Lakoff and Johnson's perspective of metaphor provides a general emphasis for appreciating metaphor. Furthermore, there are more specific concerns which seem directly applicable to purposes of the business communication class.

Metaphor and Clarity

One of the primary aims of the business communication class is to make students aware of the value of clarity and concreteness in their writing style. Since many business messages are written to convey information for business decisions, it is often important that the information be specific and concrete. However, many business problems unavoidably involve vague, abstract, and complex relationships. Most every teacher of the business report knows the problems students have in clarifying problem statements and scoping in on the problem.

Metaphor may be one means for achieving greater clarity in a message. Lesikar (1980) provides an example of how an abstract phenomenon may be expressed more vividly:

> In the write-up of the results of an experiment a chemist might refer to the bad odor of a certain mixture as a "nauseous odor." But these words do little to communicate a clear mental picture in the reader's mind, for "nauseous" is a word with many different meanings. Were the chemist to say that the substance smelled like "decaying fish," his words would be likely to communicate a clearer meaning in the reader's mind (p. 101).

Goeller (1974) provides another example where a sales manager is trying to convey his displeasure with a sales presentation delivered by his staff. The manager might write:

> Your sales presentation last week to the Allen Corporation was not at all satisfactory, either from the standpoint of concrete results or that of presenting an adequate image of efficiency to the customer (p. 13).

Clearly the sales manager is displeased. But could he be more concrete and vivid in expressing that displeasure? For example, what is "an adequate image of efficiency"? Could the sales manager's impression of ineffeciency be expressed more clearly? What if he were to write "we came away looking about as efficient as a brigade of Keystone Kops" (Goeller, p. 14). The sales manager's impression of the group's inefficiency seems somewhat clearer in this expression.

In each of the above examples we find a more specific referent used in place of the categorical referent - Aristotle's type 2 metaphor. Nauseous smells become decaying fish smells and inefficient performance becomes Keystone Kop performance. The result in each case should be a more vivid image in our reader's mind.

The above examples also hint at the relationship between metaphor and two other business communication concepts related to vivid writing: familiar words and the principle of adaptation. The skillful user of metaphor recognizes that to find words which evoke clear and vivid images in a receiver's mind, he or she must adapt to the receiver's frame of reference. The dynamics of metaphor illustrate this process. Food, the Keystone Kops, and a sieve are familiar aspects of most receiver's prior experience and thus provide a means of comparing new and vague experiences (information, inefficient performance, indiscretion) with familiar and more concrete experiences (food, Keystone Kops, and sieve).

Metaphor and Conciseness

Closely related to the concern for vivid writing is the concern for a concise writing style - to convey as much meaning with as few symbols as possible. Metaphor seems especially useful for achieving this effect. For example, in attempting to explain the complexity of the process by which language influences our perception of reality, Korzybski's (1948) analogy of the map and territory provides a concise point of departure: our language influences our perception of reality much as a map guides our knowledge of a territory.

The ability of metaphor to communicate concisely is also evident when we note metaphor is figurative language. Much of what metaphor does seems to be expressed in the adage "a picture is worth a thousand words." As figurative language, an appropriate metaphor often elicits a specific picture or expresses an idea that would take paragraphs to explain. For example, in a recent conversation a colleague and I were discussing an administrator's autocratic leadership style. After much discussion about little delegation, decentralization, lack of downward communication, etc., my colleage characterized the administrator's style simply as : black hole. Enough said!

Metaphor and Memory

As discussed previously, one major purpose of communication in organizations is to provide information for problem-solving and decision-making activities. To the extent the information is easily remembered, other things constant, the more valuable is the information. Recent research suggest that metaphors are more easily remembered than are nonmetaphors. While the question of why this is so is still being studied, Harris et al (1980) note:

> In part it may be due to a relatively greater salience of metaphors.... Also important, however, is the greater number of encoding possibilities for metaphors, due to the presence of semantic domains from which to construct associations to stored knowledge and interpretations of input for storage in memory. This richer matrix of meaning may provide a more helpful retrieval aid upon recall or recognition than is possible with the typical nonmetaphorical materials. If an especially dynamic and creative image was constructed, that would also be a helpful mnenomic (p. 178).

Metaphor and Language Flexibility

Another advantage of metaphor would seem to be the flexibility it adds to language use (Billow, 1977). Given an infinite and changing reality, a language system without metaphor would require an infinite vocabulary and, consequently, to be proficient in the language, an individual would require an infinite mental storage system. (Minds are like warehouses and ideas are objects that are stored in the warehouse?) By seeing similarities between a new reality and a past reality, we can borrow the language of the past reality to begin to think and communicate about the new reality.

It would seem that much of our use of the case method in teaching business letters is based on this aspect of metaphorical thinking. For example, we would hope that in some future job a former student, faced with the task of writing a "badnews" letter, might note: "This is an XYZ Shirt Company letter if every I saw one."

Metaphor, Elaboration, and Coherence

A major problem I find with much student writing is the lack of coherence. Many useful ideas may be expressed but the relationships among the ideas are disjointed. (A theme is like a body - all the parts should be joined?) The appropriate use of metaphor may be one way to improve coherence.

For example, suppose a student is asked to write a coherent paper discussing interpersonal communication. (Moreover, how do we as teachers present a coherent perspective of communication!) Well, interpersonal communication "is not unlike the task of communicating from machine to machine" (Himstreet and Baty, 1981, p. 7). Starting with the metaphor that interpersonal communication is machine-to-machine communication we have a number of topics to discuss: information source, transmitter, channel, etc. Furthermore, communication is a process and thus there is a sequence of topics - an established relationship among the topics. This relationship provides an organizational pattern for the paper and thus a basis for coherence.

Furthermore, as the example above illustrates, a metaphor may not only provide a means for achieving coherence, but a means of elaboration. While some students may have many useful things to say (albeit incoherently), others may be worse off and have difficulty finding enough to write about. The machine metaphor illustrates how metaphor may aid elaboration. By comparing interpersonal communication to machine-to-machine communication, the student finds a number of subtopics to write about: information source, transmitter, channel, etc.

Metaphor and Persuasion

It seems almost trite to note the advantages of using metaphor for persuasive purposes. The fact that millions of dollars are spent on advertising which is highly metaphorical ("like a breath of fresh air..." "...like a day without sunshine.") would seem to evidence that someone believes metaphor is persuasive. Furthermore, published research seems to support the hypothesis that metaphorical expression is more effective in producing attitude change than is some literal expression (Bowers and Osborne, 1966; Reinsch, 1971).

Some recent research proposes that the skillful use of metaphor is an essential characteristic of the successful salesperson:

> As professional communicators, highly successful salespeople also make abundant use of metaphor, stories, and anecdotes. Some of the top salespeople I studied seemed to have a pointed and persuasive metaphor for every situation. Like the top insurance sales rep trying to sell a policy to a young prospect who was considering a smaller, perhaps more personalized insurance company. During the close he used the verbal jewel: "It's like taking you and your family on a long voyage across the Atlantic Ocean, and you want to get from here to England, and you have a choice of either going on this tugboat here or on the Queen Mary - which would you feel safest on?" (Moine, 1981).

A CAVEAT

Many of the examples of metaphor used throughout this paper have been taken from advertisements. And, when we define advertising as "the science of arresting the human intelligence long enough to get money from it," (DeBakey, 1980) we seem to have implicitly recognized the dangers of metaphor. A certain detergent may clean your clothes so they look like new, but we know that, after that first wash, they are not really new. Information may be like food, but it is not really food. Imagine yourself stranded on a desert island with only the Encyclopedia Britanica. Diminishing marginal palatableness.

Much of the dynamics of metaphor revolve around seeing similarities between diverse modes of experience, both in time and in place. The ability to see similarities between a new environment and a prior environment is a prerequisite for effective behavior. However, the ability to see differences is also important. For example, the individual who insulated his house with "rock" wool insulation never expected his house to burn since a rock doesn't burn.

Metaphor therefore serves to highlight similarities between situations and often does so in vivid and concise ways. However, there is a danger in taking the metaphor too literally, failing to take into account the differences that may exist between the things compared. Rock wool does burn. In the final analysis, however, an awareness of this disadvantage may lead to improved communication. Once a communicator is aware of metaphor, he can then more reasonably assess the salient and nonsalient dimensions of similarity in the comparison. A communicator (sender or receiver) not aware of these dynamics would seem at a disadvantage.

SUMMARY COMMENTS

A primary purpose of this paper has been to reintroduce the concept of metaphor. I use the term "reintroduce" since I assume most business communication teachers are basically familiar with the concept. However, I hope the expanded discussion of metaphor, the examples, and the topics discussed within the advantages section will interest and encourage more attention to the role and importance of metaphor for thinking and communicating, especially within the framework of business communication.

This paper has only scratched the surface (!) of the research efforts concerning metaphor. No attempt has been made to answer such questions as:

(1) In what types of letter situations might metaphor be appropriate?
(2) What types of metaphors (animal, sport, etc.) might be most appropriate for certain situations?
(3) How might the use of metaphor affect the tone of a letter with respect to sincerity, courteousness, etc.?

As a discipline, business communication has many roots in formal English grammar and expression which seeks to achieve literal expression. Given the informal and political nature of many organizations and the resulting goals of a political nature (impression management, persuasion), it would seem that teachers of business communication could bring the business communication class a little closer to organizational realities by incorporating considerations of figurative language as well as the literal. Exploring metaphor would seem to be a useful point of departure.

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Evaluation Techniques

PEER EVALUATION: A STRATEGY FOR TEACHING READER ANALYSIS AND REVISION

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ABSTRACT

Business communication instructors need pragmatic methods of teaching reader analysis and revision. This paper describes how peer evaluation can change students from "slash and add words" proofreaders to revisors who are able to "re-see" and reshape their correspondence to meet their reader's needs. The paper's first section gives a theoretical rationale for the peer process by summarizing its advantages: peer groups give students a sense of audience, provide immediate feedback, enable students to internalize specific criteria for revision, and show that revision involves a series of choices. The next section gives practical instructions on setting up the peer groups and running the group sessions. In its concluding section, the paper acknowledges that although peer evaluation is not a cure-all for students' revision and audience analysis difficulties, the process is a powerful heuristic that teaches students to think critically about their reader and to revise with purpose and confidence.

INTRODUCTION

Often subordinates and managers find themselves caught in an expensive and ego-bruising game of correspondence ping pong. Here's an example of how the game is played.

A regional sales manager of a computer company receives a letter from an angry client asking him to justify a 15% increase in software and computer maintenance costs. The manager routes the letter to his assistant and asks him to draft a reply for his signature.

A bit puzzled about exactly what his boss wants, the assistant, after a few false starts and several revisions, completes a response--courteous and somewhat apologetic--he would send the customer. The manager quickly reviews the letter and scrawls on it, "I don't like the way this sounds. We don't have to apologize for increasing prices. Give the letter another shot." A bit shaken by the criticism, the assistant composes a second version that firmly tells the customer that the price increases are justified and that everyone in the computer business is raising prices. The manager reads this version and mutters to himself, "This is damn rude; I don't want to lose this account." He quickly writes on the second version, "At least give the customer some reasons for the price increases--mention that our software reflects the state-of-the-art and that our maintenance teams have the best down-time record in the business. Also, lighten up on the tone."

The exasperated assistant thinks, "Why didn't he tell me he wanted the letter written this way in the first place." After struggling with several revisions, the assistant sends up a third version that has a tactful opening, convincing reasons for the price increases, and a soft-sell close. The manager makes a few stylistic corrections and says half aloud, "Finally. It would have been easier for me to write the letter. Some people just can't write."

Who is to blame for this expensive, time consuming, and anxiety provoking string of revisions? Should the manager have given his assistant a detailed explanation of what to include in the letter? Or should the assistant have been able to step into the manager's role and determine what response was needed to placate the angry customer? There aren't obvious answers to these questions. But what is obvious is that the assistant was not thinking about his primary and secondary reader when composing his string of revisions. If the assistant wants to eventually join the managerial ranks, it's clear that he must learn to assess his readers and revise with their needs in mind.

The same is true for the fledgling managers sitting in our classrooms. We must create for our students a managerial communications environment that gives them practice in sizing-up readers and developing reader-based strategies for revision. I have found that the peer evaluation process helps create such an environment. Peer evaluation forces students to deal with flesh and blood readers, not some vague idea of audience. More importantly, the process teaches students to revise while "re-seeing" their writing through their readers' eyes. In this paper I will discuss the theoretical underpinnings and practical uses of peer evaluation and describe how instructors can use the peer process to develop in their students reader analysis and revision skills.

THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS

Peer evaluation involves parceling students into four member groups that meet regularly, usually once a week, to analyze members' drafts of letters or memos. Through the feedback received during the peer sessions, students learn to analyze audience and to incorporate various revision strategies into their composing process.

Students rarely think about their readers' expectations and knowledge when they revise because their readers are a fiction, an amorphous idea they have been told to consider. The collaborative learning environment created by the peer sessions gives students actual readers--similar in some respects to the readers they'll write to when they're on the job--to respond to their letters and memos. Because they quickly get feedback (sometimes in the form of grimaces and shrugs) from these readers, students know first hand their writing affects others. Soon they begin anticipating the reactions of their readers (peers) and thus alter diction, revise sentence structure, and expand and reorganize ideas when revising drafts of their communiques. Evaluating audience becomes second nature to most students by the end of the semester.

Managers who write well are aware that there are a number of ways to revise their work. However, very few students realize that revision is an open-ended process, that it involves making choices, some yielding better results than others. The peer sessions make clear that there are various ways to revise a communique. Students discover that their peers give a wide range of suggestions on how to improve a letter. They have to decide which, if any of the suggestions to take. Realizing that revision is a series of choices makes students more resourceful and confident writers. They begin to realize there are a number of ways to achieve a communication objective and that the right way does not reside in some inaccessible area of their instructor's mind.

Perhaps a major cause of students' inability to analyze their readers and revise well is the traditional student-teacher relationship. Students often are skeptical about an instructor's claim that he is not the reader of a communique. After all, it is the instructor who determines if a letter is effective by comments and a grade. The instructor's traditional role is de-emphasized during the peer sessions. He functions not as a prescriber of solutions to writing problems--a benevolent authority who seems to be the only source of advice about writing--but as a "writing facilitator" or administrator whose chief responsibility is to create and maintain an environment where students can test the effectiveness of their communiques. Once students realize that their peers, not the instructor, are their readers and that they are not being judged in the sessions by an instructor who may seem overly demanding and impossible to please, they can revise with some degree of confidence. Students are less likely to feel that getting words down on paper is a doomed, painful struggle and that revision is fruitless because it can only lead to more mistakes.

The traditional instructor-dominated class has another drawback; it doesn't provide a realistic model for the on-the-job writing and revising students will eventually do. In some organizations communications, particularly formal reports, are often written and revised in committees. The "give and take" discussions during the peer sessions resemble the kinds of exchanges that occur when people in business and industry write reports. In the peer sessions many students discard their passive roles as receptacles of information. They become more outspoken, better managers of their own and others' writing, and shrewder judges of their readers. In fact, the interpersonal skills students develop in the sessions are just as valuable as the reader analysis and revising skills they master.

Critics of peer evaluation claim that once ties with the group are broken students have trouble adapting communications to their readers' needs and revising on their own. However, through peer pressure the groups modify students' attitude toward their reader and their view of revision; also, the sessions enable students to internalize revision and reader adaptation strategies. Moreover, the sessions make clear that there are specific steps a student can take to turn a badly-flawed correspondence into one that communicates effectively. Because students believe they, not the instructor, can improve their writing, they start taking responsibility for that improvement. They realize that reader analysis and revision are not abstract concepts, but important steps in the composing process. They know first hand that merely adding and subtracting words or correcting errors in grammar, punctuation, and usage will not make a correspondence effective.

THE MECHANICS OF PEER EVALUATION

The third week into the semester I divide the class; usually made up of twenty-five students, into four-member groups. I wait until the third week for several practical reasons. By that time class rolls are reasonably stable; therefore, there is less chance that the makeup of the groups will drastically change. Also, because I've already graded several short assignments, I can form groups composed of students who have complementary skills: often each group will have someone who organizes relatively well, another who writes effective sentences, and someone who has a sense of audience. Students are eager to participate in the peer sessions because many of them haven't done well on the early assignments. From my corrections and comments they realize they are not self-conscious about audience, tone, style, and organization. Also, they want feedback about their writing before they turn it in to be evaluated. And because I've mentioned differences between the ways skilled managers and students revise, students are curious how peer evaluation will help them to adapt to their readers' needs when revising.

I keep the groups as small as possible for obvious reasons. Each student will get about twelve minutes of feedback during a fifty minute session, which is usually enough information for him to determine how extensive his revisions need be. Also, in four-member groups students quickly learn to trust and depend on each other; consequently, criticism is generally constructive and suggestions for revision are couched in diplomatic language. It is rare for a student to feel brutalized after a peer session.

To make sure that each student receives his allottable time, a member of the group chairs the session--this is done on a rotating basis. The chair turns in the next class period a brief report, which I grade, describing the members' reactions to and their suggestions for improving each report. The chairs' summary reports enable me to gauge the progress of the groups and to determine which ones need help.

I spend a class preparing students for the first peer session. I carefully define revision and illustrate how it is different from proofreading. Also, I explain in detail how the peer evaluation process can make students better writers. Students take peer evaluation seriously, not viewing it as high school busy work or as a tactic the instructor has devised to avoid teaching, when they realize that the sessions will give them practice in managing and evaluating others' writing and teach them reader adaptation and revision strategies.

THE PEER EVALUATION PROCESS

Peer groups usually meet once a week, the day that a communication would normally be due. I require students to bring copies of final drafts for their groups rather than rough first efforts. I want writing for the sessions that students have thought about and worked on. I don't want students to be defensive about their correspondences by hiding behind the line, "this is only a real rough draft I dashed off; I could have done beeter if I tried."

The class before the first peer session I give students a handout detailing criteria they should use to help them compose their correspondence and to evaluate the writing they'll discuss during the session. Some questions I ask students to consider are:

1) How readable is the correspondence? Is the sentence structure, word choice, and organizational plan appropriate for the reader? Does the correspondence look intimidating and difficult to read?

2) What kind of attitude does the writer seem to have toward the reader? Does he badger, insult, talk down to, or seem oblivious of his reader?

3) Can the reader easily determine what he ought to do as a result of receiving this correspondence?

4) Are there errors in grammar and usage that undercut the writer's persona or that cloud the clarity of the correspondence?

In subsequent sessions I reduce the number of criteria. Students are gradually forced to anticipate their readers' responses to their correspondence when composing and revising their drafts.

Since the early assignments call for neutral and good news correspondences, students don't have to worry about readers who are biased or situations that are sensitive. Students can learn to use concrete diction, to write crisp, high-impact sentences, and to organize deductively. In short, their revisions are aimed at developing a straight-forward business writing style for readers who are interested in the correspondence's bottom-line.

A little more than halfway through the semester, when students begin writing correspondence whose purpose is to persuade readers or handle sensitive situations, I phase out the criteria I formerly gave students to help them compose drafts. Instead, I ask them to follow a very simple two-step process:

1) Write the best correspondence you can.

2) Reread the correspondence an hour or two before class and list the suggestions (or criticisms) you believe your readers will make to improve the correspondence.

The day of the peer session I pose some general questions to get the group discussions started. If the assignment calls for a persuasive correspondence, I might ask:

1) Why would you or wouldn't you take the action the writer wants you to take ?

2) Do you know what specific benefits you would receive from taking the action?

3) Does the correspondence get your attention and keep it?

After the session, students compare their lists to the suggestions their readers have made. Students can easily see how successful they're becoming in anticipating their readers' concerns and how effective are their earlier revisions.

For the peer process to be successful, students must begin anticipating readers' objections to their correspondence and developing a consciousness of their readers' needs and biases. Students whose thinking has become reader-based revise not only for correctness and clarity but also to manipulate style, tone, and organization so that they can control their readers' attitude toward the content of the message and the persona they have created for their readers.

INSTRUCTOR'S ROLE

Although I let the groups determine their own dynamics and regulate themselves, I do circulate among them several times during the session, checking on their progress and spending anywhere from a few minutes to ten minutes with each one. I try to remain as inconspicuous as possible during the peer sessions; however, I do gently nudge groups if they are not making progress evaluating a communication by asking members open-ended, leading questions based on the criteria they're using for evaluation. During the sessions I try to act as a "writing manager," not as a teacher who wields absolute authority about determining the effectiveness of a letter or memo. I do not make judgements about a section of a correspondence, a paragraph, or even a word; instead, I ask someone in the group to help me answer the question. I deliberately try to avoid being the audience for the revisions.

After the peer session, students can revise their reports, incorporating what they believe to be useful suggestions from their peers, and turn in their work next class period. I ask them to include with their reports the draft their group analyzed and to briefly explain why they made each revision. However, students are <u>not</u> required to revise their work, nor must they take as gospel the suggestions they've received. Deciding what needs revision and what is effective is central to the revision process. Enabling students to evaluate advice from their peers gives them practice in deciding which sections of a correspondence should be left alone, which need surgery.

FINAL OBSERVATIONS

Obviously, peer evaluation does not turn all students into shrewd judges of their readers' needs and careful revisors, but it is a powerful way of providing models for reader analysis and revision that many students incorporate into their composing process. By comparing drafts students brought to the peer sessions with the work they turned in for a grade, I have found students have gone beyond the "find the right word" method of revising: they now add supporting detail, rephrase jargon, reorganize paragraphs, engineer style, and manipulate tone; in short, they "re-see" their writing from their readers' perspective.

Not all teachers will feel comfortable using peer evaluation. Accustomed to being in control, many teachers feel that chaos will result if they abandon the traditional lecture-discussion class. The parceled classroom may seem to be a bit unconventional and chaotic, but during the peer sessions I do not relinquish control of the class; I merely share that control with the students. Obviously, plunging into weekly peer evaluation sessions would be unwise for teachers who feel comfortable running tightly structured classes. But conducting several peer sessions during the semester and using them to learn to establish specific criteria for revision, to remain inconspicuous yet be available to solve problems, and to ask open-ended questions is an effective way of seeing if peer evaluation can be a comfortable method of teaching revision and audience analysis.

Finally, more applied and theoretical research needs to be done on revision and reader analysis. I am certain that peer evaluation is only one of many heuristics that teach students to think analytically about their reader and to revise with purpose and confidence.

CAN BUSINESS COMMUNICATORS LEARN FROM HERZBERG'S MOTIVATION THEORY?

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ABSTRACT

The objectives of most written business communication is to motivate its recipient in some way. Thus, motivation theories may provide insights to various aspects of written business communication. In this paper, Herzberg's theory of motivation is presented. Then, it is analyzed to determine if it can provide some insights into written business communications. Maintenance factors are compared with mechanics of written business communications. The conclusion reached is that the impact of mechanics of (spelling, grammar, punctuation, formating, etc.) of written business communication have the same impact as maintenance factors in a job situation. Such insight should help business communication students understand the impact of mechanics on their written business communications. Also, implications for the grading of written business communication are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

There would be general agreement among business communication teachers that mechanics--grammar, spelling, formating, and typographical accuracy--in written business communications are very important. But just how important are they? Is it justifiable to give a failing grade solely because of poor mechanics?

The question is easier to address when one considers the impact of mechanics on written business communications. To clarify the impact, a comparison of the hygiene factors of Herzberg's theory of motivation and the effect of mechanics on written business communications needs to be made. This comparison will help in understanding the critical role mechanics play in written business communication.

HYGIENE FACTORS

In his motivation theory, Herzberg indicates that two types of factors are involved: hygiene factors and motivators.

Hygiene factors are those characteristics of a job situation that determine the degree of worker satisfaction. If the hygiene factors of a job are not sufficient, the worker will be less satisfied with his job and cannot be motivated. If, however, the hygiene factors of a job situation are sufficient, the worker can be motivated in his work performance. Therefore, if hygiene factors are sufficient, motivation can take place.

Motivators are those characteristics within a job situation which cause motivation to occur. But for motivation to occur, two conditions must be met: (1) the hygiene factors must be sufficient (the worker is satisfied with his job situation) and (2) motivators must be present. Consequently, if hygiene factors are not sufficient, motivation cannot take place even though motivators themselves may be present.

Herzberg also indicates that there is another important aspect regarding motivation which involves hygiene factors--motivation is individualistic; i.e., the hygiene factors which would satisfy one worker might not satisfy another. In such a situation, the satisfied worker could be motivated; but the other worker with less satisfaction could not be motivated.

Thus, two important characteristics of hygiene factors are

(1) They can lower a worker's satisfaction level. If this level becomes too low, the worker cannot be motivated.
(2) The impact of hygiene factors on workers is individualistic. In the same work situation, hygiene factors which may satisfy one worker might not satisfy another.

MECHANICS IN WRITTEN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

Generally, the purpose of written business communications is to motivate the recipient to perform some action or to motivate increased goodwill by the recipient toward the sender. But is recipient motivation affected by the mechanics of communication?

The impact of mechanics on written business communications is effectively illustrated by a letter a student received and the reaction of this recipient to that letter. The letter was from a bank president. It began, "Please accept our sincere thanks for selecting the XXXXXX Bank as your bank and to express the hope that our association will be mutually pleasant and profitable." The recipient recognized the grammatical error in the sentence; and it caused his level of satisfaction with the bank, or more precisely, with the bank's president, to decrease.

Would a single grammatical error cause the satisfaction level to decrease to the point at which a student would close his account? Probably not! But what if the student received several more letters from the bank and these letters also had mechanical errors in them? As the recipient of such letters, when does one start thinking--Do I dare entrust the people of this bank with the management of my money? Why, they use incorrect grammar; they misspell words; they don't punctuate properly; they don't even seem to recognize correct letter format.

When recipients of business communications start thinking in such a negative manner, what is happening? Each time the recipient of a written communication encounters mechanical errors, his satisfaction level with the sender is diminished. If that satisfaction level becomes too low, the sender's objective cannot be achieved because the recipient cannot be positively motivated.

Mechanics by themselves cannot motivate--one would probably never purchase a product simply because the written communications from a company were mechanically perfect. But when incorrectly done, mechanics lower recipient satisfaction. If the satisfaction level of the recipient becomes too low, the motivation that the writer hoped to achieve is blocked; and the written communication fails to achieve its objective.

How many mechanical errors does it take to block recipient motivation? One? Two? Three? More? One or two mechanical errors might have little serious effect on most individuals; however, the same errors might cause some individuals' satisfaction levels to diminish to the point at which the objectives of the written communication could not be achieved.

Thus, the effect of mechanics on written business communication is twofold:

(1) Mechanics can lower recipient satisfaction with written business communications. If the satisfaction level becomes too low, the recipient's motivation will be blocked, and the desired objective of the communication will not be achieved.
(2) The number of mechanical errors that would cause the blockage of the objective of a written business communication is dependent upon the recipient. In other words, the effect of incorrect mechanics is individualistic.

CONCLUSIONS

The effect of the hygiene factors in a work situation and the effect of mechanics on written business communications are similar. Insufficient hygiene factors in a work situation block worker motivation; likewise, insufficient mechanics in written business communications block recipient motivation. Thus, in their respective situations, both hygiene factors and mechanics can block motivation.

The impact of both hygiene factors and mechanics is situational. In a given job situation, a worker may consider hygiene factors sufficient and be motivated. In that same job situation, another worker might consider the hygiene factors insufficient and be unmotivated. Likewise, the mechanics of written business communication may block the motivation of one recipient and, yet, not affect the motivation of another. Thus, the impact of both hygiene factors and mechanics in individualistic.

In summary, the effect of mechanics on written business communications and the effect of hygiene factors in a work situation are similar: (1) each can block motivation and (2) the impact of each is individualistic.

IMPLICATIONS

Understanding the effect of mechanics on written business communications has two important pedagogical implications:

(1) When students realize that incorrect mechanics can cause communications to fail to achieve the desired objective, students will be more motivated to perfect their mechanical skills. Such motivation should certainly be reinforced by the teacher. If we, as teachers, will illustrate to our students that written business communications can be failures solely because of incorrect mechanics, most students will be more motivated to eliminate such mechanical errors.

(2) When evaluating written business communications, it seems questionable to assign a restricted percentage of the letter grade to mechanics. This suggestion should not be interpreted to mean that students' grades should not be penalized for incorrect mechanics. Indeed, when one recognizes that incorrect mechanics can cause an entire communication to fail in achieving its objective it is justifiable to give such a written communication a failing grade even though the other aspects of the communication may be satisfactory. When is a written communication so very poor that it fails to achieve its objective? That decision is up to the recipient--the sole judge and jury. However, since the recipient's decision is a verdict rendered, it is better to establish reasonably exacting levels of performance rather than to risk communication failure as a result of incorrect mechanics.

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Listening Skills

LISTENING--THE COMMUNICATION DILEMMA

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ABSTRACT

Research has shown that listening is the part of communications that consumes most of the time of the average person. However, listening receives only cursory treatment in the educational system. The other three parts--reading, writing, and speaking--are emphasized far more than listening. This paper presents the dilemma in the educational system concerning the emphasis given to each of the four total communication skills in relationship to their relative importance. Accentuating this dilemma is the fact that preschoolers are far more adept at listening than elementary, secondary, or university students. An analysis of the stages of development of listening skills is made in an effort to solve the dilemma. Suggestions for teaching these skills and instructional implications are included in an effort to assist teachers to prepare students for managerial listening skills required in the business world. Implications for improved methodology and research are included in an effort to solve this dilemma of listening.

INTRODUCTION

> An old riddle posed by the mystics of many religions--the Zen, Buddhists, and Sufis of Islam, or the Rabbis of the Talmud--asks "Is there a sound in the forest if the tree crashes down and no one is around to hear it?" We know that the right answer to this is no. There are sound waves. But there is no sound unless someone perceives it. Yet the implications of this rather trite statement are great indeed.
>
> First, it means that it is the recipient who communicates. The so-called communicator, the person who emits the communication, does not communicate. He utters. Unless there is someone who hears, there is no communication. There is only noise. The communicator speaks or writes or sings--but he does not communicate. Indeed, he cannot communicate. He can only make it possible, or impossible for a recipient--or rather, "percipient"--to perceive (Drucker, 1974, p. 483).

Communication occurs when a message transmitted from one person to another is commonly understood by both parties. Communication occurs only when a message actually reaches its destination and is perceived by the receiver (Haggblade, 1982, p. 6).

Furthermore, communication is a two-way process--one which involves a transmitter and a receiver. In reading, the writer is the transmitter, sender, or encoder. In speaking, the listener is the receiver, responder, or decoder of the message. As far back as 350 B. C., the receiver was recognized as an integral part of the communication process. The basic idea down through the ages has been that communication cannot take place unless someone receives the message (Lee, Benoit, Moore, & Powers, 1980, pp. 13-15). In other words, in all of the four most important liberal arts skills of communications--reading, writing, speaking, or listening--no message is transmitted until received!

THE TOTAL COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Most vintage and recent researchers agree that the effective business communicator must be adept at writing, reading, speaking, and listening--the four skills of total communication. Their research statistics agree basically upon the amount of time spent on each:

Writing.	9%
Reading.	16%
Speaking	30%
Listening.	45%

These statistics are based on the behavior of the average person who spends 70 per cent of the waking hours in some form of communication (Schuette, 1980, p. 62).

Therefore, people spend five times as much time listening as writing; almost three times as much time listening as reading; and one and one half times as much time listening as speaking. However, a survey by Rankin disclosed that reading received 52 per cent of the emphasis in classroom instruction and listening only eight per cent (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, p. 6).

In his study, Dr. Donald E. Bird found an even larger percentage of listening as rated as important on the job. His results were:

Reading.	4%
Writing.	11%
Speaking	22%
Listening.	63%

Bird's study would substantiate those of other researchers in that persons are far more influenced by what they hear than by what they read (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, p. 8).

Furthermore, both older and more recent statistics purport that the average business executive who spends 90 per cent of the working day in communicating divides the average communication hour as follows:

Writing.	5 1/2 minutes
Reading.	9 1/4 minutes
Speaking	18 minutes
Listening.	21 minutes (Schuette, 1980, p. 162).

The total communication process, which includes the language arts skills of writing, reading, speaking, and listening, must therefore utilize each skill as an aid and a complement to the others. Active listening means that the communicator will understand the need for more lucid speaking, which facilitates more succinct writing, which enhances reading retention (Rochester & DiGaetani, 1981, p. 10).

THE LISTENING DILEMMA

According to Ralph Nichols, one of the pioneer authors and the "classic" authority on listening, listening is the oldest, the most used, and the most important element of interpersonal communication. Nichols further purports that throughout history listening has often been the sole medium of learning. By contrast, reading has been used as a primary tool of learning for only a few hundred years. Even during this period, more has been learned through oral than visual communication, and the relative importance of listening has continued to increase (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, p. vii).

According to Rochester and DiGaetani (1980, p. 10), listening is the newest area of communication interest. This emphasis is spearheaded by business which was quick to sense the value of careful and thoughtful listening in the marketplace.

Roberts (1976) concurring with both these vintage and modern authors states: "Listening always has been and continues to be the most widely used human means of receiving information." Studies which have verified this generalization include those of Duker (1971); Rankin (1926); and Wilt (1949). Arasjid (1973) emphasizes that listening, because of its importance, deserves attention on all learning levels.

Similarly, Duker's 1968 Bibliography lists various studies done that tend to verify the fact that serious pedagogical consideration needs to be given to listening training at the elementary, secondary, and collegiate levels, as well as the business community (See also Markgraf, 1960). However, Erway (1972) has reported that as the recognition of the importance of instruction in listening increase, less research is being published now on listening training than was in the 1950's.

Therefore, one dilemma is: As the need for listening training is validated, why has research decreased? Are Kelley (1967) and Becker (1963) correct in their criticism of listening research on the basis of ineffective methological grounds? Is this a dilemma because we have not decided what listening is (Erway, 1972), or because the multifarious nature of listening ability and the experimental artifacts present during the testing of listening competency have resulted in distorted findings? (See also, Roberts, 1976).

Nevertheless, research shows the importance of and the need for effective listening skills; statistics show that listening is the element of communications that consumes more of the average worker's time. Still, listening receives only cursory treatment in the educational system.

Therefore, the principal dilemma in education is the emphasis given to each of the four total communication skills in relation to their relative importance. Reading and writing are emphasized far more than speaking and listening in almost all educational institutions beginning in the primary grades continuing through the university level. Most likely, no formal emphasis is given to listening (Schuette, 1980, p. 162). Accentuating this situation even more is the fact that a high majority of people have had absolutely no personal training to develop any listening ability. These persons develop their own listening habits and constantly repeat them--correctly or incorrectly (Schuette, 1980, p. 163). Furthermore, as Nichols and Stevens report, that immediately after someone speaks, the listener remembers only about half of what was heard; two months after listening to a person talk, the average listener will remember only about 25 per cent of what was said (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, pp. 5-6).

Furthermore, Rasberry states that the average persons can recall 25 per cent of what is heard, the rate of 10 per cent is more often the norm (Rasberry, 1980, p. 215). In fact, the real dilemma is that an inverse relationship exists in that the two most used communication skills--listening followed in importance by speaking--receive far less attention than the two used less frequently--reading and writing.

This emphasis presents the dilemma: "Has our educational system been built upside down?" (Schuette, 1980, p. 162).

ANALYSIS OF LISTENING SKILLS

An analysis of listening skills in relations to our instructional process helps in understanding the problem and formulating solutions. For example: What really is listening? What does the listening process include? What are the stages in the development of listening from the infant, to elementary and secondary students, to university students, to adults, to business managers? What are the implications of these developmental stages for teaching and research in listening? Can listening be taught? If so, how? What can students, teachers, and business persons do to accomplish immediate improvement in listening skills and to prepare through effective teaching, training, and research for long-range goals in improvement of listening techniques as the most frequently used and perhaps the most important part of the total communication process?

Definition of Listening

The definition of listening itself becomes a dilemma in that many people seem to equate listening and hearing. If listening was principally hearing, the problem would be far less acute in that most persons do not suffer hearing losses during most of their years spent in development of listening skills. In reality, hearing is only a part of listening (Goodard, 1980, p. 29)--an activity which goes far beyond the mere hearing of words (Petrie, p. 329).

Keefe (1971, p. vi-vii) sees listening as a form of interpersonal communication which extends well beyond the physical exercise called hearing. He explains:

> Listening is with the mind, hearing with the senses. Listening is now seen as the means of bridging the gap between one mind and another, one interior person and another--a gap that may actually be widened by word where listening does not receive its meed of attention.

Nichols (1947, p. 83) agrees with Keefe in that hearing and listening are not identical and suggests defining listening as "the attachment of meaning to aural symbols." Nichols also views listening as "The Missing 'L' in Learning" (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, p. vii).

Concurring with Nichols, Level and Galle (1980, p. 225) emphasize that listening goes beyond the mere perception of sounds and involves the ability to discriminate sound and ideas, to comprehend, and to attach some meaning to the parts that are selected. They indicate a broader definition of what listening is may include silence, and "Silence is golden." Moreover, Level and Galle feel that the interpretation of silence may have meaning and is a vital part of listening.

Petrie (1966, p. 329) also views listening as an activity which goes far beyond the hearing of words:

> The total process (listening) includes at least six specific elements or processes; i.e., hearing, attending purposefully, recognizing spoken language, interpreting oral symbols, supplementing meaning and knowledge of the symbols from memory of past experiences and in terms of future needs, and being aware of facts or assumptions not uttered.

Quibble, Johnson, and Mott (1981, p. 363) add the element of retention to the listening process when they report:

> Listening is perceiving sounds from the speaker, attaching meaning to the words, and designing an appropriate response, which involves remembering what the speaker has said long enough to interpret what is meant.

Robertson and Perkins (1983, p. 2) include the aspect of thinking as a part of the listening process:

> Listening and hearing are not the same thing. Hearing is a physical activity that involves mostly the ears. Listening is a mental activity that takes the physical act one step further. Listening involves thinking. Thinking is a complex process that goes on within the brain....

A review of the literature shows, therefore, that most authorities agree that listening is a complex task, which must be nurtured constantly if performed efficiently (Goddard, 1980, p. 29). These authorities are of the opinion that listening is a skill that can be taught--a skill that is probably not being taught, however (Barbara, 1958, p. 1).

Stages in Development of Listening Skill

Because of the high degree of interest exhibited in listening by children, parents and teachers often assume that children naturally know how to listen or will pick up the skill on their own and will improve on this ability as they reach adulthood. However, the dilemma is that somewhere along the way this attention to listening gives way before the child reaches adulthood and is seldom fully revived (Goddard, 1980, p. 29).

This situation raises the question as to what can be done to keep the childrens' ability and desire to listen. Why does the adult lose the benefit of effective listening in the total communication process? Is this problem a fault of the educational system as people mature and pass through various stages in the development of listening skills?

The Preschool Listener. Both Nichols (1957, p. 193) and Barbara (1958, p. 102) accede that "listening begins at home." Therefore, communications between parents and children should be, from birth on, primary unifying forces and the development of healthy personalities. The more solid and cohesive the emotional ties of the total communication process becomes at this time, the better equipped the children will be to cope with the outside world in later years.

Newborn children in the family have the capacity to listen effectively unless afflicted with some organic hearing defect. These children if given parental support can develop normally and fulfill their growth possibilities in communication. However, the newborn childrens' listening ability will grow in proportion to their emotional freedom and experience, degree of awareness, nature or relationship to others, and capacity to conceptualize realistically (Barbara, 1958, p. 102-103).

Toddlers begin to talk when their thinking is still largely in the realm of fantasy; therefore, they need the listening which can be furnished by parents and other family members. The expression and interpretation given these fantasies are part of the development of the toddlers' aural communication patterns (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, p. 194-195).

Toddlers have almost unlimited capacities to listen to different sounds and pay endless attention to them. For example, the howling winds, the rustling of leaves, the pounding waves--these are familiar sounds that receive their undivided attention. However, these listening abilities pass as the child enters school.

The Student Listener. First graders are better listeners than readers. As their education progresses, however, more time is spent on reading. In the typical school, these beginners will not receive formal training or practice in how to listen (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, p. 14).

From the first grade on, students' ability to read begins to improve. Their listening ability also increases but at a much slower rate. Probably around the fifth or sixth grade, the skills of reading are far more developed than those of listening. Students understand better by using their eyes than their ears (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, p. 14).

Reading has received the focus of attention; writing has been emphasized; speaking has received little attention; and listening has become a "forgotten art."

In the secondary school, listening training has consisted of little more than a long series of admonitions extending from the first grade through college. "Pay attention!" "Now get this!" "Open your ears!" "Listen!" (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, p. 10-11).

Furthermore, the instructor who is anxious to give the students a good start repeats information and directions so many times that pupils learn to expect such reiteration. Why should students listen the first time when they can get the information after the sixth or seventh repetition? Similarly, directions for school procedures are repeated over public address systems. The students are still not held responsible for listening and comprehending the message. Moreover, a mimeograph version of the same message is distributed to the secondary student as a final step in the communicaion process (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, p. 206).

Nichols further declares, "The student's very soul, depends on a good mimeograph." Lecturers accompany their students with mimeographed outlines to assist the poor listeners. Test and test instructions that could be given orally are cranked out on the mimeograph machine (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, p. 206).

And more perplexing is that listening does not improve when students enter colleges. A common question to: "Why do we find such widespread inexperience at listening to difficult material among college freshmen?" The answer is partially that, in terms of training and practice, the eye has been the favorite son of educators whereas the ear has been the neglected child."

Instruction in listening should be given early in a person's college career; the beginning of a communications course would be an appropriate--even if late--time. In this manner, correct practice could be done toward some specified learning such as communicating in business (Robertson and Perkins, 1983, p. 2).

However, practice in listening does not make students perfect listeners. In an informal survey of listening ability at all grade levels Nichols (1957, pp. 12-13) found that when time was called and students were tested, 90 per cent of first-graders showed that they were listening to their teachers; 80 per cent of the second-grade children were listening. However, the percentages tapered off as the results from higher and higher grades came in. In the junior high grades, only 43.7 per cent of the students were listening; in high school, the average dropped to a low of 28 per cent. The listening ability and concentration of students takes an even greater drop when students enter post-secondary institutions.

University students are caught in this dilemma. From their advent into kindergarten until their graduation, the present educational system does the best possible job of discouraging the use of ears and listening skills. Students become adults with bad listening habits reinforced through incorrect practice of faults rather than skills.

<u>The Adult Listener</u>. In the adult, further distortion and emotional disturbances may occur in the area of listening. Because of the adult's inhibitions, inner rigidities, fears, and anxieties, these listeners often DREAD the mutual exchange of ideas and beliefs. Adults tend to listen only to what they feel they should be attentive to, blotting our larger areas of awareness and thus avoiding the basic truth involved in issues and situations. Adults are more expert at listening with "half an ear" (Barbara, 1958, p. 108); they have had more incorrect practice.

Nevertheless, adults are finding themselves moving more toward an oral society each day. Their dilemma is that their abilities to listen have declined since they entered school. Furthermore, over 70 per cent of their communicating is oral. Television has taken its toll in the number of people who read or write effectively and frequently (Robertson and Perkins, 1982, p. 1).

Gradually, more of learning is occuring through media other than the written word. Although books are being published faster and in greater number than ever before, 95 per cent of all literature is read by only 5 per cent of the population. Moreover, the great majority of Americans do not read newspapers--they turn on the six o'clock news and the ten o'clock news (Robertson and Perkins, 1983, p. 3). Because they are listening more today than ever before, adults need improved, efficient skills in the area. These adults also face the dilemma of having less training, practice, and proficiency in the skill in the communication process that they use most--listening.

<u>Business and Managerial Listeners</u>. Researchers have found the increasing need and importance of listening skills for business employees and managers (Schuette, 1980, p. 162). When 90 per cent of the working day in business is spent in communication skills--the largest amount of time spent in listening skills, business persons vitally need to be productive.

Listening skill is fundamental to an employee's effectiveness in business, but little training has been provided. Employees come into business from an instructional structure which apparently causes their listening ability to decrease as they progress up the educational ladder. Nevertheless, employees cannot afford to say that they have been listening all of their lives and don't need listening training now, that they can hear all right, that they think reading is more important, or that they believe listening ability is mostly a matter of intelligence (Schuette, 1980, p. 163).

Downs and Conrad (1982, pp. 31-36) state that employees are usually managers of at least one other person; managers are subordinates to others in the organizations. However, these researchers also found that ability to listen well was a basic strength of good employees and/or employers; inability or failure to listen was a problem for either group. However, one major difference in the views of the employees and managers was that in terms of specific behaviors, managers considerd themselves as being more effective listeners than their subordinates (Downs and Conrad, 1982, p. 35).

When considering managerial listening, however, Nichols and Stevens (1957, pp. 150-151) refute this premise. They feel that "the boss finds it hard to listen." In fact, the irony is that bosses think they are good listeners when top managers, in reality, are probably the poorest listeners in the executive hierachy.

For example, a boss, because of his position in the chain of command, may find difficulty in being a good listener when a subordinate is talking. Indeed the boss may give lip service to his being a good listener by announcing, "My door is always open. Walk in any time." But, in spite of the announcement, his ears often remain closed to what is said by subordinates who accept the invitation (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, pp. 150-151).

In part, at least, this bad listening situation may result from a boss's assumptions about his position as a leader. In our society we talk about how leaders should understand the people under them; therefore leaders should listen. On the other hand, the leader "should be all-knowing," we say. In order to become a leader, the executive should have all "the answers at the finger tips." The leader who feels strong about this concept is likely to find it difficult to listen to those in lower-level positions. Inside, an executive may fear that the act of listening will indicate a weakness and that as a person who should have all the answers, the executive should not have to listen (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, p. 151).

Actually, Keefe declares that managers are not equal parts listeners and speakers. He purposes that managers should recognize the wisdom of the proverb, "Nature gave us two ears and only one mouth so that we could listen twice as much as we speak." Managers should be two parts listeners and one part speakers to be supportive; to encourage ideas. Managers must realize how persons of all ages have viewed their gods; gods derive their power and glory from the fact that their followers will <u>listen</u> to them (Keefe, 1971, pp. 2-3).

But managers are not the "gods" of listening; they must learn to listen. In fact, in the business world, above all, an executive must know how to listen. An official of the American Management Association points out that management has "talked too much and listened too little" (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, p. 142).

Business, however, is awakening to the necessity of listening much faster than educational institutions. In a recent issue of the magazine NATION'S BUSINESS, an article written about the basic skills that future industrial managers will need, places listening at the top of the list (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, p. 142).

But these recommendations mean little to a busy executive. They indicate nothing about the skill of listening and give no concrete suggestions for its improvement. For the sister communication skills, reading, writing, and speaking, ample literature and specific training programs are readily available to the executive, but for listening, the executive has practically nothing with which to work (Nichols & Stevens, 1957, p.142). Business is doing more about improving listening skills than any other group. Industrial-training people are developing programs for listening improvement. Management development programs are pioneering in listening training in the independent consultant field of executive improvement. Universities and special management-training schools are offering communication courses that include attention to the subject of listening. Furthermore, Nichols and Stevens (1957, p. 143) feel that there are signs that a considerable body of literature is developing to help management people with listening improvement.

TEACHING LISTENING SKILLS

One dilemma in listening is: Can listening be taught? If so, when, where, how? Similarly, a dilemma occurs when the literature is reviewed; and the researchers report from a continum of pessimistic views that listening cannot be taught; to a cautious view that listening can be taught "if"; to an optimistic view that listening is a skill that can be taught through awareness and practice.

Research Findings. Smeltzer (1981, p. 146) reports a lack of empirical research on techniques that are suggested for the improvement of listening skills. Similarly, Roberts (1976, p. 12) bemoans the fact that research in the area is limited and not completely validated.

However, Roberts (1976, p. 12) reports that Carroll (1968), Erway (1972), and Kelley (1967) feel pessimistic and unsure as to whether listening has been, and in some cases, can be, taught. Roberts elaborates that Erway (1972, p. 23), while not viewing listening studies as a hopeless cause, does fault previous research by suggesting that "no major long-term research has been done to show that gains from instruction in the skill are preserved." Roberts (p. 12) also feels that the generalizability of the studies is seriously limited by the nature of the subject population used in the majority of research.

By far the most prevalent educational level in listening experiments is the elementary school level (Roberts, 1976, p. 12). Fewer studies have been carried out at the secondary level, and relatively only a handful have been carried out at the university/college level. This inverse relationship between the amount of studies and the age of subjects seems to mirror the relationship between age and listening improvement that some researchers have alluded to in their articles (Evans, 1960; Everetts, 1962). Thus, even if the ability to teach listening is established and leads to the creation of effective teaching mechanisms for listening, some reason for doubt exists as to whether they might be appropriately applied at the post secondary level (Roberts, 1976, p. 13).

Roberts (1976, pp. 13-14) adds that whether or not listening can be effectively taught at any level, and specifically at the university/college level, is subject to debate. He remarks that the only clear issues present in the literature are that listening should be taught at the university/college level and that listening <u>is not</u> taught at this level.

Smeltzer (1981, p. 146) also emphasizes the lack of empirical research on techniques that are suggested for the improvement of listening skills in business and the lack of knowledge concerning the effectiveness of techniques researcher. However, both he and most of the modern authors and authorities reviewed (in this paper) report that listening is a vital skill in business that can be taught. The dilemma is the lack of empirical evidence on the best strategy for improving this skill (Smeltzer, 1981, p. 145).

The best summary of a modern review of research in listening may be that of Huseman, Lahiff, and Hatfield (1981, p. 263) who summarize the reports of listening skill improvement in business by saying:

> We would like to provide more definite conclusions about listening from research studies, but listening ability is a complex combination of factors. The important point to remember is that, given stable personality and average IQ, there is no particular personality trait or intelligence level that excludes us from being good listeners. Listening is a skill that can be learned. We can become better listeners and better teachers of listening skills.

<u>Methodological Implications</u>. Since the most recent research appears to indicate that listening is a skill that can be taught and that teachers can teach, communication instructors should be vitally concerned with listening as a major aspect of the total communication process.

The newborn and the preschool child reportedly have listening skills to a greater extent than any others at any level in the communication process. Teachers should strive, therefore, to maintain this ability through the educational process by making definite efforts to not destroy whatever developmental skill these persons have that is later lost. Listening may be highly developed in these groups because it is the only liberal arts skills in which they are sophiscated. For example, they have not yet been formally exposed to reading, writing, and speaking in the educational system.

The elementary student should be encouraged to keep the skills of the preschool listener while mastering the additional activites of reading, writing, and speaking. A study of suggestions for listening such as those found in most articles and books including concerning effective techniques could be presented (Goddard, 1980, p. 30).

Some of these suggestions include: concentrating on listening, avoiding emotional reactions and responses, looking for the real message, developing an inquiring mind, basing evaluation on the complete story, learning to recognize the important points, being a sincere listener, learning from listening, and putting language and content in proper perspective (Goddard, 1980, p. 29).

In the secondary school, students become progressively ineffective in listening. The barriers to effective listening should be presented in addition to the suggestions for efficient listening skills. Modern authors such as Goddard (1980, p. 30) concur that the following listening problems are the most common: lack of effort, emotion reactions, personal appearance and mannerisms, superficial interests, premature judgment, unnecessary attention to details, distractions and irrelevancies, faking attention, attitude of superiority, and language appropriateness. Furthermore, Golen (1980, p. 123) concludes that students will likely perceive and avoid communication barriers more seriously after they have discussed them.

At the university level, Nichols (1957, p. 17) emphasizes that awareness and experience are the essentials of effective listening. In fact, listening awareness broadens knowledge, improves appreciation for the written word, develops language facilities, and offers therapeutic values at any stage in the developmental process.

To achieve listening effectiveness, Nichols (1957, pp. 209-211) suggests that a combination of three approaches would be most effective for teaching listening: the direct approach which sets aside classroom time for specific courses in listening; the integrated approach which coordinates listening with all other subjects--especially language; and the listening laboratory which supplements the two other approaches.

At the university level, Rasberry (1981, pp. 215-226) has developed a listening module and other instructional methods and materials that he thinks are effective in developing listening skills. Other modern authorities such as Smeltzer (1981, p. 145) and Golen (1980, p. 123) have suggested that the use of different methods of teaching will aid students in developing listening awareness and experience.

Adult listeners who are constantly exposed to the media could gain listening skills from recordings and radio and television programs, directed toward improvement of listening skills. In fact, selective choice of listening activities, through the use of the media, could be beneficial. The dilemma in adult listening is that most adults honestly believe they are fairly good listeners, even though their listening performance suggests otherwise. Adults must recognize the significance of developing their listening skills and admit their personal deficiencies, and gain an understanding of the major obstacles to listening activities (Goddard, 1980, p. 3). The perplexing situation is that this awareness of the listening-learning process is rare among adult listeners.

Authorities in business and industry are concluding that sometimes good or bad listening can even make or break their business. They realize that large businesses today are dependent upon their communication systems and industry is spending millions--even billions--of dollars to make these systems work. At the same time, business persons know that good business communication is a hopeless cause if the people are poor listeners.

Therefore, businesses are using whatever means, wherever they may be found, to improve this skill as a part of the total communication process. Listening--the receiving side of oral communication--causes more problems for business people than talking--the sending of information. Business is striving to use all the techniques available for instruction in listening-learning skills. In fact, business is spending dollars to cut the cost of ineffective listening.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE DEVELOPMENT OF LISTENING SKILLS

In the instructional program, teachers and students must develop an awareness of the importance of listening in the educational system as preparation for the business world. Experiences must be provided in order that students can enrich their listening abilities. Listening must be added as a course of study or integrated with other subjects in the curriculum in order that the learner may receive optimum benefits from the instructional process in the public school system. The business world must continue to recognize the importance of listening skills in order to cut costs, maintain effective human relations, and add to their productivity.

Research must be considered a vital part of the listening-learning process. Roberts (1976, p. 17) believes that our standard curriculum may already contain the procedures necessary to create effective listeners if all the facts were available to the instructors and students. If future research reveals this fount of knowledges and skills, additional studies should refine the procedures already in use. However, if such information is not available, additional studies should be made in listening research.

At any rate, more research must be done in areas of listening such as developing instruments for listening measurement, development of courses of study in a curriculum, development of instructional materials, improved methodology, utilization of media and technology, and the importance of listening in the total communication process. Empirical research should add to the action research that implies that listening is the most used but least effective communication skill.

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THE MOST USED COMMUNICATION METHOD RECEIVES THE LEAST INSTRUCTION TIME

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ABSTRACT

Listening skills are the most used of the four communication skills that include: reading, writing, speaking, and listening; however, listening skills are the least taught. Listening is the most basic communication skill and undergirds all learning processes as it is the primary channel of classroom instruction throughout all educational levels. The federal government mandated that listening instruction be included in the school curriculum by passing the 1978 Primary and Secondary Education Act that added listening and speaking to reading, writing, and arithmetic as determinants of literacy. In this article, pertinent instructional guidelines are provided. The use of effective listening principles can accelerate economic, political, and social progress. Business productivity can be increased. Human relations can be improved, and benefits can be worthwhile for all who exert the effort to learn through listening instructions.

INTRODUCTION

> The problem is not one of getting men to talk.
> The problem is one of getting leaders to listen.
> ---Carl F. Braun (Marting, 1963, p. 60)

Four major communication skills are: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Historically, the first three have been included in educational programs while the fourth has been omitted. Yet, Montgomery (1982) insists that "We listen more than we do any other human activity except breathe" (p.8). Results of research substantiate that individuals spend more time listening than reading, speaking, or writing. Numerous authoritative sources indicate that most adults communicate about 80 percent of their awake hours. Of that 80 percent, the extent to which the four communication skills are used may be delineated as: listening, 45 percent; speaking, 30 percent; reading, 16 percent; and writing, 9 percent (Sigband/Bateman, 1981, p. 390). This 80 percent communication time includes human sources and excludes time spent with animals and plants (Kernan, 1980).

The goal to be accomplished through this paper is to create awareness of the need for increased listening instruction in endorsement of the 1978 federal act that included listening as a determinant of literacy. Literacy includes the basic responsibility that listeners and speakers understand and be understood. Examples of those with responsibility for listening include trial lawyers, who may listen for contradictions or errors when questioning witnesses; while family counselors, ministers, parents, psychiatrists, social workers, and teachers may listen and speak for many varied purposes. Lyman K. Steil emphasizes that four major purposes of communication include: ". . . persuasion, information, cathartic, and phatic, or binding relationships through small talk" (Krier, 1981). With increased information flow and technological development, people must be taught how to fulfill basic listening and speaking responsibilities more effectively and efficiently. Since 45 percent of one's awake hours are consumed by listening activities, let's explore the background of the listening movement.

BACKGROUND

According to Farra (1981) the first extensive studies of listening were published in MORALIA by Plutarch nearly 2,000 years ago; yet, Plutarch's principles are quite contemporary. He indicates that we have two ears and one tongue because we should listen more and speak less. Farra indicates that the ears are the gateway to the soul (ILA Newsletter, 1981). In this century three pioneers of listening awareness include Paul Rankin (1920s), Ralph G. Nichols (1940s), and Lyman K. Steil (1970s). Their influence and the influence of others is having an impact on increasing listening awareness and instruction. Although a bibliography could be published of listening research, eight sources are cited for their contributions to the listening movement during the last 35 years. Included are results of research that used participants in various educational levels.

The first cited is Miriam E. Wilt, (1950) who determined that elementary students spent 57.5 percent of class time listening. Of that time, 54 percent was spent listening to the teacher. Second, the Commission on the English Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English (1952) reported that listening has profound effects on the formation of many attitudes, economic concepts, ethical standards, political ideals, and understandings.

Third, Bird (1953) discovered that college women spent 42 percent of their daily communication time listening. Eighty-two percent of those surveyed considered listening to be equal to or more important than reading as a factor that contributed to academic success (Wolvin and Coakley, 1982, p. 4). The results of this research indicates the important effects of listening to learning success.

Fourth, the person recognized as the father of listening instruction and author of the first listening text, Ralph G. Nichols (1957), emphasized that 52 percent of communication instruction included reading, compared to only 8 percent for listening (p. 6). Fifth, Margraf (1962) reported that high school students spent 46 percent of class time listening and that 66 percent of that time was spent listening to the teacher. Sixth, McLuhan and Fiore (1967) emphasized that listening alters individuals aesthetically, morally, personally, and psychologically (Wolvin and Coakley, 1982, p. 7). Later research demonstrates more need for listening instruction.

Seventh, the federal government, through the Primary and Secondary Education Act of 1978, added listening and speaking to reading, writing, and arithmetic as determinants of literacy and as needed basic competencies (Wolvin and Coakley, 1982, p. 11). Thus, the federal government joined others who believe that listening instruction should be included in the school curriculum. Eighth, the International Listening Association was formed in 1979 by representatives of elementary, junior high, senior high, community colleges, universities, business, with consultants, publishers, and counselors. The purpose being to conduct research, prepare listening tests, and develop model teaching programs. This active association encourages continued efforts to expand listening instruction.

CURRENT EFFORTS

Current efforts may be categorized as those efforts of education and business. Through the 1978 legislation, funds are directed to states that are developing programs in listening and speech, as well as in more traditional basic skills. Minnesota, Massachusetts, Michigan, Vermont, and Virginia have already included listening or oral (aural) communication along with reading, writing, and arithmetic in their list of required basic skills; Illinois, Wisconsin, and others may follow soon. Recently Michigan offered the first statewide listening test. Massachusetts is now preparing a test for which students will respond to pertinent questions after hearing samples of broadcast news, telephone conversations, emergency directions, and classroom assignments. Such LATs--Listening Achievement Tests--could become as common as SATs, at all educational levels. (Conniff, 1980)

Seven different test sources referenced in recent ILA Listening Posts include:

1. Debbies Roach's "State of the Art in Listening Comprehension: A Compendium of Tests and Measures"
2. Brown-Carlsen Listening Comprehension Test--Form Bm
3. Cattell's 16 PF Personality Inventory--Form C
4. Ralph Nichols', Dunn and Bradstreet Test
5. SRA's Nonverbal Form--Form AH
6. Wrenn's Study Habits Inventory
7. Enid Waldhart's, Comprehensive Listening Test for Kentucky

According to Marx (1982) "Listening is a key to understanding." Regarding school systems, he questioned how an organization, like a school system, can listen more effectively. Then he offered three recommendations: First, all school personnel should receive training in effective listening. Second, a school district should develop a systematic plan for listening to the community. Depending upon need and available resources, that plan can include: a regular, possibly annual, scientific opinion poll of staff and community conducted internally or by an outside firm; a requirement that each school, at least once every two years, conduct an informal poll of parents and possibly others in the community; a phone-call-a-week program that encourages teachers and building administrators to make one phone call a week to a parent to learn how "things are going." Two other effective means of creating listening awareness include use of advisory committees and question-answer sessions at community meetings. Third, the school and school district should develop a system to assure that needs as determined through analysis of data are placed on the agenda for discussion and further action.

Also, the number of universities that offer separate listening courses is increasing in response to demand from the business and professional community. Twenty-four university programs were referenced in the May and September issues of ILA Listening Post, and numerous other business training programs were cited.

One of the most active business organizations in the listening effort, Sperry Corporation, published a pamphlet entitled "Your Personal Listening Profile." Information in the pamphlet depicted the order in which the four basic communication skills are learned, degree to which they are used, and extent to which they are taught. Included was:

Communication Skill	When Learned	Extent Used	Extent Taught
Listening	First	45%	Fourth (8%)*
Speaking	Second	30%	Third
Reading	Third	16%	Second (52%)*
Writing	Fourth	9%	First

*As indicated in 1957 by Ralph G. Nichols

Lyman K. Steil, who is recognized as the "Number One Son" (with Ralph G. Nichols as father) of listening instruction is the consultant with the Sperry Corporation. He emphasizes that more instructional effort should be exerted to improve listening skills rather than writing skills, because one can re-read written messages; however, one usually cannot re-listen to oral messages unless they are recorded mechanically. The listener may misunderstand, misinterpret, or forget a high percentage of the original message; but, with proper training, listening skills can be improved. Steil stated recently that more than 85 percent of participants in professionally developed programs showed significant measured improvement as a result of training activities. He reported that with extended, focused training, some participants more than doubled their listening efficiency and effectiveness.

According to Expert Lyman Steil Hones The Ear, "Sound Advice for Non-Listeners," as printed in the Los Angeles Times, Tuesday, February 3, 1981, "In addition to doing 30 presentations for Sperry this year, Steil has also lectured and consulted at such firms as Honeywell, General Motors, and Minnesota Mining & Manufacturing." The staff writer referred to Steil as ". . . almost a missionary, coming across as more motivational than a college professor" as he displays a "LISTEN" monogram on his shirt sleeve cuff. The Detroit News, Tuesday, April 28, 1981, printed Business Voices' "Listening's more than just hearing," an interview with Steil. The writer stated that Steil serves as the Sperry Univac Corporation's "Ambassador of Listening" (Doerr, 1981).

Steil cites that while listening consumes about half of all communication time, one typically listens with about 25 percent of one's abilities. Ineffective listeners are costly whether in business, family, government, or international affairs. For example, with more than 100 million workers in the United States, a simple $10 mistake by each, as a result of poor listening, will cost a billion dollars. Most people make numerous listening mistakes every week although the costs are seldom analyzed. Because of listening mistakes, airplane crashs occur that could have been avoided, appointments have to be rescheduled, letters retyped, and shipments rerouted. Productivity is affected and profits suffer. Steil is convinced that many of the more than three million divorces annually in the United States are related to the inability or the unwillingness of one or both partners to listen. He categorizes listening as (1) merely hearing, (2) interpretation that leads to understanding or misunderstanding, (3) evaluation that involves weighing the information and deciding how to use it, and (4) responses that are based on what is heard, understood, and evaluated (Steil, 1980).

Within recent years, several other corporations have realized the costliness of poor listening and the importance of effective listening. Other corporations that provide formal training programs in listening are American Telephone and Telegraph, Dun and Bradstreet, General Electric, Pfizer, Pitney Bowes, and Xerox. (Wolvin-Coakley, 1982, p. 12)

Harold T. Smith (1978) of Brigham Young University studied the activities of 457 members of the Academy of Certified Administrative Managers to determine 20 competencies critical to their jobs. The list was rated by members as super critical, highly critical, or critical. The following chart depicts clearly that "Listening Actively" ranked first as the most important managerial competency.

20 CRITICAL MANAGERIAL COMPETENCIES

Importance Rating	Survey Rank & Competency
Super Critical	1. Listen Actively
	2. Give Clear, Effective Instructions
	3. Accept Your Share of Responsibility for Problems
	4. Identify Real Problem
Highly Critical	5. Manage Time, Set Priorties
	6. Give Recognition for Excellent Performance
	7. Communicate Decisions to Employees
	8. Communicate Effectively (Orally)
	9. Shift Priorities if Necessary
	10. Explain Work
	11. Obtain and Provide Feedback in Two-Way Communication Sessions
Critical	12. Write Effectively
	13. Prepare Action Plan
	14. Define Job Qualifications
	15. Effectively Implement Organizational Change
	16. Explain and Use Cost Reduction Methods
	17. Prepare and Operate Within a Budget
	18. Justify New Personnel and Capital Equipment
	19. Develop Written Goals
	20. Participate in Seminars and Read

Interestingly, the four competencies rated as super critical were those related to communicating and working with people. The article was entitled, "The 20% Activities That Bring 80% Payoff" (Training Hard, June 1978).

But how many individuals reading this page have had any formal listening instruction? Recent surveys indicate that the answer is about 5 or 6 out of 100 (Sigband, et. al., 1981, p. 312).

Listening is one of the most demanding, yet least emphasized, factors of the communication process. Yet, listening skills are essential to all communication success as blood is essential to all of the body. Listening is most important in learning, for a student to develop character, language facilities, and total personality. According to Marx (1982) listening is a sign of caring, is basic to responsiveness, and is a key to confidence. Listening undergirds all learning processes, yet a comprehensive definition of listening has not been developed that is acceptable to authorities.

LISTENING DEFINITION CONSIDERATIONS

Listening definition considerations become quite complex as one attempts to define or explain listening. The listening process as currently understood is described in this section. The evolution of a listening definition from 1925 to 1982 is presented. Definitions of listening are explained in order to determine what stimuli, components, and characteristics are included in the listening process. Wolvin and Coakley's structural definition and a sequential process model are presented along with Steil's definition.

Leading communication authorities offer various definitions and explanations as evidenced from a search of current literature. Depending on which of many authorities one reads, various definitions may be found. In dictionaries listening is defined in general terms as hearing sounds with attention and giving serious consideration. Krier quoted Steil's definition of listening as: "Listening is a private, silent, internal act and we never know what went on until the listener responds and we see the results."

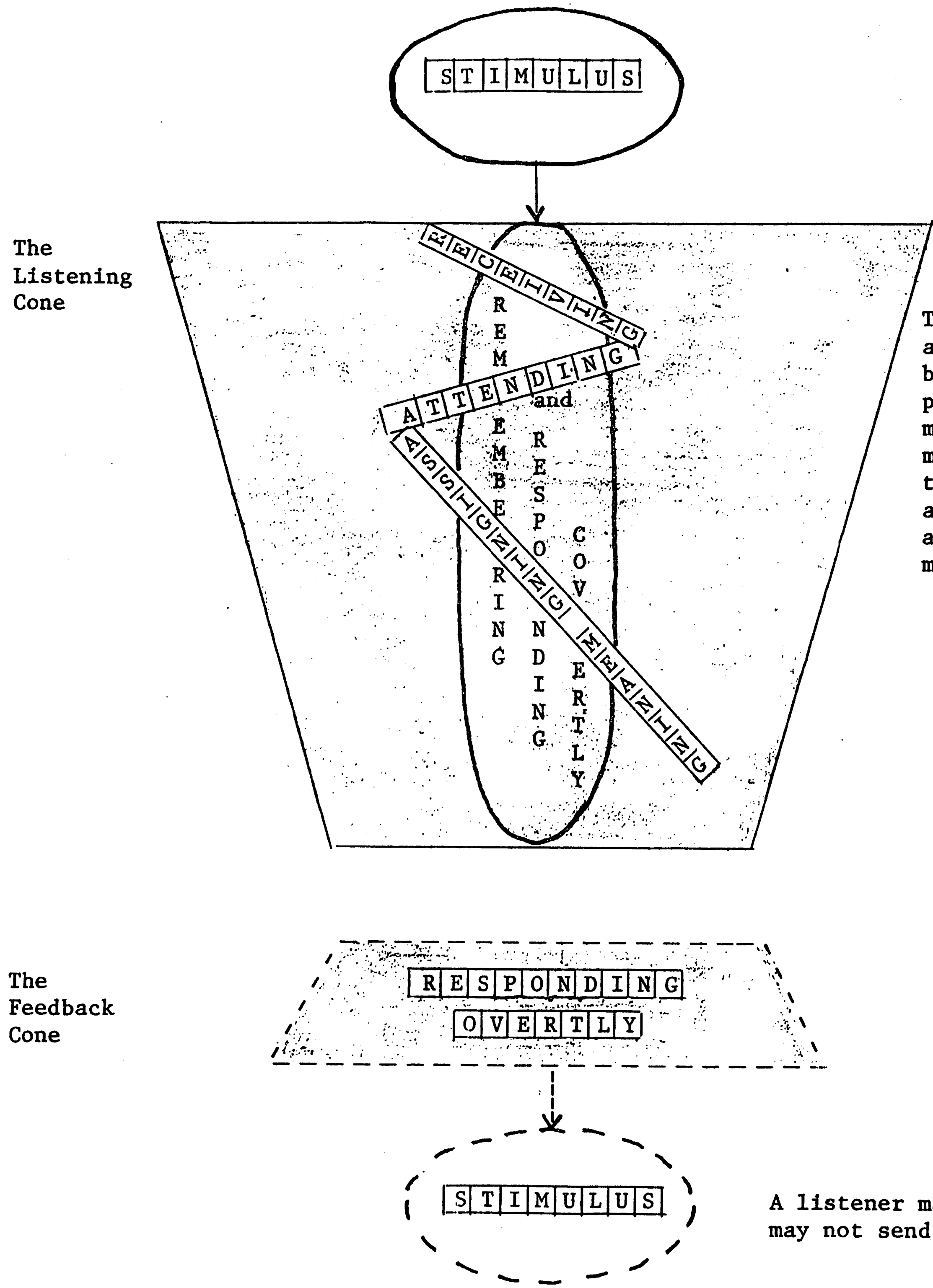
Doerr asked Steil, "How do you define listening?" Steil answered:

> Listening is the complex human process of hearing what is said, understanding what was meant, making judgments about what you heard and understood, storing all that away, and responding appropriately to what is said. This can be from two different viewpoints--from that of the sender or the listener. We're talking about observable, measurable, learned, and improvable behavior.

In their text, Listening, Wolvin and Coakley (1982) present a 23-page discussion of "A Definition of Listening." They present proposed definitions in chronological order, from Tucker's definition in 1925 through Hirsch's definition in 1979. They enumerate 12 "Questions Crucial to the Construction of a Listening Definition," explain "New Directions toward a Unified Definition of Listening," and list two "Aspects Encompassed in the Listening Process." The two aspects include stimuli and components. Two categories of stimuli include aural and visual. Four components are listed and have varying numbers of subtopics. The categories and subtopics include: (1) Receiving includes the seeing process and the hearing process. (2) Attending to includes selective attention, energetic attention, and fluctuating attention. (3) Assigning meaning includes theories on how meaning is assigned and incorrect categorization. (4) Remembering and responding has no subtopics.

Then, Wolvin and Coakley list three "Additional Characteristics of Listening" as creative, purposeful, dynamic. They offer the "Wolvin-Coakley Structural Definition and Model of Listening." They define listening as the process of receiving, attending to, and assigning meaning to aural stimuli (p.52). Persing (1981) explains that listening is a mental process. It is an active, thinking communication activity that requires effort, energy, and time. Listening is a social activity, contrasted by reading that is a solitary activity (p. 32). This writer

Wolvin-Coakley Model of the Listening Process



The wide top and narrow bottom exemplify that more stimuli may be recei than will be attended or assigned meaning.

A listener may or may not send feedback.

(West) concludes that, in general, listening may be defined as engaging actively in hearing, attending, making honest effort to understand what the speaker says, and responding appropriately. Listening, however defined, is an integral part of one's daily life and is an activity in which one should engage throughout one's lifetime. Listening is a continual process.

THE LISTENING PROCESS

According to Cary (1982) listening is a complex intellectual and emotional process that requires hard work on the part of all participants (p. 18). Energy is expended and " . . . though listening is--in itself--a process, it is also an integral part of the total communication process" (Wolvin and Coakley, 1982, p. 29). According to Aronoff, (1981) listening is a vital part of the processes of communication and perception (p. 233). In Rogers and Farson's article (Haney 1979), they describe listening as a definite responsibility and a growth experience; while Conner (1978) describes listening as one of the most important, most difficult, and most neglected skills in the communication process.

Persing concludes that listening is imperative to gain knowledge from facts, ideas, and opinions of others; to reinforce other received messages; and is important to any career (p. 33). Himstreet and Batey (1981) state that really good listeners are rare; they are those individuals who have the ability to block out distractions and focus their eyes, ears, and minds on the message (p. 263). Blocking and focusing are action processes. According to Mayerson (1979) the listening action process include four components: willingness, time, attention, and space (p. 102).

Willingness

Willingness to participate in the listening process is determined by a psychological mind set. Awareness of the need to develop one's abilities and skills is of primary importance. Individuals must become conscious of the ability to hear and to listen. An examination can determine hearing acuity. When hearing is normal, awareness means knowledge of listening abilities and habits. According to Bowman and Branchaw (1977) "Listening is more than hearing" (p. 135). They refer to hearing as a physical, passive process; while listening is a mental, active process. They emphasize that one hears words but must listen for meaning and that "Hearing is easy; listening is work" (p. 136). They state that hearing is a gift, but listening is an art (p. 136).

Second in importance is to know yourself. Try to understand why you believe, feel, and perceive the way you do about fundamental priniples--determine your philosophy of life. Philosophy governs the conscious behavior of most individuals and their relationships with others. The Judaeo-Christian teachings form the basis for legal standards and are the core for personal standards of many people. According to Aronoff one must listen to one's self. One must recognize one's " . . . own beliefs, biases, and motives as they relate to the speaker, the listening situation, and the information being received" (p. 238). Maynard (1981), who teaches general semantics, emphasizes that people should be trained to make "sound" observations of statements that can be turned into ". . . an adequate premise leading to a sound decision" (p. 14). He states that "Too many people operate on beliefs" and that "It isn't so much what we don't know that gets us in trouble; it's what we think we know that isn't so" (p. 13). Statements ". . . tend to fall into three main types: factual, inferential, and judgmental statements" (p. 14). He emphasizes that ". . . it's very difficult in the rapid verbal ping pong games we play with each other to know where fact begins and ends and where inference and judgment start" (p. 14).

Mayerson concludes that the listener must believe that speakers ". . . have something to say and allow them to say it" (p. 103). Aronoff indicates that " . . . listeners develop particular attitudes toward speakers and listening situations. To become an active listener, you must respect other people's potential worth, consider their rights, and have confidence in their capacity for self-direction" (p. 239). Mayerson indicates that "Action by listeners that interferes with their own willingness to listen is stereotyping." Stereotyping acts as a censor. He advocates that "Categorizing helps provide quick and easy processing." It helps one recognize something one has never seen before, (p. 103). The willingness to listen aids in the development of positive attitudes and may indicate interest and trust in the speaker.

<u>Receiving, Attending, and Assigning Meaning</u>. To recognize something we have never seen before is to respond to stimuli. To recognize involves receiving and attending to stimuli. How one responds is determined in part by assigning meaning to stimuli. Wolvin and Coakley clarify two kinds of stimuli as aural and visual (p. 34). They reference that Mehrabian estimated that as much as 93 percent of a message's total meaning may be determined from visual cues that assist in assigning meaning to nonverbal factors (p.34). Aronoff states that "Perception is a process of constructing meaning based on apprehended symbolic stimuli. It is based upon the listener's frame of reference, standards, values, attitudes, beliefs, ideas, expectations, roles, needs, experience, and personal history" (p. 235).

<u>Areas of interest</u>. One must be willing to "find areas of interest." See Appendix for "10 Keys to Effective Listening." The areas of interest as well as the other nine keys are factors in the reception of the message and the meaning that will be assigned to stimuli received through the sensory channels (Aronoff, 1981, p. 235). Aronoff describes reception briefly as the actual physical impingement of stimuli on sensory organs (p. 234). Mayerson refers to silent cues that include the listener's posture and gestures that can affect the discussion (p. 111).

<u>Interpersonal skills</u>. Sanford indicates four interpersonal skills important in receiving communication as: (1) listening behavior for recall, (2) listening behavior for understanding, (3) communication perception, and (4) group awareness (p. 232) (Sanford, Hunt, Bracey, 1976, p. 232). Listening behavior for recall is part of the process that allows

one to receive and interpret communication messages. It is a psychological process that is more inclusive than the physiological state of simply hearing a sound wave (Sanford, et, al., p. 233).

Time

Mayerson states that "The art of listening includes the dimension of time" (p. 104) during which interaction occurs. During the interaction, three things happen. These include acknowledgment, statements of one's own needs, and future commitment. Four listening, speaking, and thinking time comparisons are cited. Sigband and Bateman indicate that an individual's speaking speed is about 150 words a minute (wam), while one's listening speed is about 600 wam (p. 313). Himstreet and Batey indicate that individuals speak about 100 to 200 wam, read at two or three times the speaking rate, and think several times faster than the reading rate (p. 263). Cary states that "Most of us can think four times faster than someone can talk" (p. 18). Hayes emphasizes that people are capable of speaking 200-300 wam and "We have the 'capacity' to listen well at speeds of 500 wam. . ." (Hayes, 1979). Therefore, a disparity exists in the speaking, listening, and thinking speeds. This disparity can create problems in the ability to concentrate while listening. Listeners' minds may wander because of such differences in speed for sending and receiving messages.

Huseman, et. al., indicate that when listening for total (two important and meaningful elements include: content, and meaning, the attitude of feeling underlying this content) concentration is required. They state that concentration consists of successfully managing the time lag between speech and thought (Huseman, Lahiff, & Hatfield, 1981, p. 266). Haney states that concentration for both explicit and implicit meaning is demanded (p. 491). Mayerson states that even the most time-pressured person will find time to do the things that one really wants to do. He states that usually a person makes time and gives attention to a message that offers "a payoff" (p. 104).

Attention

Aronoff describes attention as ". . . a willingness to expose yourself to certain stimuli." (p. 233) He indicates that in general, people attend to stimuli that relate to their own goals or objectives, that satisfy their social needs, that they have learned or habitually select, or that are unexpected. He further quotes William James: "What holds attention determines action" (p. 233). Fazendin (1982) emphasizes that in every conversation, a Value Moment of Listening (VML) exists as the speaker tries to communicate one specific message. That message may be surrounded by numerous adjectives, adverbs, and phrases; therefore, the listener does not know when the VML will occur. When the VML occurs, the listener hears the major message. That is why one must be prepared at all times to listen by focusing attention on the message.

Space

After one allocates time for listening and indicates attention, Mayerson states that ". . . by controlling the space in which the communication occurs" the results of the message can be improved. "For clear language to be transmitted, both encoder and decoder must share equal facilities" (p. 107).

Throughout the listening process, one's listening succes is enhanced or diminished by the efficiency of the sensory system and by one's pre-determined listening objectives. Also as one refers to the Wolvin-Coakley "Model of the Listening Process," one may realize ". . . that the total communication process is a very personal and complex process." (p. 52) Though personal and complex, Haney indicated that listening behavior is contagious, educators should strive to "spread" the development and use of effective skill through well-planned listening instruction. As a smile usually elicits a smile, so genuine listening encourages reciprocal action. The listening process is an active, complex, and consuming responsibility. As the complexity of the process is realized, those who are interested in listening instruction need to know where to find sources of materials and need to have suggested activities and exercieses that they may use during instruction.

> Article II of the by-laws of the International Listening Association states the purpose of the Association shall be to promote the study and development of effective listening through . . . the establishment of a network of professionals; exchange of information including teaching methods, training experiences, and materials; and pursuring research as listening affects humanity in economics, education, race, culture, and international relations.

For more information one may write the International Listening Association, 366 North Prior Avenue, Saint Paul, MN 55104. Also, a pamphlet published by the Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills in Urbana, Illinois offers teachers 38 ways to teach listening skills (Conniff, 1980).

PERTINENT GUIDELINES TO IMPROVE LISTENING SKILLS

Guidelines pertinent to improving listening skills are classified as those more applicable to speakers than to the listeners, those more applicable to the listeners than to the speakers, and those applicable to both speakers and listeners simultaneously.

As speakers the following ten guidelines that are adapted from "The Ten Commandments of Good Communication," by the American Management Association will help improve listening skills:

1. Seek to clarify ideas before communicating
2. Identify the purpose, recognize the intent, plan and organize the content of the message
3. Consult with others, when appropriate, in planning the message

4. Consider the total physiological and environmental settings as nearly as possible
5. Get the attention of the listener(s)
6. Be mindful, while communicating, of the overtone as well as the basic connotative and denotative word meanings contained in the message
7. Take the opportunity, when it arises, to convey something of help or value to the receiver
8. Follow up on the message. Communicate for tomorrow as well as for today
9. Be sure nonverbal communication supports verbal communication
10. Seek to understand as well as to be understood--WORK at being an effective listener as well as an effective speaker (Adapted, Conner, p. 490-1)

As listeners the following ten guidelines can be useful:

1. Realize that listening consumes energy and is work
2. Prepare to listen. Exert conscious listening effort. Be attentive and genuinely interested
3. Concentrate on areas of interest--the main idea, supportive ideas, and then filter non-essentials
4. Focus on the content, not the speaker's appearance and delivery
5. Listen for the total meaning and anticipate what the speaker will say next
6. Explore what is spoken/unspoken. When appropriate, ask questions to clarify meanings and/or to reinforce the message
7. Control the temptation to interrupt unnecessarily
8. Adapt decision making processes, capitalize on, and use your thought speed to summarize key ideas as time permits
9. Take notes sparingly in outline form
10. Evaluate to understand key word choice and usage

Both speakers and listeners can benefit simultaneously by practicing these ten guidelines:

1. Exercise your mind, but be aware of your deficiencies
2. Maintain a positive democratic attitude, participate actively, and respond appropriately
3. Define how you may benefit as a result of the communication
4. Communicate without assumptions, biases, distractions, inferences, and preconceived opinions or prejudices. Avoid hasty, judgmental evaluation
5. Create a climate of equality by overcoming cultural and socio-economic differences so that each may feel free to communicate within the topic frame of reference
6. Practice eye contact and smiling in order to portray acceptance and warmth so that each feels safe enough to incorporate new experiences and new values into self-concepts. Practice proper posture by sitting or standing erect
7. Give full attention and use appropriate nonverbal communication techniques

8. Be flexible and receptive to others
9. Use feedback and strive for understanding
10. Maintain calm emotions and patience (many people think aloud)

Ineffective listening is like racing your engine with your gears in neutral, but effective listening can accelerate economic, political, and social progress. Business productivity can be increased. Human relations can be improved. Benefits can be worthwhile for all who exert the effort to improve. Instruction for developing listening abilities and improving listening skills can be promoted by YOU!

SUMMARY

Through proficient use of listening instruction, people can learn listening guidelines and can develop listening skills in ways similar to learning mathematics, physical education, reading, and writing. They can communicate more accurately, with positive attitudes, to gain useful information, and to improve understandings.

For example as ideas are clarified, messages can be planned and delivered in an organized form. The speaker will be able to consider the time and physiological settings in order to gain the listener's attention. The listener will be able to realize the need to exert conscious listening effort, achieve maximum reception, concentrate on essentials, filter non-essentials, assign meaning, capture value moments, and use thinking time to summarize main points of the message.

Both the listener and the speaker can become more receptive to pertinent communication of others; respond with open, honest, constructive, meaningful feedback; and strive to both understand and to be understood. Each will be able to fulfill certain basic responsibilities important in effective listening activities. Each should understand himself or herself as a communicator and should strive for self-motivation through self-analysis and applications to listening behavior. Each should be able to participate as an equal partner in the communication process.

In the United States, the right to speech is provided in the constitution. Responsible messages is one accompanying obligation, and effective listening should be the second equal obligation. As Walt Menninger stated, "What this country needs is more good listeners!" (Wolvin and Coakley, p. 8).

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APPENDIX

10 Keys to Effective Listening	The Bad Listener	The Good Listener
1. Find areas of interest	Tunes out dry subjects	Opportunizes; asks "what's in it for me?"
2. Judge content not delivery	Tunes out if delivery is poor	Judges content, skips over delivery errors
3. Hold your fire	Tends to enter into argument	Doesn't judge until comprehension complete
4. Listen for ideas	Listens for facts	Listens for central themes
5. Be flexible	Takes intensive notes using only one system	Takes fewer notes. Uses 4-5 different systems, depending on speaker
6. Work at listening	Shows no energy output. Attention is faked	Works hard, exhibits active body state
7. Resist distractions	Distracted easily	Fights or avoids distractions, tolerates bad habits, knows how to concentrate
8. Exercise your mind	Resists difficult expository material; seeks light, recreational material	Uses heavier material as exercise for the mind
9. Keep your mind open	Reacts to emotional words	Interprets color words; does not get hung up on them
10. Capitalize on fact, thought is faster than speech	Tends to daydream with slow speakers	Challenges, anticipates, mentally summarizes, weighs the evidence, listens between the lines to tone of voice (Sigband and Bateman, p. 389) originally from Nichols.