COMMUNICATION THEORIES

ABOUT THE THEORIES

The theories presented here are related to communication. Students can use these theories as a rich source for a better understanding of the theoretical fieldwork of communication. Choosing a theory for an assignment or report is made easier, since you are able to 'browse' through the different theories. All theories which are selected are used in the courses of Communication Science. Stay critical when you use a theory, because theories are subjectively measured. A lot of theories are mentioned below, make your own judgment about which theories are most helpful and think why they are helpful.

- Communication Science research departments
- Bachelor's programme Communication Science
- Master's programme Communication Science

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1. Communication and Information Technology

1. Adaptive Structuration Theory

Role Of Information Technologies In Organization Change

History and Orientation

Adaptive Structuration Theory is based on Anthony Giddens' structuration theory. This theory is formulated as “the production and reproduction of the social systems through members’ use of rules and resources in interaction”. DeSanctis and Poole adapted Giddens' theory to study the interaction of groups and organizations with information technology, and called it *Adaptive Structuration Theory.* AST criticizes the technocentric view of technology use and emphasizes the social aspects. Groups and organizations using information technology for their work dynamically create perceptions about the role and utility of the technology, and how it can be applied to their activities. These perceptions can vary widely across groups. These perceptions influence the way how technology is used and hence mediate its impact on group outcomes.

Core Assumptions and Statements

AST is a viable approach for studying the role of advanced information technologies in organization change. AST examines the change process from two vantage points 1) the types of structures that are provided by the advanced technologies and 2) the structures that actually emerge in human action as people interact with these technologies.

1) Structuration Theory, deals with the evolution and development of groups and organizations.
2) The theory views groups or organizations as systems with ("observable patterns of relationships and communicative interaction among people creating structures").
3) Systems are produced by actions of people creating structures (sets of rules and resources).
4) Systems and structures exist in a dual relationship with each others such that they tend to produce and reproduce each other in an ongoing cycle. This is referred to as the "structuration process."
5) The structuration process can be very stable, or it can change substantial over time.
6) It is useful to consider groups and organizations from a structuration perspective because doing so: (a) helps one understand the relative balance in the deterministic influences and willful choices that reveal groups' unique identities; (b) makes clearer than other perspectives the evolutionary character of groups and organizations; and (c) suggests possibilities for how members may be able to exercise more influence than they otherwise think themselves capable of.

Conceptual Model

See Desanctis, G. & Poole, M. S. (1994). Capturing the Complexity in Advanced Technology Use: Adaptive Structuration Theory. *Organization Science. 5*, p. 132.

Favorite Methods
To be added.

Scope and Application
The AST could be used to analyze the advent of various innovations such as the printed press, electricity, telegraph, mass transpirations, radio, telephone, TV, the Internet, etc., and show how the structures of these innovations penetrated the respective societies, influencing them, and how the social structures of those societies in turn influenced and modified innovations' original intent. In conclusion AST's appropriation process might be a good model to analyze the utilization and penetration of new media technologies in our society.

Example
In this example two groups are compared that used the Group Decision Support System (GDSS) for prioritizing projects for organizational investment. A written transcript and an audio tape produced qualitative summary. Also quantitative results were obtained which led to the following conclusions. Both groups had similar inputs to group interaction. The sources of structure and the group's internal system were essentially the same in each group, except that group 1 had a member who was forceful in attempting to direct others and was often met with resistance. Group 2 spent much more time than group 1 defining the meaning of the system features and how they should be used relative to the task at hand; also group 2 had relatively few disagreements about appropriation or unfaithful appropriation. In group 2 conflict was confined to critical work on differences rather than the escalated argument present in group 1. This example shows how the Adaptive Structuration Theory (AST) can help to understand advanced technology in group interactions. Although the same technology was introduced to both groups, the effects were not consistent due to differences in each group's appropriation moves.

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2. Computer Mediated Communication

To Explain Or Predict Media Effects

The overview below is commonly used to explain or predict media effects. This overview is by no means complete, but provides a global summary of thinking about media and its effects.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Computer-Mediated Communication has become a part of everyday life. Research has suggested that CMC is not neutral: it can cause many changes in the way people communicate with one another, and it can influence communication patterns and social networks (e.g., Fulk & Collins-Jarvis, 2001). In other words, CMC leads to social effects. Rice & Gattiker (2001) state that CMC differs from face-to-face communication. CMC limits the level of synchronicity of interaction, which may cause a reduction of interactivity. Furthermore, CMC can overcome time- and space dependencies. Together with these arguments the overall use of using CMC results in multiple differences with face-to-face communication.

Conceptions of Social Cues and Social Effects in Different Theoretical Frameworks and their Purpose in Interactions.

Theory	Cues	Intended Effects
Social Presence	Non-verbal communication Proximity and orientation Physical appearance	Person perception Intimacy/ immediacy Interpersonal relations
Reduced Social Cues Approach	Non-verbal communication Visual contact Statues cues Position cues	Normative behavior Social influence Person awareness
Social Identity Model of Deindividuation Effects (SIDE)	Individuating cues Social categorizing cues	Social influence

Source: Tanis (2003) p.15.

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3. Contextual Design

Designing User-Centered Ict Systems

History and Orientation

Since 1998 product teams, marketers, user interface designers, and usability professionals have designed products using Contextual Design. This new approach is the state of the art to designing directly from an understanding of how the customer works. Karen Holtzblatt and Hugh Beyer, the developers of Contextual Design have coached teams in using this process to produce new designs. Contextual Design started with the invention of Contextual Inquiry. Holtzblatt started working with teams and noticed that they didn't know how to go from the data to the design and they didn't know how to structure the system to think about it.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Contextual design is an approach to designing user-centered ICT systems, with forms on being integrated in existing work contexts and practices. Contextual Design approaches product design directly from an understanding of how customers work. The question is what matters to the people that they would buy a product that we make. Great product ideas come from the combination of the detailed understanding of a customer need with the in-depth understanding of technology. The best product designs happen when the product's designers are involved in collecting and interpreting customer data so they appreciate what real people need. Contextual Design gives designers the tools to do just that. Contextual Design starts with the recognition that any system embodies a way of working. A system's function and structure forces particular strategies, language, and work flow on its users. Successful systems offer a way of working that customers want to adopt. Contextual Design is a method which helps a cross-functional team come to agreement on what their customers need and how to design a system for them. Contextual Design has seven parts:

1) Contextual Inquiry: uncovers who customers really are and how they work on a day-to-day basis to understand the customers: their needs, their desires and their approach to the work.
2) Work Modeling: capture the work of individuals and organizations in diagrams to provide different perspectives on how work is done.
3) Consolidation: brings data from individual customer interviews together so the team can see common pattern and structure without losing individual variation.
4) Work redesign: uses the consolidated data to drive conversations about how to improve work by using technology to support the new work practice.

5) The User Environment Design: captures the floor plan of the new system. It shows each part of the system, how it supports the user's work, exactly what function is available in that part, and how the user gets to and from other parts of the system.
6) Test with customers: Paper prototyping develops rough mockups of the system using Post-its to represent windows, dialog boxes, buttons, and menus.
7) Putting it into practice: Prioritization helps the transition to implementation by planning your system implementation over time. Object-oriented design helps you move from systems design to design of the implementation

Conceptual Model

No uniform conceptual model exists. The different stages make use of a format which can help the teams with their performance.

Favorite Methods

The Contextual Design uses a variety of methods, depending on the information needed, but prefers all kinds of interviews. In the first stage interviews (structured, unstructured and semi-structured) are conducted. Other techniques such as focus groups and observation can also be used.

Scope and Application

This technique handles the collection and interpretation of data from fieldwork with the intention of building a software-based product. With a structured approach a design can be made which the customer prefers.

Key publications

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4. Diffusion Of Innovations Theory

The Adoption Of New Ideas, Media, Etc.

(or: Multi-step flow theory)

History and Orientation

Diffusion research goes one step further than two-step flow theory. The original diffusion research was done as early as 1903 by the French sociologist Gabriel Tarde who plotted the original S-shaped diffusion curve. Tardes' 1903 S-shaped curve is of current importance because "most innovations have an S-shaped rate of adoption" (Rogers, 1995).

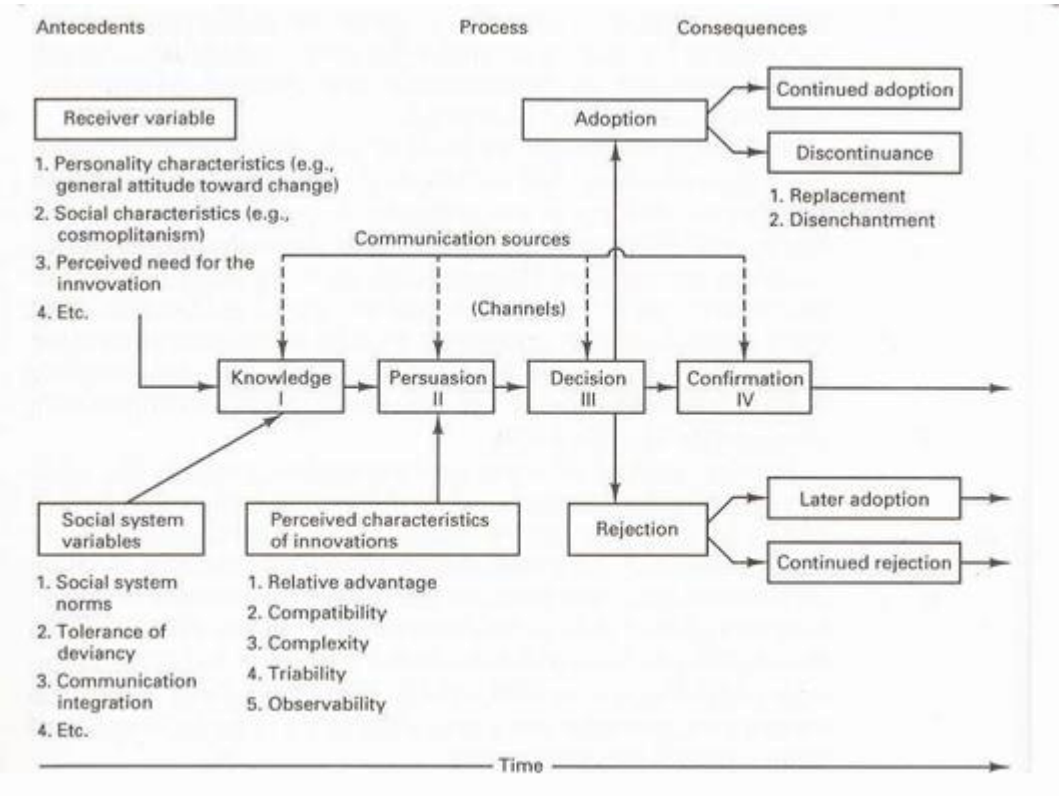
Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Diffusion research centers on the conditions which increase or decrease the likelihood that a new idea, product, or practice will be adopted by members of a given culture. Diffusion of innovation theory predicts that media as well as interpersonal contacts provide information and influence opinion and judgment. Studying how innovation occurs, E.M. Rogers (1995) argued that it consists of four stages: invention, diffusion (or communication) through the social system, time and consequences. The information flows through networks. The nature of networks and the roles opinion leaders play in them determine the likelihood that the innovation will be adopted. Innovation diffusion research has attempted to explain the variables that influence how and why users adopt a new information medium, such as the Internet. Opinion leaders exert influence on audience behavior via their personal contact, but additional intermediaries called change agents and gatekeepers are also included in the process of diffusion. Five adopter categories are: (1) innovators, (2) early adopters, (3) early majority, (4) late majority, and (5) laggards. These categories follow a standard deviation-curve, very little innovators adopt the innovation in the beginning (2,5%), early adopters making up for 13,5% a short time later, the early majority 34%, the late majority 34%and after some time finally the laggards make up for 16%.

Statements: Diffusion is the “process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over a period of time among the members of a social system”. An innovation is “an idea, practice, or object that is perceived to be new by an individual or other unit of adoption”.

"Communication is a process in which participants create and share information with one another to reach a mutual understanding" (Rogers, 1995).

Conceptual Model



Diffusion of innovation model.
Source: Rogers (1995)

Favorite Methods

Some of the methods are network analysis, surveys, field experiments and ECCO analysis. ECCO, Episodic Communication Channels in Organization, analysis is a form of a data collection log-sheet. This method is specially designed to analyze and map communication networks and measure rates of flow, distortion of messages, and redundancy. The ECCO is used to monitor the progress of a specific piece of information through the organization.

Scope and Application

Diffusion research has focused on five elements: (1) the characteristics of an innovation which may influence its adoption; (2) the decision-making process that occurs when individuals consider adopting a new idea, product or practice; (3) the characteristics of individuals that make them likely to adopt an innovation; (4) the consequences for individuals and society of adopting an innovation; and (5) communication channels used in the adoption process.

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5. Information Theories

'Bits' Of Information In Messages

(Shannon & Weaver model of communication)

History and Orientation

One of the first designs of the information theory is the model of communication by Shannon and Weaver. Claude Shannon, an engineer at Bell Telephone Laboratories, worked with Warren Weaver on the classic book 'The mathematical theory of communication'. In this work Shannon and Weaver sought to identify the quickest and most efficient way to get a message from one point to another. Their goal was to discover how communication messages could be converted into electronic signals most efficiently, and how those signals could be transmitted with a minimum of error. In studying this, Shannon and Weaver developed a mechanical and mathematical model of communication, known as the "Shannon and Weaver model of communication".

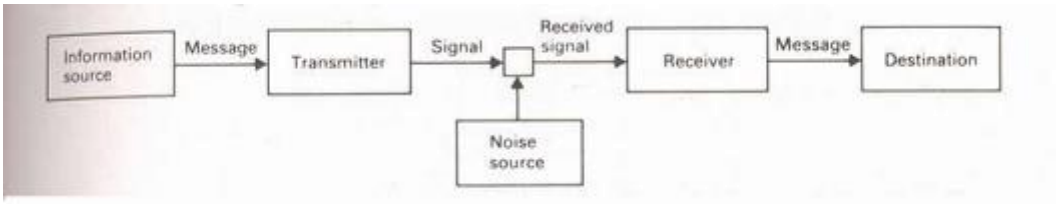
Core Assumptions and Statements

According to the theory, transmission of the message involved sending information through electronic signals. "Information" in the information theory sense of the word, should not be confused with 'information' as we commonly understand it. According to Shannon and Weaver, information is defined as "a measure of one's freedom of choice when one selects a message". In information theory, information and uncertainty are closely related. Information refers to the degree of uncertainty present in a situation. The larger the uncertainty removed by a message, the stronger the correlation between the input and output of a communication channel, the more detailed particular instructions are the more information is transmitted. Uncertainty also relates to the concept of predictability. When something is completely predictable, it is completely certain. Therefore, it contains very little, if any, information. A related term, entropy, is also important in information theory. Entropy refers to the degree of randomness, lack of organization, or disorder in a situation. Information theory measures the quantities of all kinds of information in terms of bits (binary digit). Redundancy is another concept which has emerged from the information theory to communication. Redundancy is the opposite of information. Something that is redundant adds little, if any, information to a message. Redundancy is important because it helps combat noise in a communicating system (e.g. in repeating the message). Noise is any factor in the process that works against the predictability of the outcome of the communication process. Information theory has contributed to the clarification of certain concepts such as noise, redundancy and entropy. These concepts are inherently part of the communication process.

Shannon and Weaver broadly defined communication as "all of the procedures by which one mind may affect another". Their communication model consisted of an information source: the source's message, a transmitter, a signal, and a receiver: the receiver's message, and a

destination. Eventually, the standard communication model featured the source or encoder, who encodes a message by translating an idea into a code in terms of bits. A code is a language or other set of symbols or signs that can be used to transmit a thought through one or more channels to elicit a response in a receiver or decoder. Shannon and Weaver also included the factor noise into the model. The study conducted by Shannon and Weaver was motivated by the desire to increase the efficiency and accuracy or fidelity of transmission and reception. Efficiency refers to the bits of information per second that can be sent and received. Accuracy is the extent to which signals of information can be understood. In this sense, accuracy refers more to clear reception than to the meaning of message. This engineering model asks quite different questions than do other approaches to human communication research.

Conceptual Model



Mathematical (information) model of communication.
Source: Shannon & Weaver (1949)

Scope and Application

Studies on the model of Shannon and Weaver takes two major orientations. One stresses the engineering principles of transmission and perception (in the electronic sciences). The other orientation considers how people are able or unable to communicate accurately because they have different experiences and attitudes (in the social sciences).

Key publications

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6. Minimalism

Instruction For Computer Users

Core Assumptions and Statements

The Minimalist theory of J.M. Carroll is a framework for the design of instruction, especially training materials for computer users. The theory suggests that (1) all learning tasks should be meaningful and self-contained activities, (2) learners should be given realistic projects as quickly as possible, (3) instruction should permit self-directed reasoning and improvising by increasing the number of active learning activities, (4) training materials and activities should provide for error recognition and recovery and, (5) there should be a close linkage between the training and actual system.

Minimalist theory emphasizes the necessity to build upon the learner's experience (c.f., Knowles, Rogers). Carroll (1990) states: "Adult learners are not blank slates; they don't have funnels in their heads; they have little patience for being treated as "don't knows"... New users are always learning computer methods in the context of specific preexisting goals and expectations." (p. 11) Carroll also identifies the roots of minimalism in the constructivism of Bruner and Piaget.
The critical idea of minimalist theory is to minimize the extent to which instructional materials obstruct learning and focus the design on activities that support learner-directed activity and accomplishment. Carroll feels that training developed on the basis of other instructional theories (e.g., Gagne, Merrill) is too passive and fails to exploit the prior knowledge of the learner or use errors as learning opportunities.

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
Experimental research.

Scope and Application
Minimalist theory is based upon studies of people learning to use a diverse range of computer applications including word processing, databases, and programming. It has been extensively applied to the design of computer documentation (e.g., Nowaczyk & James, 1993, van der Meij & Carroll, 1995). Carroll (1998) includes a survey of applications as well as analysis of the framework in practice and theory.

Example
Carroll (1990, chapter 5) describes an example of a guided exploration approach to learning how to use a word processor. The training materials involved a set of 25 cards to replace a 94 page manual. Each card corresponded to a meaningful task, was self-contained and included error recognition/recovery information for that task. Furthermore, the information provided on the cards was not complete, step-by-step specifications but only the key ideas or hints about what to do. In an experiment that compared the use of the cards versus the manual, users learned the task in about half the time with the cards, supporting the effectiveness of the minimalist design.

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7. Network Theory And Analysis

How Relationships Influence Behavior

History and Orientation

The idea of social networks and the notions of sociometry and sociograms appeared over 50 years ago. Barnes (1954) is credited with coining the notion of social networks, an outflow of his study of a Norwegian island parish in the early 1950s.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Network analysis (social network theory) is the study of how the social structure of relationships around a person, group, or organization affects beliefs or behaviors. Causal pressures are inherent in social structure. Network analysis is a set of methods for detecting and measuring the magnitude of the pressures. The axiom of every network approach is that reality should be primarily conceived and investigated from the view of the properties of relations between and within units instead of the properties of these units themselves. It is a relational approach. In social and communication science these units are social units: individuals, groups/ organizations and societies.

Statements: Rogers characterizes a communication network as consisting of “interconnected individuals who are linked by patterned communication flows” (1986). A communication network analysis studies “the interpersonal linkages created by the shearing of information in the interpersonal communication structure” (1986), that is, the network.

Network analysis within organizations

Scope:

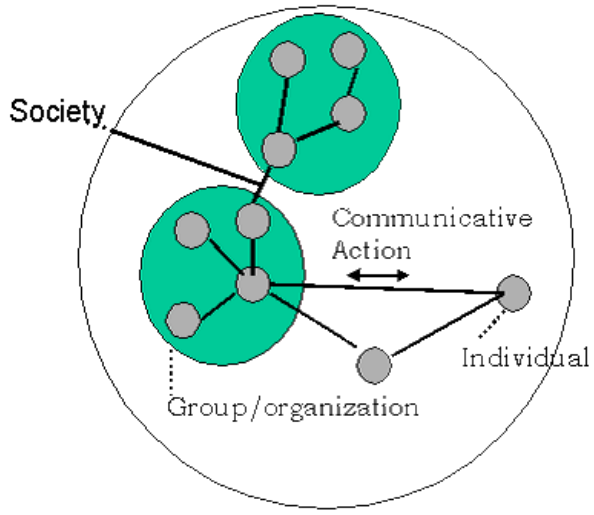
In general, network analysis focuses on the relationships between people, instead of on characteristics of people. These relationships may comprise the feelings people have for each other, the exchange of information, or more tangible exchanges such as goods and money. By mapping these relationships, network analysis helps to uncover the emergent and informal communication patterns present in an organization, which may then be compared to the formal communication structures. These emergent patterns can be used to explain several

organizational phenomena. For instance the place employees have in the communication network (as described by their relationships), influences their exposure to and control over information (Burt, 1992; Haythornthwaite, 1996). Since the patterns of relationships bring employees into contact with the attitudes and behaviors of other organizational members, these relationships may also help to explain why employees develop certain attitudes toward organizational events or job-related matters (theories that deal with these matters are called 'contagion theories', cf. Ibarra & Andrews, 1993; Burkhardt, 1994; Meyer, 1994; Feeley & Barnett, 1996; Pollock, Whitbred & Contractor, 2000). Recently there is a growing interest into why communication networks emerge and the effects of communication networks (Monge & Contractor, 2003). Also, there is a substantial amount of literature available on how networkdata gathered within organizations, can be analyzed (cf. Rice & Richards, 1985; Freeman, White & Romney, 1992; Wasserman & Faust, 1994; Scott, 2000).

Applications:

Network analysis techniques focus on the communication structure of an organization, which can be operationalized into various aspects. Structural features that can be distinguished and analyzed through the use of network analysis techniques are for example the (formal and informal) *communication patterns* in an organization or the identification of *groups* within an organization (cliques or functional groups). Also communication-related *roles* of employees can be determined (e.g., stars, gatekeepers, and isolates). Special attention may be given to specific aspects of communication patterns: communication *channels and media* used by employees, the relationship between *information types* and the resulting communication networks, and the amount and possibilities of *bottom-up communication*. Additional characteristics that could, in principle, be investigated using network analysis techniques are the *communication load*as perceived by employees, the *communication styles* used, and the *effectiveness of the information flows*.

Conceptual Model (of a network society)



Networks connecting individuals, groups, organizations and societies.
Source: Van Dijk 2001/2003

Favorite Methods
Interviews, surveys.

Scope and Application
Thinking in terms of networks and the method of network analysis have gained ground in many disciplines, including social psychology, anthropology, political science, and mathematics, as well as communications. Network analysis generates information about the following types of network roles: the membership role, the liaison role, the star role, the isolate role, the boundary-spanning role, the bridge role, and the non-participant role. Network analysis is done in organizations, society, groups etc. The network model encourages communication planners and researchers to use new cause/effect variables in their analysis. For example, properties of the very communication network, such as connectedness, integration, diversity, and openness (Rogers and Kincaid, 1981).

Example
Rogers and Kincaid studied in Korea how women in a small village organized themselves to improve the general living conditions for themselves and their families.

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8. Reduces Social Cues Approach

Absence Of Social Cues Leads To Lose Individuality

Core Assumptions and Statements

Central assumption is that the absence of social cues in CMC is deindividuating. Deindividuation is a state in which people lose their individuality because “group members do not feel they stand out as individuals” and individuals act if they are “submerged in the group”. (Festinger, Pepitone & Newcomb 1952). The Social Cues Approach describes relatively little social power to computer-mediated communication. This is because cues that enable communicators to perceive one another as individuals are relatively absent in CMC. This diminishes the awareness of the self and the other. This leads to a deregulation of behavior.

References

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9. Social Identity Model Of Deindivuation Effects

Behavior Changes In Groups

Core Assumptions and Statements

This theory states that CMC is not per definition "socially impoverished". The consequence of seeing the self and others in terms of social identity is important. Where people perceive themselves as a member of a group, in-group favoritism was demonstrated. Studies showed that mere knowledge of being in a group with others was sufficient to produce group-based behavior (Tajfel et al., 1970). Individuation is more likely when social cues are communicated through direct visual contact, close proximity and portrait pictures. When these cues are absent deindividuation occurs. The theory says that in this condition social identity may nevertheless develop. The emphasis is on social cues signals, that are also transmitted in CMC and that lend themselves. Social cues signals, which form differentiated impressions of a person as distinct from others in the same group.

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10. Social Presence Theory

Awareness Of An Interaction Partner

Core Assumptions and Statements

Short, Williams and Christie founded this theory in 1976. This approach is the groundwork for many theories on new medium effects. The idea is that a medium's social effects are principally caused by the degree of social presence which it affords to its users. By social presence is meant a communicator's sense of awareness of the presence of an interaction partner. This is important for the process by which man comes to know and think about other persons, their characteristics, qualities and inner states (Short et al., 1976). Thus increased presence leads to a better person perception.

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11. Uses And Gratifications Approach

Explaining Of Media Use

History and Orientation

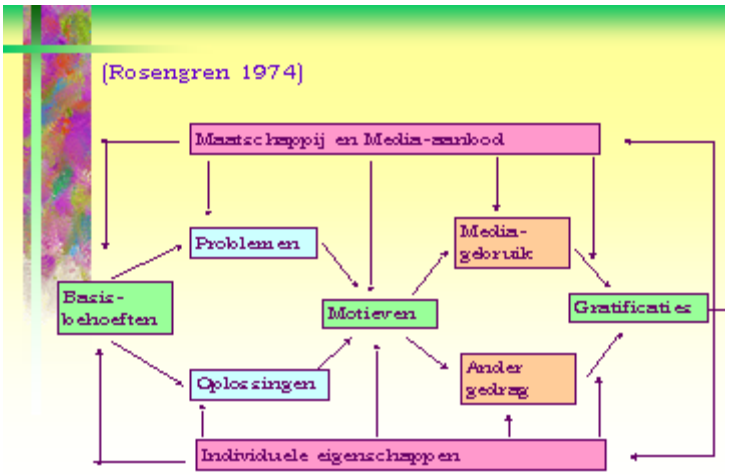
Originated in the 1970s as a reaction to traditional mass communication research emphasizing the sender and the message. Stressing the active audience and user instead. Psychological orientation taking needs, motives and gratifications of media users as the main point of departure.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Uses and gratifications theory attempts to explain the uses and functions of the media for individuals, groups, and society in general. There are three objectives in developing uses and gratifications theory: 1) to explain how individuals use mass communication to gratify their needs. "What do people do with the media". 2) to discover underlying motives for individuals' media use. 3) to identify the positive and the negative consequences of individual media use. At the core of uses and gratifications theory lies the assumption that audience members actively seek out the mass media to satisfy individual needs.

Statement: A medium will be used more when the existing motives to use the medium leads to more satisfaction.

Conceptual Model



Source: Rosengren (1974)

Favorite Methods

Qualitative and quantitative questionnaires and observations among individual users of media. Demographics, usage patterns, rating scales of needs, motivation and gratification

Scope and Application

Scope: the acceptance and use of new and old media and media content according to the needs of the users/receivers.

Application: all users and receivers research; adopting innovations.

Example

Leung, L. & Wei, R. (2000). More than just talk on the move: Uses and Gratifications of the Cellular Phone, *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 77(2),* 308-320.

Mobility, immediacy and instrumentality are found to be the strongest instrumental motives in predicting the use of cellular phones, followed by intrinsic factors such as affection/sociability. Based on survey research in Hong Kong 1999.

References

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2. Communication Processes

1. Framing

(Media) Or (People) Decide Where People Think About

also: framing in organizations

History and Orientation

The concept of framing is related to the agenda-setting tradition but expands the research by focusing on the essence of the issues at hand rather than on a particular topic. The basis of framing theory is that the media focuses attention on certain events and then places them within a field of meaning. Framing is an important topic since it can have a big influence and therefore the concept of framing expanded to organizations as well.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: The media draws the public attention to certain topics, it decides where people think about, the journalists select the topics. This is the original agenda setting 'thought'. In news items occurs more than only bringing up certain topics. The way in which the news is brought, the frame in which the news is presented, is also a choice made by journalists. Thus, a frame refers to the way media and media gatekeepers organize and present the events and issues they cover, and the way audiences interpret what they are provided. Frames are abstract notions that serve to organize or structure social meanings. Frames influence the perception of the news of the audience, this form of agenda-setting not only tells what to think about, but also how to think about it.

Framing in organizations

Core: Framing is a quality of communication that leads others to accept one meaning over another. It is a skill with profound effects on how organizational members understand and respond to the world in which they live. It is a skill that most successful leaders possess, yet one that is not often taught. According to Fairhurst & Sarr (1996) framing consists of three elements: language, thought and forethought. *Language* helps us to remember information and acts to transform the way in which we view situations. To use language, people must have *thought* and reflected on their own interpretive frameworks and those of others. Leaders must learn to frame spontaneously in certain circumstances. Being able to do so had to do with having the *forethought* to predict framing opportunities. In other words, one must plan in order to be spontaneous. (Deetz, Tracy & Simpson, 2000).

Framing

Statement: Media products are human products, constructs that the audience take for granted.

Framing in organizations

Orientation: Fairhurst and Sarr (1996) describe a lot of possibilities to frame situations. a) Metaphor: To give an idea or program a new meaning by comparing it to something else. b)

Stories (myths and legends): To frame a subject by anecdote in a vivid and memorable way. c) Traditions (rites, rituals and ceremonies): To pattern and define an organization at regular time increments to confirm and reproduce organizational values. d) Slogans, jargon and catchphrases: To frame a subject in a memorable and familiar fashion. e) Artifacts: To illuminate corporate values through physical vestiges (sometimes in a way language cannot). f) Contrast: To describe a subject in terms of what it is not. g) Spin: to talk about a concept so as to give it a positive or negative connotation. (Deetz, Tracy & Simpson, 2000).

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
In-depth interviews.

Scope and Application
All news (or information) providing media.

Example
Examples of much-used frames include the 'war on drugs', or a person's 'battle with cancer', or the 'cold war', phrases that elicit widely shared images and meanings.

Key publications
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2. Language Expectancy Theory

Effects Of Linguistic Variations On Persuasive Messages

History and Orientation
Brooks (1970) provided a spark to begin developing the Language Expectancy Theory. He had expectations about what a source might or might not say in persuasive messages. Burgoon, Jones and Stewart (1975) added the impact of linguistic strategies. They claimed that strategic linguistic choices can be significant predictors of persuasive success. In 1995 Burgoon provided a detailed version of the formulation of the Language Expectancy Theory.

Core Assumptions and Statements
Language Expectancy Theory is a formalized model about message strategies and attitude and behavior change. Message strategies include verbal aggressions like fear appeal, explicit opinions

and language intensity which are more combat. Language Expectancy Theory assumes that language is a rule-governed system and people develop expectations concerning the language or message strategies employed by others in persuasive attempts (Burgoon, 1995). Expectations are a function of cultural and sociological norms and preferences arising from cultural values and societal standards or ideals for competent communication.
Language Expectancy Theory assumes that changes in the direction desired by an actor occur when positive violations of expectancies occur. Positive violations occur (a) when the enacted behavior is better or more preferred than that which was expected in the situation. Change occurs because enacted behavior is outside the bandwidth in a positive direction, and such behavior prompts attitude or behavioral change (Burgoon, 1995).
Positive violations occur (b) when negatively evaluated sources conform more closely than expected to cultural values or situational norms. This can result in overly positive evaluation of the source and change promoted by the actor (Burgoon, 1995).
Negative violations, resulting from language choices that lie outside socially acceptable behavior in a negative direction, produce no attitude or behavior change in receivers.

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
Laboratory research settings.

Scope and Application
The Language Expectancy Theory explains the effect of the use of different linguistic variations (language, language intensity) on people who use persuasive messages. It is used as a theoretical framework to explain the effects of several source, message and receiver variables on message persuasiveness. Persuasive messages are used often, with this theory the impact can be described of using different intensities in language.

Example
Even though people are informed about skin cancer prevention, they do not always comply with prevention advice. From Language Expectancy Theory, it was predicted that messages with high language intensity would improve compliance with sun safety recommendations and that this effect would be enhanced with deductive argument style. Parents received sun safety messages (newsletters, brochures, tip cards) by mail that varied in language intensity and logical style. Parents receiving messages with high- as opposed to low-intensity language complied more with sun safety advice. By carefully adjusting messages features, health professionals can obtain further compliance beyond that produced by educating people about health risks and creating favorable attitudes and self-efficacy expectations. Highly intense language may be a good general strategy in prevention messages.
Example from: Buller et al (2000)

Key publications

- Dillard, J.P. & Pfau, M. (2002). *The persuasion handbook: Developments in theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Buller, D.B.,Burgoon, M., Hall, J.R., Levine, N., Taylor, A.M., Beach, B.H., Melcher, C. Buller, M.K., Bowen, S.L. Hunsaker, F.G. & Bergen, A. (2000). Using Language Intensity to Increase the Success of a Family Intervention to Protect Children from Ultraviolet Radiation:
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3. Model Of Text Comprehension

How People Comprehend Texts.

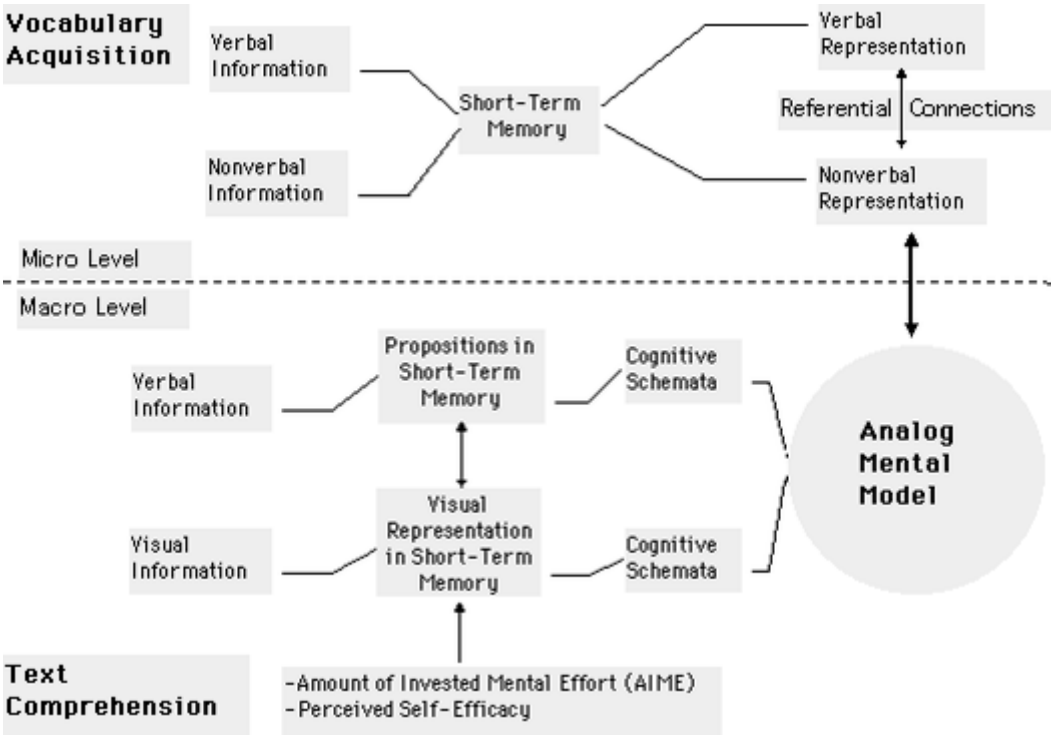
History and Orientation

A number of theories about reading exist in which different parts of the reading process are described: recognizing letters and words, syntactic parsing of sentences, understanding the meaning of words and sentences, incorporating the meaning of the text in other present knowledge about the same topic. One of the most influential theories is the theory of Kintsch and Van Dijk (Van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983). This theory describes the complete reading process, from recognizing words until constructing a representation of the meaning of the text. The emphasis of the theory is on understanding the meaning of a text. Kintsch continued working on the theory. In 1988, it was extended with the so-called construction-integration model (Kintsch, 1988), followed by a completely updated theory in 1998 (Kintsch, 1998). This theory is often used as a starting point for constructing own models and theories, which several authors have done.

Core Assumptions and Statements

When a reader reads a text, an "understanding" of the text is created in the reader's mind. The process of constructing a situation model is called the "comprehension process". Kintsch and van Dijk assume that readers of a text build three different mental representations of the text: a verbatim representation of the text, a semantic representation that describes the meaning of the text and a situational representation of the situation to which the text refers. The propositional representation consists initially of a list of propositions that are derived from the text. After having read a complete sentence, this list of propositions is transformed into a network of propositions. If the text is coherent, all nodes of the network are connected to each other. The situational representation is comparable with the mental models described by Johnson-Laird. Text comprehension can be improved by instruction that helps readers use specific comprehension strategies.

Conceptual Model



Source: Chun, M. (1997). Research on text comprehension in multimedia environments. Language Learning & Technology 1 (1): 60-81.

Favorite Methods

To be added.

Scope and Application

Text comprehension can be used for studying how people comprehend text in a second language with the help of multimodal instructional materials.

Example

An example of reading ability is vocabulary knowledge: there may be a causal connection between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. Another example is related to a cognitive aspect. A learner selects relevant information from what is presented and constructs mental representations of the text. This process is moderated by individual differences, such as prior knowledge, abilities, preferences, strategies and effective factors.

Key publications

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4. Network Theory And Analysis

How Relationships Influence Behavior

History and Orientation

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Core Assumptions and Statements

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Statements: Rogers characterizes a communication network as consisting of "interconnected individuals who are linked by patterned communication flows" (1986). A communication network analysis studies "the interpersonal linkages created by the shearing of information in the interpersonal communication structure" (1986), that is, the network.

Network analysis within organizations
Scope:
In general, network analysis focuses on the relationships between people, instead of on characteristics of people. These relationships may comprise the feelings people have for each other, the exchange of information, or more tangible exchanges such as goods and money. By mapping these relationships, network analysis helps to uncover the emergent and informal communication patterns present in an organization, which may then be compared to the formal communication structures. These emergent patterns can be used to explain several organizational phenomena. For instance the place employees have in the communication network (as described by their relationships), influences their exposure to and control over information (Burt, 1992; Haythornthwaite, 1996). Since the patterns of relationships bring employees into contact with the attitudes and behaviors of other organizational members, these relationships may also help to explain why employees develop certain attitudes toward organizational events or job-related matters (theories that deal with these matters are called 'contagion theories', cf. Ibarra & Andrews, 1993; Burkhardt, 1994; Meyer, 1994; Feeley & Barnett, 1996; Pollock, Whitbred & Contractor, 2000). Recently there is a growing interest into why communication networks emerge and the effects of communication networks (Monge & Contractor, 2003). Also, there is a substantial amount of literature available on how networkdata gathered within organizations, can be analyzed (cf. Rice & Richards, 1985; Freeman, White & Romney, 1992; Wasserman & Faust, 1994; Scott, 2000).
Applications:
Network analysis techniques focus on the communication structure of an organization, which can be operationalized into various aspects. Structural features that can be distinguished and analyzed through the use of network analysis techniques are for example the (formal and informal) *communication patterns* in an organization or the identification of *groups* within an organization (cliques or functional groups). Also communication-related *roles* of employees can be determined (e.g., stars, gatekeepers, and isolates). Special attention may be given to specific aspects of communication patterns: communication *channels and media* used by employees, the relationship between *information types* and the resulting communication networks, and the amount and possibilities of *bottom-up communication*. Additional characteristics that could, in

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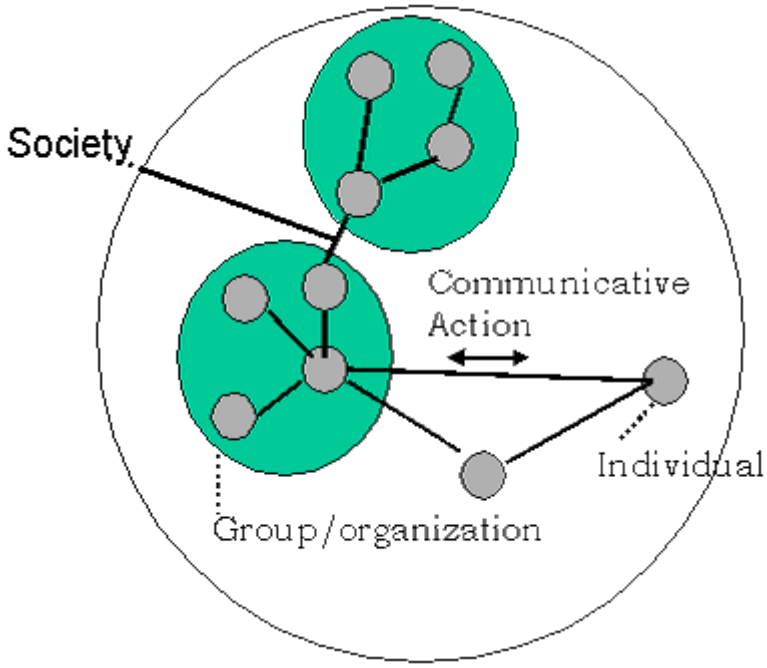
Conceptual Model (of a network society)



Networks connecting individuals, groups, organizations and societies.
Source: Van Dijk 2001/2003

Favorite Methods
Interviews, surveys.

Scope and Application
Thinking in terms of networks and the method of network analysis have gained ground in many disciplines, including social psychology, anthropology, political science, and mathematics, as well as communications. Network analysis generates information about the following types of network roles: the membership role, the liaison role, the star role, the isolate role, the boundary-spanning role, the bridge role, and the non-participant role. Network analysis is done in organizations, society, groups etc. The network model encourages communication planners and researchers to use new cause/effect variables in their analysis. For example, properties of the very communication network, such as connectedness, integration, diversity, and openness (Rogers and Kincaid, 1981).

Example
Rogers and Kincaid studied in Korea how women in a small village organized themselves to improve the general living conditions for themselves and their families.

Key publications on network analysis

- Mouge, P. & Contractor, N. (2003). *Theories of Communication Networks.* Cambridge: Oxford University Press.
- Berkowitz, S.D. (1988). Afterword: Toward a formal structural sociology. In: Wellman, B. &
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- Knoke, D. & Kublinski, J.H. (1982). *Network Analysis*. Beverley Hills: Sage Publications
- Dijk, J.A.G.M. van (2001). Netwerken als Zenuwstelsel van onze Maatschappij.
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- Rogers, E.M. & Kincaid, D.L. (1981). *Communication Networks: Toward a New Paradigm for Research*. New York: Free Press.
- Barnes, J. (1954). Class and Committees in a Norwegian Island Parish. *Human Relations, 7,* 39-58.
- Rogers, E. M. (1986). *Communication Technology: The New Media in Society*. New York: Free Press.

Key publications on network analysis within organizations

- Burt, R.S. (1992). *Structural holes: the social structure of competition.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
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- Burkhardt, M.E. (1994). Social interaction effects following a technological change: a longitudinal investigation. *Academy of Management Journal, 37,* 869-898.
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- Freeman, L.C., White, D.R., & Romney, A.K. (1992). *Research methods in social network analysis*. New Brunswick, NJ.: Transaction Publishers.

- Wasserman, S., & Faust, K. (1994). *Social network analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Scott, J. (2000). *Social Network Analysis: A handbook.* Second edition. London: Sage.

5. Priming

Media Effects

History and Orientation

Much attention in agenda-setting research, in the 80's, was focused on the concept of priming. This concept was derived from the cognitive psychological concept of priming.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Priming refers to enhancing the effects of the media by offering the audience a prior context – a context that will be used to interpret subsequent communication. The media serve to provide the audience with standards and frames of reference. Agenda-setting refers mainly to the importance of an issue; priming tells us whether something is good or bad, whether it is communicated effectively, etc. The media have primed the audience about what a news program looks like, what a credible person looks like, etc.

Conceptual Model

Not applicable.

Favorite Methods

Experiments, panel studies, cross-sectional field studies.

Scope and Application

News mass-media

Example

To be added.

Key publications

- Cappella, J.N., Fishbein, M., Hornik, R., Ahern, R.K., & Sayeed, S. (2001). Using theory to select messages in antidrug media campaigns: Reasoned action and media priming. In:Rice,
- R.E. & Atkin, C.K. (Eds.), *Public communication campaigns (214-230)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Domke, D., Shah, D.V., & Wackman, D.B. (1998). Media priming effects: accessibility, association, and activation. *Communications abstracts, 21(6).*
- Scheufele, D.A. (2001). Agenda-setting, priming, and framing revisited: another look at cognitive effects of political communication. *Communication abstracts, 24(1).*

6. Psycho-Linguistic Theory

Use Of Language Has Persuasive Power

There is no such thing as the Psycho-Linguistic Theory. Several theories are part of the field of Psycho-Linguistic.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Language is a product of reasoning and therefore accessible to general, rational analysis, i.e. in analogy to other cognitive functions. Cognitive linguistics can be seen as the modern instantiation of this view, regarding language-bound functionality of the brain as incorporated and inextricably linked with other functions of the brain and being a learned ability, biologically / genetically based only on general-purpose "reasoning-mechanisms" of the brain. Applied in communication science this theory a.o. means that a particular use of language in messages has more or less persuasive power depending on a.o. the value system, the effort and the motivation of receivers. (Chomsky, Piaget, Vygotsky).

7. System Theory

Social Units: Composition And Relation With Environment

History and Orientation

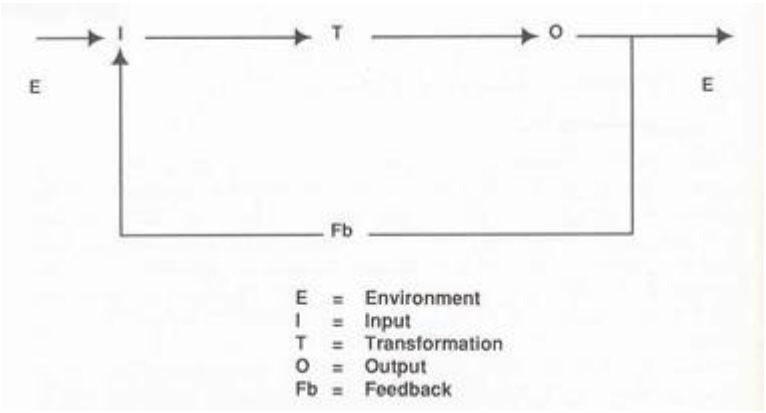
Hegel developed in the 19th century a theory to explain historical development as a dynamic process. Marx and Darwin used this theory in their work. System theory (as we know it) was used by L. von Bertalanffy, a biologist, as the basis for the field of study known as 'general system theory', a multidisciplinary field (1968). Some influences from the contingency approach can be found in system theory.

Core Assumptions and Statements

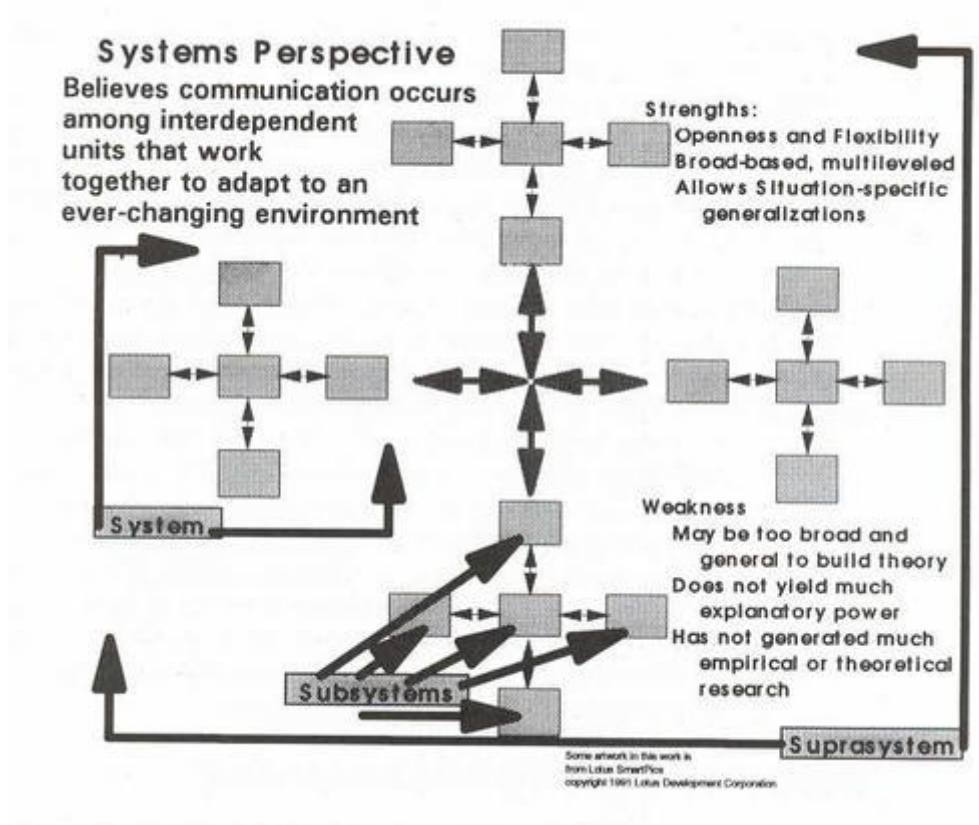
System theory is the transdisciplinary study of the abstract organization of phenomena, independent of their substance, type, or spatial or temporal scale of existence. It investigates both the principles common to all complex entities, and the (usually mathematical) models which can be used to describe them. A system can be said to consist of four things. The first is objects – the parts, elements, or variables within the system. These may be physical or abstract or both, depending on the nature of the system. Second, a system consists of attributes – the qualities or properties of the system and its objects. Third, a system had internal relationships among its objects. Fourth, systems exist in an environment. A system, then, is a set of things that affect one another within an environment and form a larger pattern that is different from any of the parts. The fundamental systems-interactive paradigm of organizational analysis features the continual stages of input, throughput (processing), and output, which demonstrate the concept of openness/closedness. A closed system does not interact with its environment. It does not take in information and therefore is likely to atrophy, that is to vanish. An open system receives information, which it uses to interact dynamically with its environment. Openness increases its likelihood to survive and prosper. Several system characteristics are: wholeness and interdependence (the whole is more than the sum of all parts), correlations, perceiving causes,

chain of influence, hierarchy, suprasystems and subsystems, self-regulation and control, goal-oriented, interchange with the environment, inputs/outputs, the need for balance/homeostasis, change and adaptability (morphogenesis) and equifinality: there are various ways to achieve goals. Different types of networks are: line, commune, hierarchy and dictator networks. Communication in this perspective can be seen as an integrated process – not as an isolated event.

Conceptual Model



Simple System Model.
Source: Littlejohn (1999)



Elaborated system perspective model.
Source: Infante (1997)

Favourite Methods

Network analysis, ECCO analysis. ECCO, Episodic Communication Channels in Organization, analysis is a form of a data collection log-sheet. This method is specially designed to analyze and map communication networks and measure rates of flow, distortion of messages, and redundancy. The ECCO is used to monitor the progress of a specific piece of information through the organization.

Scope and Application

Related fields of system theory are information theory and cybernetics. This group of theories can help us understand a wide variety of physical, biological, social and behavioral processes, including communication (Infante, 1997).

Example

Take for example family relations.

Key publications

- Bertalanffy, von, L. (1968). *General systems theory*. New York: Braziller.
- Laarmans, R. (1999). *Communicatie zonder Mensen*. Amsterdam: Uitgeverij Boom.
- Luhmann, N. (1984). *Soziale Systeme. Grund einer allgemeinen Theorie*. Frankfurt am Main: Suhrkamp.
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- Littlejohn, S.W. (2001). *Theories of Human Communication*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/ Thomson Learning.
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3. Health Communication

1. Elaboration Likelihood Model

Motivation And Processing Ability Determine Attitude Change

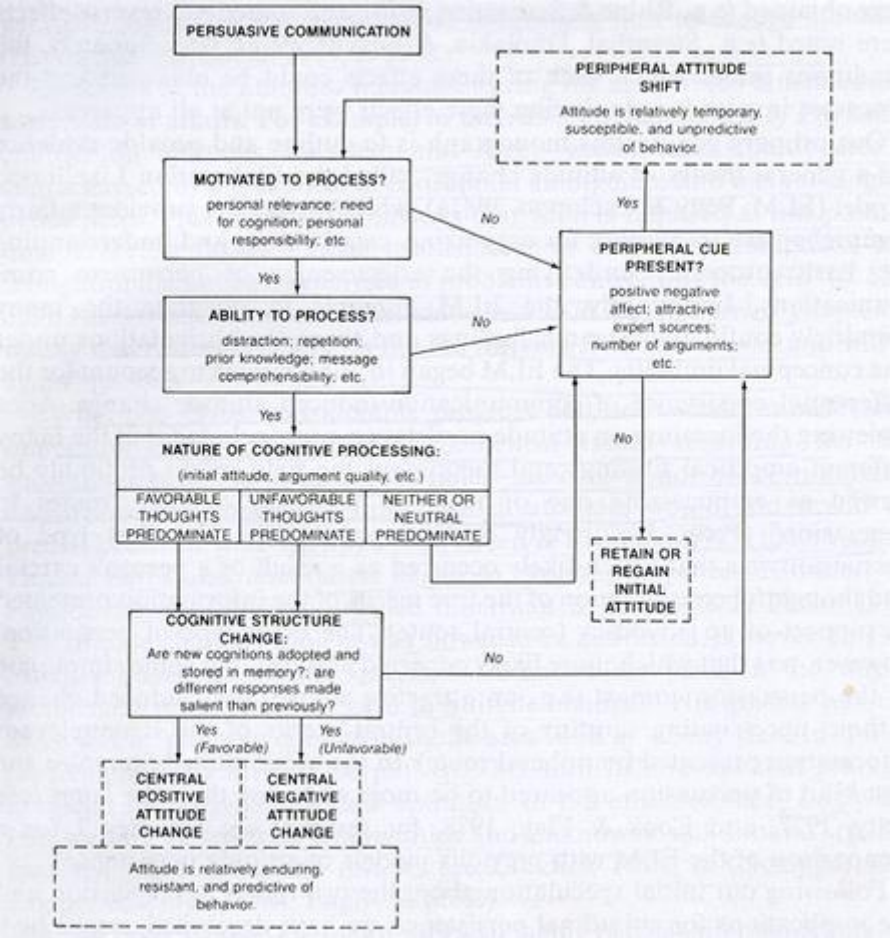
History and Orientation

Petty and Cacioppo (1979) discovered, in contrast to social judgment-involvement theory, that high levels of involvement do not invariably decrease persuasion.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: The ELM is based on the idea that attitudes are important because attitudes guide decisions and other behaviors. While attitudes can result from a number of things, persuasion is a primary source. The model features two routes of persuasive influence: central and peripheral. The ELM accounts for the differences in persuasive impact produced by arguments that contain ample information and cogent reasons as compared to messages that rely on simplistic associations of negative and positive attributes to some object, action or situation. The key variable in this process is involvement, the extent to which an individual is willing and able to 'think' about the position advocated and its supporting materials. When people are motivated and able to think about the content of the message, elaboration is high. Elaboration involves cognitive processes such as evaluation, recall, critical judgment, and inferential judgment. When elaboration is high, the central persuasive route is likely to occur; conversely, the peripheral route is the likely result of low elaboration. Persuasion may also occur with low elaboration. The receiver is not guided by his or her assessment of the message, as in the case of the central route, but the receiver decides to follow a principle or a decision-rule which is derived from the persuasion situation.

Conceptual Model



Elaboration Likelihood Model

Source: Petty, R.E., Kasmer, J., Haugtvedt, C. & Cacioppo, J. (1987)

Favorite Methods

Reader-experiments. Questionnaires (about arguments used in a text, brand recall, source credibility etc.)

Scope and Application

Advertisement-research (printed media, television etc.), psychological research. This theory is promising because it integrates an array of variables into a single explanation of persuasion. It addresses factors that explain why and when messages and self-motivated efforts are more or less likely to lead to attitude formation.

Key publications

- Cacioppo, J.T. & Petty, R.E. (1979). Effects of message repetition and position on cognitive response, recall and persuasion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *27,* 97-109.
- Cacioppo, J.T., Harking, S.G., and Petty, R.E. (1981). *Attitude, Cognitive Response and Behavior, Cognitive Responses in Persuasion (31-77)*. New Jersey: Hillsdale.
- Petty, R.E. & Cacioppo, J.T. (1986). *The Elaboration Likelihood Model of persuasion*. New York: Academic Press.

- Petty, R.E., and Krosnick, J.A. (1995). *Attitude strength: Antecedents and consequences*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum Associates.
- Petty, R.E. & Wegener, D.T. (1998). Attitude change. In Gilbert, D., Fiske, S. & Lindzey, G. (Eds.). *The Handbook of Social Psychology* (4th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

2. Health Belief Model

Explaining Health Behaviors

History and Orientation

The Health Belief Model (HBM) is a psychological model that attempts to explain and predict health behaviors. This is done by focusing on the attitudes and beliefs of individuals. The HBM was first developed in the 1950s by social psychologists Hochbaum, Rosenstock and Kegels working in the U.S. Public Health Services. The model was developed in response to the failure of a free tuberculosis (TB) health screening program. Since then, the HBM has been adapted to explore a variety of long- and short-term health behaviors, including sexual risk behaviors and the transmission of HIV/AIDS.

Core Assumptions and Statements

The HBM is based on the understanding that a person will take a health-related action (i.e., use condoms) if that person:

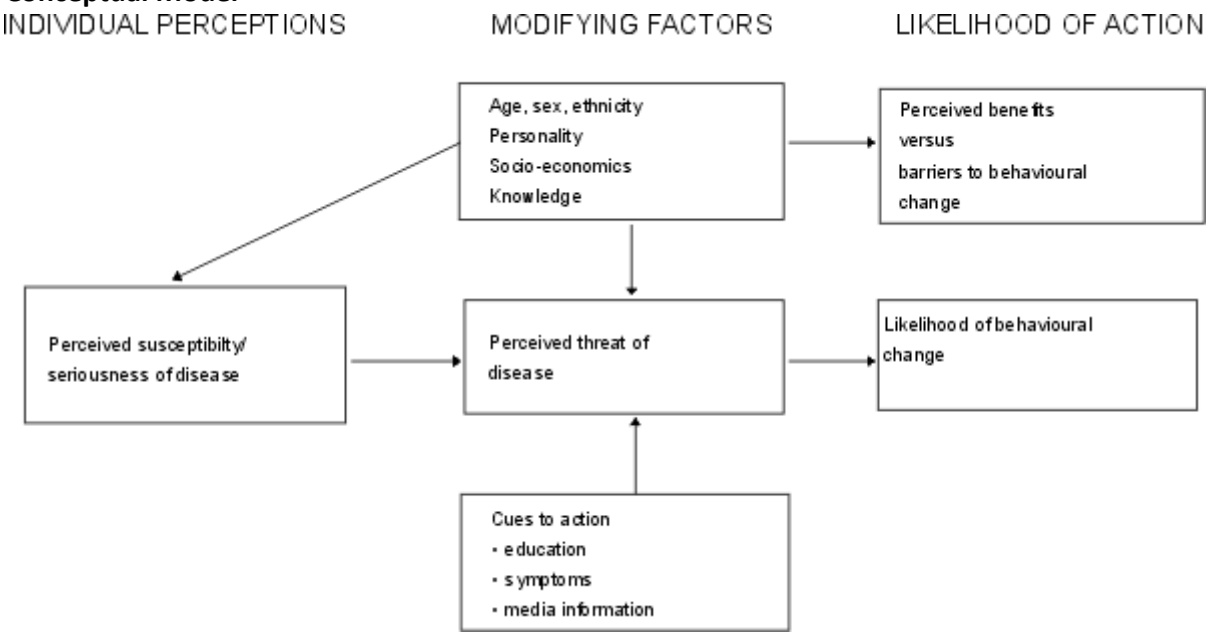
1) feels that a negative health condition (i.e., HIV) can be avoided,
2) has a positive expectation that by taking a recommended action, he/she will avoid a negative health condition (i.e., using condoms will be effective at preventing HIV), and
3) believes that he/she can successfully take a recommended health action (i.e., he/she can use condoms comfortably and with confidence).

The HBM was spelled out in terms of four constructs representing the perceived threat and net benefits: perceived *susceptibility,* perceived *severity,* perceived *benefits,* and perceived *barriers.* These concepts were proposed as accounting for people's "readiness to act." An added concept, *cues to action,* would activate that readiness and stimulate overt behavior. A recent addition to the HBM is the concept of *self-efficacy,* or one's confidence in the ability to successfully perform an action. This concept was added by Rosenstock and others in 1988 to help the HBM better fit the challenges of changing habitual unhealthy behaviors, such as being sedentary, smoking, or overeating.

Table from “Theory at a Glance: A Guide for Health Promotion Practice" (1997)

Concept	Definition	Application
Perceived Susceptibility	One's opinion of chances of getting a condition	Define population(s) at risk, risk levels; personalize risk based on a person's features or behavior; heighten perceived susceptibility if too low.
Perceived Severity	One's opinion of how serious a condition and its consequences are	Specify consequences of the risk and the condition
Perceived Benefits	One's belief in the efficacy of the advised action to reduce risk or seriousness of impact	Define action to take; how, where, when; clarify the positive effects to be expected.
Perceived Barriers	One's opinion of the tangible and psychological costs of the advised action	Identify and reduce barriers through reassurance, incentives, assistance.
Cues to Action	Strategies to activate "readiness"	Provide how-to information, promote awareness, reminders.
Self-Efficacy	Confidence in one's ability to take action	Provide training, guidance in performing action.

Conceptual Model



Source: Glanz et al, 2002, p. 52

Favorite Methods

Surveys.

Scope and Application

The Health Belief Model has been applied to a broad range of health behaviors and subject populations. Three broad areas can be identified (Conner & Norman, 1996): 1) Preventive health behaviors, which include health-promoting (e.g. diet, exercise) and health-risk (e.g. smoking) behaviors as well as vaccination and contraceptive practices. 2) Sick role behaviors, which refer to compliance with recommended medical regimens, usually following professional diagnosis of illness. 3) Clinic use, which includes physician visits for a variety of reasons.

Example

This is an example from two sexual health actions.
(http://www.etr.org/recapp/theories/hbm/Resources.htm)

Concept	Condom Use Education Example	STI Screening or HIV Testing
1. Perceived Susceptibility	Youth believe they can get STIs or HIV or create a pregnancy.	Youth believe they may have been exposed to STIs or HIV.
2. Perceived Severity	Youth believe that the consequences of getting STIs or HIV or creating a pregnancy are significant enough to try to avoid.	Youth believe the consequences of having STIs or HIV without knowledge or treatment are significant enough to try to avoid.
3. Perceived Benefits	Youth believe that the recommended action of using condoms would protect them from getting STIs or HIV or creating a pregnancy.	Youth believe that the recommended action of getting tested for STIs and HIV would benefit them — possibly by allowing them to get early treatment or preventing them from infecting others.
4. Perceived Barriers	Youth identify their personal barriers to using condoms (i.e., condoms limit the feeling or they are too embarrassed to talk to their partner about it) and explore ways to eliminate or reduce these barriers (i.e., teach them to put lubricant inside the condom to increase sensation for the male and have them practice condom communication skills to decrease their embarrassment level).	Youth identify their personal barriers to getting tested (i.e., getting to the clinic or being seen at the clinic by someone they know) and explore ways to eliminate or reduce these barriers (i.e., brainstorm transportation and disguise options).
5. Cues to Action	Youth receive reminder cues for action in the form of incentives (such as pencils with the printed message "no glove, no love") or reminder messages	Youth receive reminder cues for action in the form of incentives (such as a key chain that says, "Got sex? Get tested!") or

	(such as messages in the school newsletter).	reminder messages (such as posters that say, "25% of sexually active teens contract an STI. Are you one of them? Find out now").
6. Self-Efficacy	Youth confident in using a condom correctly in all circumstances.	Youth receive guidance (such as information on where to get tested) or training (such as practice in making an appointment).

Key publications

- Conner, M. & Norman, P. (1996). *Predicting Health Behavior. Search and Practice with Social Cognition Models.* Open University Press: Ballmore: Buckingham.
- Glanz, K., Rimer, B.K. & Lewis, F.M. (2002). *Health Behavior and Health Education. Theory, Research and Practice.* San Fransisco: Wiley & Sons.
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- Champion, V.L. (1984). Instrument development for health belief model constructs, *Advances in Nursing Science, 6,* 73-85.
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3. Protection Motivation Theory

Influencing And Predicting Behavior

History and Orientation

Protection Motivation Theory (PMT) was originally (Rogers, 1975) proposed to provide conceptual clarity to the understanding of fear appeals. A later revision of Protection Motivation Theory (Rogers, 1983) extended the theory to a more general theory of persuasive communication, with an emphasis on the cognitive processes mediating behavioral change.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Protection Motivation Theory (Rogers, 1983) is partially based on the work of Lazarus (1966) and Leventhal (1970) and describes adaptive and maladaptive coping with a health threat as a result

of two appraisal processes. A process of threat appraisal and a process of coping appraisal, in which the behavioral options to diminish the threat are evaluated (Boer, Seydel, 1996). The appraisal of the health threat and the appraisal of the coping responses result in the intention to perform adaptive responses (protection motivation) or may lead to maladaptive responses. Maladaptive responses are those that place an individual at health risk. They include behaviors that lead to negative consequences (e.g. smoking) and the absence of behaviors, which eventually may lead to negative consequences (e.g. not participating in breast cancer screening and thus missing the opportunity of early detection of a tumor).
The Protection Motivation Theory proposes that the intention to protect one self depends upon four factors:

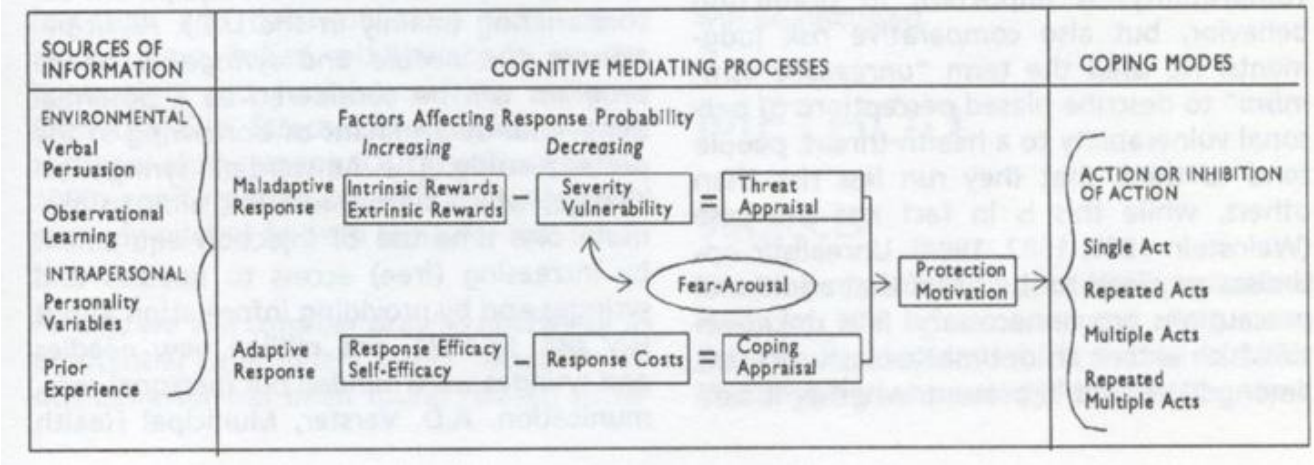
1) The perceived *severity* of a threatened event (e.g., a heart attack)
2) The perceived probability of the occurrence, or *vulnerability* (in this example, the perceived vulnerability of the individual to a hear attack)
3) The efficacy of the recommended preventive behavior (the perceived *response efficacy*)
4) The perceived *self-efficacy* (i.e., the level of confidence in one's ability to undertake the recommended preventive behavior).

Protection motivation is the result of the threat appraisal and the coping appraisal. Threat appraisal is the estimation of the chance of contracting a disease (vulnerability) and estimates of the seriousness of a disease (severity). Coping appraisal consists of response efficacy and self-efficacy. Response efficacy is the individual's expectancy that carrying out recommendations can remove the threat. Self-efficacy is the belief in one's ability to execute the recommend courses of action successfully. Protection motivation is a mediating variable whose function is to arouse, sustain and direct protective health behavior (Boer, Seydel, 1996).

Conceptual Model

Figure 1

Protection motivation theory (adapted from Rogers, 1983)



Source: Rogers, 1983)

Favorite Methods

Surveys, experiments.

Scope and Application

The Protection Motivation Theory can be used for influencing and predicting various behaviors. Off course, the PMT can be used in health-related behaviors. The main features of application to date are reducing alcohol use, enhancing healthy lifestyles, enhancing diagnostic health behaviors and preventing disease. This site gives a good overview of topics studied in PMT Literature. http://bama.ua.edu/~sprentic/672%20PMT%20topics.html

Example

With the PMT Stainback and Rogers (1983) tried to investigate how alcohol use can be reduced. They used persuasive messages to describe the unpleasant consequences of abusive drinking to junior high school students. They used two groups, where the high-fear group received messages describing severe consequences and a high probability of occurrence. The low-fear group received messages describing no severe consequences and a low probability of occurrence Results of this study were that the high-fear group rated the severity of the consequences and drinking likelihood of experiencing these consequences as greater than the low-fear group. Immediately after exposure to the information the high-fear condition produced stronger intentions to remain abstinent than the lower-fear condition.
Source: Boer, Seydel (1996) in Conner and Norman. *Predicting Health Behavior,* p 99-100.

Key publications

- Boer, H., & Seydel, E.R. (1996). Protection motivation theory. In M. Connor and P. Norman (Eds.) *Predicting Health Behavior*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
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- van der Velde, F.W. & van der Plight, J. (1991). AIDS-related health behavior: Coping, protection, motivation, and previous behavior. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine, 14*, 429-451.
- Godin, G. (1994). Social-cognitive theories. In R. K. Dishman (Ed.), *Advances in Exercise Adherence* (pp.113-136). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
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- Hartgers, C., Krijnen, P. & Pligt, J. van der. HIV and injecting drug users: the role of protection motivation.
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4. Social Cognitive Theory

Explanation Of Behavioral Patterns

History and Orientation

In 1941 Miller and Dollard proposed the theory of social learning. In 1963 Bandura and Walters broadened the social learning theory with the principles of observational learning and vicarious reinforcement. Bandura provided his concept of self-efficacy in 1977, while he refuted the traditional learning theory for understanding learning.

The Social Cognitive Theory is relevant to health communication. First, the theory deals with cognitive, emotional aspects and aspects of behavior for understanding behavioral change. Second, the concepts of the SCT provide ways for new behavioral research in health education. Finally, ideas for other theoretical areas such as psychology are welcome to provide new insights and understanding.

Core Assumptions and Statements

The social cognitive theory explains how people acquire and maintain certain behavioral patterns, while also providing the basis for intervention strategies (Bandura, 1997). Evaluating behavioral change depends on the factors environment, people and behavior. SCT provides a framework for designing, implementing and evaluating programs.

Environment refers to the factors that can affect a person's behavior. There are social and physical environments. Social environment include family members, friends and colleagues. Physical environment is the size of a room, the ambient temperature or the availability of certain foods. Environment and *situation* provide the framework for understanding behavior (Parraga, 1990). The situation refers to the cognitive or mental representations of the environment that may affect a person's behavior. The situation is a person's perception of the lace, time, physical features and activity (Glanz et al, 2002).

The three factors environment, people and behavior are constantly influencing each other. Behavior is not simply the result of the environment and the person, just as the environment is not simply the result of the person and behavior (Glanz et al, 2002). The environment provides models for behavior. *Observational learning* occurs when a person watches the actions of another person and the reinforcements that the person receives (Bandura, 1997). The concept of behavior can be viewed in many ways. *Behavioral capability* means that if a person is to perform a behavior he must know what the behavior is and have the skills to perform it.

Concepts of the Social Cognitive Theory

- Source: Glanz et al, 2002, p169.
- *Environment:* Factors physically external to the person; Provides opportunities and social support

- *Situation:* Perception of the environment; correct misperceptions and promote healthful forms
- *Behavioral capability:* Knowledge and skill to perform a given behavior; promote mastery learning through skills training
- *Expectations:* Anticipatory outcomes of a behavior; Model positive outcomes of healthful behavior
- *Expectancies:* The values that the person places on a given outcome, incentives; Present outcomes of change that have functional meaning
- *Self-control:* Personal regulation of goal-directed behavior or performance; Provide opportunities for self-monitoring, goal setting, problem solving, and self-reward
- *Observational learning:* Behavioral acquisition that occurs by watching the actions and outcomes of others' behavior; Include credible role models of the targeted behavior
- *Reinforcements:* Responses to a person's behavior that increase or decrease the likelihood of reoccurrence; Promote self-initiated rewards and incentives
- *Self-efficacy:* The person's confidence in performing a particular behavior; Approach behavioral change in small steps to ensure success
- *Emotional coping responses:* Strategies or tactics that are used by a person to deal with emotional stimuli; provide training in problem solving and stress management
- *Reciprocal determinism:* The dynamic interaction of the person, the behavior, and the environment in which the behavior is performed; consider multiple avenues to behavioral change, including environmental, skill, and personal change.
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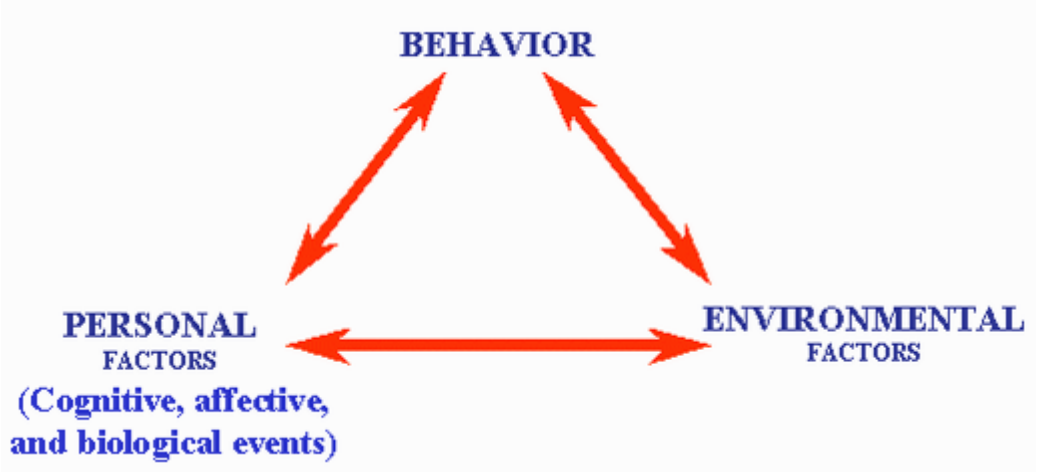
Conceptual Model



Source: Pajares (2002). *Overview of social cognitive theory and of self-efficacy*. 12-8-04.
From http://www.emory.edu/EDUCATION/mfp/eff.html.

Favorite Methods

Surveys, experiments and quasi-experiments are used. See for therapeutical techniques Bandura (1997) and Glanze et al (2002)

Scope and Application

The Social Cognitive Theory is relevant for designing health education and health behavior programs. This theory explains how people acquire and maintain certain behavioral patterns. The theory can also be used for providing the basis for intervention strategies

Example

A project was started to prevent and reduce alcohol use among students in grades 6 till 12 (ages 11-13). The program took three years and was based on behavioral health curricula, parental involvement and community task force activities. The conclusion was that students were less likely to say they drank alcohol than others who did not join the program. With observational learning, negative expectancies about alcohol use and increased behavioral capability to communicate with parents the results were obtained. However, at the end of the 10th grade the differences were no longer significant.

A new program in the 11th grade was started in which reduced access to alcohol and the change of community norms to alcohol use for high-school age students were key elements. With (1) community attention (2) parental education (3) support of alcohol free events (4) media projects to don't provide alcohol and (5) classroom discussions the program started. After the 12th grade a significant result showed that the alcohol use decreased. Furthermore, the access to alcohol was reduced and the parental norms were less accepting of teen alcohol use at the end of the study.

The *outcomes of the SCT* show that actions of the community level to change these constructs resulted in less drinking among teens. The community level appears to have success in changing the environment and expectancies to alcohol use by reducing teen access to alcohol, changing norms and reducing alcohol use among high school students.

Example form Glanz et al, 2002, p 176-177 (summarized)

Key publications

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- Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentive perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*, 1-26.
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5. Social Support

Exchange Of Assistance Through Social Relationships

History and Orientation

Barnes (1954) was the first to describe patterns of social relationships that were not explained by families or work groups. Cassel (1976) found a relationship with health. Social support served as a "protective" factor to people's vulnerability on the effects of stress on health. Social networks are closely related to social support. Nevertheless, these terms are no theories *per se*. Social Support and Social Networks are concepts that describe the structure, processes and functions of social relationships. *Social networks* can be seen as the web of social relationships that surround individuals.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Social Support is associated with how networking helps people cope with stressful events. Besides it can enhance psychological well-being. Social support distinguishes between four types of support (House, 1981). *Emotional support* is associated with sharing life experiences. It involves the provision of empathy, love, trust and caring. *Instrumental support* involves the provision of tangible aid and services that directly assist a person in need. It is provided by close friends, colleagues and neighbours. *Informational support* involves the provision of advice, suggestions, and information that a person can use to address problems. *Appraisal support* involves the provision of information that is useful for self-evaluation purposes: constructive feedback, affirmation and social comparison.

Social relationships have a great impact on health education and health behavior. There is no theory adequately explaining the link between social relationships and health. Closely related to health components of social relationships are social integration, social network and social support (Berkman et al., 2000). *Social integration* has been used to refer to the existence of social ties. *Social network* refers to the web of social relationships around individuals. *Social support* is one of the important functions of social relationships. Social networks are linkages between people that may provide social support and that may serve functions other than providing support (Glanz et al, 2002).

Conceptual Model

See Glanz et al, 2002, p. 190.

Favorite Methods
To be added.

Scope and Application
For promoting health different interventions can be used. Therefore being able to understand the impact of social relationships on health status, health behaviors and health decision making are very important. Identification of the importance of networks or training of people in networks are applications of the approach of social support.

Example
In 1997 in America the Big Brother Big Sister (BBBS) program started. The goal of this program was to reduce the risks faced by the American youth. A mentoring program started, whereby youth was matched with a mentor. These mentors were carefully trained and attention was paid to the selection and training of the volunteers and to the monitoring of the mentors. The participants spend twelve hours a month with their mentors for at least one year. The participants in relation to the control group showed positive results. They had better attitudes toward school and better school attendance, improved relationships with their parents and less likelihood of antisocial behavior. Furthermore, 46% was less likely to use drugs and 27% of using alcohol than the control group. This example shows that social support can be an important contributing factor to the youth and their opinions and actions. However, results should be interpreted carefully. See for remarks and further research Glanz et al (2002).
Example from Glanze et al, 2002, p. 200-202.

Key publications

- Glanz, K., Rimer, B.K. & Lewis, F.M. (2002). *Health Behavior and Health Education. Theory, Research and Practice.* San Fransisco: Wiley & Sons.
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6. Theory Of Planned Behavior/ Reasoned Action

Explaining Human Behavior

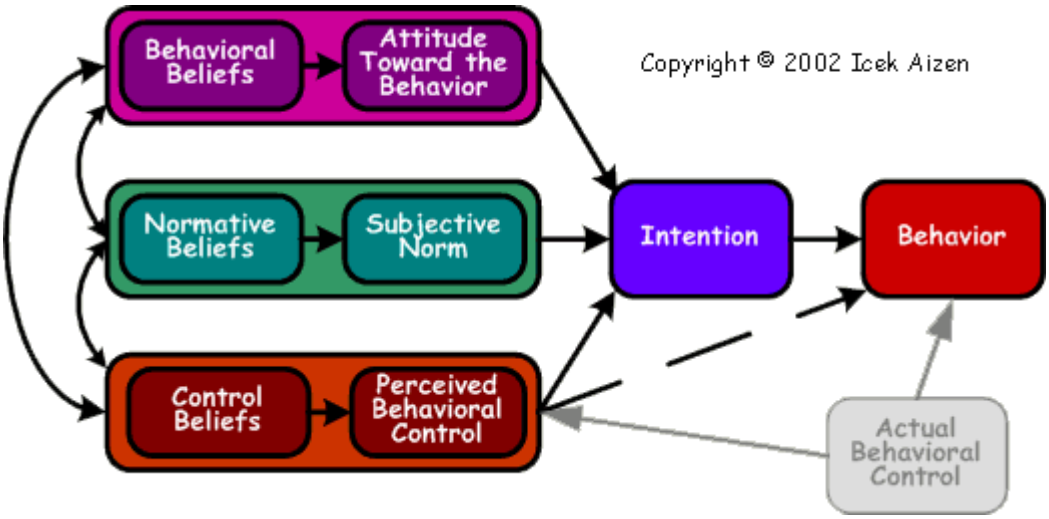
History and Orientation
Ajzen and Fishbein formulated in 1980 the theory of reasoned action (TRA). This resulted from attitude research from the Expectancy Value Models. Ajzen and Fishbein formulated the TRA after trying to estimate the discrepancy between attitude and behavior. This TRA was related to

voluntary behavior. Later on behavior appeared not to be 100% voluntary and under control, this resulted in the addition of perceived behavioral control. With this addition the theory was called the theory of planned behavior (TpB). The theory of planned behavior is a theory which predicts deliberate behavior, because behavior can be deliberative and planned.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Theory of Reasoned Action suggests that a person's behavior is determined by his/her intention to perform the behavior and that this intention is, in turn, a function of his/her attitude toward the behavior and his/her subjective norm. The best predictor of behavior is intention. Intention is the cognitive representation of a person's readiness to perform a given behavior, and it is considered to be the immediate antecedent of behavior. This intention is determined by three things: their attitude toward the specific behavior, their subjective norms and their perceived behavioral control. The theory of planned behavior holds that only specific attitudes toward the behavior in question can be expected to predict that behavior. In addition to measuring attitudes toward the behavior, we also need to measure people's subjective norms – their beliefs about how people they care about will view the behavior in question. To predict someone's intentions, knowing these beliefs can be as important as knowing the person's attitudes. Finally, perceived behavioral control influences intentions. Perceived behavioral control refers to people's perceptions of their ability to perform a given behavior. These predictors lead to intention. A general rule, the more favorable the attitude and the subjective norm, and the greater the perceived control the stronger should the person's intention to perform the behavior in question.

Conceptual Model



Source: Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 50, p. 179-211.

Favorite Methods

Ajzen provides fairly clear instructions for designing theory of planned behavior questionnaires on his website. Ajzen uses a questionnaire to define the elements of behavior and uses direct observation or self-reports later on.

Scope and Application

Provide useful information for the development of communication strategies. This theory is also used in evaluation studies. Other usages of the model include: voting behavior, disease prevention behavior, birth control behavior (Jaccard & Davidson, 1972), consumption prediction.

Example

Examples of items which can be researched with the theory of planned behavior are whether to wear a seat belt, whether to check oneself for disease and whether to use condoms when having sex.

Key publications

- Aronson, E., Wilson, T.D. & Akert, R.M. (2003). *Social Psychology*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckman (Eds.), *Action-control: From cognition to behavior* (pp. 11-39). Heidelberg: Springer.
- Ajzen, I. (1987). Attitudes, traits, and actions: Dispositional prediction of behavior in personality and social psychology. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 20, pp. 1-63). New York: Academic Press.
- Ajzen, I. (1988). *Attitudes, personality, and behavior*. Milton-Keynes, England: Open University Press & Chicago, IL: Dorsey Press.
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- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (in press). Theory-based behavior change interventions: Comments on Hobbis and Sutton (in press). *Journal of Health Psychology.*
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- Thomas, C., 2001. Public understanding and its effect on recycling performance in Hampshire and Milton Keynes. *Resour. Conserv. Recycl.* 32, 3/4, pp. 259–274.

- Parker, D., Manstead, A.S.R., Strading, S.G., Reason, J.T. and Baxter, J.S., 1992. Intentions to commit driving violations: an application of the theory of planned behaviour. *J. Appl. Psychol.* 77, pp. 94–101.
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- Price, J.L., 2001. The landfill directive and the challenge ahead: demands and pressures on the UK householder. *Resour. Conserv. Recycl.* 32, 3–4, pp. 333–348.
- Read, A.D., 1999. Making waste work- making UK national solid waste strategy work at the local scale. *Resour. Conserv. Recycl.* 26, 3/4, pp. 259–285.
- Read, A.D., 1999. A weekly doorstep recycling collection, I had no idea we could! Overcoming the local barriers to participation. *Resour. Conserv. Recycl.* 26, 3/4, pp. 217–249.

7. Transactional Model Of Stress And Coping

Coping With Stressful Events

History and Orientation

Stressors are demands made by the internal or external environment that upset balance, thus affecting physical and psychological well-being and requiring action to restore balance (Lazarus & Cohen, 1977). Beginning in the 1960s and 1970s, stress was considered to be a transactional phenomenon dependant on the meaning of the stimulus to the perceiver (Lazarus, 1966; Antonovsky, 1979).

Core Assumptions and Statements

The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping is a framework for evaluating the processes of coping with stressful events. Stressful experiences are construed as person-environment transactions. These transactions depend on the impact of the external stressor. This is mediated by firstly the person's appraisal of the stressor and secondly on the social and cultural resources at his or her disposal (Lazarus & Cohen, 1977; Antonovsky & Kats, 1967; Cohen 1984).
When faced with a stressor, a person evaluates the potential threat (primary appraisal). *Primary appraisal* is a person's judgment about the significance of an event as stressful, positive, controllable, challenging or irrelevant. Facing a stressor, the *second appraisal*follows, which is an assessment of people's coping resources and options (Cohen, 1984). Secondary appraisals address what one can do about the situation. Actual *coping efforts* aimed at regulation of the problem give rise to *outcomes* of the coping process. In the table below the key constructs of the Transaction Model of Stress and Coping are summarized.

Concept	**Definition**
Primary Appraisal	Evaluation of the significance of a stressor or threatening event.
Secondary Appraisal	Evaluation of the controllability of the stressor and a person's coping resources.
Coping efforts	Actual strategies used to mediate primary and secondary appraisals.

Problem management	Strategies directed at changing a stressful situation.
Emotional regulation	Strategies aimed at changing the way one thinks or feels about a stressful situation.
Meaning-based coping	Coping processes that induce positive emotion, which in turn sustains the coping process by allowing reenactment of problem- or emotion focused coping.
Outcomes of coping	Emotional well-being, functional status, health behaviors.
Dispositional coping styles	Generalized ways of behaving that can affect a person's emotional or functional reaction to a stressor; relatively stable across time and situations.
Optimism	Tendency to have generalized positive expectancies for outcomes.
Information Seeking	Attentional styles that are vigilant (monitoring) versus those that involve avoidance (blunting)
Table from Glanz et al, 2002, p. 214.	

Conceptual Model
See Glanz et al, 2002, p. 215.

Favorite Methods
Surveys, experiments and quasi-experiments are used.
Glanz et al (2002) use therapeutically techniques as well. Techniques such as biofeedback, relaxation and visual imagery are used. Biofeedback aims to develop awareness and control of responses to stressors. Furthermore, biofeedback reduces stress and tension in response to everyday situations. Relaxation techniques use a constant mental stimulus, passive attitude and a quiet environment. Techniques that are used are relaxation training, hypnosis and yoga. Visual imagery is a technique used for improving the mood of a person and improving coping skills. This can be done for example with visualizing host defenses destroying tumor cells.

Scope and Application
The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping is useful for health education, health promotion and disease prevention (see the example below for explanation). Stress does not affect all people equally, but stress can lead to illness and negative experiences. Coping with stress is therefore an important factor, it affects whether and how people search for medical care and social support and how they believe the advice of the professionals.

Example
For understanding determinants of lifestyle of a cancer patient a variety of treatments are needed. This treatment should contain primary appraisals, secondary appraisals and specific coping strategies. Primary appraisals in this example are perceptions of risk of recurrence. Secondary appraisals can be self-efficacy in adopting health behavior recommendations. Specific

coping strategies such as problem-focused coping, emotion-focused coping and meaning-based coping can be used (Glanz et al, 2002). These assessments could provide useful information about appraisals that facilitate or hinder lifestyle practices. Such information would be useful for interventions such as motivational messages and coping skills training techniques.

Key publications

- Glanz, K., Rimer, B.K. & Lewis, F.M. (2002). *Health Behavior and Health Education. Theory, Research and Practice.* San Fransisco: Wiley & Sons.
- Lazarus, R.S. (1966). *Psychological Stress and the Coping Process.* New York: McGraw-Hill.
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- Cohen, F. (1984). "Coping" In J.D. Matarazzo, S.M. Weiss, J.A. Herd, N.E. Miller & S.M. Weiss (eds.), *Behavioral Health: A Handbook of Health Enhancement and Disease Prevention*. New York: Wiley, 1984.
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4. Interpersonal Communication And Relations

1. Attribution Theory

Explaining Human Behavior.

History and Orientation

Heider (1958) was the first to propose a psychological theory of attribution, but Weiner and colleagues (e.g., Jones et al, 1972; Weiner, 1974, 1986) developed a theoretical framework that has become a major research paradigm of social psychology. Heider discussed what he called "naïve" or "commonsense" psychology. In his view, people were like amateur scientists, trying to understand other people's behavior by piecing together information until they arrived at a reasonable explanation or cause.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Attribution theory is concerned with how individuals interpret events and how this relates to their thinking and behavior. Attribution theory assumes that people try to determine why people do what they do. A person seeking to understand why another person did something may attribute one or more causes to that behavior. According to Heider a person can make two attributions 1) internal attribution, the inference that a person is behaving in a certain way because of something about the person, such as attitude, character or personality. 2) external attribution, the inference that a person is behaving a certain way because of something about the situation he or she is in.

Our attributions are also significantly driven by our emotional and motivational drives. Blaming other people and avoiding personal recrimination are very real self-serving attributions. We will also make attributions to defend what we perceive as attacks. We will point to injustice in an unfair world. We will even tend to blame victims (of us and of others) for their fate as we seek to distance ourselves from thoughts of suffering the same plight. We will also tend to ascribe less variability to other people than ourselves, seeing ourselves as more multifaceted and less predictable than others. This may well because we can see more of what is inside ourselves (and spend more time doing this).

Conceptual Model

Not applicable.

Favorite Methods

Various methods have been employed in the measurement and categorization of attributions. Open-ended methods involve the researcher categorizing the oral replies of participants to open-ended questions. Derived score methods require the participant to rate his/her reasons for, for example, a success or failure on 5-point scales for different elements (e.g. ability or effort) related to the attribution dimensions. The direct rating method (e.g. [Benson, 1989),

requires the participant to state his/her reasons for the event and then map those reasons onto items referring to attribution dimensions.

Scope and Application

Attribution theory has been used to explain the difference in motivation between high and low achievers. According to attribution theory, high achievers will approach rather than avoid tasks related to succeeding, because they believe success is due to high ability and effort which they are confident of. Failure is thought to be caused by bad luck or a poor exam and is not their fault. Thus, failure doesn't affect their self-esteem but success builds pride and confidence. On the other hand, low achievers avoid success-related chores because they tend to (a) doubt their ability and/or (b) assume success is related to luck or to "who you know" or to other factors beyond their control. Thus, even when successful, it isn't as rewarding to the low achiever because he/she doesn't feel responsible, it doesn't increase his/her pride and confidence.

Example

If, for example, a runner had already been expending high effort, but had failed to reach a race final, then encouraging him to attribute the failure to lack of effort might simply demoralise him (see, e.g. [Robinson, 1990). If the qualifying standard were simply too difficult to meet, then encouraging attributions to lack of effort might serve little purpose, because increasing effort would probably do little to improve outcomes. If the wrong race strategy were used, then increasing effort would not logically lead to improved outcomes, if the same strategy were used in future.

Key publications

- Aronson, E., Wilson, T.D. & Akert, R.M. (2003). *Social Psychology*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Daly, Dennis. (1996). *Attribution Theory and the Glass Ceiling: Career Development Among Federal Employees.* Public Administration & Management: An interactive Journal [http://www.hbg.psu.edu/faculty/jxr11/glass1sp.html]
- Heider, F. (1958). *The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations.* New York: Wiley.
- Jones, E. E., D. E. Kannouse, H. H. Kelley, R. E. Nisbett, S. Valins, and B. Weiner, Eds. (1972). *Attribution: Perceiving the Causes of Behavior.* Morristown, NJ: General Learning Press.
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- Lewis, F. M. and Daltroy, L. H. (1990). "How Causal Explanations Influence Health Behavior: Attribution Theory." In Glanz, K., Lewis, F.M. and Rimer, B.K. (eds.) Health Education and Health Behavior: Theory , Research. and Practice. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers, Inc
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2. Act* Theory

Explaining Memory Effects

History and Orientation

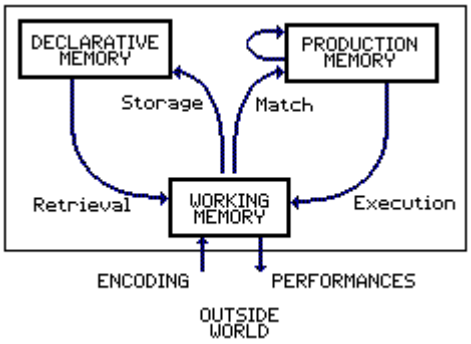
ACT* is a general theory of cognition developed by John Anderson that focuses on memory processes.

ACT* distinguishes among three types of memory structures: declarative, procedural and working memory. Declarative memory takes the form of a semantic net linking propositions, images, and sequences by associations. Procedural memory (also long-term) represents information in the form of productions; each production has a set of conditions and actions based in declarative memory. The nodes of long-term memory all have some degree of activation and working memory is that part of long-term memory that is most highly activated.

Core Assumptions and Statements

According to ACT*, all knowledge begins as declarative information; procedural knowledge is learned by making inferences from already existing factual knowledge. ACT* supports three fundamental types of learning: generalization, in which productions become broader in their range of application, discrimination, in which productions become narrow in their range of application, and strengthening, in which some productions are applied more often. New productions are formed by the conjunction or disjunction of existing productions.

Conceptual Model



Source: Anderson (1976).

Favorite Methods

Experimental research and Computational simulations.

Scope and Application

ACT* can explain a wide variety of memory effects as well as account for higher order skills such as geometry proofs, programming and language learning (see Anderson, 1983; 1990). ACT* has been the basis for intelligent tutors (Anderson, Boyle, Farrell & Reiser, 1987).

Example

One of the strengths of ACT is that it includes both proposition and procedural representation of knowledge as well as accounting for the use of goals and plans. For example, here is a production rule that could be used to convert declarative sentences into a question:
IF the goal is to question whether the proposition (LVrelation LVagent LVobject) is true THEN set as subgoals

1) to plan the communication (LVrelation LVagent LVobject)
2) to move the first word in the description of LVrelation to the beginning of the sentence
3) to execute the plan

This production rule could be used to convert the sentence: "The lawyer is buying the car." into the question: "Is the lawyer buying the car?"

Key publications

- Anderson, J. (1976). Language, Memory and Thought. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum Associates.
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3. Argumentation Theory

How People Argue

History and Orientation

Argumentation exists from way before the 19th century, where the Aristotle's logical theory is found first. This indicates that argumentation was an important factor already in society. Until the 1950s, the approach of argumentation was based on rhetoric and logic. In the United States debating and argumentation became an important subject on universities and colleges. Textbooks appeared on 'Principles of Argumentation' (Pierce, 1895). In the 1960s and 1970s Perelman and Toulmin were the most influential writers on argumentation. Perelman tried to find a description of techniques of argumentation used by people to obtain the approval of others for their opinions. Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca called this 'new rhetoric'. Toulmin, the

other influential writer developed his theory (starting in 1950's) in order to explain how argumentation occurs in the natural process of an everyday argument. He called his theory 'the uses of argument'.
Argumentation theory cannot be seen as *the* theory for argumentation. Various authors have used the argumentation theory all in a slightly different way; it is not to say which version is the most developed.

Core Assumptions and Statements
'Argumentation is a verbal and social activity of reason aimed at increasing (or decreasing) the acceptability of a controversial standpoint for the listener or reader, by putting forward a constellation of propositions intended to justify (or refute) the standpoint before a rational judge' (Van Eemeren et al, 1996). Argumentation is a verbal activity, most often in an ordinary language. In argumentation people use words and sentences to argue, to state or to deny etc. Nonverbal communication is accompanied with verbal communication in argumentation and can play an important role. Furthermore, argumentation is a social activity, which in principle is directed to other people. Argumentation is also an activity of reason, when people put forward their arguments in argumentation they place their considerations within the realm of reason. Argumentation is always related to a standpoint. An opinion itself is not enough; arguments are needed when people differ on a standpoint. Finally, the goal of argumentation is to justify one's standpoint or to refute someone else's.
The version of Van Eemeren and Grootendorst of the argumentation theory, the pragma-dialectical theory, is currently most popular. They began to study argumentation as a means of resolving differences of opinion. Argumentation starts with four principles. 1) Externalization: Argumentation needs a standpoint and an opposition to the standpoint. Therefore, argumentation research concentrates on the externalizable commitments rather than the psychological elements of people. 2) Socialization: arguments are seen as an expression of people's processes. Crucial is to validate the arguer's position by arguments in a certain way. Two people try to obtain an agreement in argumentation; therefore argumentation is part of a social context rather than an individual context. 3) Functionalization: Argumentation has the general function of managing the resolution of disagreement. Studying of argumentation should concentrate on the function of argumentation in the verbal management of disagreement. 4) Dialectification: Argumentation is appropriate only when you are able to use arguments that are able to help you arguing against another person. For resolving differences a theory on argumentation should have a set of standards. The term dialectical procedure is mentioned as a depending element on efficient arguing on solving differences.
Van Eemeren and Grootendorst identify various stages of argumentative dialogue. 1) Confrontation: Presentation of the problem, such as a debate question or a political disagreement. 2) Opening: Agreement on rules, such as for example, how evidence is to be presented, which sources of facts are to be used, how to handle divergent interpretations, determination of closing conditions. 3) Argumentation: Application of logical principles according to the agreed-upon rules. 4) Concluding: When closing conditions are met. These could be for example, a time limitation or the determination of an arbiter. Note that these stages are indispensable.

Argumentation analysis of persuasive messages
Schellens uses a typology which differentiates between restricted and unrestricted argumentation schemes. Restricted schemes are limited to a certain conclusion. The group restricted argumentation schemes can be divided into three different parts 1) Regularity-based argumentation (Schellens, 1985: 77-102): used in support of a descriptive statement about the present, the past or the future. Argumentation is given for a proposition of a factual or descriptive nature on the basis of a regularly recurring empirical link. 2) Rule-based argumentation (Schellens, 1985: 115-151; see also Gottlieb 1968 on rule-guided reasoning: used in support of a normative statement about the value of a situation or process. Arguments are given for a statement of a normative nature 3) Pragmatic argumentation: leading to a statement about the desirability of intended behavior. A position on the desirability of a given action, behavior or measure is advocated on the basis of its advantages and/or disadvantages. (Schellens, 1985: 153-178; see also Walton 1996: 75-77).
In addition to these restricted argumentation schemes, Schellens also distinguishes three unrestricted forms; argumentation from authority, argumentation from example and argumentation from analogy. These schemas are not limited to a conclusion of a type, but have a wider application.

Conceptual Model
Toulmin uses a model of argumentation for his 'uses for argument'. See: Toulmin, S. *The Uses of Argument* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1958).

Favorite Methods
Observation, content/argument analysis.

Scope and Application
Argumentation theory is an interdisciplinary field which attracts attention from philosophers, logicians, linguists, legal scholars, speech communication theorists, etc. The theory is grounded in conversational, interpersonal communication, but also applies to group communication and written communication. De Jong & Schellens (2004) illustrate the possibilities of argumentation analysis in the context of public information.

Example
To be added.

Key publications

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- Eemeren, F.H. van, R.Grootendorst, S.Jackson, & S.Jacobs. 1993. *Reconstructing Argumentative Discourse.* Tuscaloosa: U of Alabama P.
- Gross, Alan G. 1990. *The Rhetoric of Science.* Chicago: U of Chicago P.
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- Freeley, A.J. (1976). *Argumentation and debate. Rational decision making. (*4th edition) Belmont, Calif.:Wadsworth.
- Eemeren, F.H. & Grootendorst, R. (1992). *Argumentation, communication, and fallacies. A pragma-dialectical perspective.* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Garssen, B. (2001). Argument Schemes. In F.H. van Eemeren (Ed.) *Crucial concepts in argumentation theory*. (pp. 81-99). Amsterdam University Press.

4. Contagion Theories

Explain Networks Members' Attitudes And Behaviors

History and Orientation
Contagion theories seek to explain networks as conduits for "infectious" attitudes and behavior. Contagion theories are related to a number of theories: (e.g.) Structurational Theory, Symbolic Interaction, Gatekeeping, Network Theory and Analysis, Hypodermic Needle Theory. These theories all focus on the different aspects of the social construction process.

Core Assumptions and Statements
Contact is provided by communication networks in contagion theories. These communication networks serve as a mechanism that exposes people, groups, and organizations to information, attitudinal messages and the behaviors of others (Burt, 1980, 1987; Contractor & Eisenberg, 1990). Due to this exposure it increases the likelihood that network members will develop beliefs, assumptions, and attitudes similar to those of their networks (Carley, 1991; Carley & Kaufer, 1993). Contagion theories seek the relation between organizational members and their networks. The organizational members' knowledge, attitudes, and behavior are related to the information, attitudes, and behavior of others in the network to which they are linked. Factors such as frequency, multiplexity, strength, and asymmetry can shape the extent to which others influence individuals in their networks (Erickson, 1988).
Contagion can be distinguished into contagion by cohesion and contagion by structural equivalence (Burkhardt, 1994). *Contagion by cohesion* refers to the influence of those who had direct communication. These individuals' perceptions of self-efficacy of the new technology were significantly influenced by people who had direct communication. *Contagion by structural equivalence* refers to the influence of those who had similar communication patterns. These individuals' general attitudes and the use of the new technology were more influence by people who shared similar communication patterns.

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
Network analysis, surveys, and longitudinal data.

Scope and Application
Contagion theories are used to explain network members' attitudes and behaviors. Networks increase in importance and therefore the influence of the relation between members and networks can be explained by these theories. Applications are very broad, since organizations, government and certain interest groups all depend on networks.

Example
Hospital employees who communicated with one another or shared supervisory-subordinate relationships were more likely to share similar attitudes about a recently introduced information technology. (Rice and Aydin's, 1991).

Individuals' attitudes and use of a recently implemented distributed data processing computer network were significantly influenced by the attitudes and use of others in their communication network (Burkhardt, 1994).

Key publications

- Monge, P.E. & Contractor, N.S. (2003). *Theories of Communication Networks.* Oxford: University Press.
- Rice, R.E. & Aydin, C. (1991). Attitudes toward new organizational technology: Network proximity as a mechanism for social information processing: *Administrative Science Quarterly, 9,* 219-244.
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5. Classical Rhetoric

Effective Use Of Language: Persuasion

History and Orientation

The classical rhetoric is a combination of argumentation and persuasion. Rhetoric is a blend of classical systems by among others, three ancient Greek teachers: Plato, Isocrates (and the Sophists) and Aristotle. The ancient Greeks wondered about language, because they noticed that spoken or written text had a certain influence. It rapidly became apparent that the primary political skill of the age was the ability to speak effectively for one's interests. This demanded participation and demanded that citizens speak. Therefore decisions were made through deliberation and voting- both speech acts.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Rhetoric can be defined as 1) to perceive how language is at work orally and in writing, and 2) to become proficient in applying the resources of language in their own speaking and writing. In a

way every utterance of a human is rhetoric, because all human utterances are speech-acts meant to persuade.
Discerning how language is working in others' or one's own writing and speaking, one must (artificially) divide form and content, *what* is being said and *how* this is said, because rhetoric examines so attentively the *how* of language, the methods and means of communication, it has sometimes been discounted as something only concerned with style or appearances, and not with the quality or content of communication.
Rhetoric has sometimes lived down to its critics, but as set forth from antiquity, rhetoric was a comprehensive art just as much concerned with *what* one could say as *how* one might say it. Indeed, a basic premise for rhetoric is the indivisibility of means from meaning; *how* one says something conveys meaning as much as *what* one says. Rhetoric studies the effectiveness of language comprehensively, including its emotional impact, as much as its propositional content

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
To be added.

Scope and Application
Rhetorical can be used to persuade people. The Greeks noticed that the politically crucial skill of effective public speaking can be done with (classical) rhetoric.

Example
To be added.

Key publications

- Leeman, A.D. & Braet, A.C. (1987). *Klassieke retorica*. Haar inhoud, functie en betekenis. Wolters-Noordhoff: Groningen.
- Berlin, J.A. (1984). Writing Instruction in Nineteenth-Century American Colleges. Carbondale: Southern Illinois UP.
- Bitzer, L.F. (1968). "The Rhetorical Situation." Rhetoric: Concepts, Definitions, Boundaries. William A. Covino ed. Boston: Allyn and Bacon: 1995.
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6. Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Attitude Formation And Change

History and Orientation

Leon Festinger (1951) synthesized a set of studies to distill a theory about communication's social influences. Cognitive dissonance enjoyed great popularity from the late 1950s through the mid-1970s. Theoretical problems and conflicting findings lead to temporary replacement by similar "self" theories in the early 1980s, but cognitive dissonance regained its place as the umbrella theory for selective exposure to communication by the late 1980s.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Cognitive dissonance is a communication theory adopted from social psychology. The title gives the concept: cognitive is thinking or the mind; and dissonance is inconsistency or conflict. Cognitive dissonance is the psychological conflict from holding two or more incompatible beliefs simultaneously. Cognitive dissonance is a relatively straightforward social psychology theory that has enjoyed wide acceptance in a variety of disciplines including communication. The theory replaces previous conditioning or reinforcement theories by viewing individuals as more purposeful decision makers; they strive for balance in their beliefs. If presented with decisions or information that create dissonance, they use dissonance-reduction strategies tot regain equilibrium, especially if the dissonance affects their self-esteem. The theory suggests that 1) dissonance is psychologically uncomfortable enough to motivate people to achieve consonance, and 2) in a state of dissonance, people will avoid information and situations that might increase the dissonance. How dissonance arises is easy to imagine: It may be unavoidable in an information rich-society. How people deal with it is more difficult.

Conceptual Model

Not applicable.

Favorite Methods

Experiments.

Scope and Application

Dissonance theory applies to all situations involving attitude formation and change. This theory is able to manipulate people into certain behavior, by doing so these people will alter their attitudes themselves. It is especially relevant to decision-making and problem-solving.

Example

Consider a driver who refuses to use a seat belt despite knowing that the law requires it, and it saves lives. Then a news report or a friend's car incident stunts the scofflaw into facing reality. Dissonance may be reduced by 1) altering behavior… start using a seat belt so the behavior is consonant with knowing that doing so is smart or 2) seeking information that is consonant with the behavior… air bags are safer than seat belts. If the driver never faces a situation that

threatens the decision not to use seat belts, then no dissonance-reduction action is likely because the impetus to reduce dissonance depends on the magnitude of the dissonance held.

Key publications

- Aronson, E., Fried, C. & Stone, J. (1991). Overcoming denial and increasing the intention to use condoms through the induction of hypocrisy. *American Journal of Public Health, 81*, 1636-1638.
- Festinger, L. (1957). *A theory of cognitive dissonance.* Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Festinger, L & Carlsmith, J.M. (1959). "Cognitive consequences of forces compliance," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 58* (2):203-210.
- Robert A. Wicklund & Gollwitzer, P.M. (1982). *Symbolic selfcompletion.* Hillside, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum; William B. Swann Jr. (1984). "Quest for accuracy in person perception: A matter of pragmatics," *Psychological Review 91* (4):454-477; Steele, C.M. (1988). "The psychology of self-affirmation: Sustaining the integrity of the self," in Berkowitz, L ed. *Advances in experimental social psychology 21.* San Diego: Academic Press, pp. 261-302; Vallacher, R,R. & Wegner, D.M. (1985). *A theory of action identification.* Hillside, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum; Tesser, A. (1988). "Toward a self-evaluation maintenance model of social behavior," in Berkowitz, ed*, op. cit.,* pp.181-227; Scheier, M,F. & Carver, S,S. (1988). " A model of behavioral self-regulation: Translating intention into action," in Berkowitz ed., *Ibid.,* pp. 303-346; Higgins, E.T. (1989). "Self-discrepancy theory: What patterns of self-beliefs cause people to suffer" in Berkowitz, ed., *Ibid.,* pp. 93-136; Ziva Kunda (1980). "The case for motivated reasoning," *Psychological Bulletin 108*(3):480-498.
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7. Elaboration Likelihood Model

Motivation And Processing Ability Determine Attitude Change

History and Orientation

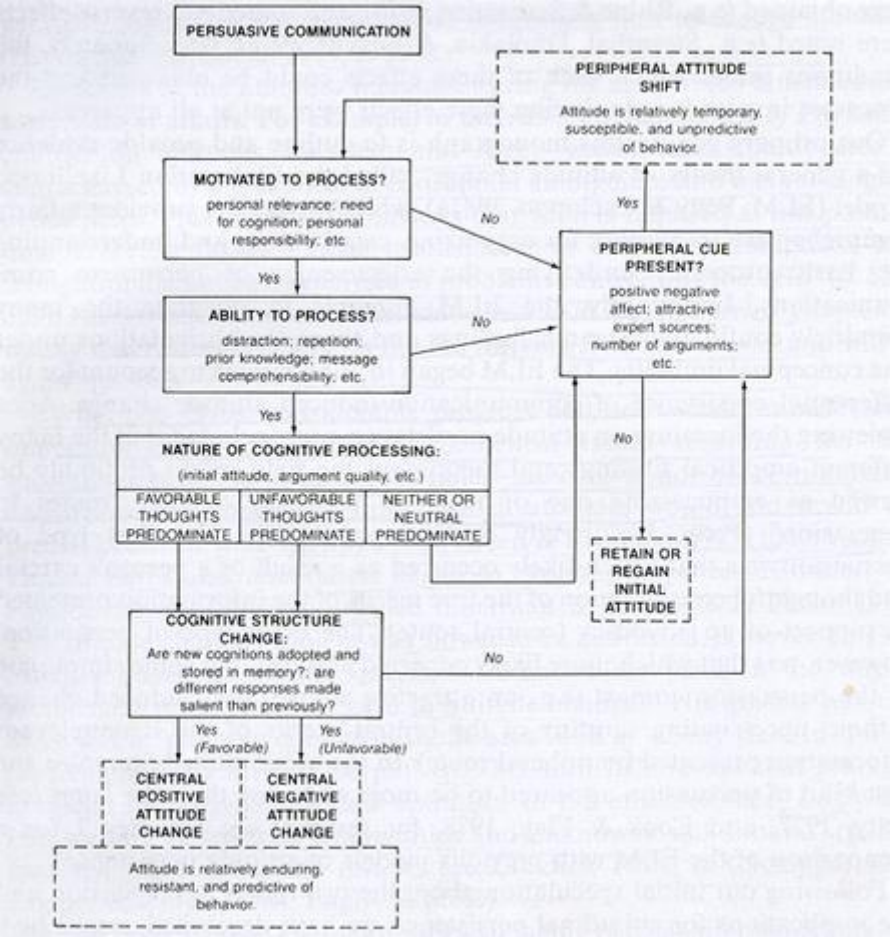
Petty and Cacioppo (1979) discovered, in contrast to social judgment-involvement theory, that high levels of involvement do not invariably decrease persuasion.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: The ELM is based on the idea that attitudes are important because attitudes guide decisions and other behaviors. While attitudes can result from a number of things, persuasion is a primary source. The model features two routes of persuasive influence: central and peripheral. The ELM accounts for the differences in persuasive impact produced by arguments that contain ample information and cogent reasons as compared to messages that rely on simplistic associations of negative and positive attributes to some object, action or situation. The key

variable in this process is involvement, the extent to which an individual is willing and able to 'think' about the position advocated and its supporting materials. When people are motivated and able to think about the content of the message, elaboration is high. Elaboration involves cognitive processes such as evaluation, recall, critical judgment, and inferential judgment. When elaboration is high, the central persuasive route is likely to occur; conversely, the peripheral route is the likely result of low elaboration. Persuasion may also occur with low elaboration. The receiver is not guided by his or her assessment of the message, as in the case of the central route, but the receiver decides to follow a principle or a decision-rule which is derived from the persuasion situation.

Conceptual Model



Elaboration Likelihood Model
Source: Petty, R.E., Kasmer, J., Haugtvedt, C. & Cacioppo, J. (1987)

Favorite Methods

Reader-experiments. Questionnaires (about arguments used in a text, brand recall, source credibility etc.)

Scope and Application

Advertisement-research (printed media, television etc.), psychological research. This theory is promising because it integrates an array of variables into a single explanation of persuasion. It

addresses factors that explain why and when messages and self-motivated efforts are more or less likely to lead to attitude formation.

Key publications

- Cacioppo, J.T. & Petty, R.E. (1979). Effects of message repetition and position on cognitive response, recall and persuasion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *27,* 97-109.
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8. Expectancy Value Model

Orientations To The World, According To Expectations And Evaluations

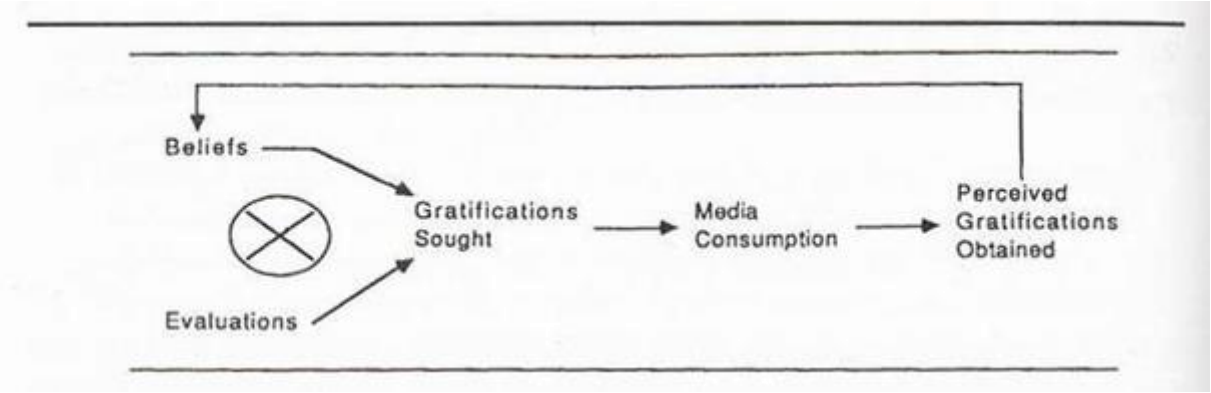
History and Orientation

Expectancy value theory is directly linked to uses and gratifications theory. The theory was founded by Martin Fishbein in the 1970s.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: According to expectancy-value theory, behavior is a function of the expectancies one has and the value of the goal toward which one is working. Such an approach predicts that, when more than one behavior is possible, the behavior chosen will be the one with the largest combination of expected success and value. Expectancy-value theories hold that people are goal-oriented beings. The behaviors they perform in response to their beliefs and values are undertaken to achieve some end. However, although expectancy-value theory can be used to explain central concepts in uses and gratifications research, there are other factors that influence the process. For example the social and psychological origins of needs, which give rise to motives for behavior, which may be guided by beliefs, values, and social circumstances into seeking various gratifications through media consumption and other nonmedia behaviors.
Statements: Expectancy value theory suggests that “people orient themselves to the world according to their expectations (beliefs) and evaluations”. Utilizing this approach, behavior, behavioral intentions, or attitudes are seen as a function of “(1) expectancy (or belief) – the perceived probability that an object possesses a particular attribute or that a behavior will have a particular consequence; and (2) evaluation – the degree of affect, positive or negative, toward an attribute or behavioral outcome” (Palmgreen, 1984).

Conceptual Model



Expectancy value model
Source: Palmgreen (1984)

Favorite Methods
Experiments (field and laboratory), and questionnaires (attitude/value rating scales).

Scope and Application
Expectancy-value theory has proved useful in the explanation of social behaviors, achievement motivation, and work motivation.
Elaborated expectation-value theories:

- Expectancy-value model of achievement motivation
- Behavioral decision theory or subjective expected utility (S.E.U.) theory is one of the most fully developed of the expectancy-value formulations
- Fishbein's theory of reasoned action or behavioral intentions is another widely accepted and well-developed expectancy-value theory.
- Rotter's social learning theory.

Example
The combination of beliefs and evaluations developed about a program, a program genre, the content, or a specific medium could be either positive or negative. If positive, it is likely that the individual would continue to use that media choice; if negative, then one would avoid it.

Key publications

- Fishbein, M (1967). Attitude and the prediction of behaviour. In: Fishbein, M (Ed.). *Readings in attitude theory and measurement*. New York: Wiley.
- Fishbein, M (1968). An investigation of relationships between beliefs about an object and the attitude towards that object. *Human Relationships*, *16*, 233-240.
- Fishbein, M & Ajzen, I. (1974). Attitudes towards objects as predictors of single and multiple behavioural criteria. *Psychological Review*, *81(1)*, 29-74.
- Fishbein, M & Ajzen, I. (1972). *Beliefs, attitudes, intentions and behaviour: an introduction to theory and research*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley.

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9. Interpretative And Interaction Theories

All Communication Is Based On Meaning And Interaction

The interpretative and interaction approach are a collection of many theories. Communication is seen an exchange of people who act with communication and interpret their real situation and form the situation and the self with interaction. These theories also describe what people do with the media. Communication must be framed in a social and cultural context.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Paul Watzlawick's Interactional View deals with interpersonal communication. His theory has five axioms that explain his view.

- *Axiom 1: One cannot not communicate:* This axiom basically says that even if you are not actually talking, or perhaps not doing anything, you are still communicating. Nonverbals are a huge part of communication. Even if you are attempting to avoid speaking, you are still expressing nonverbals. Examples could be facial expressions, the way you are sitting, or your silence in general.
- *Axiom 2: Human beings communicate both digitally and analogically*: Analogical communication "represents things by likeness" (Griffin, 1997). Nonverbal communication, for example, is classified as anological by Watzlawick. Digital communication "refers to things by name" (Griffin 170). Language is considered to be digital.
- *Axiom 3: Communication = Content + Relationship:* Content is *"what"* is actually said, while relationship is *"how"* it is said (Griffin, 1997). A few quick examples can make the distinction between content and relationship more clear. If content is what is said, then relationship is how it is said. If content is computer data, then relationship is the computer program. Basically, the content and relationship make up a communication sequence.
- *Axiom 4: The nature of the relationship depends on how both parties punctuate the communication sequence:* This axiom describes how each person perceives, or punctuates, a communication sequence. An example can help to clarify. Let's say that you have a conversation with a roommate. The conversation makes you upset, but you do not tell him or her your feelings. The next time that you see your roommate, you are cold to him or her. Your roommate then realizes that you are upset about something. You have punctuated your feelings during the original conversation. However, your roommate thinks that you have recently become upset.
- *Axiom 5: All communication is either Symmetrical or Complementary:* According to Watzlawick, symmetrical communication is "communication based on equal power." Complementary communication is "based on differences in power" (Griffin, 1997). A healthy relationship will have both types of power. Too much of one type of power can lead to possible conflicts. Watzlawick (1974) refers to the relational aspect of interaction as “metacommunication”. It is

communication about communication. This is how I see myself, this is how I see you, this is how I see you seeing me.
The interactional view holds that there is no way to label a relationship on the basis of a single verbal statement. Interaction requires a sequence of two messages- a statement form one person, and a response from the other.

Conceptual Model
See Symbolic Interaction

Favorite Methods
See Symbolic Interaction

Scope and Application
See Symbolic Interaction

Key publications
- Watzlawick, P., Weakland, J.H., Fisch, R. (1974). *Changing a system*. Change, W.W. Norton, New York.
- Griffin, E. (1997). *A first look at Communication Theory.* New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies.

10. Language Expectancy Theory
Effects Of Linguistic Variations On Persuasive Messages

History and Orientation
Brooks (1970) provided a spark to begin developing the Language Expectancy Theory. He had expectations about what a source might or might not say in persuasive messages. Burgoon, Jones and Stewart (1975) added the impact of linguistic strategies. They claimed that strategic linguistic choices can be significant predictors of persuasive success. In 1995 Burgoon provided a detailed version of the formulation of the Language Expectancy Theory.

Core Assumptions and Statements
Language Expectancy Theory is a formalized model about message strategies and attitude and behavior change. Message strategies include verbal aggressions like fear appeal, explicit opinions and language intensity which are more combat. Language Expectancy Theory assumes that language is a rule-governed system and people develop expectations concerning the language or message strategies employed by others in persuasive attempts (Burgoon, 1995). Expectations are a function of cultural and sociological norms and preferences arising from cultural values and societal standards or ideals for competent communication.
Language Expectancy Theory assumes that changes in the direction desired by an actor occur when positive violations of expectancies occur. Positive violations occur (a) when the enacted behavior is better or more preferred than that which was expected in the situation. Change

occurs because enacted behavior is outside the bandwidth in a positive direction, and such behavior prompts attitude or behavioral change (Burgoon, 1995).
Positive violations occur (b) when negatively evaluated sources conform more closely than expected to cultural values or situational norms. This can result in overly positive evaluation of the source and change promoted by the actor (Burgoon, 1995).
Negative violations, resulting from language choices that lie outside socially acceptable behavior in a negative direction, produce no attitude or behavior change in receivers.

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
Laboratory research settings.

Scope and Application
The Language Expectancy Theory explains the effect of the use of different linguistic variations (language, language intensity) on people who use persuasive messages. It is used as a theoretical framework to explain the effects of several source, message and receiver variables on message persuasiveness. Persuasive messages are used often, with this theory the impact can be described of using different intensities in language.

Example
Even though people are informed about skin cancer prevention, they do not always comply with prevention advice. From Language Expectancy Theory, it was predicted that messages with high language intensity would improve compliance with sun safety recommendations and that this effect would be enhanced with deductive argument style. Parents received sun safety messages (newsletters, brochures, tip cards) by mail that varied in language intensity and logical style. Parents receiving messages with high- as opposed to low-intensity language complied more with sun safety advice. By carefully adjusting messages features, health professionals can obtain further compliance beyond that produced by educating people about health risks and creating favorable attitudes and self-efficacy expectations. Highly intense language may be a good general strategy in prevention messages.
Example from: Buller et al (2000)

Key publications

- Dillard, J.P. & Pfau, M. (2002). *The persuasion handbook: Developments in theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Buller, D.B.,Burgoon, M., Hall, J.R., Levine, N., Taylor, A.M., Beach, B.H., Melcher, C. Buller, M.K., Bowen, S.L. Hunsaker, F.G. & Bergen, A. (2000). Using Language Intensity to Increase the Success of a Family Intervention to Protect Children from Ultraviolet Radiation:
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11. Network Theory And Analysis

How Relationships Influence Behavior

History and Orientation

The idea of social networks and the notions of sociometry and sociograms appeared over 50 years ago. Barnes (1954) is credited with coining the notion of social networks, an outflow of his study of a Norwegian island parish in the early 1950s.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Network analysis (social network theory) is the study of how the social structure of relationships around a person, group, or organization affects beliefs or behaviors. Causal pressures are inherent in social structure. Network analysis is a set of methods for detecting and measuring the magnitude of the pressures. The axiom of every network approach is that reality should be primarily conceived and investigated from the view of the properties of relations between and within units instead of the properties of these units themselves. It is a relational approach. In social and communication science these units are social units: individuals, groups/ organizations and societies.

Statements: Rogers characterizes a communication network as consisting of "interconnected individuals who are linked by patterned communication flows" (1986). A communication network analysis studies "the interpersonal linkages created by the shearing of information in the interpersonal communication structure" (1986), that is, the network.

Network analysis within organizations

Scope:

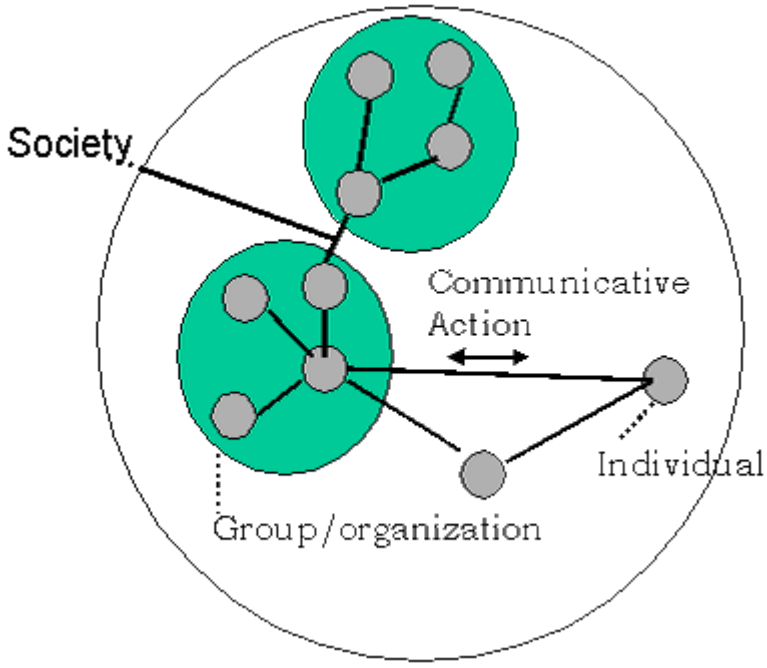
In general, network analysis focuses on the relationships between people, instead of on characteristics of people. These relationships may comprise the feelings people have for each other, the exchange of information, or more tangible exchanges such as goods and money. By mapping these relationships, network analysis helps to uncover the emergent and informal communication patterns present in an organization, which may then be compared to the formal communication structures. These emergent patterns can be used to explain several organizational phenomena. For instance the place employees have in the communication network (as described by their relationships), influences their exposure to and control over information (Burt, 1992; Haythornthwaite, 1996). Since the patterns of relationships bring employees into contact with the attitudes and behaviors of other organizational members, these relationships may also help to explain why employees develop certain attitudes toward organizational events or job-related matters (theories that deal with these matters are called 'contagion theories', cf. Ibarra & Andrews, 1993; Burkhardt, 1994; Meyer, 1994; Feeley & Barnett, 1996; Pollock, Whitbred & Contractor, 2000). Recently there is a growing interest into why communication networks emerge and the effects of communication networks (Monge &

Contractor, 2003). Also, there is a substantial amount of literature available on how networkdata gathered within organizations, can be analyzed (cf. Rice & Richards, 1985; Freeman, White & Romney, 1992; Wasserman & Faust, 1994; Scott, 2000).

Applications:

Network analysis techniques focus on the communication structure of an organization, which can be operationalized into various aspects. Structural features that can be distinguished and analyzed through the use of network analysis techniques are for example the (formal and informal) *communication patterns* in an organization or the identification of *groups* within an organization (cliques or functional groups). Also communication-related *roles* of employees can be determined (e.g., stars, gatekeepers, and isolates). Special attention may be given to specific aspects of communication patterns: communication *channels and media* used by employees, the relationship between *information types* and the resulting communication networks, and the amount and possibilities of *bottom-up communication*. Additional characteristics that could, in principle, be investigated using network analysis techniques are the *communication load*as perceived by employees, the *communication styles* used, and the *effectiveness of the information flows*.

Conceptual Model (of a network society)



Networks connecting individuals, groups, organizations and societies.
Source: Van Dijk 2001/2003

Favorite Methods

Interviews, surveys.

Scope and Application

Thinking in terms of networks and the method of network analysis have gained ground in many disciplines, including social psychology, anthropology, political science, and mathematics, as well

as communications. Network analysis generates information about the following types of network roles: the membership role, the liaison role, the star role, the isolate role, the boundary-spanning role, the bridge role, and the non-participant role. Network analysis is done in organizations, society, groups etc. The network model encourages communication planners and researchers to use new cause/effect variables in their analysis. For example, properties of the very communication network, such as connectedness, integration, diversity, and openness (Rogers and Kincaid, 1981).

Example
Rogers and Kincaid studied in Korea how women in a small village organized themselves to improve the general living conditions for themselves and their families.

Key publications on network analysis

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- Wasserman, S., & Faust, K. (1994). *Social network analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Scott, J. (2000). *Social Network Analysis: A handbook.* Second edition. London: Sage.

12. Sensemaking

Managing (Life) Is About Making Sense.

History and Orientation

Since Sensemaking has been under development since 1972, it cannot be explained in a few sentences. It is important to know that the project has been based on three central assumptions regarding communication practice: a) That it is possible to design and implement communication systems and practices that are responsive to human needs; b) That it is possible for humans to enlarge their communication repertoires to pursue this vision; c) That achieving these outcomes requires the development of communication-based methodological approaches.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Sensemaking is an approach to thinking about and implementing communication research and practice and the design of communication-based systems and activities. It consists of a set of philosophical assumptions, substantive propositions, methodological framings and methods. According to Weick, sensemaking consists of seven aspects.

1) Grounded in identity construction: a sensemaker is needed otherwise there won't be any sensemaking, sense is in the eye of the beholder. The sensemaker is singular and no individual ever acts like a single sensemaker, each individual has a lot of identities.
2) Retrospective: After a certain time the process is reflected. This is always done afterwards. This aspect, looking afterwards at a process, will depend on the success of the process.
3) Furthermore, retrospection makes the past clearer than the present or future; it cannot make the past transparent (Starbuck & Milliken, 1988).
4) Enactive and sensible environments. In organizational life people often produce part of the environment they face (Pondy & Mitroff, 1979). Action is crucial for sensemaking; we can't command and the environment will obey. Moreover, we can't predict something that will

happen exact, because everything is part of a larger truth. Entity and environment are factors which influence eachother. You are neither a plaything in the environment or independent. Somewhere between is the meaning.

5) Social: Sensemaking is a social process; human thinking and social functioning are essential aspects of another (Resnick, Levine & Teasly, 1991). What a person does depends on others, so the direct influence is not clear. To understand sensemaking is to pay more intention to sufficient cues for coordination such as generalized other, prototypes, stereotypes, and roles.
6) Ongoing: Sensemaking never starts or stops, it is an ongoing process.
7) Focused on and by extracted cues: In life people are confronted with a lot of cues, too much too notice anyway. A person will only notice a few cues, because of his own filter. Your own interest and your unconsciousness depend what cues you focus on. As said earlier, it is also impossible to notice all the cues, because there are too many.
8) Driven by plausibility rather than accuracy: People are cognitively lazy, when they found an answer to the question, people stop searching. No alternatives are evaluated, while people might not even know the half of it.

An example of how these seven elements are used in sensemaking: (Weick, 1995).
'How can I know what I think until I see what I say?"

1) Identity: The recipe is a question about who I am as indicated by discovery of how and what I think.
2) Retrospect: To learn what I think, I look back over what I said earlier.
3) Enactment: I create the object to be seen and inspected when I say or do something.
4) Social: What I say and single out and conclude are determined by who socialized me and how I was socialized, as well as by the audience I anticipate will audit the conclusions I reach.
5) Ongoing: My talking is spread across time, competes for attention with other ongoing projects, and it reflected on after it is finished, which means my interests may already have changed.
6) Extracted cues: The "what" that I single out and embellish as the content of the thought is only a small portion of the utterance that becomes salient because of context and personal dispositions.
7) Plausibility: I need to know enough about what I think to get on with my projects, but no more, which means sufficiency and plausibility, take precedence over accuracy.

Source: Example from W Weick, K. E. (1995). *Sensemaking in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. P. 61-62.

Sensemaking in organizations

In dealing with organizational issues, sensemaking requires us to look for explanations and answers in terms of how people see things rather than rather than structures or systems. Sensemaking suggests that organizational issues - 'strategies', 'breakdowns', 'change', 'goals',

'plans', 'tasks', 'teams', and so on are not things that one can find out in the world or that exist in the organization. Rather, their source is people's way of thinking.

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
Interviews, critical incident, discourse analysis.

Scope and Application
Sense making can be used to study information seeking and use in the workplace (Cheuk, 2002). . It can also be used for understanding deaf culture (Linderman, 1997) or to explore reflective thinking in nursing practice (Teekman, 1997). Rajendram (1997) used sense making in media education classrooms with students. Dervin (1997) tried to use sense making for difficult subjects such as racism, sexism and able-bodyism.

Key publications

- Weick, K. E. (1995). *Sensemaking in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
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13. Social Identity Theory

Cognitive And Motivational Basis Of Intergroup Differentiation.

History and Orientation

Social Identity Theory was developed by Tajfel and Turner in 1979. The theory was originally developed to understand the psychological basis of intergroup discrimination. Tajfel et al (1971) attempted to identify the *minimal* conditions that would lead members of one group to discriminate in favor of the ingroup to which they belonged and against another outgroup.

Core Assumptions and Statements

In the Social Identity Theory, a person has not one, "personal self", but rather several selves that correspond to widening circles of group membership. Different social contexts may trigger an individual to think, feel and act on basis of his personal, family or national "level of self" (Turner et al, 1987). Apart from the "level of self", an individual has multiple "social identities". Social identity is the individual's self-concept derived from perceived membership of social groups (Hogg & Vaughan, 2002). In other words, it is an individual-based perception of what defines the "us" associated with any *internalized group membership*. This can be distinguished from the notion of personal identity which refers to self-knowledge that derives from the individual's unique attributes.

Social Identity Theory asserts that group membership creates ingroup/ self-categorization and enhancement in ways that favor the in-group at the expense of the out-group. The examples (minimal group studies) of Turner and Tajfel (1986) showed that the mere act of individuals *categorizing themselves* as group members was sufficient to lead them to display ingroup favoritism. After being categorized of a group membership, individuals seek to achieve positive self-esteem by positively differentiating their ingroup from a comparison outgroup on some valued dimension. This quest for *positive distinctiveness* means that people's sense of who they are is defined in terms of 'we' rather than 'I'.

Tajfel and Turner (1979) identify three variables whose contribution to the emergence of ingroup favoritism is particularly important. A) the extent to which individuals identify with an ingroup to internalize that group membership as an aspect of their self-concept. B) the extent to which the prevailing context provides ground for comparison between groups. C) the perceived relevance of the comparison group, which itself will be shaped by the relative and absolute status of the ingroup. Individuals are likely to display favoritism when an ingroup is central to their self-definition and a given comparison is meaningful or the outcome is contestable.

Conceptual Model

Haslam, Alexander S. (2001), Psychology in Organizations - The Social Identitty Approach, Sage Publications Ltd, London. Chapter 2: The Social Identity Approach, pp. 26-57

Favorite Methods
Experiments.

Scope and Application
Social Identity Theory has a considerable impact on social psychology. It is tested in a wide range of fields and settings and includes prejudice, stereotyping, negotiation and language use. The theory has also implications on the way people deal with social and organizational change.

Example
In further research this example is referred to minimal group studies. Schoolboys were assigned to groups, which were intended as meaningless as possible. They were assigned randomly, excluding roles of interpersonal discrimination such as history of conflict, personal animosity or interdependence. The schoolboys assigned points to anonymous members of both their own group and the other group. Conclusions were that even the most minimal conditions were sufficient to encourage ingroup-favoring responses. Participants picked a reward pair that awarded more points to people who were identified as ingroup members. In other words, they displayed *ingroup favoritism*.

Key publications

- Mael, F.A. and B.E. Ashforth, Alumni and their alma mater: a partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 1992. 13(2): p. 103-123.
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14. Symbolic Interactionism

All Communication Is Symbolic And Based Upon Interaction And Meaning.

History and Orientation

Symbolic Interactionism, formulated by Blumer (1969) is the process of interaction in the formation of meanings for individuals. The inspiration for this theory came from Dewey (1981), which believed that human beings are best understood in a practical, interactive relation to their environment.

Core Assumptions and Statements

The theory consists of three core principles: meaning, language and thought. These core principles lead to conclusions about the creation of a person's self and socialization into a larger community (Griffin, 1997).

Meaning states that humans act toward people and things according to the meanings that give to those people or things. Symbolic Interactionism holds the principal of meaning to be the central aspect of human behavior.

Language gives humans a means by which to negotiate meaning through symbols. Humans identify meaning in speech acts with others.

Thought modifies each individual's interpretation of symbols. Thought is a mental conversation that requires different points of view.

With these three elements the concept of the *self* can be framed. People use 'the looking-glass self': they take the role of the other, imagining how we look to another person. The self is a function of language, without talk there would be no self concept. People are part of a community, where our generalized other is the sum total of responses and expectations that we pick up from the people around us. We naturally give more weight to the views of significant others.

Conceptual Model

Not applicable. Verbal statements are preferred.

Favorite Methods

Participant observation, qualitative interviewing, interaction analysis and context existing sources analysis.

Scope and Application

The theory is used in effective evaluating of human interaction. Different meanings can easily lead to communication problems. Problems can arise if the lines of communication are not open and assumptions are made.

Example

A boy (Jeremy) and a girl (Kim) broke up last year. When Jeremy received an email from Kim to go out he agreed and they went to a bar. Jeremy had a different kind of meaning though in comparison with Kim. Jeremy went out as friends, where Kim went out as with the *meaning* of

'potential boyfriend'. Also in the communication the *language* was misunderstood. Kim wanted to have a romantic night, while Jeremy wanted to have a talk in a bar. This is also caused by the nonverbal element of emails. The third miscommunication is under *thought*. When Jeremy replied so fast Kim thought that they were going out to a romantic place. Jeremy went out just as 'friends'. They both used an internal dialogue to interpret the situation and to make a perception of the evening.
Source: Griffin (1997).

Key publications

- Blumer, Herbert. 1969. *Symbolic Interactionism: Perspective and Method.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Griffin, E. (1997). *A first look at Communication Theory.* New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies.
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15. Social Cognitive Theory

Explanation Of Behavioral Patterns

History and Orientation

In 1941 Miller and Dollard proposed the theory of social learning. In 1963 Bandura and Walters broadened the social learning theory with the principles of observational learning and vicarious reinforcement. Bandura provided his concept of self-efficacy in 1977, while he refuted the traditional learning theory for understanding learning.
The Social Cognitive Theory is relevant to health communication. First, the theory deals with cognitive, emotional aspects and aspects of behavior for understanding behavioral change. Second, the concepts of the SCT provide ways for new behavioral research in health education. Finally, ideas for other theoretical areas such as psychology are welcome to provide new insights and understanding.

Core Assumptions and Statements

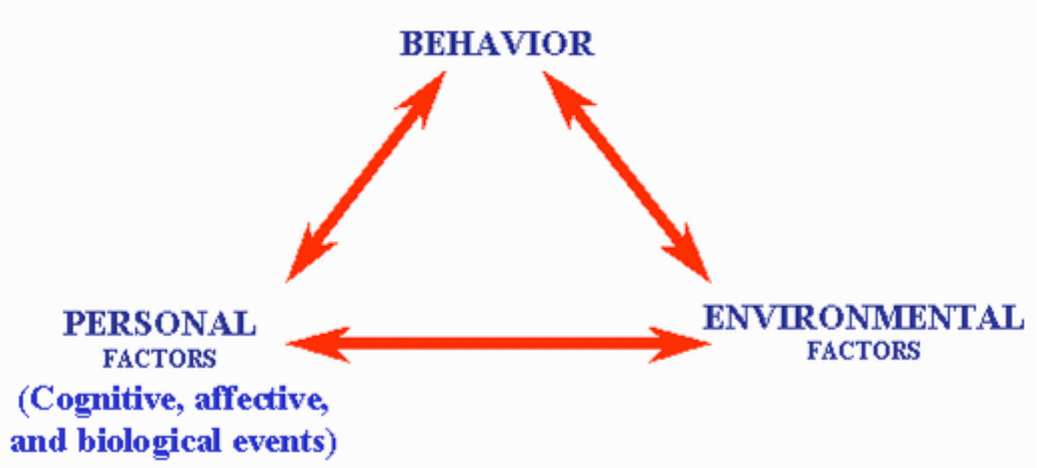
The social cognitive theory explains how people acquire and maintain certain behavioral patterns, while also providing the basis for intervention strategies (Bandura, 1997). Evaluating behavioral change depends on the factors environment, people and behavior. SCT provides a framework for designing, implementing and evaluating programs.
Environment refers to the factors that can affect a person's behavior. There are social and physical environments. Social environment include family members, friends and colleagues. Physical environment is the size of a room, the ambient temperature or the availability of certain foods. Environment and *situation* provide the framework for understanding behavior (Parraga,

1990). The situation refers to the cognitive or mental representations of the environment that may affect a person's behavior. The situation is a person's perception of the lace, time, physical features and activity (Glanz et al, 2002).
The three factors environment, people and behavior are constantly influencing each other. Behavior is not simply the result of the environment and the person, just as the environment is not simply the result of the person and behavior (Glanz et al, 2002). The environment provides models for behavior. *Observational learning* occurs when a person watches the actions of another person and the reinforcements that the person receives (Bandura, 1997). The concept of behavior can be viewed in many ways. *Behavioral capability* means that if a person is to perform a behavior he must know what the behavior is and have the skills to perform it.

Concepts of the Social Cognitive Theory
Source: Glanz et al, 2002, p169.

- *Environment:* Factors physically external to the person; Provides opportunities and social support
- *Situation:* Perception of the environment; correct misperceptions and promote healthful forms
- *Behavioral capability:* Knowledge and skill to perform a given behavior; promote mastery learning through skills training
- *Expectations:* Anticipatory outcomes of a behavior; Model positive outcomes of healthful behavior
- *Expectancies:* The values that the person places on a given outcome, incentives; Present outcomes of change that have functional meaning
- *Self-control:* Personal regulation of goal-directed behavior or performance; Provide opportunities for self-monitoring, goal setting, problem solving, and self-reward
- *Observational learning:* Behavioral acquisition that occurs by watching the actions and outcomes of others' behavior; Include credible role models of the targeted behavior
- *Reinforcements:* Responses to a person's behavior that increase or decrease the likelihood of reoccurrence; Promote self-initiated rewards and incentives
- *Self-efficacy:* The person's confidence in performing a particular behavior; Approach behavioral change in small steps to ensure success
- *Emotional coping responses:* Strategies or tactics that are used by a person to deal with emotional stimuli; provide training in problem solving and stress management
- *Reciprocal determinism:* The dynamic interaction of the person, the behavior, and the environment in which the behavior is performed; consider multiple avenues to behavioral change, including environmental, skill, and personal change.

Conceptual Model



Source: Pajares (2002). *Overview of social cognitive theory and of self-efficacy*. 12-8-04.
From http://www.emory.edu/EDUCATION/mfp/eff.html.

Favorite Methods

Surveys, experiments and quasi-experiments are used. See for therapeutical techniques Bandura (1997) and Glanze et al (2002)

Scope and Application

The Social Cognitive Theory is relevant for designing health education and health behavior programs. This theory explains how people acquire and maintain certain behavioral patterns. The theory can also be used for providing the basis for intervention strategies

Example

A project was started to prevent and reduce alcohol use among students in grades 6 till 12 (ages 11-13). The program took three years and was based on behavioral health curricula, parental involvement and community task force activities. The conclusion was that students were less likely to say they drank alcohol than others who did not join the program. With observational learning, negative expectancies about alcohol use and increased behavioral capability to communicate with parents the results were obtained. However, at the end of the 10th grade the differences were no longer significant.

A new program in the 11th grade was started in which reduced access to alcohol and the change of community norms to alcohol use for high-school age students were key elements. With (1) community attention (2) parental education (3) support of alcohol free events (4) media projects to don't provide alcohol and (5) classroom discussions the program started. After the 12th grade a significant result showed that the alcohol use decreased. Furthermore, the access to alcohol was reduced and the parental norms were less accepting of teen alcohol use at the end of the study.

The *outcomes of the SCT* show that actions of the community level to change these constructs resulted in less drinking among teens. The community level appears to have success in changing the environment and expectancies to alcohol use by reducing teen access to alcohol, changing norms and reducing alcohol use among high school students.

Example form Glanz et al, 2002, p 176-177 (summarized)

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16. Speech Act

Understanding Speaker's Intention

(in Dutch: taalhandelingen)

History and Orientation

Speech act theory is built on the foundation laid by Wittgenstein and Austin. John Searle is most often associated with the theory. Ludwig Wittgenstein began a line of thought called 'ordinary language philosophy'. He taught that the meaning of language depends on its actual use. Language, as used in ordinary life, is a language game because it consists of rules. In other words, people follow rules to do things with the language.

Core Assumptions and Statements

According to Searle, to understand language one must understand the speaker's intention. Since language is intentional behavior, it should be treated like a form of action. Thus Searle refers to statements as speech acts. The speech act is the basic unit of language used to express meaning,

an utterance that expresses an intention. Normally, the speech act is a sentence, but it can be a word or phrase as long as it follows the rules necessary to accomplish the intention. When one speaks, one performs an act. Speech is not just used to designate something, it actually does something. Speech act stresses the intent of the act as a whole. According to Searle, understanding the speaker's intention is essential to capture the meaning. Without the speaker's intention, it is impossible to understand the words as a speech act. There are four types of speech act: utterance acts, propositional acts (referring is a type of propositional act), illocutionary acts (promises, questions and commands) and perlocutionary acts. A perlocutionary act can be used to elicit some behavioral response from the listener. Searle believes that speakers perform acts by observing two types of rules: constitutive rules or definition rules (create or define new forms of behavior) and regulative or behavior rules (these rules govern types of behavior that already exist).

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
Content and conversation analysis.

Scope and Application
Speech act theory has contributed to the rules perspective in communication because it provides a basis for examining what happens when speakers use different definition and behavior rules. By analyzing the rules used by each speaker, researchers can better understand why conversational misunderstandings have occurred.

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17. Theory Of Planned Behavior/ Reasoned Action

Explaining Human Behavior

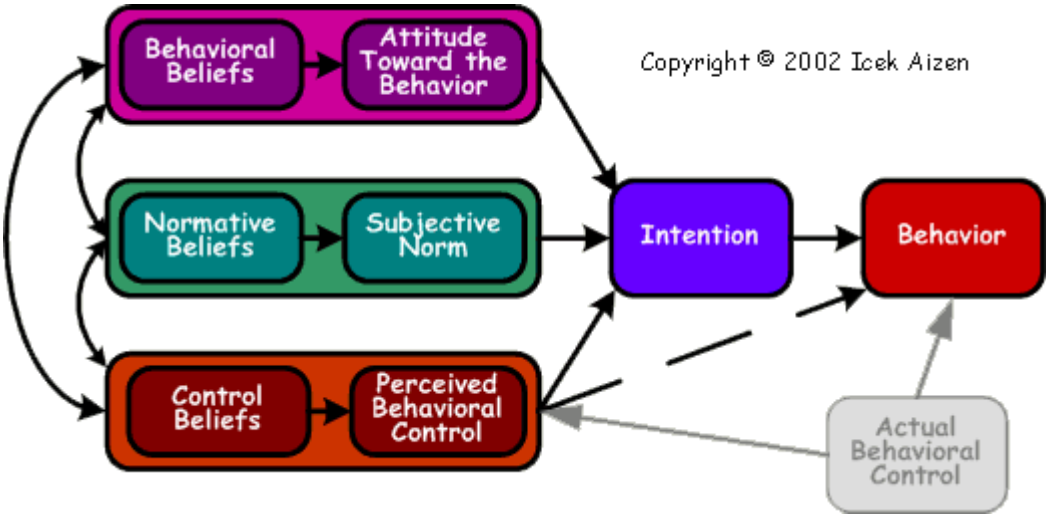
History and Orientation
Ajzen and Fishbein formulated in 1980 the theory of reasoned action (TRA). This resulted from attitude research from the Expectancy Value Models. Ajzen and Fishbein formulated the TRA

after trying to estimate the discrepancy between attitude and behavior. This TRA was related to voluntary behavior. Later on behavior appeared not to be 100% voluntary and under control, this resulted in the addition of perceived behavioral control. With this addition the theory was called the theory of planned behavior (TpB). The theory of planned behavior is a theory which predicts deliberate behavior, because behavior can be deliberative and planned.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Theory of Reasoned Action suggests that a person's behavior is determined by his/her intention to perform the behavior and that this intention is, in turn, a function of his/her attitude toward the behavior and his/her subjective norm. The best predictor of behavior is intention. Intention is the cognitive representation of a person's readiness to perform a given behavior, and it is considered to be the immediate antecedent of behavior. This intention is determined by three things: their attitude toward the specific behavior, their subjective norms and their perceived behavioral control. The theory of planned behavior holds that only specific attitudes toward the behavior in question can be expected to predict that behavior. In addition to measuring attitudes toward the behavior, we also need to measure people's subjective norms – their beliefs about how people they care about will view the behavior in question. To predict someone's intentions, knowing these beliefs can be as important as knowing the person's attitudes. Finally, perceived behavioral control influences intentions. Perceived behavioral control refers to people's perceptions of their ability to perform a given behavior. These predictors lead to intention. A general rule, the more favorable the attitude and the subjective norm, and the greater the perceived control the stronger should the person's intention to perform the behavior in question.

Conceptual Model



Source: Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 50, p. 179-211.

Favorite Methods

Ajzen provides fairly clear instructions for designing theory of planned behavior questionnaires on his website. Ajzen uses a questionnaire to define the elements of behavior and uses direct observation or self-reports later on.

Scope and Application

Provide useful information for the development of communication strategies. This theory is also used in evaluation studies. Other usages of the model include: voting behavior, disease prevention behavior, birth control behavior (Jaccard & Davidson, 1972), consumption prediction.

Example

Examples of items which can be researched with the theory of planned behavior are whether to wear a seat belt, whether to check oneself for disease and whether to use condoms when having sex.

Key publications

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18. Uncertainty Reduction Theory

Reduction Uncertainty In Behavior

History and Orientation

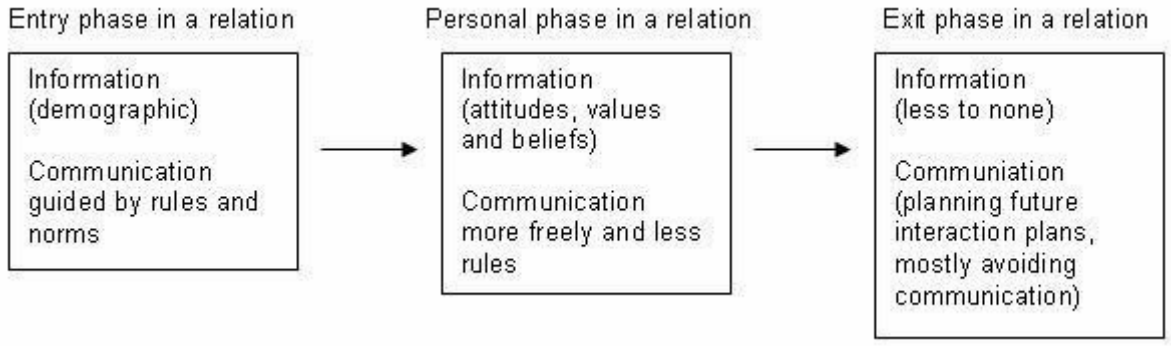
Uncertainty reduction theory (URT) was initially presented as a series of axioms (universal truths which do not require proof and theorems (propositions assumed to be true) which describe the relationships between uncertainty and several communication factors. URT was developed to describe the interrelationships between seven important factors in any dyadic exchange: verbal communication, nonverbal expressiveness, information-seeking behavior, intimacy, reciprocity, similarity, and liking. This theoretical perspective was originated by C.R. Berger and Calabrese in 1975; they drew on the work of Heider (1952).

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Uncertainty is unpleasant and therefore motivational; people communicate to reduce it. Uncertainty reduction follows a pattern of developmental stages (entry, personal, exit). During the entry stage information about another's sex, age, economic or social status, and other demographic information is obtained. Much of the interaction in this entry phase is controlled by communication rules and norms. When communicators begin to share attitudes, beliefs, values, and more personal data, the personal stage begins. During this phase, the communicators feel less constrained by rules and norms and tend to communicate more freely with each other. The third stage is the exit phase. During this phase, the communicators decide on future interaction plans. They may discuss or negotiate ways to allow the relationship to grow and continue. However, any particular conversation may be terminated and the end of the entry phase. This pattern is especially likely to occur during initial interaction, when people first meet or when new topics are introduced later in a relationship.

Besides the stages in uncertainty reduction patterns makes Berger a distinction between three basic ways people seek information about another person: (1) Passive strategies - a person is being observed, either in situations where the other person is likely to be self-monitoring* as in a classroom, or where the other person is likely to act more naturally as in the stands at a football game. (2) Active strategies - we ask others about the person we're interested in or try to set up a situation where we can observe that person (e.g., taking the same class, sitting a table away at dinner). Once the situation is set up we sometime observe (a passive strategy) or talk with the person (an interactive strategy). (3) Interactive strategies - we communicate directly with the person.
People seek to increase their ability to predict their partner's and their own behavior in situations. One other factor which reduces uncertainty between communicators is the degree of similarity individuals perceive in each other (in background, attitudes and appearance).
Statements: the axioms in URT follow the "If… then…" statements typical of the law-governed approach. For example: "If uncertainty levels are high, the amount of verbal communication between strangers will decrease."
*Self-monitoring is a behavior where we watch and strategically manipulate how we present ourselves to others.

Conceptual Model



Uncertainty Reduction Model
Source: Heath & Bryant (1999)

Favorite Methods
Observation.

Scope and Application
Organizational communication, society. Uncertainty reduction theory also applies at the organizational and societal levels (risk society).

Key publications

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5. Language Theories And Linguistics

1. Altercasting

A tactic for persuading people by forcing them in a social role, so that they will be inclined to behave according to that role.

History and orientation

Although the term altercasting is used quite frequently, it is not a very well-known or elaborated theory of persuasion.

Core assumptions

When a person accepts a certain social role, a number of social pressures are brought to bear to insure that the role is enacted. The social environment expects the person to behave in a manner that is consistent with the role; the role also provides the person with selective exposure to information consistent with the role.

Altercasting means that we 'force' an audience to accept a particular role that make them behave in the way we want them to behave.

There are two basic forms of altercasting:

- *Manded altercasting* means that we 'tell' people who they are (or are supposed to be) by making an existing role salient ('You as a Christian should....'), by placing others in a particular role ('You as a young ambitious person should ....'), by attributing a new identity or role to someone, or by asking people to play a role.
- *Tact altercasting* means that we put ourselves as senders in a role that 'evokes' a natural counter-role for the other. Some common role sets are for instance expert-unknowing public, fool - normal, helper - dependent, scapegoat - sinners, etc.

Altercasting is a powerful tactic because

- the social role is a basic unit in people's everyday condition;
- presenting oneself in a social role that can be used to cast the alter (tact altercasting) is relatively easy
- constructing roles that trap others in a course of action is also relatively easy;
- people often accept easily the social roles offered to them.
-

Conceptual model

Not applicable

Favorite methods

Experiments

Scope and application

The tactic is frequently used in advertising and health promotion

References

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2. Argumenation Theory

How People Argue

History and Orientation

Argumentation exists from way before the 19th century, where the Aristotle's logical theory is found first. This indicates that argumentation was an important factor already in society. Until the 1950s, the approach of argumentation was based on rhetoric and logic. In the United States debating and argumentation became an important subject on universities and colleges. Textbooks appeared on 'Principles of Argumentation' (Pierce, 1895). In the 1960s and 1970s Perelman and Toulmin were the most influential writers on argumentation. Perelman tried to find a description of techniques of argumentation used by people to obtain the approval of others for their opinions. Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca called this 'new rhetoric'. Toulmin, the other influential writer developed his theory (starting in 1950's) in order to explain how argumentation occurs in the natural process of an everyday argument. He called his theory 'the uses of argument'.

Argumentation theory cannot be seen as *the* theory for argumentation. Various authors have used the argumentation theory all in a slightly different way; it is not to say which version is the most developed.

Core Assumptions and Statements

'Argumentation is a verbal and social activity of reason aimed at increasing (or decreasing) the acceptability of a controversial standpoint for the listener or reader, by putting forward a constellation of propositions intended to justify (or refute) the standpoint before a rational judge' (Van Eemeren et al, 1996). Argumentation is a verbal activity, most often in an ordinary language. In argumentation people use words and sentences to argue, to state or to deny etc. Nonverbal communication is accompanied with verbal communication in argumentation and can play an important role. Furthermore, argumentation is a social activity, which in principle is directed to other people. Argumentation is also an activity of reason, when people put forward their arguments in argumentation they place their considerations within the realm of reason. Argumentation is always related to a standpoint. An opinion itself is not enough; arguments are needed when people differ on a standpoint. Finally, the goal of argumentation is to justify one's standpoint or to refute someone else's.

The version of Van Eemeren and Grootendorst of the argumentation theory, the pragma-dialectical theory, is currently most popular. They began to study argumentation as a means of resolving differences of opinion. Argumentation starts with four principles. 1) Externalization: Argumentation needs a standpoint and an opposition to the standpoint. Therefore, argumentation research concentrates on the externalizable commitments rather than the psychological elements of people. 2) Socialization: arguments are seen as an expression of people's processes. Crucial is to validate the arguer's position by arguments in a certain way.

Two people try to obtain an agreement in argumentation; therefore argumentation is part of a social context rather than an individual context. 3) Functionalization: Argumentation has the general function of managing the resolution of disagreement. Studying of argumentation should concentrate on the function of argumentation in the verbal management of disagreement. 4) Dialectification: Argumentation is appropriate only when you are able to use arguments that are able to help you arguing against another person. For resolving differences a theory on argumentation should have a set of standards. The term dialectical procedure is mentioned as a depending element on efficient arguing on solving differences.
Van Eemeren and Grootendorst identify various stages of argumentative dialogue. 1) Confrontation: Presentation of the problem, such as a debate question or a political disagreement. 2) Opening: Agreement on rules, such as for example, how evidence is to be presented, which sources of facts are to be used, how to handle divergent interpretations, determination of closing conditions. 3) Argumentation: Application of logical principles according to the agreed-upon rules. 4) Concluding: When closing conditions are met. These could be for example, a time limitation or the determination of an arbiter. Note that these stages are indispensable.

Argumentation analysis of persuasive messages
Schellens uses a typology which differentiates between restricted and unrestricted argumentation schemes. Restricted schemes are limited to a certain conclusion. The group restricted argumentation schemes can be divided into three different parts 1) Regularity-based argumentation (Schellens, 1985: 77-102): used in support of a descriptive statement about the present, the past or the future. Argumentation is given for a proposition of a factual or descriptive nature on the basis of a regularly recurring empirical link. 2) Rule-based argumentation (Schellens, 1985: 115-151; see also Gottlieb 1968 on rule-guided reasoning: used in support of a normative statement about the value of a situation or process. Arguments are given for a statement of a normative nature 3) Pragmatic argumentation: leading to a statement about the desirability of intended behavior. A position on the desirability of a given action, behavior or measure is advocated on the basis of its advantages and/or disadvantages. (Schellens, 1985: 153-178; see also Walton 1996: 75-77).
In addition to these restricted argumentation schemes, Schellens also distinguishes three unrestricted forms; argumentation from authority, argumentation from example and argumentation from analogy. These schemas are not limited to a conclusion of a type, but have a wider application.

Conceptual Model
Toulmin uses a model of argumentation for his ‘uses for argument’. See: Toulmin, S. *The Uses of Argument* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1958).

Favorite Methods
Observation, content/argument analysis.

Scope and Application

Argumentation theory is an interdisciplinary field which attracts attention from philosophers, logicians, linguists, legal scholars, speech communication theorists, etc. The theory is grounded in conversational, interpersonal communication, but also applies to group communication and written communication. De Jong & Schellens (2004) illustrate the possibilities of argumentation analysis in the context of public information.

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3. Classical Rhetoric

Effective Use Of Language: Persuasion

History and Orientation

The classical rhetoric is a combination of argumentation and persuasion. Rhetoric is a blend of classical systems by among others, three ancient Greek teachers: Plato, Isocrates (and the Sophists) and Aristotle. The ancient Greeks wondered about language, because they noticed that spoken or written text had a certain influence. It rapidly became apparent that the primary political skill of the age was the ability to speak effectively for one's interests. This demanded participation and demanded that citizens speak. Therefore decisions were made through deliberation and voting- both speech acts.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Rhetoric can be defined as 1) to perceive how language is at work orally and in writing, and 2) to become proficient in applying the resources of language in their own speaking and writing. In a way every utterance of a human is rhetoric, because all human utterances are speech-acts meant to persuade.

Discerning how language is working in others' or one's own writing and speaking, one must (artificially) divide form and content, *what* is being said and *how* this is said, because rhetoric examines so attentively the *how* of language, the methods and means of communication, it has sometimes been discounted as something only concerned with style or appearances, and not with the quality or content of communication.

Rhetoric has sometimes lived down to its critics, but as set forth from antiquity, rhetoric was a comprehensive art just as much concerned with *what* one could say as *how* one might say it. Indeed, a basic premise for rhetoric is the indivisibility of means from meaning; *how* one says something conveys meaning as much as *what* one says. Rhetoric studies the effectiveness of language comprehensively, including its emotional impact, as much as its propositional content.

Conceptual Model

Not applicable.

Scope and Application

Rhetorical can be used to persuade people. The Greeks noticed that the politically crucial skill of effective public speaking can be done with (classical) rhetoric.

Key publications

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4. Coordinated Management Of Meaning

People Construct Meaning On The Basis Of Exchanging Rules

History and Orientation

Pearce and Cronen (1980) developed the Coordinated Management of Meaning (CMM) theory. According to CMM, two people who are interacting socially, construct the meaning of their conversation. Each of the individuals is also comprised of an interpersonal system which helps explain their actions and reactions.

The CMM theory is related to a number of theories: (e.g.) Speech Act, Symbolic Interaction and Systems Theory.

Core Assumptions and Statements

The theory of CMM says basically that persons-in-conversation construct their own social realities. Pearce and Cronen (1980) believe that CMM is useful in our everyday lives. People within a social situation first want to understand what is going on and apply rules to figure things out. They act on the basis of their understanding, employing rules to decide what kind of action is appropriate.

Pearce and Cronen (1980) use the term 'making social worlds' in relation to CMM. People have a vision of what they think is needed, noble and good and also hate and fear certain things. People want to accomplish things in life and they hope to manage things whenever they are in conflict. Coordination is difficult when two people have different views; this is called different *logics of meaning and action.*

CMM is a rule based theory. *Constitutive rules* are essentially rules of meaning, used by communicators to interpret or understand an event or message. *Regulative rules* are essentially rules of action: they determine how to respond or behave.

In our language we pick out some things for our attention and not others. When we pay attention to certain events our language improves in writing and practice. CMM offers three

terms as a way of applying the communication perspective to the events and objects of our social worlds: coordination, coherence, and mystery.
Coordination directs our attention to the ways in which our actions come together to produce patterns. These patterns comprise the events and objects of the social world in which we live. Coordination suggests that all events and objects in our social worlds are constructed by interweaved activities of multiple persons.
Coherence directs our attention to the stories that we tell that make our lives meaningful. The construction of meaning is an inherent part of what it means to be human, and the 'story' is the primary form of this process. With this in mind, CMM suggests that we tell stories about many things, including our own individual and collective identity and the world around us. There is always a tension between the stories we tell to make the world coherent and stories we live as we coordinate with other people. CMM focuses on a powerful dynamic that accounts for the joys, frustrations, surprises and tragedies of social life.
The term *mystery* is used to remind us that there is more to life than the mere fact of daily existence. Pearce and Cronen (1980) believe that any attempt to reduce our lives to mere facts is a mistake and will ultimately fail. In other words mystery directs our attention to the fact that the universe is far bigger and subtler than any possible set of stories by which we can make it coherent. It makes sense to ask, of any social pattern, 'how is it made' and 'how might we remake it differently'.

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
Speec-act analysis and interaction-analysis.

Scope and Application
Pearce and Cronen (1980) present the CMM as a practical theory, designed to improve life.

Example
A public dialogue was held about how a Colombian city could achieve safety and prosperity. One participant made a suggestion that would involve the police. Before this person had finished speaking, another interrupted, shouting angrily, "The police? The police are corrupt!" Another shouted, with equal intensity, "No, they are not corrupt!"
This moment can be seen a point of creating social worlds. Our social worlds are created differently depending on what the facilitator does in this instance and how others act. The following statements show the creation of social worlds by the acts of speakers and others:
'If the police were not corrupt, what would be different?'
'I see that confidence in the police is important. Before we continue let's talk about this'.
Example from Pearce (2001) p 9-10.

Key publications

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5. Language Expectancy Theory

Effects Of Linguistic Variations On Persuasive Messages

History and Orientation

Brooks (1970) provided a spark to begin developing the Language Expectancy Theory. He had expectations about what a source might or might not say in persuasive messages. Burgoon, Jones and Stewart (1975) added the impact of linguistic strategies. They claimed that strategic linguistic choices can be significant predictors of persuasive success. In 1995 Burgoon provided a detailed version of the formulation of the Language Expectancy Theory.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Language Expectancy Theory is a formalized model about message strategies and attitude and behavior change. Message strategies include verbal aggressions like fear appeal, explicit opinions and language intensity which are more combat. Language Expectancy Theory assumes that language is a rule-governed system and people develop expectations concerning the language or message strategies employed by others in persuasive attempts (Burgoon, 1995). Expectations are a function of cultural and sociological norms and preferences arising from cultural values and societal standards or ideals for competent communication.

Language Expectancy Theory assumes that changes in the direction desired by an actor occur when positive violations of expectancies occur. Positive violations occur (a) when the enacted behavior is better or more preferred than that which was expected in the situation. Change occurs because enacted behavior is outside the bandwidth in a positive direction, and such behavior prompts attitude or behavioral change (Burgoon, 1995).

Positive violations occur (b) when negatively evaluated sources conform more closely than expected to cultural values or situational norms. This can result in overly positive evaluation of the source and change promoted by the actor (Burgoon, 1995).
Negative violations, resulting from language choices that lie outside socially acceptable behavior in a negative direction, produce no attitude or behavior change in receivers.

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
Laboratory research settings.

Scope and Application
The Language Expectancy Theory explains the effect of the use of different linguistic variations (language, language intensity) on people who use persuasive messages. It is used as a theoretical framework to explain the effects of several source, message and receiver variables on message persuasiveness. Persuasive messages are used often, with this theory the impact can be described of using different intensities in language.

Example
Even though people are informed about skin cancer prevention, they do not always comply with prevention advice. From Language Expectancy Theory, it was predicted that messages with high language intensity would improve compliance with sun safety recommendations and that this effect would be enhanced with deductive argument style. Parents received sun safety messages (newsletters, brochures, tip cards) by mail that varied in language intensity and logical style. Parents receiving messages with high- as opposed to low-intensity language complied more with sun safety advice. By carefully adjusting messages features, health professionals can obtain further compliance beyond that produced by educating people about health risks and creating favorable attitudes and self-efficacy expectations. Highly intense language may be a good general strategy in prevention messages.
Example from: Buller et al (2000)

Key publications

- Dillard, J.P. & Pfau, M. (2002). *The persuasion handbook: Developments in theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
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6. Model Of Text Comprehension

How People Comprehend Texts.

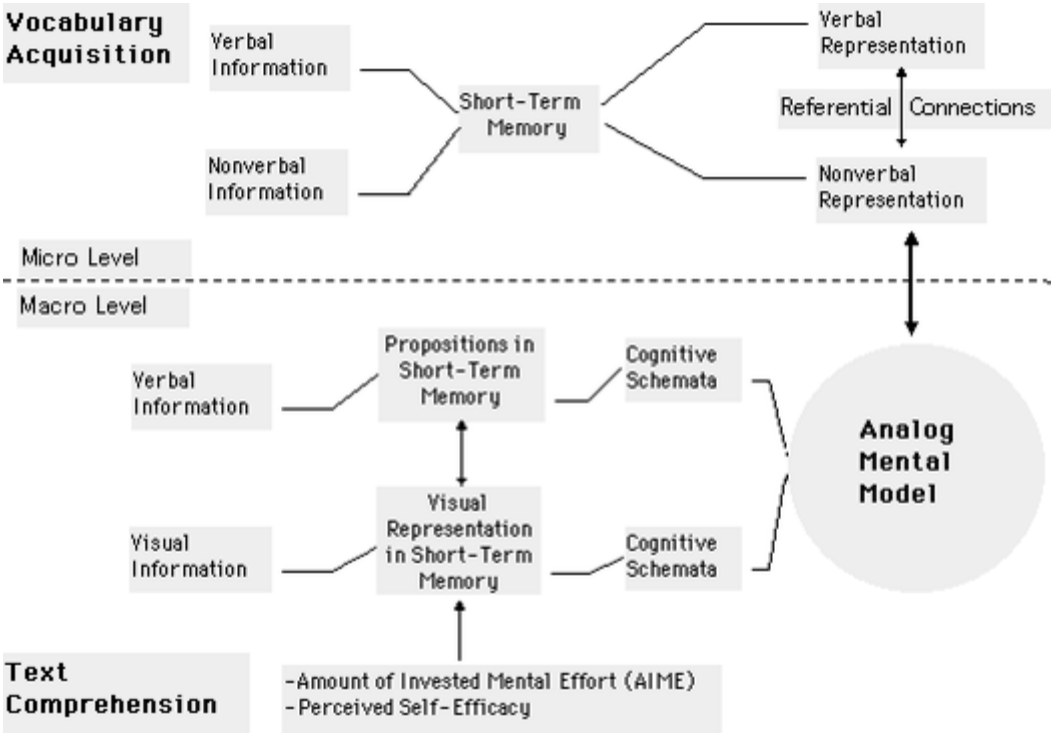
History and Orientation

A number of theories about reading exist in which different parts of the reading process are described: recognizing letters and words, syntactic parsing of sentences, understanding the meaning of words and sentences, incorporating the meaning of the text in other present knowledge about the same topic. One of the most influential theories is the theory of Kintsch and Van Dijk (Van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983). This theory describes the complete reading process, from recognizing words until constructing a representation of the meaning of the text. The emphasis of the theory is on understanding the meaning of a text. Kintsch continued working on the theory. In 1988, it was extended with the so-called construction-integration model (Kintsch, 1988), followed by a completely updated theory in 1998 (Kintsch, 1998). This theory is often used as a starting point for constructing own models and theories, which several authors have done.

Core Assumptions and Statements

When a reader reads a text, an "understanding" of the text is created in the reader's mind. The process of constructing a situation model is called the "comprehension process". Kintsch and van Dijk assume that readers of a text build three different mental representations of the text: a verbatim representation of the text, a semantic representation that describes the meaning of the text and a situational representation of the situation to which the text refers. The propositional representation consists initially of a list of propositions that are derived from the text. After having read a complete sentence, this list of propositions is transformed into a network of propositions. If the text is coherent, all nodes of the network are connected to each other. The situational representation is comparable with the mental models described by Johnson-Laird. Text comprehension can be improved by instruction that helps readers use specific comprehension strategies.

Conceptual Model



Source: Chun, M. (1997). Research on text comprehension in multimedia environments. Language Learning & Technology 1 (1): 60-81.

Scope and Application

Text comprehension can be used for studying how people comprehend text in a second language with the help of multimodal instructional materials.

Example

An example of reading ability is vocabulary knowledge: there may be a causal connection between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. Another example is related to a cognitive aspect. A learner selects relevant information from what is presented and constructs mental representations of the text. This process is moderated by individual differences, such as prior knowledge, abilities, preferences, strategies and effective factors.

Key publications

- Van Dijk, T. A., & Kintsch, W. (1983). *Strategies of discourse comprehension.* New York: Academic Press.
- Kintsch, W. & Van Dijk, T.A. (1978). Toward a model of text comprehension and production. *Psychological Review, 85 (5),* 363-394.
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7. Psycho-Linguistic Theory

Use Of Language Has Persuasive Power

There is no such thing as the Psycho-Linguistic Theory. Several theories are part of the field of Psycho-Linguistic.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Language is a product of reasoning and therefore accessible to general, rational analysis, i.e. in analogy to other cognitive functions. Cognitive linguistics can be seen as the modern instantiation of this view, regarding language-bound functionality of the brain as incorporated

and inextricably linked with other functions of the brain and being a learned ability, biologically / genetically based only on general-purpose "reasoning-mechanisms" of the brain. Applied in communication science this theory a.o. means that a particular use of language in messages has more or less persuasive power depending on a.o. the value system, the effort and the motivation of receivers. (Chomsky, Piaget, Vygotsky).
See for Chomsky: Natural (born) language.
See for Piaget & Vygotsky: theories on learning.

8. Speech Act

Understanding Speaker's Intention

(in Dutch: taalhandelingen)

History and Orientation

Speech act theory is built on the foundation laid by Wittgenstein and Austin. John Searle is most often associated with the theory. Ludwig Wittgenstein began a line of thought called 'ordinary language philosophy'. He taught that the meaning of language depends on its actual use. Language, as used in ordinary life, is a language game because it consists of rules. In other words, people follow rules to do things with the language.

Core Assumptions and Statements

According to Searle, to understand language one must understand the speaker's intention. Since language is intentional behavior, it should be treated like a form of action. Thus Searle refers to statements as speech acts. The speech act is the basic unit of language used to express meaning, an utterance that expresses an intention. Normally, the speech act is a sentence, but it can be a word or phrase as long as it follows the rules necessary to accomplish the intention. When one speaks, one performs an act. Speech is not just used to designate something, it actually does something. Speech act stresses the intent of the act as a whole. According to Searle, understanding the speaker's intention is essential to capture the meaning. Without the speaker's intention, it is impossible to understand the words as a speech act. There are four types of speech act: utterance acts, propositional acts (referring is a type of propositional act), illocutionary acts (promises, questions and commands) and perlocutionary acts. A perlocutionary act can be used to elicit some behavioral response from the listener. Searle believes that speakers perform acts by observing two types of rules: constitutive rules or definition rules (create or define new forms of behavior) and regulative or behavior rules (these rules govern types of behavior that already exist).

Conceptual Model

Not applicable.

Favorite Methods

Content and conversation analysis.

Scope and Application

Speech act theory has contributed to the rules perspective in communication because it provides a basis for examining what happens when speakers use different definition and behavior rules. By analyzing the rules used by each speaker, researchers can better understand why conversational misunderstandings have occurred.

Key publications

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6. Mass Media

1. Agenda Setting Theory

The Creation Of What The Public Thinks Is Important

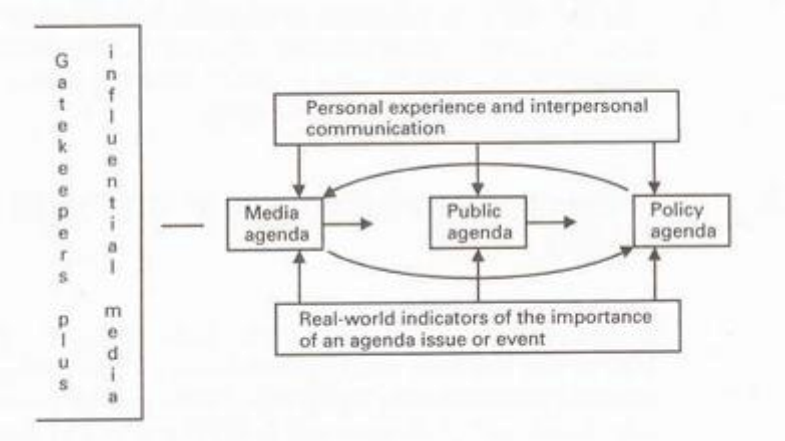
History and Orientation

Agenda setting describes a very powerful influence of the media – the ability to tell us what issues are important. As far back as 1922, the newspaper columnist Walter Lippman was concerned that the media had the power to present images to the public. McCombs and Shaw investigated presidential campaigns in 1968, 1972 and 1976. In the research done in 1968 they focused on two elements: awareness and information. Investigating the agenda-setting function of the mass media, they attempted to assess the relationship between what voters in one community said were important issues and the actual content of the media messages used during the campaign. McCombs and Shaw concluded that the mass media exerted a significant influence on what voters considered to be the major issues of the campaign.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Agenda-setting is the creation of public awareness and concern of salient issues by the news media. Two basis assumptions underlie most research on agenda-setting: (1) the press and the media do not reflect reality; they filter and shape it; (2) media concentration on a few issues and subjects leads the public to perceive those issues as more important than other issues. One of the most critical aspects in the concept of an agenda-setting role of mass communication is the time frame for this phenomenon. In addition, different media have different agenda-setting potential. Agenda-setting theory seems quite appropriate to help us understand the pervasive role of the media (for example on political communication systems).
Statement: Bernard Cohen (1963) stated: "The press may not be successful much of the time in telling people what to think, but it is stunningly successful in telling its readers what to think about."

Conceptual Model



Agenda-setting
Source: McQuail & Windahl (1993)

Favorite Methods
Content-analysis of media, interviews of audiences.

Scope and Application
Just as McCombs and Shaw expanded their focus, other researchers have extended investigations of agenda setting to issues including history, advertising, foreign, and medical news.

Example
McCombs and Shaw focused on the two elements: awareness and information. Investigating the agenda-setting function of the mass media in the 1968 presidential campaign, they attempted to assess the relationship between what voters in one community said were important issues and the actual content of media messages used during the campaign. McCombs and Shaw concluded that the mass media exerted a significant influence on what voters considered to be the major issues of the campaign.

Key publications

- Kleinnijenhuis, J. & Rietberg, E.M. (1995). Parties, media, the public and the economy: Patterns of societal agenda-setting. *European journal of political research: official journal of the European Consortium for Political Research, 28(1),* 95-118
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2. Priming

Media Effects

History and Orientation

Much attention in agenda-setting research, in the 80's, was focused on the concept of priming. This concept was derived from the cognitive psychological concept of priming.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Priming refers to enhancing the effects of the media by offering the audience a prior context – a context that will be used to interpret subsequent communication. The media serve to provide the audience with standards and frames of reference. Agenda-setting refers mainly to the importance of an issue; priming tells us whether something is good or bad, whether it is communicated effectively, etc. The media have primed the audience about what a news program looks like, what a credible person looks like, etc.

Conceptual Model

Not applicable.

Favorite Methods

Experiments, panel studies, cross-sectional field studies.

Scope and Application

News mass-media

Key publications

- Cappella, J.N., Fishbein, M., Hornik, R., Ahern, R.K., & Sayeed, S. (2001). Using theory to select messages in antidrug media campaigns: Reasoned action and media priming. In:Rice,
- R.E. & Atkin, C.K. (Eds.), *Public communication campaigns (214-230)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
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3. Framing

(Media) Or (People) Decide Where People Think About

also: framing in organizations

History and Orientation

The concept of framing is related to the agenda-setting tradition but expands the research by focusing on the essence of the issues at hand rather than on a particular topic. The basis of framing theory is that the media focuses attention on certain events and then places them within a field of meaning. Framing is an important topic since it can have a big influence and therefore the concept of framing expanded to organizations as well.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: The media draws the public attention to certain topics, it decides where people think about, the journalists select the topics. This is the original agenda setting 'thought'. In news items occurs more than only bringing up certain topics. The way in which the news is brought, the frame in which the news is presented, is also a choice made by journalists. Thus, a frame refers to the way media and media gatekeepers organize and present the events and issues they cover, and the way audiences interpret what they are provided. Frames are abstract notions that serve to organize or structure social meanings. Frames influence the perception of the news of the audience, this form of agenda-setting not only tells what to think about, but also how to think about it.

Framing in organizations

Core: Framing is a quality of communication that leads others to accept one meaning over another. It is a skill with profound effects on how organizational members understand and respond to the world in which they live. It is a skill that most successful leaders possess, yet one that is not often taught. According to Fairhurst & Sarr (1996) framing consists of three elements: language, thought and forethought. *Language* helps us to remember information and acts to transform the way in which we view situations. To use language, people must have *thought* and reflected on their own interpretive frameworks and those of others. Leaders must learn to frame spontaneously in certain circumstances. Being able to do so had to do with having the *forethought* to predict framing opportunities. In other words, one must plan in order to be spontaneous. (Deetz, Tracy & Simpson, 2000).

Framing

Statement: Media products are human products, constructs that the audience take for granted.

Framing in organizations

Orientation: Fairhurst and Sarr (1996) describe a lot of possibilities to frame situations. a) Metaphor: To give an idea or program a new meaning by comparing it to something else. b) Stories (myths and legends): To frame a subject by anecdote in a vivid and memorable way. c) Traditions (rites, rituals and ceremonies): To pattern and define an organization at regular time increments to confirm and reproduce organizational values. d) Slogans, jargon and catchphrases:

To frame a subject in a memorable and familiar fashion. e) Artifacts: To illuminate corporate values through physical vestiges (sometimes in a way language cannot). f) Contrast: To describe a subject in terms of what it is not. g) Spin: to talk about a concept so as to give it a positive or negative connotation. (Deetz, Tracy & Simpson, 2000).

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
In-depth interviews.

Scope and Application
All news (or information) providing media.

Example
Examples of much-used frames include the 'war on drugs', or a person's 'battle with cancer', or the 'cold war', phrases that elicit widely shared images and meanings.

Key publications
- Semetko, H. A., & Valkenburg, P. M. (2000). Framing European politics: A content analysis of press and television news. *Journal of Communication, 50*, 93-109.
- Overview of agenda setting research in *Journal of Communication* (1993). Symposium: agenda setting revisited. *43(2)*, 58-127.
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4. Cultivation Theory

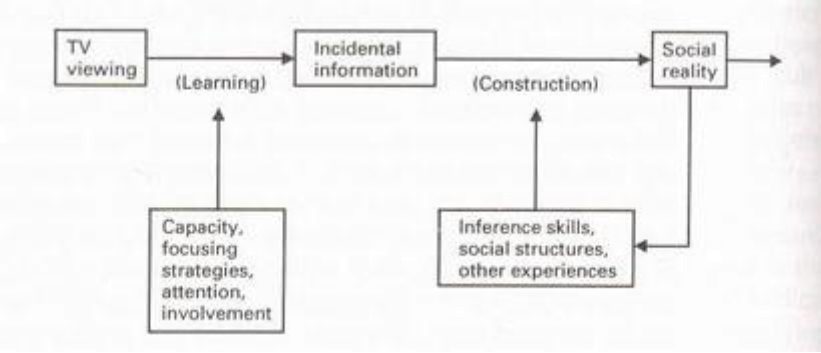
Television Shapes Concepts Of Social Reality

History and Orientation
With the decline of hypodermic needle theories a new perspective began to emerge: the stalagmite theories. Black et. al. used the metaphor of stalagmite theories to suggest that media effects occur analogously to the slow buildup of formations on cave floors, which take their interesting forms after eons of the steady dripping of limewater from the cave ceilings above. One of the most popular theories that fits this perspective is cultivation theory.
Cultivation theory (sometimes referred to as the cultivation hypothesis or cultivation analysis) was an approach developed by Professor George Gerbner, dean of the Annenberg School of Communications at the University of Pennsylvania. He began the 'Cultural Indicators' research project in the mid-1960s, to study whether and how watching television may influence viewers' ideas of what the everyday world is like. Cultivation research is in the 'effects' tradition. Cultivation theorists argue that television has long-term effects which are small, gradual, indirect but cumulative and significant.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Cultivation theory in its most basic form, suggests that television is responsible for shaping, or 'cultivating' viewers' conceptions of social reality. The combined effect of massive television exposure by viewers over time subtly shapes the perception of social reality for individuals and, ultimately, for our culture as a whole. Gerbner argues that the mass media cultivate attitudes and values which are already present in a culture: the media maintain and propagate these values amongst members of a culture, thus binding it together. He has argued that television tends to cultivate middle-of-the- road political perspectives. Gerbner called this effect 'mainstreaming'. Cultivation theorists distinguish between 'first order' effects (general beliefs about the everyday world, such as about the prevalence of violence) and 'second order' effects (specific attitudes, such as to law and order or to personal safety). There is also a distinction between two groups of television viewers: the heavy viewers and the light viewers. The focus is on 'heavy viewers'. People who watch a lot of television are likely to be more influenced by the ways in which the world is framed by television programs than are individuals who watch less, especially regarding topics of which the viewer has little first-hand experience. Light viewers may have more sources of information than heavy viewers. 'Resonance' describes the intensified effect on the audience when what people see on television is what they have experienced in life. This double dose of the televised message tends to amplify the cultivation effect.

Conceptual Model



Cultivation Theory
Source: Hawkins and Pingree (1983)

Favorite Methods

Cultivation analysis usually involves the correlation of data from content analysis (identifying prevailing images on television) with survey data from audience research (to assess any influence of such images on the attitudes of viewers). Audience research by cultivation theorists involves asking large-scale public opinion poll organizations to include in their national surveys questions regarding such issues as the amount of violence in everyday life. Answers are interpreted as reflecting either the world of television or that of everyday life. The answers are then related to the amount of television watched, other media habits and demographic data such as sex, age, income and education.

Scope and Application

Cultivation research looks at the mass media as a socializing agent and investigates whether television viewers come to believe the television version of reality the more they watch it.

Example

In a survey of about 450 New Jersey schoolchildren, 73 percent of heavy viewers compared to 62 percent of light viewers gave the TV answer to a question asking them to estimate the number of people involved in violence in a typical week. The same survey showed that children who were heavy viewers were more fearful about walking alone in a city at night. They also overestimated the number of people who commit serious crimes. This effect is called 'mean world syndrome'. One controlled experiment addressed the issue of cause and effect, manipulating the viewing of American college students to create heavy- and light-viewing groups. After 6 weeks of controlled viewing, heavy viewers of action-adventure programs were indeed found to be more fearful of life in the everyday world than were light viewers.

Key publications

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- Condry, John (1989). *The Psychology of Television*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Dominick, Joseph R. (1990). *The Dynamics of Mass Communication*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
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- Stappers, J.G. (1984) De eigen aard van televisie; tien stellingen over cultivatie en culturele indicatoren. *Massacommunicatie 12(5-6)*, 249-258.

5. Dependency Theory

Media Depends On The Social Context

(or: Media System Dependency Theory)

History and Orientation

Dependency theory was originally proposed by Sandra Ball-Rokeach and Melvin DeFleur (1976). This theory merged out of the communication discipline.

Dependency theory integrates several perspectives: first, it combines perspectives from psychology with ingredients from social categories theory. Second, it integrates systems

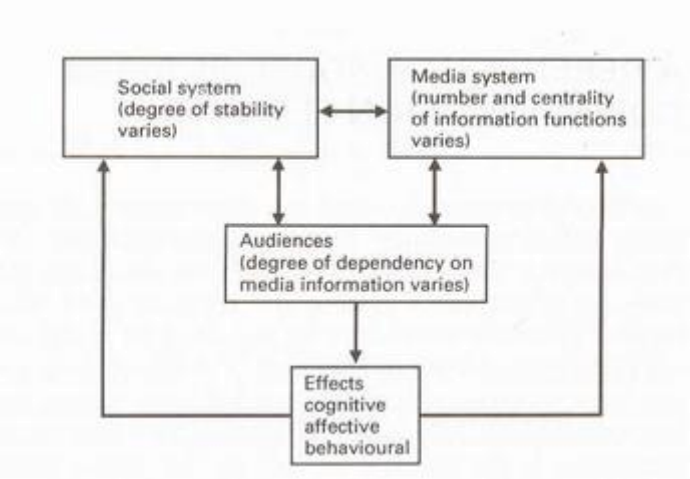
perspectives with elements from more causal approaches. Third, it combines elements of uses and gratifications research with those of media effects traditions, although its primary focus is less on effects per se than on rationales for why media effects typically are limited. Finally, a contextualist philosophy is incorporated into the theory, which also features traditional concerns with the content of media messages and their effects on audiences. Research generated by this model had tends to be more descriptive than explanatory or predictive.

Core Assumptions and Statements

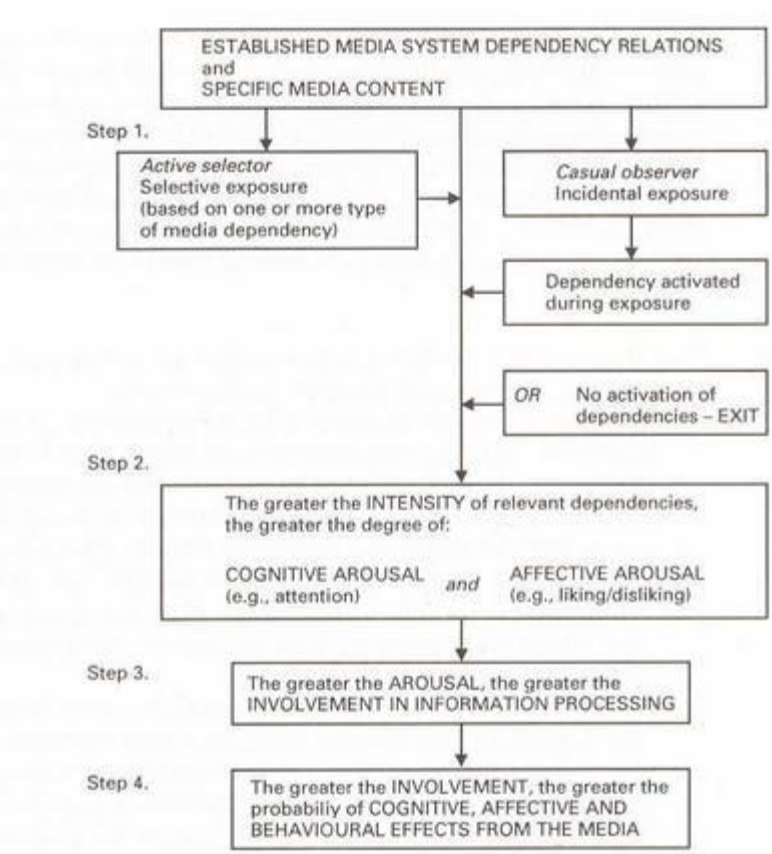
Dependency theory proposes an integral relationship among audiences, media and the larger social system. This theory predicts that you depend on media information to meet certain needs and achieve certain goals, like uses-and-gratifications theory. But you do not depend on all media equally. Two factors influence the degree of media dependence. First, you will become more dependent on media that meet a number of your needs than on media that provide just a few. The second source of dependency is social stability. When social change and conflict are high, established institutions, beliefs, and practices are challenged, forcing you to reevaluate and make new choices. At such times your reliance on the media for information will increase. At other, more stable times your dependency on media may go way down.

One's needs are not always strictly personal but may be shaped by the culture or by various social conditions. In other words, individuals' needs, motives, and uses of media are contingent on outside factors that may not be in the individuals' control. These outside factors act as constraints on what and how media can be used and on the availability of other non-media alternatives. Furthermore, the more alternatives and individual had for gratifying needs, the less dependent he or she will become on any single medium. The number of functional alternatives, however, is not just a matter of individual choice or even of psychological traits but is limited also by factors such as availability of certain media.

Conceptual Model



This model is the general idea of the dependency theory.
Source: Ball-Rokeach & DeFleur (1976)



This model is more elaborated and shows more specific effects of the dependency theory.
Source: DeFleur & Ball Rokeach (1989)

Scope and Application

Mass media (at micro, meso, macro level: individuals, interpersonal networks, organizations, social systems and societies).

Key publications

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6. Hypodermic Needle Theory

Direct Influence Via Mass Media

Or: Magic Bullet Theory

(in Dutch also known as: 'almacht van de media-theorie', stimulus-response, injectienaald, transportband, lont in het kruidvat theorie).

History and Orientation

The "hypodermic needle theory" implied mass media had a *direct, immediate* and *powerful* effect on its audiences. The mass media in the 1940s and 1950s were perceived as a powerful influence on behavior change.

Several factors contributed to this "strong effects" theory of communication, including:

- the fast rise and popularization of radio and television
- the emergence of the persuasion industries, such as advertising and propaganda
- the Payne Fund studies of he 1930s, which focused on the impact of motion pictures on children, and Hitler's monopolization of the mass media during WWII to unify the German public behind the Nazi party

Core Assumptions and Statements

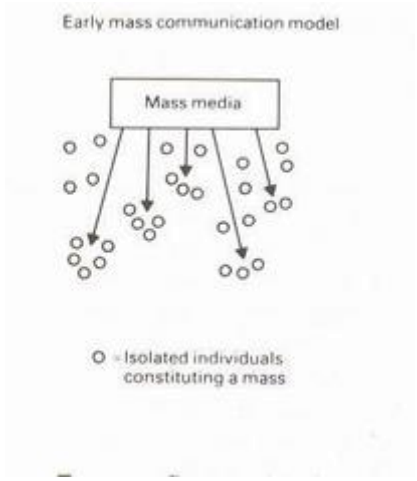
The theory suggests that the mass media could influence a very large group of people directly and uniformly by 'shooting' or 'injecting' them with appropriate messages designed to trigger a desired response.

Both images used to express this theory (a bullet and a needle) suggest a powerful and direct flow of information from the sender to the receiver. The bullet theory graphically suggests that the message is a bullet, fired from the "media gun" into the viewer's "head". With similarly emotive imagery the hypodermic needle model suggests that media messages are injected straight into a passive audience which is immediately influenced by the message. They express the view that the media is a dangerous means of communicating an idea because the receiver or audience is powerless to resist the impact of the message. There is no escape from the effect of the message in these models. The population is seen as a sitting duck. People are seen as passive and are seen as having a lot of media material "shot" at them. People end up thinking what they are told because there is no other source of information.

New assessments that the Magic Bullet Theory was not accurate came out of election studies in *"The People's Choice,"* (Lazarsfeld, Berelson and Gaudet, 1944/1968). The project was conducted during the election of Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1940 to determine voting patterns and the relationship between the media and political behavior. The majority of people remained untouched by the propaganda; interpersonal outlets brought more influence than the media. The effects of the campaign were not all-powerful to where they persuaded helpless audiences uniformly and directly, which is the very definition of what the magic bullet theory does. As focus group testing, questionnaires, and other methods of marketing effectiveness testing came

into widespread use; and as more interactive forms of media (e.g.: internet, radio call-in shows, etc.) became available, the magic bullet theory was replaced by a variety of other, more instrumental models, like the two step of flow theory and diffusion of innovations theory.

Conceptual Model



Magic bullet theory model
Source: Katz & Lazarsfeld (1955)

Scope and Application
Mass media.

Example
The classic example of the application of the Magic Bullet Theory was illustrated on October 30, 1938 when Orson Welles and the newly formed Mercury Theater group broadcasted their radio edition of H.G. Wells' *"War of the Worlds."* On the eve of Halloween, radio programming was interrupted with a "news bulletin" for the first time. What the audience heard was that Martians had begun an invasion of Earth in a place called Grover's Mill, New Jersey.
It became known as the *"Panic Broadcast"* and changed broadcast history, social psychology, civil defense and set a standard for provocative entertainment. Approximately 12 million people in the United States heard the broadcast and about one million of those actually believed that a serious alien invasion was underway. A wave of mass hysteria disrupted households, interrupted religious services, caused traffic jams and clogged communication systems. People fled their city homes to seek shelter in more rural areas, raided grocery stores and began to ration food. The nation was in a state of chaos, and this broadcast was the cause of it.
Media theorists have classified the *"War of the Worlds"* broadcast as the archetypal example of the Magic Bullet Theory. This is exactly how the theory worked, by injecting the message directly into the "bloodstream" of the public, attempting to create a uniform thinking. The effects of the broadcast suggested that the media could manipulate a passive and gullible public, leading theorists to believe this was one of the primary ways media authors shaped audience perception.

Key publications

- Davis, D.K. & Baron, S.J. (1981). A History of Our Understanding of Mass Communication. In: Davis, D.K. & Baron, S.J. (Eds.). *Mass Communication and Everyday Life: A Perspective on Theory and Effects (19-52*). Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing.
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7. Knowledge Gap

Increasing Gap Between Higher And Lower Educated People

History and Orientation

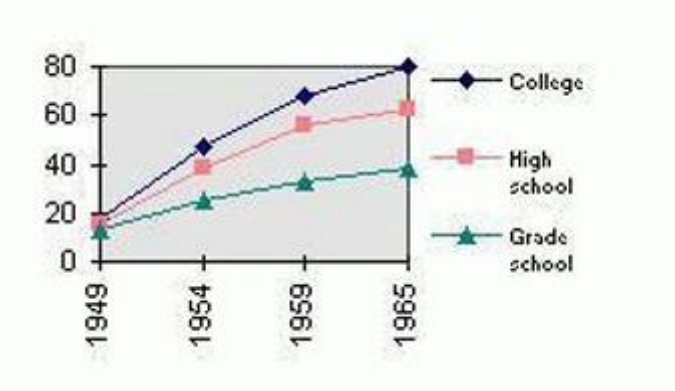
The knowledge gap theory was first proposed by Tichenor, Donohue and Olien at the University of Minnesota in the 70s. They believe that the increase of information in society is not evenly acquired by every member of society: people with higher socioeconomic status tend to have better ability to acquire information (Weng, S.C. 2000). This leads to a division of two groups: a group of better-educated people who know more about most things, and those with low education who know less. Lower socio-economic status (SES) people, defined partly by educational level, have little or no knowledge about public affairs issues, are disconnected from news events and important new discoveries, and usually aren't concerned about their lack of knowledge.

Core Assumptions and Statements

The knowledge gap can result in an increased gap between people of lower and higher socioeconomic status. The attempt to improve people's life with information via the mass media might not always work the way this is planned. Mass media might have the effect of increasing the difference gap between members of social classes.

Tichenor, Donohue and Olien (1970) present five reasons for justifying the knowledge gap. 1) People of higher socioeconomic status have better communication skills, education, reading, comprehending and remembering information. 2) People of higher socioeconomic status can store information more easily or remember the topic form background knowledge 3) People of higher socioeconomic status might have a more relevant social context. 4) People of higher socioeconomic status are better in selective exposure, acceptance and retention. 5) The nature of the mass media itself is that it is geared toward persons of higher socioeconomic status.

Conceptual Model



Source: Tichenor, Donohue and Olien, 1970.
This example shows that education level or socioeconomic status made a difference in knowledge. The question was whether or not respondents felt astronauts would ever reach the moon. Those with high levels of education (based on three levels: grade school, high school and college) were more likely to agree that man would reach the moon than those with lower levels of education both at a certain point in time and over all four intervals. Most important was that the gap between levels widened over time in that the percentage of respondents in the high education level who agreed rose more than 60 percentage points over 16 years while those in the low level of education category rose less than 25 percentage points.

Favorite Methods
Surveys of mass media and tests of knowledge.

Scope and Application
Media presenting information should realize that people of higher socioeconomic status get their information in a different way than lower educated people. Furthermore, this hypothesis of the knowledge gap might help in understanding the increased gap between people of higher socioeconomic status and people of lower socioeconomic status. It can be used in various circumstances.

Example
The knowledge gap was used in a research for presidential campaigns. The knowledge gap hypothesis holds that when new information enters a social system via a mass media campaign, it is likely to exacerbate underlying inequalities in previously held information. Specifically, while

people from all strata may learn new information as a result of a mass media campaign, those with higher levels of education are likely to learn more than those with low levels of education, and the informational gap between the two groups will expand. The results of the analysis show that knowledge gaps do not always grow over the course of presidential campaigns and that some events, such as debates, may actually reduce the level of information inequality in the electorate.
Source: Holbrook (2002)

Key publications

- Severin, W.J. & Tankard, J.W. (2001). *Communication Theories (5th Ed.) Origins, Methods and Uses in the Mass Media.* Addison Wesley Longman.
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- Weng, Sho-chi (2000). Mass Communication Theory and Practice. Taipei: San-ming.

8. Media Richness Theory

A Medium Fits With A Task

History and Orientation

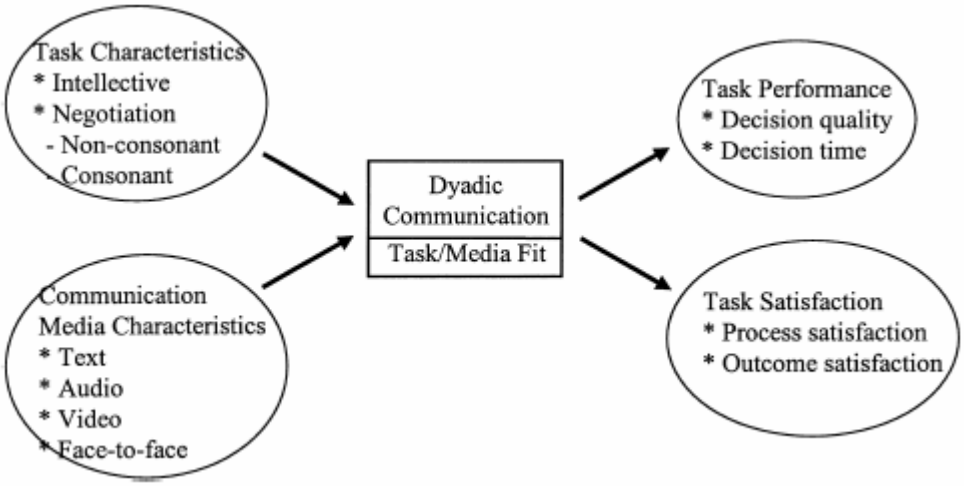
Media richness theory is based on contingency theory and information processing theory (Galbraith 1977). First proponents of the theory were made by Daft & Lengel (1984).

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Researchers Daft, Lengel and successors propose that communication media have varying capacities for resolving ambiguity, negotiating varying interpretations, and facilitating understanding.

Two main assumptions of this theory are: people want to overcome equivocality and uncertainty in organizations and a variety of media commonly used in organizations work better for certain tasks than others. Using four criteria, Daft and Lengel present a media richness hierarchy, arranged from high to low degrees of richness, to illustrate the capacity of media types to process ambiguous communication in organizations. The criteria are (a) the availability of instant feedback; (b) the capacity of the medium to transmit multiple cues such as body language, voice tone, and inflection; (c) the use of natural language; and (d) the personal focus of the medium. Face-to-face communication is the richest communication medium in the hierarchy followed by telephone, electronic mail, letter, note, memo, special report, and finally, flier and bulletin. From a strategic management perspective, the media richness theory suggests that effective managers make rational choices matching a particular communication medium to a specific task or objective and to the degree of richness required by that task (Trevino, Daft, & Lengel, 1990, in Soy, 2001).

Conceptual Model



Media richness model
Source: Suh (1999)

Favorite Methods
Content analysis.

Scope and Application
All sorts of media.

Key publications

- Daft, R.L. & Lengel, R.H. (1984). Information richness: a new approach to managerial behavior and organizational design. In: Cummings, L.L. & Staw, B.M. (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior 6, (191-233)*. Homewood, IL: JAI Press.
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9. Medium Theory

The Medium Affects Perception

(also known as channel theory, or media formalism)

History and Orientation

McLuhan (1964) challenged conventional definitions when he claimed that the medium is the message. With this claim, he stressed how channels differ, not only in terms of their content, but also in regard to how they awaken and alter thoughts and senses. He distinguished media by the cognitive processes each required. McLuhan popularized the idea that channels are a dominant force that must be understood to know how the media influence society and culture.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Medium theory focuses on the medium characteristics itself (like in media richness theory) rather than on what it conveys or how information is received. In medium theory, a medium is not simply a newspaper, the Internet, a digital camera and so forth. Rather, it is the symbolic environment of any communicative act. Media, apart from whatever content is transmitted, impact individuals and society. McLuhan's thesis is that people adapt to their environment through a certain balance or ratio of the senses, and the primary medium of the age brings out a particular sense ratio, thereby affecting perception.
Statement: Some of the metaphors used by McLuhan are: The medium is the message! The medium is the massage. We live in a mess-age. The content of a new medium is an old medium.

Conceptual Model

Not applicable.

Favorite Methods

Medium theory is an analytical theory with few empirical model building. Some of the methods used are: analysis of media characteristics and historical analysis of human perception.

Scope and Application

Medium theory examines physical, psychological and social variables as the senses that are required to attend to the medium; whether the communication is bi-directional or uni-directional, how quickly messages can be disseminated, whether learning to encode and decode in the medium is difficult or simple, how many people can attend to the same message at the same moment, and so forth. Medium theorists argue that such variables influence the medium's use and its social, political, and psychological impact.

Key publications

- Innis, H. (1964). *The Bias of Communication*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
- Innis, H. (1972). *Empire and Communications*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
- McLuhan, M. (1964). *Understanding media: The extentions of men*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
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10. Spiral Of Silence

Formation Of Public Opinion

History and Orientation

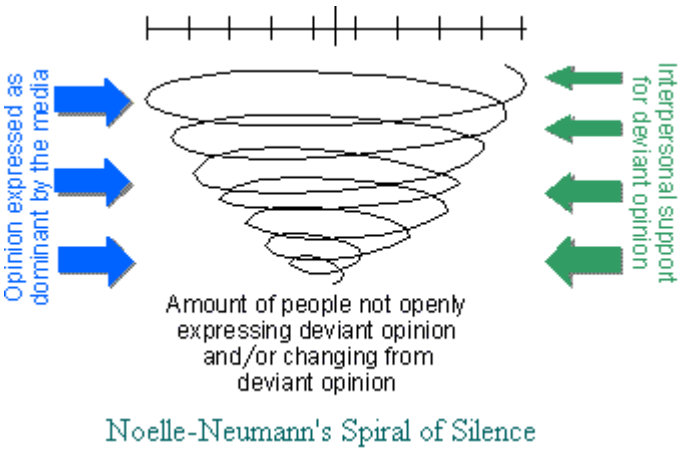
Neumann (1974) introduced the "spiral of silence" as an attempt to explain in part how public opinion is formed. She wondered why the Germans supported wrong political positions that led to national defeat, humiliation and ruin in the 1930s-1940s.

Core Assumptions and Statements

The phrase "spiral of silence" actually refers to how people tend to remain silent when they feel that their views are in the minority. The model is based on three premises: 1) people have a "quasi-statistical organ," a sixth-sense if you will, which allows them to know the prevailing public opinion, even without access to polls, 2) people have a fear of isolation and know what behaviors will increase their likelihood of being socially isolated, and 3) people are reticent to express their minority views, primarily out of fear of being isolated.

The closer a person believes the opinion held is similar to the prevailing public opinion, the more they are willing to openly disclose that opinion in public. Then, if public sentiment changes, the person will recognize that the opinion is less in favor and will be less willing to express that opinion publicly. As the perceived distance between public opinion and a person's personal opinion grows, the more unlikely the person is to express their opinion.

Conceptual Model



Source: Noelle-Neumann (1991).

Scope and Application

It is related to the mass media, in such a way that mass media influences public opinion. Shifts in public opinion occur commonly and therefore this theory is used to search an explanation for behavior (speak up or stay silent).

The theory has also been criticized for ambiguity and methodological weakness, but the idea has persisted. Evidence of the spiral effect is usually small but significant.

Example

This example shows an effect of the theory where during the 1991 Gulf War the U.S. support for the war was measured. Either it is a consensus view or did media coverage contribute to a spiral of silence that dampened opposition to the war? In a survey that asked about people's opinions, respondents were clearly less supportive of the war than the popular support depicted by the media. Those who watched television and perceived that the public supported the war, were more likely tot support the war themselves. This study supports the spiral of silence and suggests that people are swayed by bandwagon effects rather than fearing social isolation.

Key publications

- Glynn, J.C., Hayes, F.A. & Shanahan, J. (1997). "Perceived support for ones opinions sand willingness to speak out: A meta-analysis of survey studies on the 'spiral of silence'" *Public Opinion Quarterly 61* (3):452-463.
- Glynn, J.C. & McLeod, J. (1984). "Public opinion du jour: An examination of the spiral of silence, " *Public Opinion Quarterly 48* (4):731-740.
- Noelle-Neumann, E. (1984). *The Spiral of Silence: Public Opinion -- Our social skin.*Chicago: University of Chicago.
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11. Two Step Flow Theory

Influence Of Media Messages

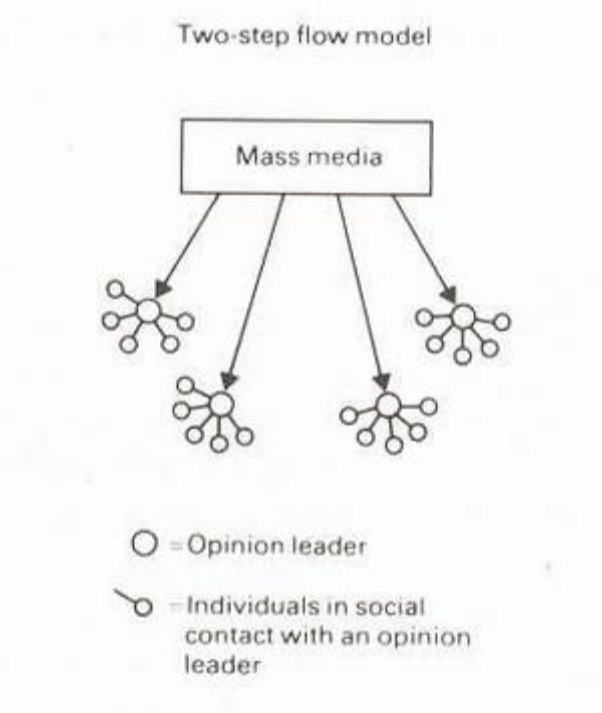
History and Orientation

The two-step flow of communication hypothesis was first introduced by Paul Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet in *The People's Choice,* a 1944 study focused on the process of decision-making during a Presidential election campaign. These researchers expected to find empirical support for the direct influence of media messages on voting intentions. They were surprised to discover, however, that informal, personal contacts were mentioned far more frequently than exposure to radio or newspaper as sources of influence on voting behavior. Armed with this data, Katz and Lazarsfeld developed the two-step flow theory of mass communication.

Core Assumptions and Statements

This theory asserts that information from the media moves in two distinct stages. First, individuals (opinion leaders) who pay close attention to the mass media and its messages receive the information. Opinion leaders pass on their own interpretations in addition to the actual media content. The term ‘personal influence’ was coined to refer to the process intervening between the media’s direct message and the audience’s ultimate reaction to that message. Opinion leaders are quite influential in getting people to change their attitudes and behaviors and are quite similar to those they influence. The two-step flow theory has improved our understanding of how the mass media influence decision making. The theory refined the ability to predict the influence of media messages on audience behavior, and it helped explain why certain media campaigns may have failed to alter audience attitudes an behavior. The two-step flow theory gave way to the multi-step flow theory of mass communication or diffusion of innovation theory.

Conceptual Model



Source: Katz & Lazarsfeld (1955)

Favorite Methods

To be added.

Scope and Application

All kinds of mass media can be researched with this theory (TV, radio, internet).

Key publications

- Lazarsfeld, P.F., Berelson, B. & Gaudet, H. (1944). *The people's choice: How the voter makes up his mind in a presidential campaign*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Katz, E., & Lazarsfeld, P. (1955), *Personal Influence,* New York: The Free Press.
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12. Uses And Gratifications Approach

Explaining Of Media Use

History and Orientation

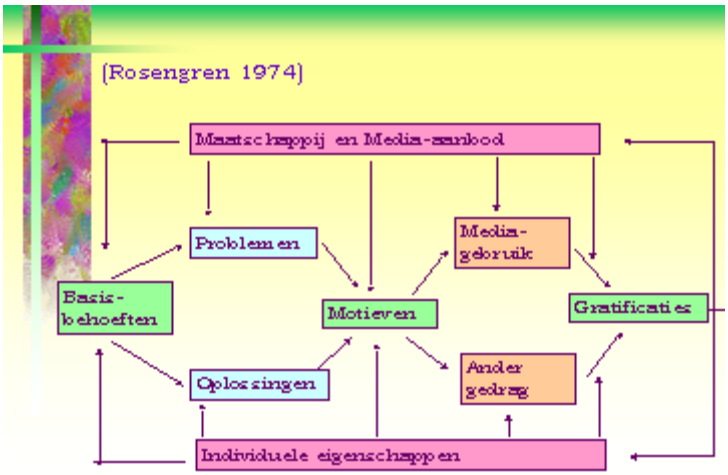
Originated in the 1970s as a reaction to traditional mass communication research emphasizing the sender and the message. Stressing the active audience and user instead. Psychological orientation taking needs, motives and gratifications of media users as the main point of departure.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Uses and gratifications theory attempts to explain the uses and functions of the media for individuals, groups, and society in general. There are three objectives in developing uses and gratifications theory: 1) to explain how individuals use mass communication to gratify their needs. "What do people do with the media". 2) to discover underlying motives for individuals' media use. 3) to identify the positive and the negative consequences of individual media use. At the core of uses and gratifications theory lies the assumption that audience members actively seek out the mass media to satisfy individual needs.

Statement: A medium will be used more when the existing motives to use the medium leads to more satisfaction.

Conceptual Model



Source: Rosengren (1974)

Favorite Methods

Qualitative and quantitative questionnaires and observations among individual users of media. Demographics, usage patterns, rating scales of needs, motivation and gratification

Scope and Application

Scope: the acceptance and use of new and old media and media content according to the needs of the users/receivers.
Application: all users and receivers research; adopting innovations.

Example
Leung, L. & Wei, R. (2000). More than just talk on the move: Uses and Gratifications of the Cellular Phone, *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 77(2),* 308-320.
Mobility, immediacy and instrumentality are found to be the strongest instrumental motives in predicting the use of cellular phones, followed by intrinsic factors such as affection/sociability. Based on survey research in Hong Kong 1999.

Overview
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7. Media, Culture And Society

1. Altercasting

A tactic for persuading people by forcing them in a social role, so that they will be inclined to behave according to that role.

History and orientation

Although the term altercasting is used quite frequently, it is not a very well-known or elaborated theory of persuasion.

Core assumptions

When a person accepts a certain social role, a number of social pressures are brought to bear to insure that the role is enacted. The social environment expects the person to behave in a manner that is consistent with the role; the role also provides the person with selective exposure to information consistent with the role.

Altercasting means that we 'force' an audience to accept a particular role that make them behave in the way we want them to behave.

There are two basic forms of altercasting:

- *Manded altercasting* means that we 'tell' people who they are (or are supposed to be) by making an existing role salient ('You as a Christian should....'), by placing others in a particular role ('You as a young ambitious person should ....'), by attributing a new identity or role to someone, or by asking people to play a role.
- *Tact altercasting* means that we put ourselves as senders in a role that 'evokes' a natural counter-role for the other. Some common role sets are for instance expert-unknowing public, fool - normal, helper - dependent, scapegoat - sinners, etc.
- Altercasting is a powerful tactic because
- the social role is a basic unit in people's everyday condition;
- presenting oneself in a social role that can be used to cast the alter (tact altercasting) is relatively easy
- constructing roles that trap others in a course of action is also relatively easy;
- people often accept easily the social roles offered to them.
-

Conceptual model

Not applicable

Favorite methods

Experiments

Scope and application

The tactic is frequently used in advertising and health promotion

References

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2. Domestication

History and Orientation

Households are seen as part of a transactional system of economic and social relations within the formal or more objective economy and society of the public sphere. Within this framework households are seen as being actively engaged with the products and meanings of this formal, commodity- and individual based economy. This engagement involved the appropriation of the commodities into domestic culture – they are domesticated – and through that appropriation they are incorporated and redefined in different terms, in accordance with the household's own values and interests.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Domestication deals with the cultural, social and technological networks of the everyday life of households. The meanings and significance of all our media and information products depend on the participation of the user (Silverstone, 1996).

Four phases describe the concept of domestication.

1) Appropriation: When a technology leaves the world of commodity it is appropriated. Then it can be taken by an individual or a household and owned. From this perspective appropriation stands for the whole process of consumption as well as for that moment at which an object crosses the threshold between the formal and the moral economics. (Miller, 1988).
2) Objectification: this is expressed in usage but also in psychical dispositions of objects in the spatial environment of the home (living room). It is also expressed in the construction as the environment as such. All technologies have the potential to be appropriated into an aesthetic environment. Many are purchased as much for their appearance of the home as for their functional significance.
3) Incorporation: The ways in which objects, especially technologies are used. Technologies are functional. They may be bought with other features in mind and indeed serve other cultural purposes in appropriation. They may indeed become functional in ways somewhat removed from the intentions of designers or marketers. Technologies also may have many functions.
4) Conversion: defines the relationship between the household and the outside world. It may happen that technologies pass the household defines and claims itself and it members in the 'wider society'.

Conceptual Model

Not applicable.

Favorite Methods

Observation, longitudinal, in dept-interviews.

Scope and Application

The domestication approach can be used to describe technological change in a wide range: from households to institutional settings.

Domestication provides a network for an understanding of the complex interrelationships of cultures and technologies as they emerge in institutions and individuals.

Example

See Bergman (1997) for example.

Key publications

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3. Cultivation Theory

Television Shapes Concepts Of Social Reality

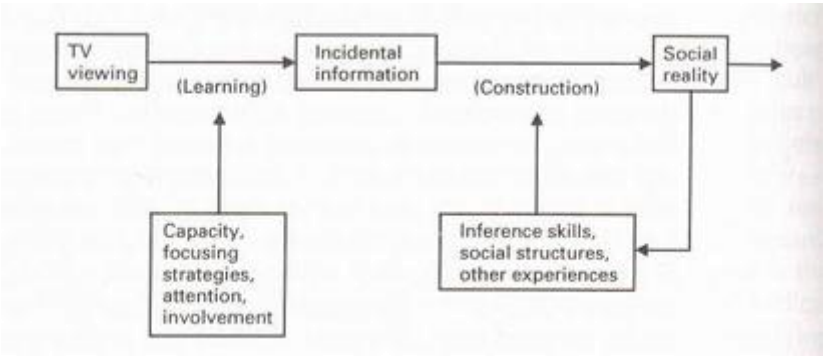
History and Orientation

With the decline of hypodermic needle theories a new perspective began to emerge: the stalagmite theories. Black et. al. used the metaphor of stalagmite theories to suggest that media effects occur analogously to the slow buildup of formations on cave floors, which take their interesting forms after eons of the steady dripping of limewater from the cave ceilings above. One of the most popular theories that fits this perspective is cultivation theory. Cultivation theory (sometimes referred to as the cultivation hypothesis or cultivation analysis) was an approach developed by Professor George Gerbner, dean of the Annenberg School of Communications at the University of Pennsylvania. He began the 'Cultural Indicators' research project in the mid-1960s, to study whether and how watching television may influence viewers' ideas of what the everyday world is like. Cultivation research is in the 'effects' tradition. Cultivation theorists argue that television has long-term effects which are small, gradual, indirect but cumulative and significant.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Cultivation theory in its most basic form, suggests that television is responsible for shaping, or 'cultivating' viewers' conceptions of social reality. The combined effect of massive television exposure by viewers over time subtly shapes the perception of social reality for individuals and, ultimately, for our culture as a whole. Gerbner argues that the mass media cultivate attitudes and values which are already present in a culture: the media maintain and propagate these values amongst members of a culture, thus binding it together. He has argued that television tends to cultivate middle-of-the- road political perspectives. Gerbner called this effect 'mainstreaming'. Cultivation theorists distinguish between 'first order' effects (general beliefs about the everyday world, such as about the prevalence of violence) and 'second order' effects (specific attitudes, such as to law and order or to personal safety). There is also a distinction between two groups of television viewers: the heavy viewers and the light viewers. The focus is on 'heavy viewers'. People who watch a lot of television are likely to be more influenced by the ways in which the world is framed by television programs than are individuals who watch less, especially regarding topics of which the viewer has little first-hand experience. Light viewers may have more sources of information than heavy viewers. 'Resonance' describes the intensified effect on the audience when what people see on television is what they have experienced in life. This double dose of the televised message tends to amplify the cultivation effect.

Conceptual Model



Cultivation Theory
Source: Hawkins and Pingree (1983)

Favorite Methods

Cultivation analysis usually involves the correlation of data from content analysis (identifying prevailing images on television) with survey data from audience research (to assess any influence of such images on the attitudes of viewers). Audience research by cultivation theorists involves asking large-scale public opinion poll organizations to include in their national surveys questions regarding such issues as the amount of violence in everyday life. Answers are interpreted as reflecting either the world of television or that of everyday life. The answers are then related to the amount of television watched, other media habits and demographic data such as sex, age, income and education.

Scope and Application

Cultivation research looks at the mass media as a socializing agent and investigates whether television viewers come to believe the television version of reality the more they watch it.

Example

In a survey of about 450 New Jersey schoolchildren, 73 percent of heavy viewers compared to 62 percent of light viewers gave the TV answer to a question asking them to estimate the number of people involved in violence in a typical week. The same survey showed that children who were heavy viewers were more fearful about walking alone in a city at night. They also overestimated the number of people who commit serious crimes. This effect is called 'mean world syndrome'. One controlled experiment addressed the issue of cause and effect, manipulating the viewing of American college students to create heavy- and light-viewing groups. After 6 weeks of controlled viewing, heavy viewers of action-adventure programs were indeed found to be more fearful of life in the everyday world than were light viewers.

Key publications

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4. Dependency Theory

Media Depends On The Social Context

(or: Media System Dependency Theory)

History and Orientation

Dependency theory was originally proposed by Sandra Ball-Rokeach and Melvin DeFleur (1976). This theory merged out of the communication discipline.

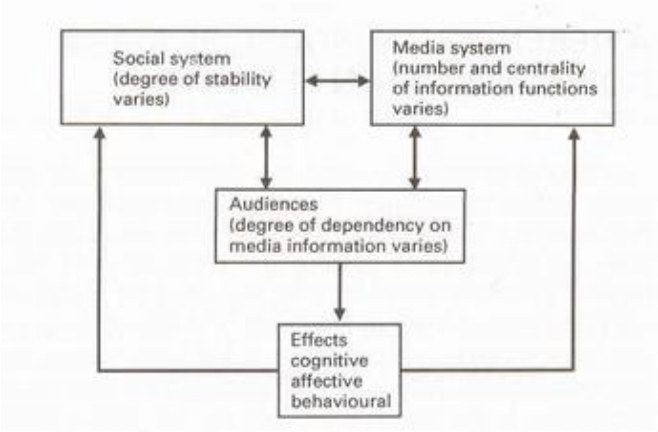
Dependency theory integrates several perspectives: first, it combines perspectives from psychology with ingredients from social categories theory. Second, it integrates systems perspectives with elements from more causal approaches. Third, it combines elements of uses and gratifications research with those of media effects traditions, although its primary focus is less on effects per se than on rationales for why media effects typically are limited. Finally, a contextualist philosophy is incorporated into the theory, which also features traditional concerns with the content of media messages and their effects on audiences. Research generated by this model had tends to be more descriptive than explanatory or predictive.

Core Assumptions and Statements

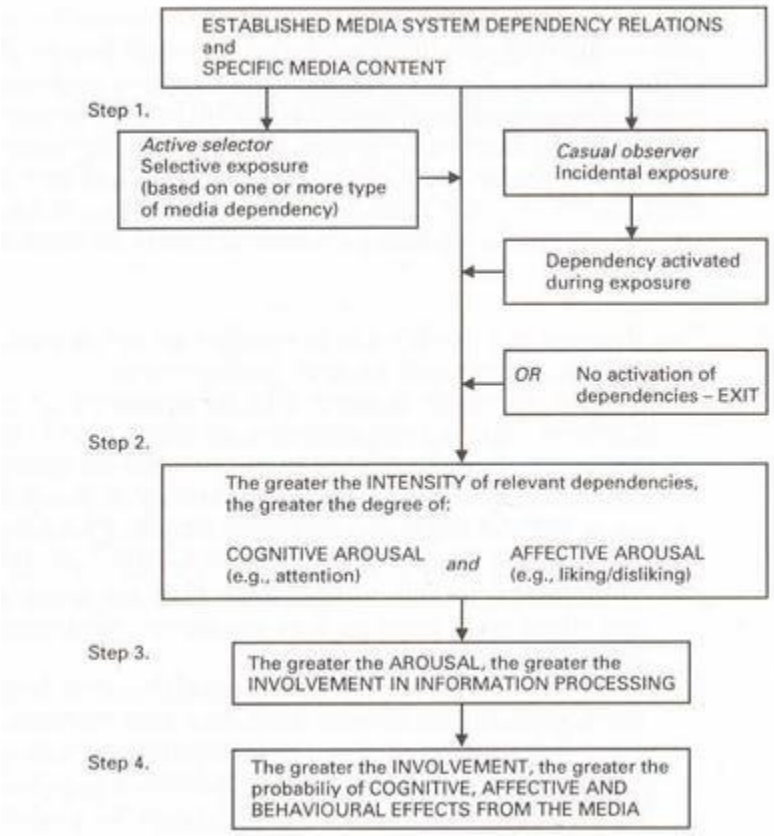
Dependency theory proposes an integral relationship among audiences, media and the larger social system. This theory predicts that you depend on media information to meet certain needs and achieve certain goals, like uses-and-gratifications theory. But you do not depend on all media equally. Two factors influence the degree of media dependence. First, you will become more dependent on media that meet a number of your needs than on media that provide just a few. The second source of dependency is social stability. When social change and conflict are high, established institutions, beliefs, and practices are challenged, forcing you to reevaluate and make new choices. At such times your reliance on the media for information will increase. At other, more stable times your dependency on media may go way down.

One's needs are not always strictly personal but may be shaped by the culture or by various social conditions. In other words, individuals' needs, motives, and uses of media are contingent on outside factors that may not be in the individuals' control. These outside factors act as constraints on what and how media can be used and on the availability of other non-media alternatives. Furthermore, the more alternatives and individual had for gratifying needs, the less dependent he or she will become on any single medium. The number of functional alternatives, however, is not just a matter of individual choice or even of psychological traits but is limited also by factors such as availability of certain media.

Conceptual Model



This model is the general idea of the dependency theory.
Source: Ball-Rokeach & DeFleur (1976)



This model is more elaborated and shows more specific effects of the dependency theory.
Source: DeFleur & Ball Rokeach (1989)

Scope and Application

Mass media (at micro, meso, macro level: individuals, interpersonal networks, organizations, social systems and societies).

Key publications

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5. Gatekeeping

Regulate The Flow Of Information

History and Orientation

Kurt Lewin was apparently the first one to use the term "gatekeeping," which he used to describe a wife or mother as the person who decides which foods end up on the family's dinner table. (Lewin, 1947). The gatekeeper is the person who decides what shall pass through each gate section, of which, in any process, there are several. Although he applied it originally to the food chain, he then added that the gating process can include a news item winding through communication channels in a group. This is the point from which most gatekeeper studies in communication are launched. White (1961) was the person who seized upon Lewin's comments and turned it solidly toward journalism in 1950. In the 1970s McCombs and Shaw took a different direction when they looked at the effects of gatekeepers' decisions. They found the audience learns how much importance to attach to a news item from the emphasis the media place on it. McCombs and Shaw pointed out that the gatekeeping concept is related to the newer concept, agenda-setting. (McCombs et al, 1976). The gatekeeper concept is now 50 years old and has slipped into the language of many disciplines, including gatekeeping in organizations.

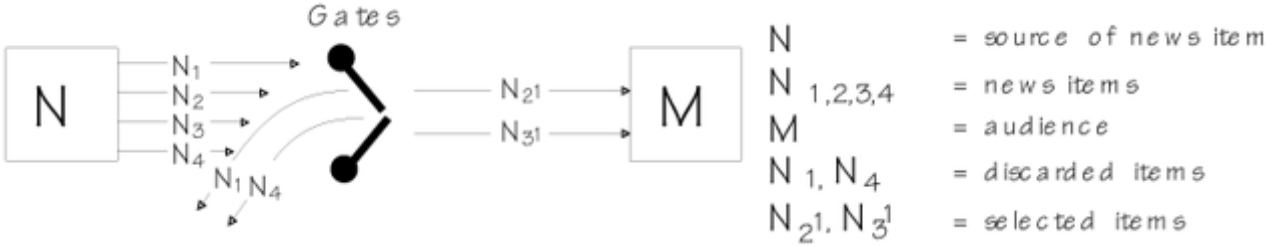
Core Assumptions and Statements

The gatekeeper decides which information will go forward, and which will not. In other words a gatekeeper in a social system decides which of a certain commodity – materials, goods, and information – may enter the system. Important to realize is that gatekeepers are able to control the public's knowledge of the actual events by letting some stories pass through the system but keeping others out. Gatekeepers can also be seen as institutions or organizations. In a political system there are gatekeepers, individuals or institutions which control access to positions of power and regulate the flow of information and political influence. Gatekeepers exist in many jobs, and their choices hold the potential to color mental pictures that are subsequently created in people's understanding of what is happening in the world around them. Media gatekeeping showed that decision making is based on principles of news values, organizational routines, input structure and common sense. Gatekeeping is vital in communication planning and almost al communication planning roles include some aspect of gatekeeping.

The gatekeeper's choices are a complex web of influences, preferences, motives and common values. Gatekeeping is inevitable and in some circumstances it can be useful.

Gatekeeping can also be dangerous, since it can lead to an abuse of power by deciding what information to discard and what to let pass. Nevertheless, gatekeeping is often a routine, guided by some set of standard questions.

Conceptual Model



Source: White (1964)
Related to gatekeeping in media. For gatekeeping in organizations this model is not recommended.

Favorite Methods
Interviews, surveys, networkanalysis.

Scope and Application
This theory is related to the mass media and organizations. In the mass media the focus is on the organizational structure of newsrooms and events. Gatekeeping is also an important in organizations, since employees and management are using ways of influence.

Example
A wire service editor decides alone what news audiences will receive from another continent. The idea is that if the gatekeeper's selections are biased, the readers' understanding will therefore be a little biased.
See Wenig for example on gatekeeping in organizations.

Key publications

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6. Knowledge Gap

Increasing Gap Between Higher And Lower Educated People

History and Orientation

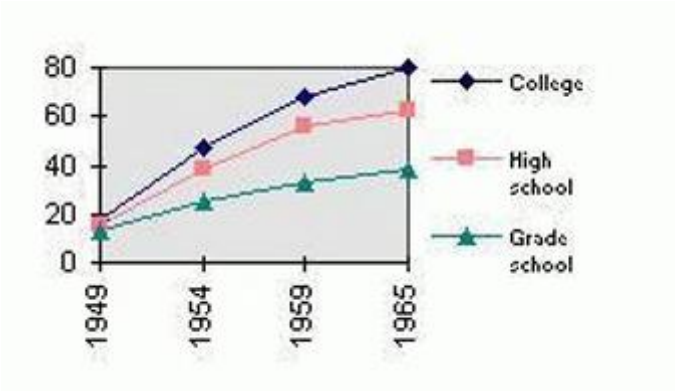
The knowledge gap theory was first proposed by Tichenor, Donohue and Olien at the University of Minnesota in the 70s. They believe that the increase of information in society is not evenly acquired by every member of society: people with higher socioeconomic status tend to have better ability to acquire information (Weng, S.C. 2000). This leads to a division of two groups: a group of better-educated people who know more about most things, and those with low education who know less. Lower socio-economic status (SES) people, defined partly by educational level, have little or no knowledge about public affairs issues, are disconnected from news events and important new discoveries, and usually aren't concerned about their lack of knowledge.

Core Assumptions and Statements

The knowledge gap can result in an increased gap between people of lower and higher socioeconomic status. The attempt to improve people's life with information via the mass media might not always work the way this is planned. Mass media might have the effect of increasing the difference gap between members of social classes.

Tichenor, Donohue and Olien (1970) present five reasons for justifying the knowledge gap. 1) People of higher socioeconomic status have better communication skills, education, reading, comprehending and remembering information. 2) People of higher socioeconomic status can store information more easily or remember the topic form background knowledge 3) People of higher socioeconomic status might have a more relevant social context. 4) People of higher socioeconomic status are better in selective exposure, acceptance and retention. 5) The nature of the mass media itself is that it is geared toward persons of higher socioeconomic status.

Conceptual Model



Source: Tichenor, Donohue and Olien, 1970.
This example shows that education level or socioeconomic status made a difference in knowledge. The question was whether or not respondents felt astronauts would ever reach the moon. Those with high levels of education (based on three levels: grade school, high school and college) were more likely to agree that man would reach the moon than those with lower levels of education both at a certain point in time and over all four intervals. Most important was that the gap between levels widened over time in that the percentage of respondents in the high education level who agreed rose more than 60 percentage points over 16 years while those in the low level of education category rose less than 25 percentage points.

Favorite Methods
Surveys of mass media and tests of knowledge.

Scope and Application
Media presenting information should realize that people of higher socioeconomic status get their information in a different way than lower educated people. Furthermore, this hypothesis of the knowledge gap might help in understanding the increased gap between people of higher socioeconomic status and people of lower socioeconomic status. It can be used in various circumstances.

Example
The knowledge gap was used in a research for presidential campaigns. The knowledge gap hypothesis holds that when new information enters a social system via a mass media campaign, it is likely to exacerbate underlying inequalities in previously held information. Specifically, while people from all strata may learn new information as a result of a mass media campaign, those with higher levels of education are likely to learn more than those with low levels of education, and the informational gap between the two groups will expand. The results of the analysis show that knowledge gaps do not always grow over the course of

presidential campaigns and that some events, such as debates, may actually reduce the level of information inequality in the electorate.
Source: Holbrook (2002)

Key publications

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7. Medium Theory

The Medium Affects Perception

(also known as channel theory, or media formalism)

History and Orientation

McLuhan (1964) challenged conventional definitions when he claimed that the medium is the message. With this claim, he stressed how channels differ, not only in terms of their content, but also in regard to how they awaken and alter thoughts and senses. He distinguished media by the cognitive processes each required. McLuhan popularized the idea that channels are a dominant force that must be understood to know how the media influence society and culture.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Medium theory focuses on the medium characteristics itself (like in media richness theory) rather than on what it conveys or how information is received. In medium theory, a medium is not simply a newspaper, the Internet, a digital camera and so forth. Rather, it is the symbolic environment of any communicative act. Media, apart from whatever content is transmitted, impact individuals and society. McLuhan's thesis is that people adapt to their environment through a certain balance or ratio of the senses, and the primary medium of the age brings out a particular sense ratio, thereby affecting perception.
Statement: Some of the metaphors used by McLuhan are: The medium is the message! The medium is the massage. We live in a mess-age. The content of a new medium is an old medium.

Conceptual Model

Not applicable.

Favorite Methods

Medium theory is an analytical theory with few empirical model building. Some of the methods used are: analysis of media characteristics and historical analysis of human perception.

Scope and Application

Medium theory examines physical, psychological and social variables as the senses that are required to attend to the medium; whether the communication is bi-directional or uni-directional, how quickly messages can be disseminated, whether learning to encode and decode in the medium is difficult or simple, how many people can attend to the same message at the same moment, and so forth. Medium theorists argue that such variables influence the medium's use and its social, political, and psychological impact.

Key publications

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8. Mental models

Understanding Phenomena's In Daily Life.

History and Orientation

Boltzmann (1899) made a statement which refers in a way to the use of mental models today: "All our ideas and concepts are only internal pictures". Craik (1943) first thought and wrote about small scale models, to anticipate events.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Mental models are representations of reality that people use to understand specific phenomena. Mental models are consistent with theories that postulate internal representations in thinking processes Johnson-Laird (1983) proposes mental models as the basic structure of cognition: "It is now plausible to suppose that mental models play a central and unifying role in representing objects, states of affairs". We can summarize the theory in terms of its three principal predictions, which have all been corroborated experimentally: 1) Reasoners normally build models of what is true, not what is false -- a propensity that led to the discovery that people commit systematic fallacies in reasoning. 2) Reasoning is easier from one model than from multiple models. 3) Reasoners tend to focus on one of the possible models of multi-model problems, and are thereby led to erroneous conclusions and irrational decisions.

To build models of what is true is a sensible way to deal with limited processing capacity, but it does lead to illusions. Yet, it does not imply that people are irredeemably irrational. The fallacies can be alleviated with preventative methods. Without them, however, reasoners remain open to the illusion that they grasp what is in fact beyond them. We suspect that similar short-comings may underlie judgment and choice in game-theoretic settings.

Conceptual Model

Not applicable.

Favorite Methods

Experimental research.

Scope and Application

The theory accounts for the informality of arguments in science and daily life, whereas logic is notoriously of little help in analyzing them. If people base such arguments on mental models, then there is no reason to suppose that they will lay them out like the steps of a formal proof.

Key publications

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9. Modernization Theory

Effects Of The Modernization Process On Human Communication

History and Orientation

A macro-theory with a historical and sociological inspiration. Developed in large-scale historical research investigating the effects of the modernization process on human

communication. Modernization means the appearance of 'modes of social life or organization which emerged in Europe from about the seventeenth century onwards and which subsequently became more or less worldwide in their influence'(Giddens, 1991). Modernization theories explain the changing ways of communication and media use in traditional and (post)modern societies.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Modernization theory has evolved in three waves. The first wave appeared in the 1950s and 1960s. One made the attempt to explain the diffusion of Western styles of living, technological innovations and individualist types of communication (highly selective, addressing only particular persons) as the superiority of secular, materialist, Western, individualist culture and of individual motivation and achievement (Lerner, 1958), Schramm, 1964).

This first wave of theory produced three variants (McQuail, 2000: 84):

1) Economic development: mass media promote the global diffusion of many technical and social innovations that are essential to modernization (Rogers, 1962). See Diffusion of Innovations theory.
2) Literacy and cultural development: mass media can teach literacy and other essential skills and techniques. They encourage a 'state of mind' favorable to modernity, e.g. the imagination of an alternative way of life beyond the traditional way.
3) National identity development: mass media could support national identities in new nations (colonies) and support attention to democratic policies (elections).

Most of these theories have been discredited because of their pro-Western bias.

The second wave of modernization theory is a part of the critical theory that was popular in the 1970s and 1980s. It does not support but criticize the influence of Western modernization. This is held to be a case of Western cultural and economic imperialism or dominance (Schiller, 1976).

One of the theories concerned is *media dependency theory.* Peripheral (developing) countries are assumed to be dependant on mass media in the core (the Western world).

The third wave of modernization theory rising in the 1990s is the theory of late-, high- or post modernity. It tries to be more neutral, being not in favor or against Western modernization. Rather it attempts to unearth the contradictions in the modernization process and to explain the consequences of modernity for individuals in contemporary society (Giddens, 1991a, 1991b). Giddens showed that modern society is characterized by time-space distantiation and disembedding mechanisms. Traditional society is based on direct interaction between people living close to each other. Modern societies stretch further and further across space and time using mass media and interactive media. Disembedding mechanisms such as money, symbolic means, English as the *lingua franca* and the Internet help to lift out and activities in an abstract or online form that were once embedded in particular material goods and in places.

Benjamin Barber tried to explain the clash of Western and non-Western cultures of the world in his *Jihad versus McWorld: How the Planet is both Falling Apart and Coming Together* (1996).
This theme of the combination of unification and fragmentation in society and in media use also is present in the work of Meyrowitz (1993) – See Medium Theory- and van Dijk (1993, 1991/1999). Van Dijk tries to explain the rise of the new media such as computer networks and mobile telephony as important tools for modern life. They enable scale reduction and scale extension, a unitary and a fragmented world and, finally, a world that is both social and individualized (network individualism).

Favorite Methods
Historical sources research, literature research and critique.

Scope and Application
Very broad. All global relationships from a historical, sociological, economic and cultural point of view. Attention to the role of mass media and new media in world affairs.

Key publications

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10. Spiral Of Silence

Formation Of Public Opinion

History and Orientation

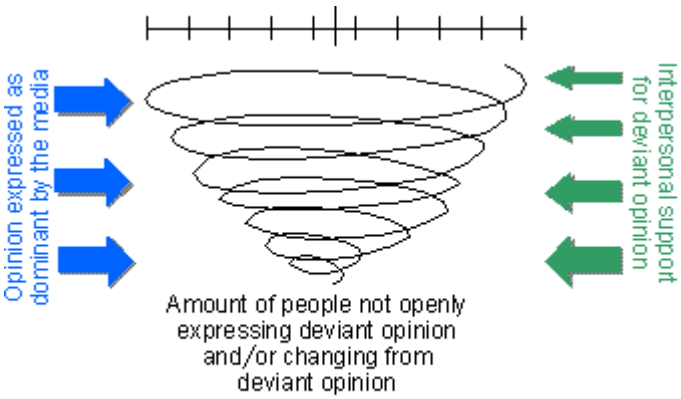
Neumann (1974) introduced the “spiral of silence” as an attempt to explain in part how public opinion is formed. She wondered why the Germans supported wrong political positions that led to national defeat, humiliation and ruin in the 1930s-1940s.

Core Assumptions and Statements

The phrase "spiral of silence" actually refers to how people tend to remain silent when they feel that their views are in the minority. The model is based on three premises: 1) people have a "quasi-statistical organ," a sixth-sense if you will, which allows them to know the prevailing public opinion, even without access to polls, 2) people have a fear of isolation and know what behaviors will increase their likelihood of being socially isolated, and 3) people are reticent to express their minority views, primarily out of fear of being isolated.

The closer a person believes the opinion held is similar to the prevailing public opinion, the more they are willing to openly disclose that opinion in public. Then, if public sentiment changes, the person will recognize that the opinion is less in favor and will be less willing to express that opinion publicly. As the perceived distance between public opinion and a person's personal opinion grows, the more unlikely the person is to express their opinion.

Conceptual Model



Source: Noelle-Neumann (1991).

Scope and Application

It is related to the mass media, in such a way that mass media influences public opinion. Shifts in public opinion occur commonly and therefore this theory is used to search an explanation for behavior (speak up or stay silent).

The theory has also been criticized for ambiguity and methodological weakness, but the idea has persisted. Evidence of the spiral effect is usually small but significant.

Example

This example shows an effect of the theory where during the 1991 Gulf War the U.S. support for the war was measured. Either it is a consensus view or did media coverage contribute to a spiral of silence that dampened opposition to the war? In a survey that asked about people’s opinions,

respondents were clearly less supportive of the war than the popular support depicted by the media. Those who watched television and perceived that the public supported the war, were more likely tot support the war themselves. This study supports the spiral of silence and suggests that people are swayed by bandwagon effects rather than fearing social isolation.

Key publications

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8. Organizational Communication

1. Adaptive Structuration Theory

Role Of Information Technologies In Organization Change

History and Orientation

Adaptive Structuration Theory is based on Anthony Giddens' structuration theory. This theory is formulated as “the production and reproduction of the social systems through members’ use of rules and resources in interaction”. DeSanctis and Poole adapted Giddens' theory to study the interaction of groups and organizations with information technology, and called it *Adaptive Structuration Theory.* AST criticizes the technocentric view of technology use and emphasizes the social aspects. Groups and organizations using information technology for their work dynamically create perceptions about the role and utility of the technology, and how it can be applied to their activities. These perceptions can vary widely across groups. These perceptions influence the way how technology is used and hence mediate its impact on group outcomes.

Core Assumptions and Statements

AST is a viable approach for studying the role of advanced information technologies in organization change. AST examines the change process from two vantage points 1) the types of structures that are provided by the advanced technologies and 2) the structures that actually emerge in human action as people interact with these technologies.

1) Structuration Theory, deals with the evolution and development of groups and organizations.
2) The theory views groups or organizations as systems with ("observable patterns of relationships and communicative interaction among people creating structures").
3) Systems are produced by actions of people creating structures (sets of rules and resources).
4) Systems and structures exist in a dual relationship with each others such that they tend to produce and reproduce each other in an ongoing cycle. This is referred to as the "structuration process."
5) The structuration process can be very stable, or it can change substantial over time.
6) It is useful to consider groups and organizations from a structuration perspective because doing so: (a) helps one understand the relative balance in the deterministic influences and willful choices that reveal groups' unique identities; (b) makes clearer than other perspectives the evolutionary character of groups and organizations; and (c) suggests possibilities for how members may be able to exercise more influence than they otherwise think themselves capable of.

Conceptual Model

See Desanctis, G. & Poole, M. S. (1994). Capturing the Complexity in Advanced Technology Use: Adaptive Structuration Theory. *Organization Science. 5*, p. 132.

Scope and Application

The AST could be used to analyze the advent of various innovations such as the printed press, electricity, telegraph, mass transpirations, radio, telephone, TV, the Internet, etc., and show how the structures of these innovations penetrated the respective societies, influencing them, and how the social structures of those societies in turn influenced and modified innovations' original intent. In conclusion AST's appropriation process might be a good model to analyze the utilization and penetration of new media technologies in our society.

Example

In this example two groups are compared that used the Group Decision Support System (GDSS) for prioritizing projects for organizational investment. A written transcript and an audio tape produced qualitative summary. Also quantitative results were obtained which led to the following conclusions. Both groups had similar inputs to group interaction. The sources of structure and the group's internal system were essentially the same in each group, except that group 1 had a member who was forceful in attempting to direct others and was often met with resistance. Group 2 spent much more time than group 1 defining the meaning of the system features and how they should be used relative to the task at hand; also group 2 had relatively few disagreements about appropriation or unfaithful appropriation. In group 2 conflict was confined to critical work on differences rather than the escalated argument present in group 1. This example shows how the Adaptive Structuration Theory (AST) can help to understand advanced technology in group interactions. Although the same technology was introduced to both groups, the effects were not consistent due to differences in each group's appropriation moves.

Key publications

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2. Attraction-Selection-Attrition Framework

Understanding Organizational Behavior

History and Orientation

Schneider (1987) asserted that “the people make the place” and that organizational culture, climate and practices are determined by the people in the organization. This theory is closely related to psychology. This theory is part of the socialization process, whereby new members in organizations according tot the framework fit in a specificorganization. For over 100 years discussions are held on the influence of situational variables - such as groups, technology, structure, environment - on organizational behavior. Schneider argues that the psychologists have failed to incorporate people types into our theories of organizations.
In 1995 the ASA Framework was updated. Schneider already mentioned that the person is particularly important in the organizational context. Schneider et al (1995) now added the dimension that the people are responsible for the structure, processes and culture of the organization.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Statement: ‘attributes of people, not the nature of external environment, or organizational technology, or organizational structure, are the fundamental determinants of organizational behavior’ (Schneider, 1987). The people are functions of an Attraction-Selection-Attrition cycle.

- *Attraction*: People are differentially attracted to careers as a function of their own interests and personality (Holland, 1985). Other signs of attraction are researched by Tom (1971) and Vroom (1966). They have stated that people search environments that fit by their personality and that people would like to obtain their outcomes by selecting a specific organization.
- *Selection*: Organizations select people who they think are compatible for many different kinds of jobs. In that way organizations end up choosing people who share many common personal attributes, although they may not share common competencies.
- *Attrition*: The opposite side of attraction. When people do not fit an environment they tend to leave it. When people leave the environment a more homogenous group stays than those were initially attracted to the organization.

Implications of the model are 1) the difficulty of bringing about change in organizations: Organizations have great difficulty when trying to change, because they not contain people with the appropriate inclinations. When the environment changes an organization will not be aware and probably not be capable of changing. 2) the utility of personality and interest measures for understanding organizational behavior: It is difficult for an organization to apply these topics for individual employees, who all have different compatibilities. This model makes it clear that reaching conclusions for the best structure more information is needed on the kinds of people working in the organization. 3) the genesis of organizational climate and culture: climate and culture are not easily defined in an organization, most often they exist when people share a common set of assumptions, values and beliefs. 4) the importance of recruitment: on personnel selection is paid a lot of attention. Surprisingly, on personnel recruitment, in which way do we communicate on vacancies, is not paid much

attention. 5) the need for person-based theories of leadership and job attitudes. The research on this area is depressing according to Schneider (1987). We believe that the attitudes of people are created by the conditions of the work place.

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
Predominant qualitative, for example Q-Sort and Survey. For criticism see Edwards (1994) and Edwards and Parry (1993).

Scope and Application
This model can be used for better understanding organizations. The ASA model is a critical model on the current situational theories of organizations. The ASA model can help analyzing 'common thoughts' of organizations.

Example
Chatman (1989) developed a Q-sort technique with which individuals can reveal their personal values and through which incumbents already at work in organizations can reveal the values of the organization. They (O'Reilly et al., 1991) show that when the fit of personal values to organizational values to organizational values is high, employees are less likely to turnover. By inference it follows that if people who are fit are more likely to stay in an organization, then over time, the environment will become more homogeneous because similar people will stay in the organization and dissimilar ones will leave.
Example from Schneider et al (1995), p 755-756.

Key publications

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3. Competing Values Framework

Judging Effectiveness Of Organizations.

History and Orientation

The Competing Values Framework emerged from a series of empirical studies on the notion of organizational effectiveness (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). These efforts were an attempt to make sense of effectiveness criteria. Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) discovered two dimensions of effectiveness. The first dimension is related to organizational focus, from an internal emphasis on people in the organization to an external focus of the organization itself. The second dimension represents the contrast between stability and control and flexibility and change.

The Competing Values Framework received its name because the criteria within the four models seem at first to carry conflicting messages. We want our organizations to be adaptable and flexible, but we also want them to be stable and controlled.

Core Assumptions and Statements

The framework has four quadrants.

1) Internal Process Model: based on hierarchy, emphasis on measurement, documentation and information management. These processes bring stability and control. Hierarchies seem to function best when the task to be done is well understood and when time is not an important factor.
2) Open Systems Model: based on an organic system, emphasis on adaptability, readiness, growth, resource acquisition and external support. These processes bring innovation and creativity. People are not controlled but inspired.
3) Rational Goal Model: based on profit, emphasis on rational action. It assumes that planning and goal setting results into productivity and efficiency. Tasks are clarified; objectives are set and action is taken.
4) Human Relations Model: based on cohesion and morale with emphasis on human resource and training. People are seen not as isolated individuals, but as cooperating members of a common social system with a common stake in what happens.

While the models seem to be four entirely different perspectives or domains, they can be viewed as closely related and interwoven. They are four subdomains of a larger construct: organizational and managerial effectiveness. The four models in the framework represent the unseen values over which people, programs, policies, and organizations live and die.

Conceptual Model

Flexibility

Human relations model Open system model

Means: cohesion, morale *Means*: flexibility, readiness

Ends: human resource development *Ends*: growth, resource acquisition

Internal External
Means: information management, *Means*: planning, goal setting
communication *Ends*: productivity, efficiency
Ends: Stability, control
Internal process model Rational goal model

Control
Source: Quinn (1988).

Favorite Methods
Various methods, predominant surveys.
See for example:
Quinn, R., & Spreitzer, G. (1991). The psychometric of the competing values culture instrument and an analysis of the impact of organizational culture on quality of life. In R. Woodman & W. Passmore (Eds.), Research in organizational change and development. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Scope and Application
The competing value framework can be used in organizational context. It can be used as a strategic tool to develop supervision and management programs. It can also be used to help organizations diagnose their existing and desired cultures. Furthermore, it can be seen a tool to examine organizational gaps. Another function might be to use it as a teaching tool for practicing managers or to help interpret and understand various organizational functions and processes. Another application is to help organizational members better understand the similarities and differences of managerial leadership roles.

Example
A study on Ohio State University was conducted to analyze the dominant culture. Here the dominant culture, current and preferred were described and the strength of the culture. Furthermore, the cultural findings were reported by groups of individuals. The result of this study showed that almost two thirds of the colleges and universities nation wide have a Human Relations Model type.

Key publications

- O'Neill, R.M & Quinn, R.E. (1993). Editor's Note: Applications of the Competing Values Framework. *Human Resource Management, 32,* (1), 1-7.
- Quinn, R.E. (1988). Beyond Rational Management: Mastering the Paradoxes and Competing Demands of High Performance. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Quinn, R.E. & Rohrbaugh, J. (1983). A spatial model of effectiveness criteria: Towards a competing values approach to organizational analysis. Management Science, 29, 363-377.

- Hooijberg, R. (1996). A multidirectional approach toward leadership: An extension of the concept of behavioral complexity. Human Relations, 49(7), 917-947.
- Smart, J. C., & Hamm, R. E. (1993). Organizational effectiveness and mission orientations of two-year colleges. *Research in Higher Education*, 34(4), 489-502.
- Smart, J. C., & St. John, E. P. (1996). Organizational culture and effectiveness in higher education: A test of the "Culture Type" and "Strong Culture" hypotheses. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 16(3), 219-241.
- Bensimon, E.M., Neumann, A., and Birnbaum, R. (1989). Making sense of administrative leadership: The 'L' word in higher education. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 1. Washington, D.C.: The George Washington University, Graduate School of Education and Human Development.
- Quinn, R.E., Cameron, K.S. (1999). Onderzoeken en veranderen van organisatiecultuur. Academic Service: Schoonhoven.

4. Competing Values Framework

Judging Effectiveness Of Organizations.

History and Orientation

The Competing Values Framework emerged from a series of empirical studies on the notion of organizational effectiveness (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). These efforts were an attempt to make sense of effectiveness criteria. Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) discovered two dimensions of effectiveness. The first dimension is related to organizational focus, from an internal emphasis on people in the organization to an external focus of the organization itself. The second dimension represents the contrast between stability and control and flexibility and change.

The Competing Values Framework received its name because the criteria within the four models seem at first to carry conflicting messages. We want our organizations to be adaptable and flexible, but we also want them to be stable and controlled.

Core Assumptions and Statements

The framework has four quadrants.

1) Internal Process Model: based on hierarchy, emphasis on measurement, documentation and information management. These processes bring stability and control. Hierarchies seem to function best when the task to be done is well understood and when time is not an important factor.
2) Open Systems Model: based on an organic system, emphasis on adaptability, readiness, growth, resource acquisition and external support. These processes bring innovation and creativity. People are not controlled but inspired.
3) Rational Goal Model: based on profit, emphasis on rational action. It assumes that planning and goal setting results into productivity and efficiency. Tasks are clarified; objectives are set and action is taken.
4) Human Relations Model: based on cohesion and morale with emphasis on human resource and training. People are seen not as isolated individuals, but as cooperating members of a common social system with a common stake in what happens.

While the models seem to be four entirely different perspectives or domains, they can be viewed as closely related and interwoven. They are four subdomains of a larger construct: organizational and managerial effectiveness. The four models in the framework represent the unseen values over which people, programs, policies, and organizations live and die.

Conceptual Model

Flexibility

Human relations model Open system model

Means: cohesion, morale *Means*: flexibility, readiness

Ends: human resource development *Ends*: growth, resource acquisition

Internal External

Means: information management, *Means*: planning, goal setting

communication *Ends*: productivity, efficiency

Ends: Stability, control

Internal process model Rational goal model

Control

Source: Quinn (1988).

Favorite Methods

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5. Enactment Theory

How People Act In Organizations

History and Orientation

Weick (1988) describes the term enactment as representing the notion that when people act they bring structures and events into existence and set them in action. Weick uses this term in the context of 'sensemaking' by managers or employees. He also describes how they can enact 'limitations' upon the system to avoid issues or experiences. It is also seen as a form of social construction. To date enactment is related to organizations and their environment and strategic management.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Enactment theory deals with life in general and organizations. Individuals and organizations are constantly in the process of self-formation (Deetz, 1982). Employees form themselves in organizations. According to Eisenberg (1986) this formation occurs in two different ways. Firstly, they achieve stability through enactment of interaction cycles. Secondly through the development of rules for appropriate behavior. Enactment theory can be seen as a process whereby people achieve continuity and coordination. This process requires rules and roles, so that people can coordinate their activities with another. Enactment theory gives a rationale for distinguishing strategic and routine behavior. Much enactment is scripted. People employ

routine communication plans when they can; when they cannot, their ability to devise new plans is crucial to their success as company members (Heath, 1994). In practice, a lot of what occurs on behalf of the company is routine, scripted, and random rather than strategic.
According to Weick (1979) organizations are in the process of organizing, it undergoes constant change. Enactment results because people are conscious of relationships. Enactment theory is related to organizations. Members of an organization cannot separate themselves as an individual or a member of the organization about how they think about the meaning they impose on themselves, other actors, and the environment. Working in an organization reflects a person's products, services and activities.
Statement: "The external environment literally bends around the enactments of people, and much of the activity of sense-making involves an effort to separate the externality from the action" Weick, 1988, p. 130). Weick formulates it in a way that people engage each other, their organizations and their environment.

Conceptual Model
Weick, K. E. (1995). *Sensemaking in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Favorite Methods
Qualitative methods, such as dialogue and discourse analysis are used. Dialogue strives for a balance between individual autonomy and organizational constraint through incorporating diverse voices (see f.e. Eisenberg).Discourse refers to language, grammars, and discursive acts that form the foundation of both performance and voice.
Analysis of consultation between management groups is another method that can be used. With storytelling the impact (in focus groups) can be measured.

Scope and Application
Enactment can help identifying the structure of an organization. Relevant for research are interpersonal, groups and organizations. The communication structure of organizations can be studied. The communication structure is the most important predictor of informal networks. The predictor can be used in relation of the duration of networks and the strength/ weakness they have.

Example
See Eisenberg.

Key publications

- Heath, R.L. & Bryant, J. (2000). *Human Communication Theory and Research.* Concept, Context and Challenges. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
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6. Framing In Organizations

(Media) Or (People) Decide Where People Think About

also: framing in organizations

History and Orientation

The concept of framing is related to the agenda-setting tradition but expands the research by focusing on the essence of the issues at hand rather than on a particular topic. The basis of framing theory is that the media focuses attention on certain events and then places them within a field of meaning. Framing is an important topic since it can have a big influence and therefore the concept of framing expanded to organizations as well.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: The media draws the public attention to certain topics, it decides where people think about, the journalists select the topics. This is the original agenda setting 'thought'. In news items occurs more than only bringing up certain topics. The way in which the news is brought, the frame in which the news is presented, is also a choice made by journalists. Thus, a frame refers to the way media and media gatekeepers organize and present the

events and issues they cover, and the way audiences interpret what they are provided. Frames are abstract notions that serve to organize or structure social meanings. Frames influence the perception of the news of the audience, this form of agenda-setting not only tells what to think about, but also how to think about it.

Framing in organizations
Core: Framing is a quality of communication that leads others to accept one meaning over another. It is a skill with profound effects on how organizational members understand and respond to the world in which they live. It is a skill that most successful leaders possess, yet one that is not often taught. According to Fairhurst & Sarr (1996) framing consists of three elements: language, thought and forethought. *Language* helps us to remember information and acts to transform the way in which we view situations. To use language, people must have *thought* and reflected on their own interpretive frameworks and those of others. Leaders must learn to frame spontaneously in certain circumstances. Being able to do so had to do with having the *forethought* to predict framing opportunities. In other words, one must plan in order to be spontaneous. (Deetz, Tracy & Simpson, 2000).

Framing
Statement: Media products are human products, constructs that the audience take for granted.

Framing in organizations
Orientation: Fairhurst and Sarr (1996) describe a lot of possibilities to frame situations. a) Metaphor: To give an idea or program a new meaning by comparing it to something else. b) Stories (myths and legends): To frame a subject by anecdote in a vivid and memorable way. c) Traditions (rites, rituals and ceremonies): To pattern and define an organization at regular time increments to confirm and reproduce organizational values. d) Slogans, jargon and catchphrases: To frame a subject in a memorable and familiar fashion. e) Artifacts: To illuminate corporate values through physical vestiges (sometimes in a way language cannot). f) Contrast: To describe a subject in terms of what it is not. g) Spin: to talk about a concept so as to give it a positive or negative connotation. (Deetz, Tracy & Simpson, 2000).

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
In-depth interviews.

Scope and Application
All news (or information) providing media.

Example

Examples of much-used frames include the 'war on drugs', or a person's 'battle with cancer', or the 'cold war', phrases that elicit widely shared images and meanings.

Key publications

- Semetko, H. A., & Valkenburg, P. M. (2000). Framing European politics: A content analysis of press and television news. *Journal of Communication, 50*, 93-109.
- Overview of agenda setting research in *Journal of Communication* (1993). Symposium: agenda setting revisited. *43(2)*, 58-127.
- Deetz, S.A., Tracy, S.J. & Simpson, J.L. (2000). *Leading organizations. Through Transition.* London, Thousand Oaks: Sage.
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7. Groupthink

Consensus-Seeking Tendency In Groups.

History and Orientation

Irving (1972, 1982) developed an influential theory of group decision making that he called groupthink. The idea is that groupthink is a kind of thinking in which maintaining group cohesiveness and solidarity is more important than considering the facts in a realistic manner. Thus groupthink is a result of cohesiveness in groups, which was first discussed by Lewin in the 1930s.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Groupthink is most likely to occur when certain preconditions are met, such as when the group is highly cohesive, isolated from contrary opinions, and ruled by a directive leader who makes his or her wishes known. Negative outcomes may be: 1) the group limits its discussion to only a few alternatives. 2) the solution initially favored by most members is never restudied to seek out less obvious pitfalls 3) the group fails to reexamine those alternatives originally disfavored by the majority. 4) expert opinion is not sought 5) the group is highly selective in gathering and attending to available information 6) the group is so confident in its ideas that it does not consider contingency plans.
The goal of this theory is to recognize the dangers of groupthink in decision-making. A few methods to prevent it: 1) encourage everyone to be a critical evaluator 2) do not have the leader state a preference up front 3) set up independent groups 4) divide into subgroups 5) discuss what is happening with others outside the group 6) invite others into the group to bring fresh ideas.

Conceptual Model

See Aronson, E., Wilson, T.D. & Akert, R.M. (2003). *Social Psychology*, p. 300.

Favorite Methods

Not applicable.

Scope and Application

Groupthink is important during decision process. In communication for example in meetings, conferences and even government groupthink can appear.

Example

Examples show that groupthink may lead to inferior decision making. This could happen in a study-group, but happens as well in national policy. For example president Kennedy talked informal to an important decision maker, to tell his friends they should go along with the opinion of the president. The other people in the meeting did “share” the same opinion, so the outcome was already clear on forehand.

Key publications

- Aronson, E., Wilson, T.D. & Akert, R.M. (2003). *Social Psychology*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Littlejohn, S.W. (2002). Human Communication. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Irving Janis, *Groupthink*, 2d ed., Houghton Mifflin, Boston, 1982.
- Irving Janis, *Victims of Groupthink*, Houghton Mifflin, Boston, 1972.
- Irving Janis, *Crucial Decisions: Leadership in Policymaking and Crisis Management*, Free Press, New York, 1989, pp. 89–117.
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- *Research Review*: Won-Woo Park, ‘‘A Review of Research on Groupthink," *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, Vol. 3, 1990, pp. 229–245.*Challenger disaster*: Randy Hirokawa, Dennis Gouran, and Amy Martz, ‘‘Understanding the Sources of Faulty Group Decision Making: A Lesson from the *Challenger* Disaster," *Small Group Behavior*, Vol. 19, 1988, pp. 411–433.
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- Trenholm, Sarah. (1995). *Thinking through communication: An Introduction to the study of human communication.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
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- Knapp, Mark. (1984). *Interpersonal communication and human relationships.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Duck, Stepehn. (1985). Social and personal relationships. In M.L. Knapp and G.R. Miller (Eds.) *Handbook of interpersonal communication* (pp. 665-686). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Luft, Joe. (1969). Of human interaction. Palo Alto: National Press.
- Sieberg, Evelyn. (1975). *Interpersonal confirmation: A paradigm for conceptualization and measurement*. San Diego: United States International University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 098 634).
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- Hocker, J.L. and Wilmot, W.W. (1991). *Interpersonal conflict*. Dubuque, IA: William C. Brown.
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- Zueschner, Raymond. (1997). *Communicating Today*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

8. Media Richness Theory

A Medium Fits With A Task

History and Orientation

Media richness theory is based on contingency theory and information processing theory (Galbraith 1977). First proponents of the theory were made by Daft & Lengel (1984).

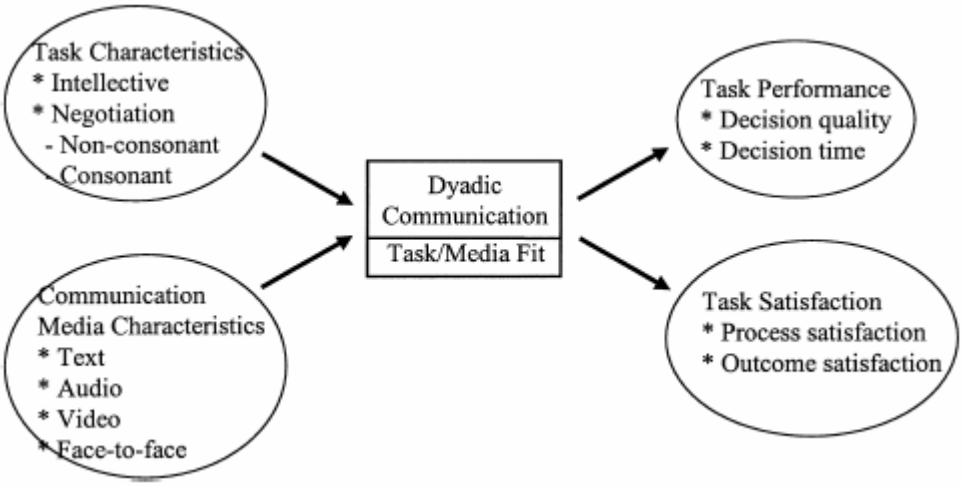
Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Researchers Daft, Lengel and successors propose that communication media have varying capacities for resolving ambiguity, negotiating varying interpretations, and facilitating understanding.

Two main assumptions of this theory are: people want to overcome equivocality and uncertainty in organizations and a variety of media commonly used in organizations work better for certain tasks than others. Using four criteria, Daft and Lengel present a media

richness hierarchy, arranged from high to low degrees of richness, to illustrate the capacity of media types to process ambiguous communication in organizations. The criteria are (a) the availability of instant feedback; (b) the capacity of the medium to transmit multiple cues such as body language, voice tone, and inflection; (c) the use of natural language; and (d) the personal focus of the medium. Face-to-face communication is the richest communication medium in the hierarchy followed by telephone, electronic mail, letter, note, memo, special report, and finally, flier and bulletin. From a strategic management perspective, the media richness theory suggests that effective managers make rational choices matching a particular communication medium to a specific task or objective and to the degree of richness required by that task (Trevino, Daft, & Lengel, 1990, in Soy, 2001).

Conceptual Model



Media richness model
Source: Suh (1999)

Favorite Methods

Content analysis.

Scope and Application

All sorts of media.

Key publications

- Daft, R.L. & Lengel, R.H. (1984). Information richness: a new approach to managerial behavior and organizational design. In: Cummings, L.L. & Staw, B.M. (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior 6, (191-233)*. Homewood, IL: JAI Press.
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9. Network Theory And Analysis In Organizations

How Relationships Influence Behavior

History and Orientation

The idea of social networks and the notions of sociometry and sociograms appeared over 50 years ago. Barnes (1954) is credited with coining the notion of social networks, an outflow of his study of a Norwegian island parish in the early 1950s.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Network analysis (social network theory) is the study of how the social structure of relationships around a person, group, or organization affects beliefs or behaviors. Causal pressures are inherent in social structure. Network analysis is a set of methods for detecting and measuring the magnitude of the pressures. The axiom of every network approach is that reality should be primarily conceived and investigated from the view of the properties of relations between and within units instead of the properties of these units themselves. It is a relational approach. In social and communication science these units are social units: individuals, groups/ organizations and societies.

Statements: Rogers characterizes a communication network as consisting of “interconnected individuals who are linked by patterned communication flows” (1986). A communication network analysis studies “the interpersonal linkages created by the shearing of information in the interpersonal communication structure” (1986), that is, the network.

Network analysis within organizations

Scope:

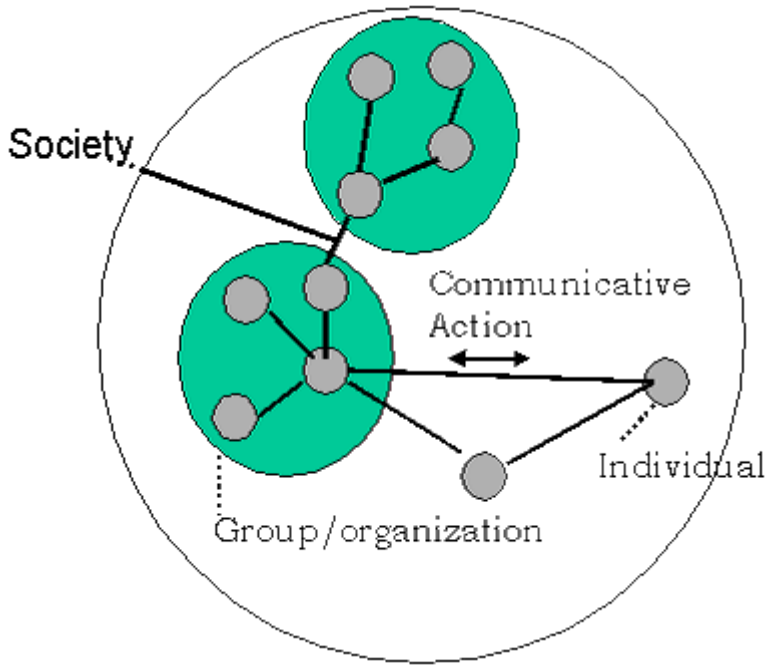
In general, network analysis focuses on the relationships between people, instead of on characteristics of people. These relationships may comprise the feelings people have for each other, the exchange of information, or more tangible exchanges such as goods and money. By mapping these relationships, network analysis helps to uncover the emergent and informal communication patterns present in an organization, which may then be compared to the formal communication structures. These emergent patterns can be used to

explain several organizational phenomena. For instance the place employees have in the communication network (as described by their relationships), influences their exposure to and control over information (Burt, 1992; Haythornthwaite, 1996). Since the patterns of relationships bring employees into contact with the attitudes and behaviors of other organizational members, these relationships may also help to explain why employees develop certain attitudes toward organizational events or job-related matters (theories that deal with these matters are called 'contagion theories', cf. Ibarra & Andrews, 1993; Burkhardt, 1994; Meyer, 1994; Feeley & Barnett, 1996; Pollock, Whitbred & Contractor, 2000). Recently there is a growing interest into why communication networks emerge and the effects of communication networks (Monge & Contractor, 2003). Also, there is a substantial amount of literature available on how networkdata gathered within organizations, can be analyzed (cf. Rice & Richards, 1985; Freeman, White & Romney, 1992; Wasserman & Faust, 1994; Scott, 2000).

Applications:

Network analysis techniques focus on the communication structure of an organization, which can be operationalized into various aspects. Structural features that can be distinguished and analyzed through the use of network analysis techniques are for example the (formal and informal) *communication patterns* in an organization or the identification of *groups* within an organization (cliques or functional groups). Also communication-related *roles* of employees can be determined (e.g., stars, gatekeepers, and isolates). Special attention may be given to specific aspects of communication patterns: communication *channels and media* used by employees, the relationship between *information types* and the resulting communication networks, and the amount and possibilities of *bottom-up communication*. Additional characteristics that could, in principle, be investigated using network analysis techniques are the *communication load*as perceived by employees, the *communication styles* used, and the *effectiveness of the information flows*.

Conceptual Model (of a network society)



Networks connecting individuals, groups, organizations and societies.
Source: Van Dijk 2001/2003

Favorite Methods
Interviews, surveys.

Scope and Application
Thinking in terms of networks and the method of network analysis have gained ground in many disciplines, including social psychology, anthropology, political science, and mathematics, as well as communications. Network analysis generates information about the following types of network roles: the membership role, the liaison role, the star role, the isolate role, the boundary-spanning role, the bridge role, and the non-participant role. Network analysis is done in organizations, society, groups etc. The network model encourages communication planners and researchers to use new cause/effect variables in their analysis. For example, properties of the very communication network, such as connectedness, integration, diversity, and openness (Rogers and Kincaid, 1981).

Example
Rogers and Kincaid studied in Korea how women in a small village organized themselves to improve the general living conditions for themselves and their families.

Key publications on network analysis

- Mouge, P. & Contractor, N. (2003). *Theories of Communication Networks.* Cambridge: Oxford University Press.
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10. Sensemaking

Managing (Life) Is About Making Sense.

History and Orientation

Since Sensemaking has been under development since 1972, it cannot be explained in a few sentences. It is important to know that the project has been based on three central assumptions regarding communication practice: a) That it is possible to design and implement communication systems and practices that are responsive to human needs; b) That it is possible for humans to enlarge their communication repertoires to pursue this vision; c) That achieving these outcomes requires the development of communication-based methodological approaches.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Sensemaking is an approach to thinking about and implementing communication research and practice and the design of communication-based systems and activities. It consists of a set of philosophical assumptions, substantive propositions, methodological framings and methods.

According to Weick, sensemaking consists of seven aspects

1) Grounded in identity construction: a sensemaker is needed otherwise there won't be any sensemaking, sense is in the eye of the beholder. The sensemaker is singular and no individual ever acts like a single sensemaker, each individual has a lot of identities.
2) Retrospective: After a certain time the process is reflected. This is always done afterwards. This aspect, looking afterwards at a process, will depend on the success of the process.
3) Furthermore, retrospection makes the past clearer than the present or future; it cannot make the past transparent (Starbuck & Milliken, 1988).
4) Enactive and sensible environments. In organizational life people often produce part of the environment they face (Pondy & Mitroff, 1979). Action is crucial for sensemaking; we can't command and the environment will obey. Moreover, we can't predict something that will happen exact, because everything is part of a larger truth. Entity and environment are factors which influence eachother. You are neither a plaything in the environment or independent. Somewhere between is the meaning.
5) Social: Sensemaking is a social process; human thinking and social functioning are essential aspects of another (Resnick, Levine & Teasly, 1991). What a person does depends on others, so the direct influence is not clear. To understand sensemaking is to pay more intention to sufficient cues for coordination such as generalized other, prototypes, stereotypes, and roles.
6) Ongoing: Sensemaking never starts or stops, it is an ongoing process.
7) Focused on and by extracted cues: In life people are confronted with a lot of cues, too much too notice anyway. A person will only notice a few cues, because of his own filter. Your own interest and your unconsciousness depend what cues you focus on. As said earlier, it is also impossible to notice all the cues, because there are too many.
8) Driven by plausibility rather than accuracy: People are cognitively lazy, when they found an answer to the question, people stop searching. No alternatives are evaluated, while people might not even know the half of it.

An example of how these seven elements are used in sensemaking: (Weick, 1995).
'How can I know what I think until I see what I say?"

1) Identity: The recipe is a question about who I am as indicated by discovery of how and what I think.
2) Retrospect: To learn what I think, I look back over what I said earlier.
3) Enactment: I create the object to be seen and inspected when I say or do something.
4) Social: What I say and single out and conclude are determined by who socialized me and how I was socialized, as well as by the audience I anticipate will audit the conclusions I reach.
5) Ongoing: My talking is spread across time, competes for attention with other ongoing projects, and it reflected on after it is finished, which means my interests may already have changed.
6) Extracted cues: The "what" that I single out and embellish as the content of the thought is only a small portion of the utterance that becomes salient because of context and personal dispositions.
7) Plausibility: I need to know enough about what I think to get on with my projects, but no more, which means sufficiency and plausibility, take precedence over accuracy.

Source: Example from W Weick, K. E. (1995). *Sensemaking in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. P. 61-62.

Sensemaking in organizations

In dealing with organizational issues, sensemaking requires us to look for explanations and answers in terms of how people see things rather than rather than structures or systems. Sensemaking suggests that organizational issues - 'strategies', 'breakdowns', 'change', 'goals', 'plans', 'tasks', 'teams', and so on are not things that one can find out in the world or that exist in the organization. Rather, their source is people's way of thinking.

Conceptual Model

Not applicable.

Favorite Methods

Interviews, critical incident, discourse analysis.

Scope and Application

Sense making can be used to study information seeking and use in the workplace (Cheuk, 2002). . It can also be used for understanding deaf culture (Linderman, 1997) or to explore reflective thinking in nursing practice (Teekman, 1997). Rajendram (1997) used sense making in media education classrooms with students. Dervin (1997) tried to use sense making for difficult subjects such as racism, sexism and able-bodyism.

Key publications

- Weick, K. E. (1995). *Sensemaking in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
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11. Structurational Theory

Social Structures Are The Medium Of Human Activities

(or: Structuration Theory)

History and Orientation

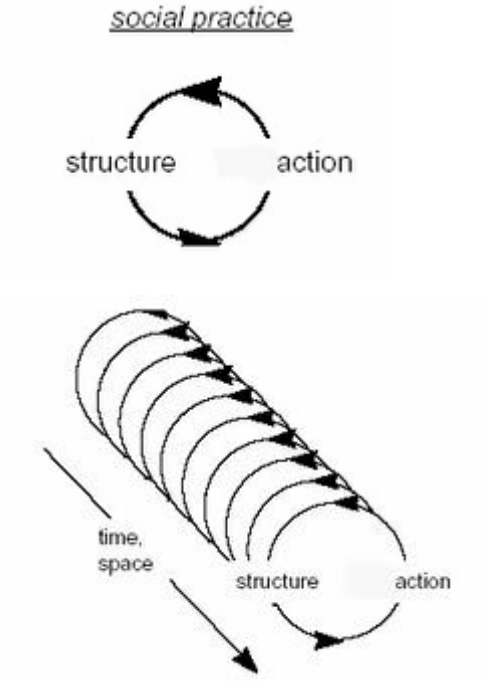
Giddens' structurational theory is a formal social theory, and can be seen as an answer to the classic actor/structure dualism. The theory is a logic conceptual and heuristic model of human behavior/action (Jacobs, 1993).

Core Assumptions and Statements

Behavior and structure are intertwined; people go through a socialization process and become dependent of the existing social structures, but at the same time social structures are being altered by their activities. Put in different words, this means that social structures are the medium of human activities as well as the result of those activities. Social structures not only restrict behavior but also create possibilities for human behavior. The point is, it is not all about the restrictions people encounter in unrolling their behavior in space and time, but people also contribute to the creation of a certain time-space-structure.
Structuration theory is based on the premise that the classic actor/structure dualism has to be reconceptualized as a duality -- the duality of structure. The structural properties of social systems exist only in so far as forms of social conduct are reproduced chronically across time and space. The structuration of institutions can be understood in terms of how it comes about that social activities become 'stretched' across wide spans of time-space.

Incorporating time-space in the heart of social theory means thinking again about some of the disciplinary divisions, which separate sociology from history, and from geography. In structuration theory 'structure' is regarded as rules and resources recursively implicated in social reproduction; institutionalized features of social systems have structural properties in the sense that relationships are stabilized across time and space. 'Structure' can be conceptualized abstractly as two aspects of rules -- normative elements and codes of signification. Resources are also of two kinds: authoritative resources, which derive from the co-ordination of the activity of human agents, and allocative resources, which stem from control of material products or of aspects of the material world (Giddens, 1984).
Giddens' main claim for his theory is that it draws together the two principal strands of social thinking. In the structuralist tradition the emphasis is on structure (=constraint), whereas in the phenomenological and hermeneutic traditions the human agent is the primary focus. Structuration theory attempts to recast structure and agency as a mutually dependent duality (Rose, 1999). Some structuration theory concepts are time space distanciation, routinization, and system integration.

Conceptual Model



Structurational Models.
Source: Rose (1999)

Favorite Methods

To be added.

Scope and Application

The structural theory is not intended to use in empirical research. It can be used in approach to (micro and macro) social phenomena, mostly in organizations. Besides that, the adaptive structurational theory is being used to do research on (IC) technologies in organizations.

Example

Orlikowski, W.J. (2000). Using technology and constituting structures: A practice lens for studying technology in organizations. *Organization Science, 11(4)*, 404-428.

Key publications

- Giddens, A. (1984). *The Constitution of Society: Outline of the Theory of Structuration*, Cambridge: Polity Press.
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12. System Theory

Social Units: Composition And Relation With Environment

History and Orientation

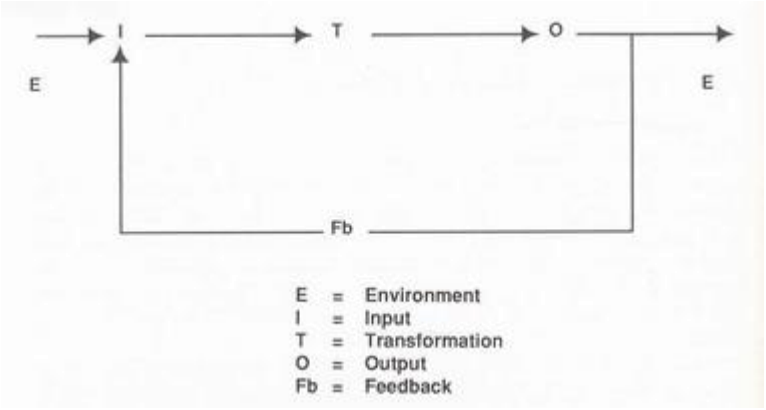
Hegel developed in the 19th century a theory to explain historical development as a dynamic process. Marx and Darwin used this theory in their work. System theory (as we know it) was used by L. von Bertalanffy, a biologist, as the basis for the field of study known as 'general system theory', a multidisciplinary field (1968). Some influences from the contingency approach can be found in system theory.

Core Assumptions and Statements

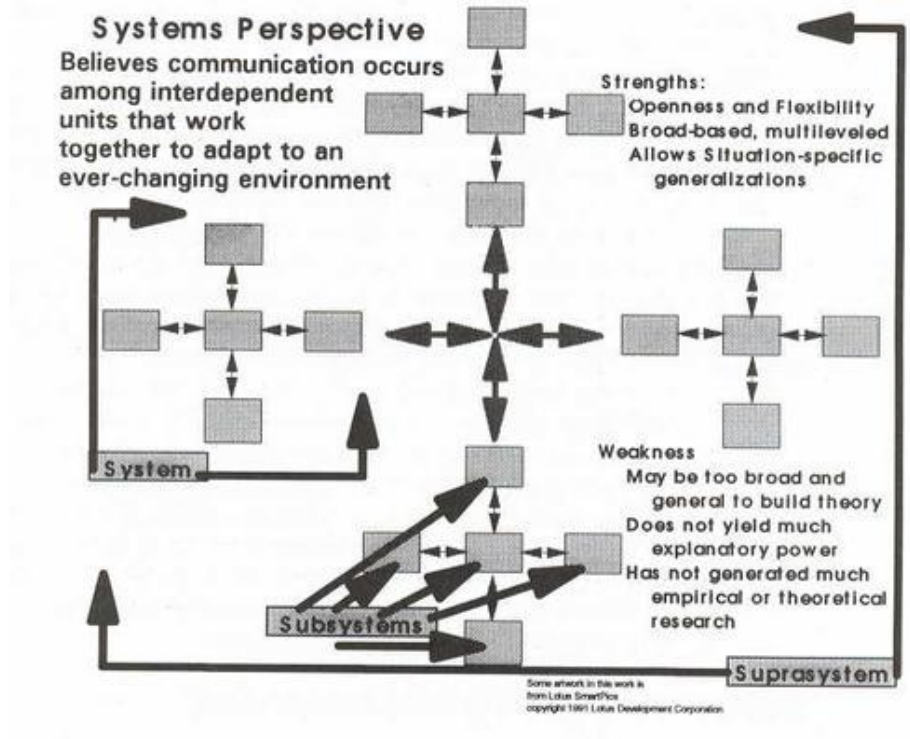
System theory is the transdisciplinary study of the abstract organization of phenomena, independent of their substance, type, or spatial or temporal scale of existence. It investigates both the principles common to all complex entities, and the (usually mathematical) models which can be used to describe them. A system can be said to consist of four things. The first is objects – the parts, elements, or variables within the system. These may be physical or abstract or both, depending on the nature of the system. Second, a system consists of attributes – the qualities or properties of the system and its objects. Third, a system had internal relationships among its objects. Fourth, systems exist in an environment. A system, then, is a set of things that affect one another within an environment and form a larger pattern that is different from any of the parts. The fundamental systems-interactive paradigm of organizational analysis features the continual stages of input, throughput (processing), and output, which demonstrate the concept of openness/closedness. A closed system does not interact with its environment. It does not take in information and therefore is likely to atrophy, that is to vanish. An open system receives information, which it uses to interact dynamically with its environment. Openness

increases its likelihood to survive and prosper. Several system characteristics are: wholeness and interdependence (the whole is more than the sum of all parts), correlations, perceiving causes, chain of influence, hierarchy, suprasystems and subsystems, self-regulation and control, goal-oriented, interchange with the environment, inputs/outputs, the need for balance/homeostasis, change and adaptability (morphogenesis) and equifinality: there are various ways to achieve goals. Different types of networks are: line, commune, hierarchy and dictator networks. Communication in this perspective can be seen as an integrated process – not as an isolated event.

Conceptual Model



Simple System Model. Source: Littlejohn (1999)



Elaborated system perspective model.
Source: Infante (1997)

Favourite Methods

Network analysis, ECCO analysis. ECCO, Episodic Communication Channels in Organization, analysis is a form of a data collection log-sheet. This method is specially designed to analyze and map communication networks and measure rates of flow, distortion of messages, and redundancy. The ECCO is used to monitor the progress of a specific piece of information through the organization.

Scope and Application

Related fields of system theory are information theory and cybernetics. This group of theories can help us understand a wide variety of physical, biological, social and behavioral processes, including communication (Infante, 1997).

Example

Take for example family relations.

Key publications

- Bertalanffy, von, L. (1968). *General systems theory*. New York: Braziller.
- Laarmans, R. (1999). *Communicatie zonder Mensen*. Amsterdam: Uitgeverij Boom.
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13. Uncertainty Reduction Theory

Reduction Uncertainty In Behavior

History and Orientation

Uncertainty reduction theory (URT) was initially presented as a series of axioms (universal truths which do not require proof and theorems (propositions assumed to be true) which describe the relationships between uncertainty and several communication factors. URT was developed to describe the interrelationships between seven important factors in any dyadic exchange: verbal communication, nonverbal expressiveness, information-seeking behavior, intimacy, reciprocity, similarity, and liking. This theoretical perspective was originated by C.R. Berger and Calabrese in 1975; they drew on the work of Heider (1952).

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Uncertainty is unpleasant and therefore motivational; people communicate to reduce it. Uncertainty reduction follows a pattern of developmental stages (entry, personal, exit). During the entry stage information about another's sex, age, economic or social status, and other demographic information is obtained. Much of the interaction in this entry phase is

controlled by communication rules and norms. When communicators begin to share attitudes, beliefs, values, and more personal data, the personal stage begins. During this phase, the communicators feel less constrained by rules and norms and tend to communicate more freely with each other. The third stage is the exit phase. During this phase, the communicators decide on future interaction plans. They may discuss or negotiate ways to allow the relationship to grow and continue. However, any particular conversation may be terminated and the end of the entry phase. This pattern is especially likely to occur during initial interaction, when people first meet or when new topics are introduced later in a relationship.

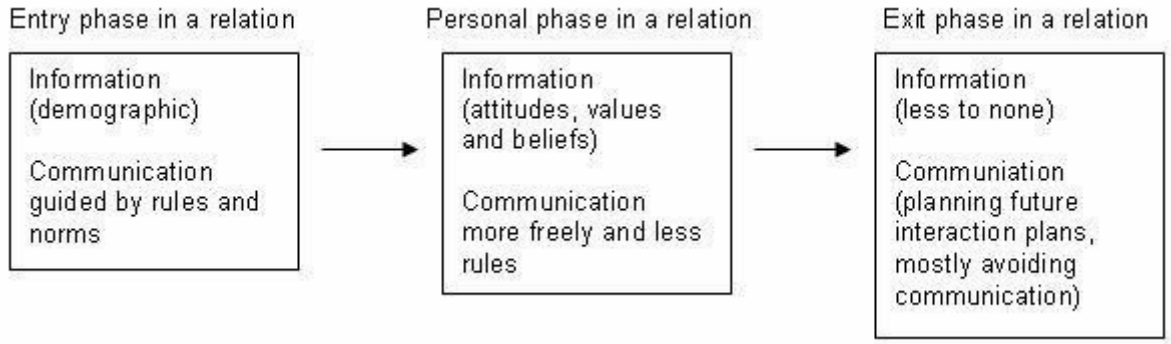
Besides the stages in uncertainty reduction patterns makes Berger a distinction between three basic ways people seek information about another person: (1) Passive strategies - a person is being observed, either in situations where the other person is likely to be self-monitoring* as in a classroom, or where the other person is likely to act more naturally as in the stands at a football game. (2) Active strategies - we ask others about the person we're interested in or try to set up a situation where we can observe that person (e.g., taking the same class, sitting a table away at dinner). Once the situation is set up we sometime observe (a passive strategy) or talk with the person (an interactive strategy). (3) Interactive strategies - we communicate directly with the person.

People seek to increase their ability to predict their partner's and their own behavior in situations. One other factor which reduces uncertainty between communicators is the degree of similarity individuals perceive in each other (in background, attitudes and appearance).

Statements: the axioms in URT follow the "If… then…" statements typical of the law-governed approach. For example: "If uncertainty levels are high, the amount of verbal communication between strangers will decrease."

*Self-monitoring is a behavior where we watch and strategically manipulate how we present ourselves to others.

Conceptual Model



Uncertainty Reduction Model
Source: Heath & Bryant (1999)

Favorite Methods

Observation.

Scope and Application

Organizational communication, society. Uncertainty reduction theory also applies at the organizational and societal levels (risk society).

Key publications

- Berger, C.R., & Bradac, J.J. (1982*). Language and social knowledge: Uncertainty in interpersonal relations*. London: Arnold.
- Berger, C. R., & Calabrese, R. J. (1975). Some explorations in initial interaction and beyond: Toward a developmental theory of interpersonal communication. *Human Communication Theory*, *1*, 99-112
- Heath, R.L. & Bryant, J. (2000). *Human Communication Theory and Research.* Concept, Context and Challenges. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Berger, C. R., & Gudykunst, W. B. (1991). Uncertainty and communication. In B. Dervin & M. Voight (Eds.), *Progress in communication sciences*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex
- Emmers, T.M. & Canary, D. (1996 Spring). "The Effect of Uncertainty Reducing Strategies on Young Couples' Relational Repair and Intimacy," *Communication Quarterly 44*: 166-82.
- Berger, C.R. & Kellerman, N. "Acquiring Social Information," in John Daly and John Wiemann, *Strategic Interpersonal Communication*, 1-31.
- Walid, A. & Lee, J.W. "Balancing Instrumental and Identity Goals in Relationships: The Role of Request Directness and Request Persistence in the Selection of Sexual Resistance Strategies," *Communication Monographs* 67 (September 2000): 284-305.
- Brashers, D.E. (2000 March). "Communication in the Management of Uncertainty: The Case of Persons Living with HIV or AIDS," *Communication Monographs* 67 (March 2000): 63-84.

9. Public Relations/ Advertising, Marketing And Consumer Behavior

1. Agenda-Setting Theory

Reduction Uncertainty In Behavior

History and Orientation

Uncertainty reduction theory (URT) was initially presented as a series of axioms (universal truths which do not require proof and theorems (propositions assumed to be true) which describe the relationships between uncertainty and several communication factors. URT was developed to describe the interrelationships between seven important factors in any dyadic exchange: verbal communication, nonverbal expressiveness, information-seeking behavior, intimacy, reciprocity, similarity, and liking. This theoretical perspective was originated by C.R. Berger and Calabrese in 1975; they drew on the work of Heider (1952).

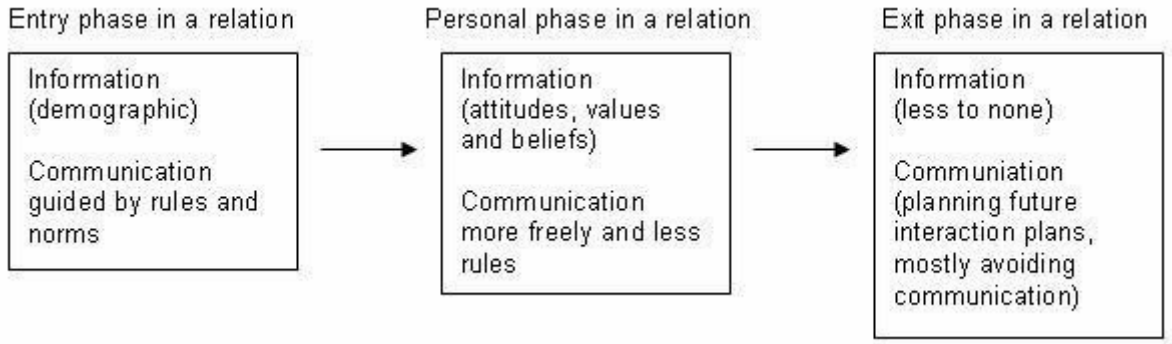
Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Uncertainty is unpleasant and therefore motivational; people communicate to reduce it. Uncertainty reduction follows a pattern of developmental stages (entry, personal, exit). During the entry stage information about another's sex, age, economic or social status, and other demographic information is obtained. Much of the interaction in this entry phase is controlled by communication rules and norms. When communicators begin to share attitudes, beliefs, values, and more personal data, the personal stage begins. During this phase, the communicators feel less constrained by rules and norms and tend to communicate more freely with each other. The third stage is the exit phase. During this phase, the communicators decide on future interaction plans. They may discuss or negotiate ways to allow the relationship to grow and continue. However, any particular conversation may be terminated and the end of the entry phase. This pattern is especially likely to occur during initial interaction, when people first meet or when new topics are introduced later in a relationship. Besides the stages in uncertainty reduction patterns makes Berger a distinction between three basic ways people seek information about another person: (1) Passive strategies - a person is being observed, either in situations where the other person is likely to be self-monitoring* as in a classroom, or where the other person is likely to act more naturally as in the stands at a football game. (2) Active strategies - we ask others about the person we're interested in or try to set up a situation where we can observe that person (e.g., taking the same class, sitting a table away at dinner). Once the situation is set up we sometime observe (a passive strategy) or talk with the person (an interactive strategy). (3) Interactive strategies - we communicate directly with the person. People seek to increase their ability to predict their partner's and their own behavior in situations. One other factor which reduces uncertainty between communicators is the degree of similarity individuals perceive in each other (in background, attitudes and appearance).

Statements: the axioms in URT follow the "If… then…" statements typical of the law-governed approach. For example: "If uncertainty levels are high, the amount of verbal communication between strangers will decrease."

*Self-monitoring is a behavior where we watch and strategically manipulate how we present ourselves to others.

Conceptual Model



Uncertainty Reduction Model
Source: Heath & Bryant (1999)

Favorite Methods
Observation.

Scope and Application
Organizational communication, society. Uncertainty reduction theory also applies at the organizational and societal levels (risk society).

Key publications

- Berger, C.R., & Bradac, J.J. (1982*). Language and social knowledge: Uncertainty in interpersonal relations*. London: Arnold.
- Berger, C. R., & Calabrese, R. J. (1975). Some explorations in initial interaction and beyond: Toward a developmental theory of interpersonal communication. *Human Communication Theory*, *1*, 99-112
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- Berger, C. R., & Gudykunst, W. B. (1991). Uncertainty and communication. In B. Dervin & M. Voight (Eds.), *Progress in communication sciences*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex
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- Brashers, D.E. (2000 March). "Communication in the Management of Uncertainty: The Case of Persons Living with HIV or AIDS," *Communication Monographs* 67 (March 2000): 63-84.

2. Attraction-Selection-Attrition Framework

Understanding Organizational Behavior

History and Orientation

Schneider (1987) asserted that “the people make the place” and that organizational culture, climate and practices are determined by the people in the organization. This theory is closely related to psychology. This theory is part of the socialization process, whereby new members in organizations according to the framework fit in a specific organization. For over 100 years discussions are held on the influence of situational variables - such as groups, technology, structure, environment - on organizational behavior. Schneider argues that the psychologists have failed to incorporate people types into our theories of organizations.
In 1995 the ASA Framework was updated. Schneider already mentioned that the person is particularly important in the organizational context. Schneider et al (1995) now added the dimension that the people are responsible for the structure, processes and culture of the organization.

Core Assumptions and Statements
Statement: ‘attributes of people, not the nature of external environment, or organizational technology, or organizational structure, are the fundamental determinants of organizational behavior’ (Schneider, 1987). The people are functions of an Attraction-Selection-Attrition cycle.

- *Attraction*: People are differentially attracted to careers as a function of their own interests and personality (Holland, 1985). Other signs of attraction are researched by Tom (1971) and Vroom (1966). They have stated that people search environments that fit by their personality and that people would like to obtain their outcomes by selecting a specific organization.
- *Selection*: Organizations select people who they think are compatible for many different kinds of jobs. In that way organizations end up choosing people who share many common personal attributes, although they may not share common competencies.
- *Attrition*: The opposite side of attraction. When people do not fit an environment they tend to leave it. When people leave the environment a more homogenous group stays than those were initially attracted to the organization.

Implications of the model are 1) the difficulty of bringing about change in organizations: Organizations have great difficulty when trying to change, because they not contain people with the appropriate inclinations. When the environment changes an organization will not be aware and probably not be capable of changing. 2) the utility of personality and interest measures for understanding organizational behavior: It is difficult for an organization to apply these topics for individual employees, who all have different compatibilities. This model makes it clear that reaching conclusions for the best structure more information is needed on the kinds of people working in the organization. 3) the genesis of organizational climate and culture: climate and culture are not easily defined in an organization, most often they exist when people share a common set of assumptions, values and beliefs. 4) the importance of recruitment: on personnel selection is paid a lot of attention. Surprisingly, on personnel recruitment, in which way do we communicate on vacancies, is not paid much attention. 5) the need for person-based theories of leadership and job attitudes. The research on this area is depressing according to Schneider (1987). We believe that the attitudes of people are created by the conditions of the work place.

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
Predominant qualitative, for example Q-Sort and Survey. For criticism see Edwards (1994) and Edwards and Parry (1993).

Scope and Application
This model can be used for better understanding organizations. The ASA model is a critical model on the current situational theories of organizations. The ASA model can help analyzing 'common thoughts' of organizations.

Example
Chatman (1989) developed a Q-sort technique with which individuals can reveal their personal values and through which incumbents already at work in organizations can reveal the values of the organization. They (O'Reilly et al., 1991) show that when the fit of personal values to organizational values to organizational values is high, employees are less likely to turnover. By inference it follows that if people who are fit are more likely to stay in an organization, then over time, the environment will become more homogeneous because similar people will stay in the organization and dissimilar ones will leave.
Example from Schneider et al (1995), p 755-756.

Key publications

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3. Attribution Theory
Explaining human behavior

History and Orientation
Heider (1958) was the first to propose a psychological theory of attribution, but Weiner and colleagues (e.g., Jones et al, 1972; Weiner, 1974, 1986) developed a theoretical framework that has

become a major research paradigm of social psychology. Heider discussed what he called “naïve” or “commonsense” psychology. In his view, people were like amateur scientists, trying to understand other people’s behavior by piecing together information until they arrived at a reasonable explanation or cause.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Attribution theory is concerned with how individuals interpret events and how this relates to their thinking and behavior. Attribution theory assumes that people try to determine why people do what they do. A person seeking to understand why another person did something may attribute one or more causes to that behavior. According to Heider a person can make two attributions 1) internal attribution, the inference that a person is behaving in a certain way because of something about the person, such as attitude, character or personality. 2) external attribution, the inference that a person is behaving a certain way because of something about the situation he or she is in.

Our attributions are also significantly driven by our emotional and motivational drives. Blaming other people and avoiding personal recrimination are very real self-serving attributions. We will also make attributions to defend what we perceive as attacks. We will point to injustice in an unfair world. We will even tend to blame victims (of us and of others) for their fate as we seek to distance ourselves from thoughts of suffering the same plight. We will also tend to ascribe less variability to other people than ourselves, seeing ourselves as more multifaceted and less predictable than others. This may well because we can see more of what is inside ourselves (and spend more time doing this).

Conceptual Model

Not applicable.

Favorite Methods

Various methods have been employed in the measurement and categorization of attributions. Open-ended methods involve the researcher categorizing the oral replies of participants to open-ended questions. Derived score methods require the participant to rate his/her reasons for, for example, a success or failure on 5-point scales for different elements (e.g. ability or effort) related to the attribution dimensions. The direct rating method (e.g. [Benson, 1989), requires the participant to state his/her reasons for the event and then map those reasons onto items referring to attribution dimensions.

Scope and Application

Attribution theory has been used to explain the difference in motivation between high and low achievers. According to attribution theory, high achievers will approach rather than avoid tasks related to succeeding, because they believe success is due to high ability and effort which they are confident of. Failure is thought to be caused by bad luck or a poor exam and is not their fault. Thus, failure doesn't affect their self-esteem but success builds pride and confidence. On the other hand, low achievers avoid success-related chores because they tend to (a) doubt their ability and/or (b) assume success is related to luck or to "who you know" or to other factors beyond their control. Thus, even when successful, it isn't as rewarding to the low achiever because he/she doesn't feel responsible, it doesn't increase his/her pride and confidence.

Example

If, for example, a runner had already been expending high effort, but had failed to reach a race final, then encouraging him to attribute the failure to lack of effort might simply demoralise him (see, e.g. [Robinson, 1990). If the qualifying standard were simply too difficult to meet, then encouraging attributions to lack of effort might serve little purpose, because increasing effort would probably do little to improve outcomes. If the wrong race strategy were used, then increasing effort would not logically lead to improved outcomes, if the same strategy were used in future.

Key publications

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4. Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Attitude Formation And Change

History and Orientation

Leon Festinger (1951) synthesized a set of studies to distill a theory about communication's social influences. Cognitive dissonance enjoyed great popularity from the late 1950s through the mid-1970s. Theoretical problems and conflicting findings lead to temporary replacement by similar "self" theories in the early 1980s, but cognitive dissonance regained its place as the umbrella theory for selective exposure to communication by the late 1980s.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Cognitive dissonance is a communication theory adopted from social psychology. The title gives the concept: cognitive is thinking or the mind; and dissonance is inconsistency or conflict. Cognitive dissonance is the psychological conflict from holding two or more incompatible beliefs simultaneously. Cognitive dissonance is a relatively straightforward social psychology theory that has enjoyed wide acceptance in a variety of disciplines including communication. The theory replaces previous conditioning or reinforcement theories by viewing individuals as more

purposeful decision makers; they strive for balance in their beliefs. If presented with decisions or information that create dissonance, they use dissonance-reduction strategies tot regain equilibrium, especially if the dissonance affects their self-esteem. The theory suggests that 1) dissonance is psychologically uncomfortable enough to motivate people to achieve consonance, and 2) in a state of dissonance, people will avoid information and situations that might increase the dissonance. How dissonance arises is easy to imagine: It may be unavoidable in an information rich-society. How people deal with it is more difficult.

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
Experiments.

Scope and Application
Dissonance theory applies to all situations involving attitude formation and change. This theory is able to manipulate people into certain behavior, by doing so these people will alter their attitudes themselves. It is especially relevant to decision-making and problem-solving.

Example
Consider a driver who refuses to use a seat belt despite knowing that the law requires it, and it saves lives. Then a news report or a friend's car incident stunts the scofflaw into facing reality. Dissonance may be reduced by 1) altering behavior… start using a seat belt so the behavior is consonant with knowing that doing so is smart or 2) seeking information that is consonant with the behavior… air bags are safer than seat belts. If the driver never faces a situation that threatens the decision not to use seat belts, then no dissonance-reduction action is likely because the impetus to reduce dissonance depends on the magnitude of the dissonance held.

Key publications

- Aronson, E., Fried, C. & Stone, J. (1991). Overcoming denial and increasing the intention to use condoms through the induction of hypocrisy. *American Journal of Public Health, 81*, 1636-1638.
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5. Elaboration Likelihood Model

Motivation And Processing Ability Determine Attitude Change

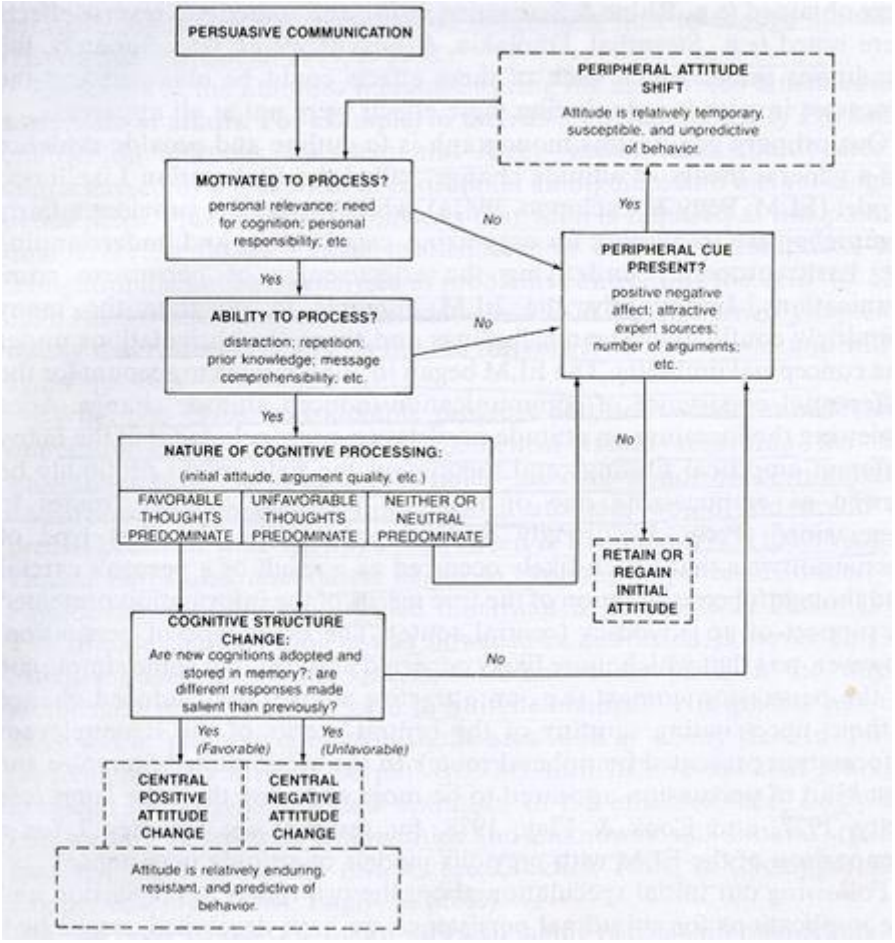
History and Orientation

Petty and Cacioppo (1979) discovered, in contrast to social judgment-involvement theory, that high levels of involvement do not invariably decrease persuasion.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: The ELM is based on the idea that attitudes are important because attitudes guide decisions and other behaviors. While attitudes can result from a number of things, persuasion is a primary source. The model features two routes of persuasive influence: central and peripheral. The ELM accounts for the differences in persuasive impact produced by arguments that contain ample information and cogent reasons as compared to messages that rely on simplistic associations of negative and positive attributes to some object, action or situation. The key variable in this process is involvement, the extent to which an individual is willing and able to 'think' about the position advocated and its supporting materials. When people are motivated and able to think about the content of the message, elaboration is high. Elaboration involves cognitive processes such as evaluation, recall, critical judgment, and inferential judgment. When elaboration is high, the central persuasive route is likely to occur; conversely, the peripheral route is the likely result of low elaboration. Persuasion may also occur with low elaboration. The receiver is not guided by his or her assessment of the message, as in the case of the central route, but the receiver decides to follow a principle or a decision-rule which is derived from the persuasion situation.

Conceptual Model



Elaboration Likelihood Model
Source: Petty, R.E., Kasmer, J., Haugtvedt, C. & Cacioppo, J. (1987)

Favorite Methods

Reader-experiments. Questionnaires (about arguments used in a text, brand recall, source credibility etc.)

Scope and Application

Advertisement-research (printed media, television etc.), psychological research. This theory is promising because it integrates an array of variables into a single explanation of persuasion. It addresses factors that explain why and when messages and self-motivated efforts are more or less likely to lead to attitude formation.

Key publications

- Cacioppo, J.T. & Petty, R.E. (1979). Effects of message repetition and position on cognitive response, recall and persuasion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *27,* 97-109.
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6. Expectancy Value Theory

Orientations To The World, According To Expectations And Evaluations

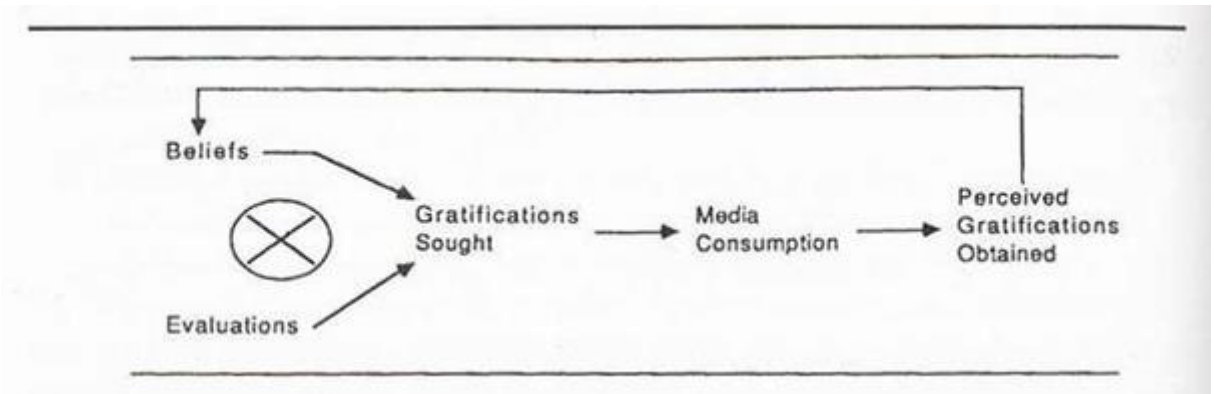
History and Orientation

Expectancy value theory is directly linked to uses and gratifications theory. The theory was founded by Martin Fishbein in the 1970s.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: According to expectancy-value theory, behavior is a function of the expectancies one has and the value of the goal toward which one is working. Such an approach predicts that, when more than one behavior is possible, the behavior chosen will be the one with the largest combination of expected success and value. Expectancy-value theories hold that people are goal-oriented beings. The behaviors they perform in response to their beliefs and values are undertaken to achieve some end. However, although expectancy-value theory can be used to explain central concepts in uses and gratifications research, there are other factors that influence the process. For example the social and psychological origins of needs, which give rise to motives for behavior, which may be guided by beliefs, values, and social circumstances into seeking various gratifications through media consumption and other nonmedia behaviors.
Statements: Expectancy value theory suggests that "people orient themselves to the world according to their expectations (beliefs) and evaluations". Utilizing this approach, behavior, behavioral intentions, or attitudes are seen as a function of "(1) expectancy (or belief) – the perceived probability that an object possesses a particular attribute or that a behavior will have a particular consequence; and (2) evaluation – the degree of affect, positive or negative, toward an attribute or behavioral outcome" (Palmgreen, 1984).

Conceptual Model



Expectancy value model
Source: Palmgreen (1984)

Favorite Methods
Experiments (field and laboratory), and questionnaires (attitude/value rating scales).

Scope and Application
Expectancy-value theory has proved useful in the explanation of social behaviors, achievement motivation, and work motivation.
Elaborated expectation-value theories:

- Expectancy-value model of achievement motivation
- Behavioral decision theory or subjective expected utility (S.E.U.) theory is one of the most fully developed of the expectancy-value formulations
- Fishbein's theory of reasoned action or behavioral intentions is another widely accepted and well-developed expectancy-value theory.
- Rotter's social learning theory.
-

Example
The combination of beliefs and evaluations developed about a program, a program genre, the content, or a specific medium could be either positive or negative. If positive, it is likely that the individual would continue to use that media choice; if negative, then one would avoid it.

Key publications

- Fishbein, M (1967). Attitude and the prediction of behaviour. In: Fishbein, M (Ed.). *Readings in attitude theory and measurement*. New York: Wiley.
- Fishbein, M (1968). An investigation of relationships between beliefs about an object and the attitude towards that object. *Human Relationships*, *16*, 233-240.
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- Palmgreen, P. (1984). Uses and gratifications: A theoretical perspective. In: Bostrom, R.N. (Ed.), *Communication Yearbook 8 (61-72*). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

7. Priming

Media Effects

History and Orientation
Much attention in agenda-setting research, in the 80’s, was focused on the concept of priming. This concept was derived from the cognitive psychological concept of priming.

Core Assumptions and Statements
Priming refers to enhancing the effects of the media by offering the audience a prior context – a context that will be used to interpret subsequent communication. The media serve to provide the audience with standards and frames of reference. Agenda-setting refers mainly to the importance of an issue; priming tells us whether something is good or bad, whether it is communicated effectively, etc. The media have primed the audience about what a news program looks like, what a credible person looks like, etc.

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
Experiments, panel studies, cross-sectional field studies.

Scope and Application
News mass-media

Key publications

- Cappella, J.N., Fishbein, M., Hornik, R., Ahern, R.K., & Sayeed, S. (2001). Using theory to select messages in antidrug media campaigns: Reasoned action and media priming. In:Rice,
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8. Semiotic Theories
Interpretation Of Meaning

History and Orientation
Semiotics, translated as the science of signification, is often said to derive from two sources: F. de Saussure (Swiss-French, 1857-1913) and C.S. Peirce (Anglo-American, 1839-1914). Some other researchers known for their work in semiotics are Noam Chomsky, Umberto Eco, R. Barthes and Jean Baudrillard.

Core Assumptions and Statements
Semiotics is the theory of the production and interpretation of meaning. It's basic principle is that meaning is made by the deployment of acts and objects which function as "signs" in relation to other signs. Systems of signs are constituted by the complex meaning-relations that can exist between one sign and another, primarily relations of contrast and superordination/subordination (e.g. class/member, whole/part). Signs are deployed in space and

time to produce "texts", whose meanings are construed by the mutually contextualizing relations among their signs.
There are two major traditions in European semiotics: F. de Saussure, semiology; and C.S. Peirce, semiotics. Saussure's approach was a generalization of formal, structuralist linguistics; Peirce's was an extension of reasoning and logic in the natural sciences.
General Semiotics tends to be formalistic, abstracting signs from the contexts of use; Social Semiotics takes the meaning-making process, "semiosis", to be more fundamental than the system of meaning-relations among signs, which are considered only the resources to be deployed in making meaning.
Multimedia semiotics is based on the principle that all meaning-making, because it is a material process as well as a semiotic practice, necessarily overflows the analytical boundaries between distinct, idealized semiotic resource systems such as language, gesture, depiction, action, etc. Every material act and sign can be, and usually is, construed in relation to more than one system of sign relations (e.g. a written word is both a linguistic sign and a visual orthographic one; a spoken word is also construed in relation to its non-linguistic acoustical qualities; an image is interpreted both visually and usually also linguistically; etc.). Therefore it becomes important to study how different sign-systems are physically and semiotically integrated in texts and multimedia productions of various kinds

Conceptual Model
Not applicable.

Favorite Methods
To be added.

Scope and Application
Social semiotics examines semiotic practices, specific to a culture and community, for the making of various kinds of texts and meanings in various situational contexts and contexts of culturally meaningful activity. Social semiotics therefore makes no radical separation between theoretical and applied semiotics and is more closely associated with discourse analysis, multimedia analysis, educational research, cultural anthropology, political sociology, etc.

Key publications

- Barthes, R. (1967). *Elements of Semiology* (trans. Annette Lavers & Colin Smith). London: Jonathan Cape.
- Baudrillard, J. & Poster, M. (1988). *Selected Writings*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
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- Peters, J.M. (1987). In het teken van het beeld. Beknopte introductie tot de semiologie. In J. Bardoel & J. Bierhoff (Eds.), *Informatie in Nederland, theorie, achtergronden*. Groningen: Wolters-Noordhoff.
- Saussure, F. de (1983). *Course in General Linguistics* (trans. Roy Harris). London: Duckworth.

9. Theory Of Planned Behavior/ Reasoned Action

Explaining Human Behavior

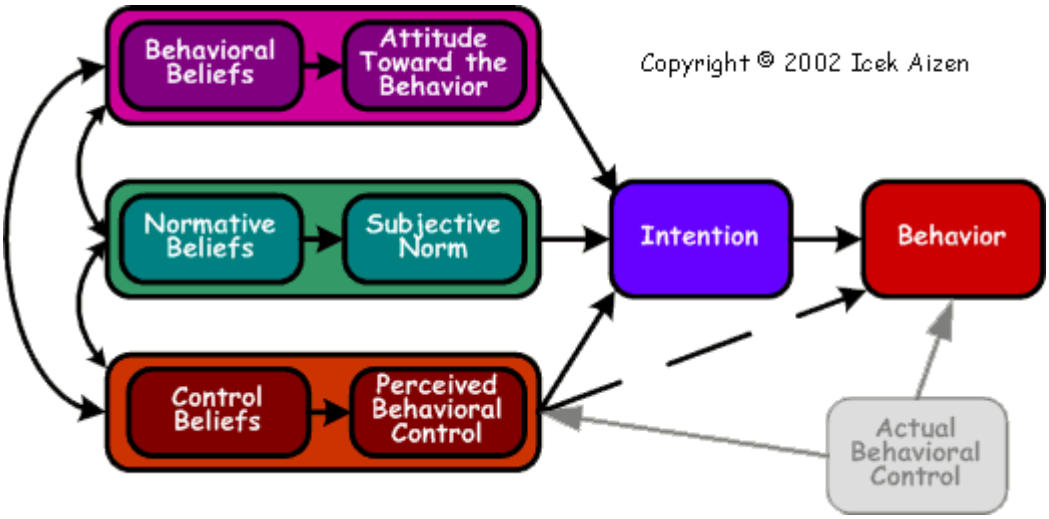
History and Orientation

Ajzen and Fishbein formulated in 1980 the theory of reasoned action (TRA). This resulted from attitude research from the Expectancy Value Models. Ajzen and Fishbein formulated the TRA after trying to estimate the discrepancy between attitude and behavior. This TRA was related to voluntary behavior. Later on behavior appeared not to be 100% voluntary and under control, this resulted in the addition of perceived behavioral control. With this addition the theory was called the theory of planned behavior (TpB). The theory of planned behavior is a theory which predicts deliberate behavior, because behavior can be deliberative and planned.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Theory of Reasoned Action suggests that a person's behavior is determined by his/her intention to perform the behavior and that this intention is, in turn, a function of his/her attitude toward the behavior and his/her subjective norm. The best predictor of behavior is intention. Intention is the cognitive representation of a person's readiness to perform a given behavior, and it is considered to be the immediate antecedent of behavior. This intention is determined by three things: their attitude toward the specific behavior, their subjective norms and their perceived behavioral control. The theory of planned behavior holds that only specific attitudes toward the behavior in question can be expected to predict that behavior. In addition to measuring attitudes toward the behavior, we also need to measure people's subjective norms – their beliefs about how people they care about will view the behavior in question. To predict someone's intentions, knowing these beliefs can be as important as knowing the person's attitudes. Finally, perceived behavioral control influences intentions. Perceived behavioral control refers to people's perceptions of their ability to perform a given behavior. These predictors lead to intention. A general rule, the more favorable the attitude and the subjective norm, and the greater the perceived control the stronger should the person's intention to perform the behavior in question.

Conceptual Model



Source: Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 50, p. 179-211.

Favorite Methods

Ajzen provides fairly clear instructions for designing theory of planned behavior questionnaires on his website. Ajzen uses a questionnaire to define the elements of behavior and uses direct observation or self-reports later on.

Scope and Application

Provide useful information for the development of communication strategies. This theory is also used in evaluation studies. Other usages of the model include: voting behavior, disease prevention behavior, birth control behavior (Jaccard & Davidson, 1972), consumption prediction.

Example

Examples of items which can be researched with the theory of planned behavior are whether to wear a seat belt, whether to check oneself for disease and whether to use condoms when having sex.

Key publications

- Aronson, E., Wilson, T.D. & Akert, R.M. (2003). *Social Psychology*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
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- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (in press). Theory-based behavior change interventions: Comments on Hobbis and Sutton (in press). *Journal of Health Psychology.*
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- Price, J.L., 2001. The landfill directive and the challenge ahead: demands and pressures on the UK householder. *Resour. Conserv. Recycl.* 32, 3–4, pp. 333–348.
- Read, A.D., 1999. Making waste work- making UK national solid waste strategy work at the local scale. *Resour. Conserv. Recycl.* 26, 3/4, pp. 259–285.
- Read, A.D., 1999. A weekly doorstep recycling collection, I had no idea we could! Overcoming the local barriers to participation. *Resour. Conserv. Recycl.* 26, 3/4, pp. 217–249.

10. Uncertainty Reduction Theory

Reduction Uncertainty In Behavior

History and Orientation

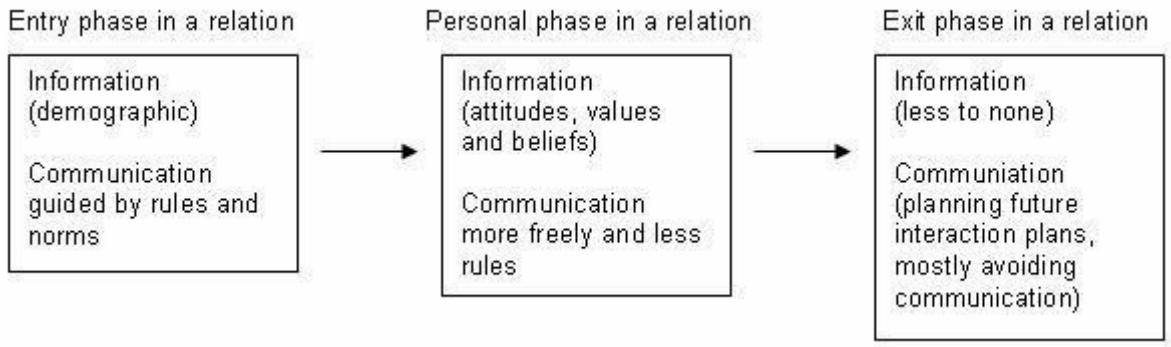
Uncertainty reduction theory (URT) was initially presented as a series of axioms (universal truths which do not require proof and theorems (propositions assumed to be true) which describe the relationships between uncertainty and several communication factors. URT was developed to describe the interrelationships between seven important factors in any dyadic exchange: verbal communication, nonverbal expressiveness, information-seeking behavior, intimacy, reciprocity, similarity, and liking. This theoretical perspective was originated by C.R. Berger and Calabrese in 1975; they drew on the work of Heider (1952).

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Uncertainty is unpleasant and therefore motivational; people communicate to reduce it. Uncertainty reduction follows a pattern of developmental stages (entry, personal, exit). During the entry stage information about another's sex, age, economic or social status, and other demographic information is obtained. Much of the interaction in this entry phase is controlled by communication rules and norms. When communicators begin to share attitudes, beliefs, values, and more personal data, the personal stage begins. During this phase, the communicators feel less constrained by rules and norms and tend to communicate more freely with each other. The third stage is the exit phase. During this phase, the communicators decide on future interaction

plans. They may discuss or negotiate ways to allow the relationship to grow and continue. However, any particular conversation may be terminated and the end of the entry phase. This pattern is especially likely to occur during initial interaction, when people first meet or when new topics are introduced later in a relationship.
Besides the stages in uncertainty reduction patterns makes Berger a distinction between three basic ways people seek information about another person: (1) Passive strategies - a person is being observed, either in situations where the other person is likely to be self-monitoring* as in a classroom, or where the other person is likely to act more naturally as in the stands at a football game. (2) Active strategies - we ask others about the person we're interested in or try to set up a situation where we can observe that person (e.g., taking the same class, sitting a table away at dinner). Once the situation is set up we sometime observe (a passive strategy) or talk with the person (an interactive strategy). (3) Interactive strategies - we communicate directly with the person.
People seek to increase their ability to predict their partner's and their own behavior in situations. One other factor which reduces uncertainty between communicators is the degree of similarity individuals perceive in each other (in background, attitudes and appearance).
Statements: the axioms in URT follow the "If… then…" statements typical of the law-governed approach. For example: "If uncertainty levels are high, the amount of verbal communication between strangers will decrease."
*Self-monitoring is a behavior where we watch and strategically manipulate how we present ourselves to others.

Conceptual Model



Uncertainty Reduction Model
Source: Heath & Bryant (1999)

Favorite Methods
Observation.

Scope and Application
Organizational communication, society. Uncertainty reduction theory also applies at the organizational and societal levels (risk society).

Key publications

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