Introduction To Human Communication

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Chapter One Communication Perception and Persuasion

his section shows the communicative process as starting with the receiving of the communicative message and how do we perceive this message, what are the different biological and psychological changes that happen to us when we receive a message. As we have learned in communication (level 1), Your role as sender or receiver is an interchangeable one. Every message you receive, can influence your life one way or another. This chapter will discuss the human communication process beginning with receiving, perceiving the message ending with persuasion and various tactics used by receiver to change their attitudes.

The Perception:

Perception means what goes on inside humans during communication between senders and receivers. How the human mind handles messages and sends them, and the formation of both rational and emotional outcomes of perception. This interactivity would never occur unless we receive, perceive, react and be affected or persuaded by the message. This process depends upon how human mind works according to different messages it receives, this is what we are going to find out.

The mind as a decoder: The human mind has a huge capacity for receiving, processing and storing great quantities of information, and for organizing and later using this information as a basis for behavior. When we receive a message our minds take the following steps in order to help us receive, understand and make use of these messages. The receiving process functions as follows;

- 1. External stimulation: Events taking place outside the body are signaled to the body by one of the five senses of sight, sound, taste, smell and touch. This causes the sensory organ to send messages to the brain via the system of nerves.
- 2. Encoding to Sensory impulses: The Sensor organ encode the message as nerve impulses (somewhat like a small electrical current) and send it to the brain.
- 3. Decoding to Physical sensations: The mind converts the impulses into physical sensations of sight, sound, taste, smell and touch. These physical sensations are the raw data with which the mind begins its functioning.
- 4. Perception: The mind interprets the physical sensation into meanings depending on the past experience. The mind begins to classify and organizes incoming information, giving it pattern, relation and meaning to relate it with information already stored. In doing so, it tends to select, or emphasis certain aspects of the new information and to pass over to others. This explains why messages sometimes are decoded to contain meaning which the sender didn't intend. After that the mind store this information as additional confirmation of the knowledge already exist in the brain, or as an additional dimension for this knowledge, or as a new information.
- 5. Emotional feeling: Perceptions in our minds not only arrive at knowledge, beliefs but at the same thing they arouse emotions. These emotions may be pleasure or displeasure, love, hate, desire, fear, anger. The emotional state is called "affect".
- 6. The Rational products of perceptions: Beliefs are the end product of perceptions process. A person may have a great number and variety of different beliefs about each

object or person in his environment. The total of these beliefs is called "Knowledge". These beliefs didn't arrive quickly, but as a result of receiving, perceiving and processing of many different messages about the same object, covering a period of time. And these Beliefs are classified to:

- a) Informational beliefs: Are based on the communication messages. These kinds of beliefs are very easy to change.
- b) Descriptive beliefs: Are based on direct observation (seeing, hearing ... etc.) of the object by the person himself. These kinds of beliefs are harder to change because the person experienced them himself.
- c) Internal beliefs: Are arrived by rational processing and based on past experiences (Stored as descriptive beliefs) using logic. They are the hardest to change.
- 7. The Emotional products of perceptions is named Attitudes: The attitude is the emotional component of perceptions that man stores. These stable emotional patterns gradually develop through interaction with the outside world. Attitudes are the key measure of affects. The Positive negative emotional reaction is called out attitude towards the object. The scale of attitude varies from positive, neutral, or negative affect with respect to something. Man tend to have attitudes toward everything around him. He may be completely neutral about things that are unfamiliar or unimportant to him, but if something is important, they have an attitude towards it.
- 8. The mind as an encoder: In most times, the events that take place within the body when a message is transmitted are similar to those take place when a message is received, but they occur in reverse order. The mind begin encoding the beliefs and attitudes to a message formation and finally translate this massage into news impulses, which order the voice mechanism to say the message.

Persuasion:

The act of persuasion is as old as man. In Ancient Greece, persuasion was the main means of achieving power and winning in the courts. Aristotle was the first to study persuasion in depth. He linked between communication and persuasion. He identified communication as all available means to reach persuasion. Aristotle focused on three ways to reach persuasion: The use of evidence in rational discussion + The use of personal characteristics + The use of emotions.

- Definition of persuasion: Scheidel defined persuasion as: The activity in which the speaker attempts to influence the behavior of the listener towards issue by transmitting audible and visible symbolic. Generally the Persuasion depend upon two aspects: communication + Intending to affect audience.
- Elements of Persuasion: We can underline five elements of persuasion:
 - 1- The invention or discovery of evidence and argument.
 - 2- The organization of them.

 3- The artistic styling of them.
 - 4- The memorization of them. 5- The skillful delivery of them.
- Process of Persuasion (Models): The following models descrip the process of persuation, in attempting to describe the nature of these process 2 things will clear that: 1st, these models is considered as an extension of the current communicationtheories. 2nd, these models are roughly formulated.

The psychodynamic model: describes the process of persuasion, it says that the effective persuasive message must carry properties capable of altering the psychological functioning of the individual, thus he will respond overly with modes of behavior, intended by the source. The persuasive messages aimed to affect the individual attitudes,

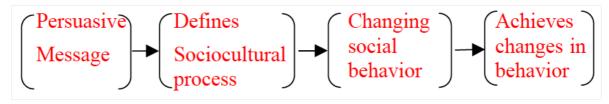
by assuming that there is a close relationship between his attitude and his behavior in social situations. see the following graphic shap:



The sociocultural model: says that the persuasion consist of complicated combination of the social relationship and the cultural theory. Social and cultural variables have been widely recognized by communication researchers and other social scientists, as playing an important part in determining the way, in which people adopt new ideas and things. However, sociocultural variables have been used as a basis for appeals in persuasive communication. The sociocultural variables is also considered as an important sources determining the direction of the individual's attitude.

These sociocultural variables such as organizational membership, work roles, cultural norms of reference groups and norms of primary group who play a part in directing action. Thus Asch & Sheriff indicate to the influences of norms in guiding, defining and modifying the behavior of the individual regardless of his internal tendency.

It must be recognized, that the behavioral patterns of the man can not be interpreted on the basis of psychological tendency nor psychological factors only, especially when the individual is acting within special social setting. Thus the sociocultural factors existing within individual are directing his behavior. This behavior will be formed regarding to social and cultural constraints, and he may face psychological conflict in his behavior, the following shape representing the sociocultural model:



These two Models suggest that the persuasive messages presented via the mass media. There are undoubtedly numerous ways in which persuasion process could be conceptualized. The psychodynamic and the sociocultural strategies, however, seem to be rather clear links to the attitudes and their formation.

Attitudes (formation and functions):

Many books and research papers have discussed the problem of "attitude". A great number of people were interesting with attitudes, such as : rulers, psychologists, advertisers, propagandists, all of them want to "persuade" people. The problem of persuasion supposes a knowledge of people's attitudes, and consequently of ways to change or influence these attitudes. This means a real knowledge of the nature of attitudes, their formation, their function and means of attitude measuring and analysis.

Definition of Attitude: The concept of "attitude" has been variously defined by social

scientists, the most acceptable is that of Rokeach: attitude is an organized beliefs towards situation, this beliefs forms the manner. this definition specify 4 factors or conditions:

- 1- An Attitude is <u>remaining over time</u>: Attitudes are formed by past experiences and learn us the responses to particular objects, things or processes, and thus those attitudes are working round a central beliefs.
- 2- An Attitude is an <u>organization of beliefs</u>: It represents a cluster of two or more interrelated beliefs. A belief is any simple suggestion, conscious or unconscious inferred from what a person says or does. Each belief has two components:
 - A cognitive component (person's knowledge): It represents as an static object.
 - An affective component (capable of leads to some action when suitably activated): It is a dynamic event around which a person organizes a set of interrelated beliefs about how to behave.
- 3- An attitude is a set of interrelated <u>tendency to respond</u>: A response may be either a verbal expression or a non verbal behavior, an attitude is an "agenda for action" that is, it specifies the response a person will make to a given object within a given situation.
- 4- An attitude leads to an <u>advanced response</u>: An attitude prepare the person to respond in a preferential manner toward others who agree or disagree with him. Many persons tend to use the terms attitude and opinion interchangeably as if there were no different between them. Opinion is the overt expression (verbal or non verbal) of an attitude which is only internal to the individual. Thus, when we measure opinions, we only infer that they refer to an internal attitude of the individual.
- Formation of Attitude: Let us consider how attitudes arise and where do their origins lie. We can trace three sources where the attitudes lie:
 - 1- In the child rearing experience of the first 5 or 6 years of life.
 - 2- By association between individuals or formal and informal groups met with in later life.
 - 3- From unique and isolated experiences or similar experiences repeated throughout life.

But those three sources must be considered within the framework of society and its culture or way of life to which the individual belongs. In the earlier years a parent tries to plant this culture into the child and this process is known as mediated social-cultural influence. Later on, the process becomes self inculcated and this is known as direct social-cultural influence.

- ■Functions of Attitudes: This point is a controversial issue, one of the main questions asked is: "does an attitude form properties or do motives come from sources other than the attitude itself? To answer this question we must know the functions of an attitude. Lasswell and others believe that attitudes serve mainly irrational, ego-defensive functions. Another Scientists and students of culture and sociology went further to say that attitudes reflects the cultures and subcultures of the primitive and modern man. This opinion gives attitudes positive functions which were formulated by Katz as follows:
 - 1- The Environmental function: inculdes values of security, achievement, competence, success and loyalty to in group. It is served when people strive to maximize the rewards and to minimize the penalties of their external environment.
 - 2- The ego-defensive function: in which a person protects himself from acknowledging the basic truth about himself or the harsh realities in his external world. It may be reflected in positive values as honor, chivalry, racial purity, or in negative values as the extensive condemnations and intemperance.
 - 3- The expression function: This function is central to doctrines of ego psychology which stress the importance of self-expression, self- development and self-realization. This mean that the individual feel satisfy when he express his attitudes (which related to his

values and concepts).

4- The knowledge function: based upon the individual's need to give adequate structure to his universe. It refers to a person's central values concerning truth, understanding and the search of meaning, also serving self-expression, self-development and self-realization.

The following table showing the each function and the conditions of arousing and changing

Function / origins and dynamic	Arousal conditions	Change conditions
Adjustment : utility of attitudes help people to maximize the rewards and to minimize the penalties.	Activation of needs + Need of satisfaction.	Need deprivation + aspiration + New and better paths + Shifting rewards and punishments
Ego-defense: Protecting against internal conflicts and external dangers.	Threats + Hate and Press + Frustration + Authoritarian .	Removal of threats + Catharsis. + Development of self-insight.
Expression : Maintaining self identity + enhancing favorable self expression and self determination .	Emblems associated with values + Appeals to individuals to reassert self image.	Dissatisfaction with self + Greater appropriateness of new attitude for the self + Control of all environmental support to undermine old values.
Knowledge: Need for understanding meaningful cognitive organization and consistency and clarity.	References with emblems to old problem or the old problem itself.	Meaningful information about problems.

Measuring Attitudes:

Attitude measurement is a process whereby we can assesses the individual's response to a set of social situations. This is done by observing a sample of behavior. Each behavioral element in the attitude response to a particular situation. The set of behavior comprising an attitude is called an attitude universe. There are several methods available for measuring attitudes among them:

- 1- Judgment method: There are two major aspects of this method. Firstly, to gives each behavior degree of favorableness towards the issue. Secondly, the respondents must be scored on the basis of their responses to the items.
- 2- The method of sum ratings: Technique similar to techniques used in the mental-testing field. In this method five categories of responses are provided for each item: strongly disapprove, with scores 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, respectively. An individual's scale score is the sum of his score on the items.
- 3- Scalogram analysis: In 1944 Guttmann proposed a numeric method for scaling monotone attitude items. In a Guttmann scale the items have a special cumulative property. For example, a person who responds positively to the third item on the scale is almost sure to have responded positively to the first and second items. The basic idea of the scalogram is that items can be arranged in an order so that an individual who responds positively to, any particular item also responds positively to all items of lower value order. The rank order of the items is the scale of items; the scale of persons is very similar, people being arranged in order according to the highest rank order of items checked, which is equivalent to the number of positive responses in a perfect scale.

- Conclusion: Attitudes can be formed toward "objects" and "situations", and in many cases the two are not compatible which creates the problem of correspondence. Persuaders are always trying to appeal to attitudes that we hold or values that we have. Though not clearly linked to behavioral change, attitudes and opinions are important to persuaders. Whether attitudes affect behavior or not, persuaders think that they do and build their messages accordingly.
- Persuasive Communication Models: How can we effectively communicate and reach persuasion? We can identify persuasive communication as "The communication process where the communicator uses his tactics to affect a group of target audience attitudes and their behavior. Carrel Hovland and his colleagues were the first to make a persuasive communication model. This model depends upon three set of factors in order to reach the intended attitudes and behavior. These factors are:

First- Factors related to the communication process: These factors include the three main key factors in the communication process which are:

A- Factors related to the source: They include: Source specialization + credibility + status + Audience love to the source. The source plays the key role in the persuasive communication process. He can easily transfer his ideas when he is specialized in the topic he is talking about, using the common communication skills such as talking, writing, reading, listening, thinking and level of knowledge are variables behind the success of communication process.

Source credibility: Scientists in communication field say that man response to new ideas and information depended on "who said it", while the social scientists say that the characteristics of the message enhance his communication effectiveness. Hovland find out that source credibility whether high or low don't affect the amount of information transferred to the audience, but other factors such as the sources demographic characteristics, the resemblance with the audience and the accepting from the audience affect the process. This why sometime, actors are chosen for certain persuasive messages.

- B- Factors related to the message: Hovland pointed out some factors that must be included in the message in order to be effective such as the <u>arrangement</u> of ideas, <u>evidence</u>, <u>arguments</u> and the <u>dimensions</u> of the message. Also the message can present the favorable arguments that the source is advocating or it can present the opposing positions as well. If both sides will be presented, we must decide which argument should precede the other. Should a conclusion be presented or should it be left to the receivers to draw their own conclusion. What kind of appeals should be used? : such questions have generated interesting studies on the role of the message component in changing attitudes. This will be discussed later.
- C- Factors related to the audience: Individuals vary greatly in their personal psychological organization. Here we focuses on variables in the audience that affect their readiness to be persuaded. This inculdes personality characteristics and other factors that enable communicators to predict which type of persons will respond to new information or emotions appeals. These characteristics are:
 - 1- An individual's <u>readiness</u> to accept a favorable or unfavorable position on the particular topic that is being discussed. This characteristic deals with personality who anxious to deviate from accepted norms.
 - 2- An individual's susceptibility to particular types of arguments and persuasive

- appeals. This characteristic refers to the predisposition factor takes into account that audience are exposed to different types of communication that makes respond to some appeals and neglect others.
- 3- An individual's <u>overall level</u> of susceptibility to any form of persuasion or social influence. This characteristic includes those personality characteristics of people who are most resistant to all forms of persuasion, as well as those who are moderately responsive and those who are highly perusable.

A number of personality factors have been suggested as affecting persuasibility:

- A. Overt Hostility: People who display overt aggressiveness, or overt anti-social behavior are considered very difficult to react to any form of persuasion.
- B. Social Withdrawal: People who have a tendency to remain away are considered to be resistant to any form of persuasion.
- C. Richness of Fantasy: People with rich fantasy tend to be more receptive to persuasive communication.
- D. Self Esteem: Men with low self esteem are more responsive to persuasive communication than others. These persons are passive dependant and can adopt at least temporarily whatever ideas are being promoted.
- E. Other directness: This refers to people with others directed. They are likely to be influenced by an educational or promotional campaign designed to change any type of belief or attitude. However, their change is likely to be short lived if exposed to counter propaganda.
- F. Sex Differences: It is assumed that women in impersonal matters are more perusable than men. Thus, women are more responsive to attitudes change than men in matters related to political or social issues.

Second: factors related to cognitive and psychological reaction: This set of factors indicates the status of reaction and feedback either in the inner perception or in an overt behavior. It is the middle stage that leads to types of effect including attention, understanding and persuasion.

Third: Factors related to affect the receiver: These factors are the goal of the persuasive communication. It is what we call the K.A.P. scale where we know to what extend did we affected our audience. "K" refers to knowledge, this simply notifies that we affected the receiver's knowledge by giving him information that might help him form an opinion on the issue we are talking about. "A" refer to attitude, which we can form or change. "P" refer to practice which means succeeding in changing the receiver's behavior and helping him adopt our desired behavior.

Borders of persuasive Communication:
There are many barriers to persuasive communication such as language, defense mechanism, misinterpretation, inconsistency with

Factors related to source: Source specialization Source credibility Understanding Knowledge Source status Audience love to the Factors related to message: acceptance Arrangement of ideas Organization of arguments attitudes One-side or both sided Stating conclusion Factors related audience: Audience characteristics Practice persuasion Social withdrawal Richness of fantasy Self esteem

beliefs educational barrier, status barrier and lack of trust. How to overcome these barriers that what we are going to discuss in the next chapters.

Chapter Two Communication Skills

Introductory Point:

Previous chapter discuss the communication process starting with the transmission of ideas and ending with their reception by another person. Your role as sender or receiver is an interchangeable one. Just think of what you read, in School, college and out, compared to the amount that you write. Obviously, reading and listening skills are as important to you as writing and speaking. This chapter will discuss the transmission skills that includes speaking, and the writting. This chapter will also focus on understanding your audience, different perspective in understanding your audience, the feedback model and verbal and non verbal clues. The next chapter will discuss the reception skills focusing on guides to active listening and strategies for improving listening skills.

Transmission Skills: Speaking and Writing

<u>Speaking and writing</u> are alike in many important ways. Each requires the same clarification of the purpose you want to accomplish, the same ability to keep always in mind the nature and needs of the audience, and the same thoughtful development of the ideas with which you must supply the audience in order to accomplish your purpose. Both require an adequate command of language. But in the other hand there are a different between them, the speaker is face-to-face with his audience; the writer is not.

The <u>physical presence</u> can be a great advantage to the speaker. His manners and facial expressions can express his personality to the audience and can help him remain in contact with them. The qualities of his voice animate the words he uses and hence, the ideas he express. In contrast, the writer depends only on a masterful command of the written language. Careful construction of sentences precise choice of words, and such typographical devices as punctuation and paragraphing are all he has to take the place of the marvelously communicative qualities of the human voice. In the other hand while the speaker's physical presence may face some difficulties, writer who isn't sure just what he wants to say can stop, think scratch, and revise.

The <u>preparation</u>, A speaker, must be sure of the reaction of the audience, and this require from him to revise what he intend to say quickly during the communication. Careful thinking and preparation are important to the writer too; but they are absolutely essential for the Speaker. Facing the audience directly places the speaker in a different psychological situation, also one that has both advantage and disadvantages. The direct contact may stimulate him to produce more direct, and lively expression of his ideas. At the same time, he is acutely aware of his own presence before the audience. He may feel that they are examining him far more critically than they actually are and that they are far more monitoring his little mistakes than they actually are.

Reception Skills: Reading and Listening:

Because they are <u>both</u> receptive skills, reading and listening have much in common. Understanding the ideas is often not enough for effective reading and listening, because the value and validity of the ideas may be open to question. Passive acceptance of everything you read or hear is undesirable as the opposite extreme cynical refusal to believe anything.

The intelligent course is to learn when to be critical in your reading and listening and how to use the tools of critical thinking to place the proper evaluation on what you read or hear. In short, both reader and listener are involved in the complicated processes of assimilating and critically evaluating ideas, and they make use of the same basic knowledge and ways of thinking.

The amount of <u>unbroken and concentrated attention</u> is required. Listening, especially if you are not the only listener, is an instantaneous experience that generally cannot be repeated. If you lost the concentration during the speaker lecture, it will be very difficult to catch the set of ideas again. Also If you spend too much time taking notes you will fail to distinguish between main ideas and details and the speaker will leave you behind. Concentration is also important in reading, but the situation is different. If your attention is distorted, you can always return. Usually the reader has more control over distractions, too. He can shut the radio off or move to a quieter spot if other people distract him.

Transmission Skills:

1- Speaking:

What is a presentation?: "Presentations are a way of communication ideas and information to a group" A good presentation should have the following ingredients:

- Content:It contains information that people need. Unlike reports, it must account for how much information the audience can absorb in one sitting.
- Structure: It has a logical beginning, middle, and end. Ideas must be sequenced to be understandable. While reports have appendices and footnotes, the presenter must be careful not to loose the audience concentration toward the main point of the presentation.
- Packaging: It must be well prepared. A report can be reread and portions skipped over, but the audience is at the mercy of a presenter.
- Human Element: A good presentation will be remembered much more than a good report because it has a person attached to it. But you still need to analyze if the audience's needs would not be better met if a report was sent instead.

How to prepare for an oral presentation?: Like good writing, good oral presentation must be clearly and logically organized. Once you have your material organized, presenting it orally is quite a different matter from presenting it in writing. There are four main steps that make preparing an oral presentation different from preparing a written document:

- **A. Structure your presentation:** Presenting information orally differs from writing it. An effect presentation structure includes:
 - 1) Use an effective opening: You must arouse your listener's interest; you must establish credibility. An affective opening stimulates your listener by giving answers to their questions, specially to the question: "Why should I be listening to this?".
 - 2) Include a preview: Listeners need orientation because, unlike readers, they cannot skim the general outline of your speech. A preview will answer their question, "Just what am I going to learn or do during this presentation?".
 - 3) Make your own major points clearly: Listeners cannot process as much information as readers can, do not oriented as easily as readers do, and do not remember information hear only once. Thus, make the points in your presentation very clear by: (1) limiting your main points, (2) smooth transitions, (3) using internal summaries, (4) Use an effective closing. Your audience is likely to remember your

last words. So avoid the "that's all I have to say "I guess that's about it" syndrome. Use an obvious transitional phrase - such as "to summarize" or "in conclusion" to introduce your closing remarks. If you have a question period, be sure to save a few minutes at the end for your closing. In any event, use effective closing. The following example viewing the 4 structural characteristics of effective presentation:

	Effective Opening (familiar style)		
Rhetorical questionClear image.Important statistichOccasion (why youSomething or some	Starting example or story.Audience (who they are).		
	Effective Preview		
Managerial Style	Preview main points		
Tell	List 3 to 5 main points: Audience definitely remember better if they hear an overview first.		
Sell	State the problem you will remedy: state your organizational structure.		
Consult /join	State major objectives, areas of discussion, an approximate amount of time you will spend on each area.		
Clear Major Point			
Managerial Style	Preview		
Tell / Sell	Limit 3 to 5 major points for an hour presentation		
Consult /join	 Separate clearly the two typical major points: 1. Discussion (+): Draw out listeners. Postpone evaluation and criticism. Encourage free and creative thinking. 2. Debate and consensus (-): Encourage critical thinking, argument and debate. Reach consensus. Determine next action. 		
Managerial Style	Smooth Transitions		
Tell/Sell	Use between your major points, to reinforce learning: Say, "The second recommendation is, no "Second". Say, "Another benefit of the systems is", not "In addition".		
Consult /join	Use between your major sections: Say , "The third area we need to discuss this morning is", not "Next".		
Managerial Style	Internal Summary		
Tell/Sell	Summarize between your major points or subpoints.		
Consult /join	Summarize between your two major organizational section.		
Closing			
Managerial Style	Closing		
Tell	List your three to five major points you began with to reinforce effecting, explaining and instructing. Refer to the rhetorical question, promise image, or story you used in your opening.		
Sell	Call for action based on what you have presented; make the what next? Refer to the benefits your audience will receive from following the advice in your presentation.		
Consult /join	List the main points you have come with as a group; make sure you covered all points and make sure your audience see the results of the time they spent.		

Strategies for improving your presentation:

- To sum up the previous main points of the previous table you can focus on:
 - Clarify your ideas before communicating.
 - Examine the true purpose of communication.
 - Consider the environment of the communication.
 - Consult with others, whenever appropriate.
 - Convey something of value to the receiver.
- Follow up your communication to confirm it:
 - Communicate both for the short run and for the long run.
 - Be sure your actions support your communications.
 - Be a good and empathetic listener.
 - Be flexible to other's views, conditions, circumstances, etc.
- How to help others understand you? :
 - Talk specifically. Go directly to the subject. Build self esteem.
- B) Using aids tools: You need tools to: 1) clarify your streture such as an agenda chart at the beginning of your presentation or main topic slide merged out as you speak. 2) Also to emphasize your important ideas such as a list of your recommendations. 3) And Finally to demonstrate relationship such as pie charts to show components or line charts to show changes over time. Visual pictures are more effective than statistics. (of course, your data may be summarized and handelled at the end of the presentation).

Types of aids tools:

- Formal: Which are created before the presentation, such as charts, chart cards, desktop charts, 35mm. slides, and overhead transparencies. They may be printed often in color. It is suitable for little number of audience.
- Semi-formal: Which are created partially before and partially during the presentation, such as flipcharts or overhead transparencies. You may want to elicit some audience response which you would write on a partially prepared chart, or you may want to cross out something on a prepared slide and write over it in a different color to emphasize a change.
- Informal: Which are created during the presentation, such as chalk-boards, blank flipchart, or blank overhead transparencies. They are more flexible, spontaneous, and audience involving than other aids, but you have less control over their content.
- C) Practice your presentation: Unfortunately, many business and professional speakers neglect this step, But you should remember that credibility of your content is not enough you must also establish credibility as a speaker. Practicing will increase your self-confidence and poise, improve your wording so it flow naturally and spontaneously, identify any gaps in your speech, deal with distractions, and make sure your visual aids are smoothly integrated into your speech.
 - 1) Use cards: Getting your speech onto cards has three main advantages: (1) cards are easy to hold; (2) they allow you to add, subtract, or rearrange your material easily; and (3) they force you to prune your speech so you will limit each card in 5 minutes.
 - 2)Become familiar with your presentation: Instead of memorizing or reading your speech, become familiar with it. Rehearse out loud on your feet with your aids. Time yourself do not practice by sitting at your desk and reading your speech. Stand up and practice aloud. As you do, you may find some of the rehearsal methods useful.
 - 3) Practice with your visual aids: As you rehearse, practice with your aids. This

includes rehearsing physical details and controlling the sequence.

- Rehearse the details: You don't want to loose the effect of your aids and your presentation performance: "How do you turn this thing on?", Just a minute while this thing set up"; "Oh, sorry, I guess its upside down".
- Control the sequence: Always assume your audience will read whatever is in front of them regardless of what you are saying, For example, do not pass out a handout at the beginning of your presentation and expect your audience to read ahead; do not pull up a slide with your conclusion visible until your audience see it.
- 4) Memorize your opening and closing only: Since good eye contact is crucial both for establishing audience rap at the beginning of your speech, and for confirming it, memorize your opening and closing Then, you will be able to look to your listeners during the first and last moments. Repeat the two sections over and over so you will not hesitate during the first minutes or conclusion of your presentation.

Rehersal Methods:

First metod : Simulate the Situation :

- 1. Practice in the place where you will be speaking.
- 2. Practice in front of chairs set up as they would be when you give your speech.
- 3. Practice while bouncing a ball or performing another routine task to improve your ability to withstand distractions.

Second method: Improve your Delivery:

- 1. Speak into a mirror to improve facial expressions and animation.
- 2. Speak into an audio tape-recorder to improve vocal expression animation and rate.
- 3. Speak to a friend or colleague.
- 4. Best of all, speak in front of a videotape recorder to evaluat the playback.

Reharsing on the details:

Positioning: flipping the chart paper; turning the projector on and off positioning the slides on the screen; or writing on the board, flipchart, or transparency.

Teamwork: working with a partner will be manipulating while the other speaks.

Volume: speaking a bit more loudly than usual (speakers tend to decrease their volume when they use aids).

Eye contact: maintaining eye contact with your audience (Speaker tend to get engrossed in their machines or charts and lose audience rapport).

Controlling the sequence:

Determin when you want your audience to see your aids material. With formal aids, cover up lines until you start discussing them; with informal aids, write information while you discuss it.

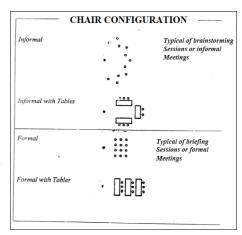
Cover up, turn off or erase all aids before and after you discuss their content. Avoid detailed handouts perhaps all handouts except agendas until the end of your presentation.

D) Make the necessary arrangements:

1) Make sure your audience is notified: For any presentation, answer the following questions: Who precisely should be informed? How shall I notify audience?: by speaking to them individually, or by writing, or both? By whom Should the notification go out?: under the name of the speaker, an authority figure, a group, a department, company? What is the information you want your audience to have?

2) Check your room arrangements:

- Chair configuration: Base your chair configuration on the facility, the size of your group communication objective, and the management style you have chosen for presentation. The following chart illustrates the four basic configuration course, you may use (to modify or combine them).
- Room set-up: The following chart provides a checklist for your room set-up:
- 3) Check your visual aids: When the room has been arranged satisfactorily, check your visual aids.



E) Special Skills In Speaking:

- 1- Types of oral presentation: The following is the speaker method in presentation:
 - A- Extemporaneous speaking: The speaker will plan his speech carefully and may use some speaker's notes to guide him through the speech, but he will not memorize the exact phrasing of his ideas. He will probably have memorized his main points and supporting material, but the act phrasing of these will be accomplished at the time he gives the speech. The advantage of this method is the flexibility and the abilty for adaptation to the audience within the presentation. Here are a few suggestions help you to become a better extemporaneous speaker:
 - a) Concentrate on your <u>purpose</u>, be <u>enthusiasm</u>, and avoid speaking <u>loudly or fast</u>.
 - b) Watch your <u>language and mood</u>: joking and laying on of hands, may be helpful in some situations and destructive in others.
 - c) Watch <u>your voice</u>, train yourself by recording your voice during extemporaneous speaking or read a page of your favorite book on a tape recorder, then listen to your voice if your voice pleased you it will pleased the other people.
 - B- Random Speaking: This type of presentation is happened when a person find himself in a position where he must speak, thus it occur in absence of specific preparation.
 - C- Memorized Speaking: This type of oral presentation is based upon memorizing the text. This type may seem more simple than extemporaneous speaking.
 - D) Reading from Manuscript: This type is appropriate in the professional and official occasions where oral presentation must be very precise. The speaker may face some difficulties if the audience interrupt him while reading from the manuscript. Effective reading can best be obtained if the speaker is very familiar with his text and if he has practiced reading the words.
- 2- The Performance: Your fears: Three quarters of that fear is fear of the unknown. You can never get rid of all your fears, but you can enormously reduce it by reducing the area of the unknown. The small amount that is left is necessary and valuable, it concentrates your mind and sharpens your performance. And even if you are one of those who feels no fear at all, the technique for conquering fear is also the best technique for improving any presentation. We can classify the unknown into five areas:
 - 1- Why are you making this presentation? (Target) Every presentation has an objective, and the objective is almost a form of persuasion. You want the audience to accept your ideas such as (agree to a budget, develop a product, accept reorganization plan etc.). Thus 2 points are particularly important. 1st Make your targets as precise as you can, 2nd Keep thinking on and ask yourself what to include or where to cut.
 - 2- What are you going to say? (Speech) Make a note of all the information. Illustrations are

- arguments you may need. Do not bother too much about order at the stage.
- 3- To Whome you are saying? (Audience) Find details about the audience such as their numbers, their names, their jobs, their interests, what method/equipment/supplier they are using at the moment, what bad or good experiences they have had in the past with whatever you are trying to persuade them to do. What objections they might feel threatened by them, and which of their worries your proposals might remove. This will probably suggest more facts, arguments and visual aids to add to the list. Then you need to contact them informally and friendly for a few minutes before the presentation, it is valuable and marvelous way to break the ice and create and early rapport.
- 4- Where will you be saying it? (Location) If the location is unfamiliar territory to you try to be there on the day before the presentation. Look around the room, you may spot something important: wrong kind of electric socket, or too distant for you flex. windows that won't open. no table, excessive noise, you never knew till you look, and if there's nothing wrong it makes you more familier with the location.
- 5- How will you say it? (Order) Now is the time to think about the area that worry the audienc and you must relieve, identify and satisfy. That will guide you to introduction, something to make them sit up and think "Yes, that really is our problem", "Yes. He has put his finger on what we were worried about". "Yes. that would be a great advantage if it really can be done at that price" etc., Following from that you can start to arrange your facts and arguments into the best order, best for their understanding and also best for persuasion. Then select the illustrations you going to need. Then when all the material is assembled. Make your notes and make them clear and large enough, and write out the whole presentation (especially if time is limited) there is always a best way of putting something, best arguments, best order, best phrase, you should always have at least the opening and closing sentences, and finally, try to rehears in front of a colleague.
- 3- Brainstorming: The 6 IT! Methods will help you to develop your presentation:
 - 1- Brain IT! This is your chance to brainstorm: capture ideas, concepts, information and creative solutions to problems through thinking freely, putting everything that you may want to say down on paper. You can brainstorm on your own, but often a small group brainstorming together can really increase this creative process. Yellow sticky notes give the creative process great fertility. Don't restrict yourself by a linear outline or a sequentially generated form. Now capture all: Ideas, Facts, Related stories, Examples, Miscellaneous. Yellow-sticky everything and anything that relates to your subject. Don't be concerned about relating all of your ideas or whether you even plan to use all of the generated ideas. Just capture all of the ideas one per yellow sticky! Collect the ideas and stick all of them on a flipchart.
 - 2- Group IT! Now step back mentally from this field of yellow sticky notes and do what you would naturally do, put the notes in groups! Group your ideas on the notes according to the natural associations you see in the material. Do not force every idea into a category: some will be left over.
 - 3- TIP: If you find that a category has more than 10 notes, trim it to more than one category, some people belive that 3 is the ideal number of points in one category but we don't agree, Just try to keep it simple. After you group the sticky notes, give each group a name. Next, ask yourself "Which of these groups do I want the audience to hear? And in which order?" and so on. Try to keep the number of groups relatively small. Save the unused groups, they may provide input for other parts of the presentation, or may provide a source for the question-and-answer period of the presentation, or may be used in future presentations.
 - 4- Order IT! Put the ideas within each group into a logical order. Go back to your presentation strategy and review your position, desired actions and listener benefits.

- Be sure you define these items in your presentation. Usually, the desired actions and listener benefits should be restated in the introduction and in the conclusion.
- 5- Spice IT! You are now ready to add spice to your presentation framework! Spice it all! Don't forget to spice the beginning and then ending remember that the opening and the closing are the most important items in the presentation. Identify where the "peaks" of the presentation are, and what type of spice could be added to the "new" presentation. These "Spices" are: Stories, Quotes.
- 6- Do IT! Know you are ready for the delivery.

F) Executing the Presentation:

Your Delivery is Based on Structure: This structure consist of 3 parts such as a play "Situation, Complication, Recommendation" and you will find what everything you have to say fits into one of those three sections. All good presentations have the same structure:

- 1- Situation (demonstration): The audience at the start of a presentation are like the horses before the start of the race, scattered all over the place and facing in different directions. The starter at a race meeting has to bring them all up to the line together so that they start level and all go on in the right direction at the same time. A presenter has to do much the same, and the way to do it is to outline the present situation: describe the current situation, or the way the pattern of home demand has been changing, any way it is essential to demonstrate to them all that you know the situation and background. It also enables everyone to focus on the specific part of the present situation to which you are addressing yourself. This part of the presentation, may take a couple of sentences, or it may need quite long analysis for the image. To do so ask them questions about the present situation and past history: it helps you to angle the rest of your presentation more precisely to their needs.
- 2- Complication (challenged): This is where you introduce the need for change by showing why the present situation cannot continue or why it would be unwise to continue it, Demand is shifting, technology is changing, staff are leaving, delays are lengthening, competitors are gaining, costs are rising, profits are falling, there must be some significant change or danger or worry or opportunity or you would not be making the presentation.
- 3- Recommendation (reestablished): It may include evaluating alternatives, demonstrating products, describing services, meeting objections, comparing prices. adducing evidence, quoting examples, and is in fact what most people mean when they talk about "a presentation". But its success may well depend on how well you have prepared the ground in those first two sections which it is all to easy to omit.

G) How to Start?:

- 1- Intro: every presentation need an intro, this intro should give the important facts and help the presenter to go in familier relationship with the audience, this intro consist of 5 elements:
- a) Welcoming courtesies: ex, thank people for giving up time.
- b) Self-identification: your name, job, your background if relevant and any details about colleagues who are with you.
- c) The intention: What you are proposing to explain, suggest or demonstrate at this presentation. Beside the benefits they can expect from what you are presenting ex, "Show you how our new office procedures will enable you better organize your time". Everything should be presented in terms of their interest, not yours: not "what I am going".

- to tell you", but "what I thought you would like to know".
- d) The route map: how long the presentation will take, whether it will be in sections, will it all be here or will we be moving to another part of the building, does it include film. Will there be a break for coffee?
- e) The rules of the road: in particular, do you want people to interrupt if they have a question, or to wait till the end of the section, or hold all questions until the end? They cannot know unless you tell them.
- 2- Creative Openings (Take their Attention): There are different ways to start your speech such as starting by <u>funny trick or a dramatic opening</u> to grab you audiences's attention, but be careful if you used a trick opening as it may make the he audience feel foolish. Any way it is easy, Just think and plan it carefully and be sure you choose one to suit the situation and the audience. You must make no mistake, the opening just like the first pages of a book or the opening scenes of a movie the reader/audience can be captivated early if it is done well, but if you fail to get them early the opportunity may be lost.

So the <u>first goal</u> of a public speaker is to create a positive magnetic relationship with the audience, thus you can use fun opening or anecdotal opening about yourself (without even a hint of braggadocio). This will bridge the gap between the speaker and the audience. It gives the audience chance to relax and to reach out with their emotions toward the speaker, in the same time it make the speaker more relax. ex, One of the reasons athletes are successful in speaking is that they are well accepted by the audience even before they begin. If you are not well known to your audience you have to do some thing to endear them to you. You have to get their attention and then their affection; to do that you must be creative and add something heartwarming, such as: you are a cat lover or you work with some charitable organization etc.

You must be polite, You haven't done anything to deserve it yet, to accept it graciously but using your hands acknowledge it and ask for it to end. The audience needs to get a sense of your vulnerability and your sensitivity to the gift they are giving you. When you receive a gift from someone you would show appreciation, not at what the gift is, merely that there is one. The same is true with applause for you as the speaker.

Now the "bridge" having being built, the <u>next goal</u> for your opening is to clarify why you are there and what you are going to be speaking about. This allows listeners to prepare themselves. They need to open certain cognitive channels within their mind. They may know something about your topic, or have had experience with some aspect of it and they need to have their thoughts channeled appropriately. Now they are ready to open their minds to your ideas if you give a little preview of what you are "up to." It's a kind of road map.

So now we come to the <u>final goal</u> for your opening. A vital part of any opening is telling listeners why and how the information you have will benefit them. Your audience needs to know what they can gain from listening to you. Anywhere, make sure you ask enough about the assignment, the audience and the circumstances that you can deliver something of value to them. If you can't, then pass up the opportunity.

<u>Note:</u> you should accomplish your opening as defined, above, in less than 5 minutes. Then get down to the business of delivering what you promised.

3- Body Language: Researchs shows that over half of human communication takes place

on the nonverbal level through body language. If your body language communicates earnestness, enthusiasm, and sincerity, people will tend to believe your message. If you send different verbal and nonverbal messages, they will inevitably trust what they see and not what they hear! To be effective, body language must confirm and support your words and graphics. In a presentation situation, body language is so powerful because your audience sympathizes with you as a speaker and mirrors your emotions and feelings. If you appear relaxed, confident, and smiling, your audience will relax, feel confidence in you. and usually smile back at you. If you appear nervous or frown (even unconsciously) they'll get fidgety and frown back at you. Besides communicating your feelings and attitudes, body language does several tactics as well:

- 1. It makes messages more meaningful and memorable: People are easily bored with things that don't move and naturally focus on things that move. People remember more of what they see than hear and even more of what they see and hear.
- 2. It punctuates your presentation: Gestures, body movement, and facial expressions are to speech what periods, commas, and exclamations points are to written language.
- 3. It relaxing nervous tension: Public speaking activates the adrenal gland, creating an abundance of energy which tends to sneak out as nervous mannerisms. Gestures and body movement, however, harness this nervous energy and make it work for you. The following are the five main elements of body language and key points about each:
 - a) Posture: Without a word or even a movement, your posture show whether or not you're confident, enthusiastic, and in control of the situation. Good posture enables you to breathe properly and project your voice effectively. It also minimizes nervous tension. To achieve an effective speaking posture, stand erect but not stiff, relaxed but not sloppy. Relax your shoulders and knees. Let your arms hang naturally at your sides with your fingers relaxed. You should feel alert and comfortable. Immediately before your presentation, take a few deep, slow breaths and consciously relax your shoulders, neck, and jaw.
 - b) Gestures: Gestures, used correctly, are the most evocative form of body language and can tremendously enhance your words. There are four basic types of gestures:

 Descriptive gestures clarify or illustrate your words. Emphatic gestures emphasize your words, e.g. fold your fist or hit the desk. Suggestive gestures create a mood or express a thought, e.g. shrug your shoulders to indicate ignorance or perplexity. Prompting gestures evoke a response, e.g. raise your hand or applaud if you want the audience to do the same. Gesturing reflects each speaker's personality. Here are 5 recommendations to keep in mind about gesturing:
 - 1. Keep your natural Gesture: Regardless of your personality or cultural background, you have a natural impulse to gesture to emphasize things you feel strongly about. Don't inhibit that impulse. Be genuine and spontaneous. Don't invent artificial gestures or your audience will peg you as a phony. If you're naturally reserved, try emphasizing your gestures a bit more than seems natural. Don't concurrate in your body movement and your gestures will arise naturally from your thoughts, feelings, and attitudes.
 - 2. Suit the gesture to the word or occasion: Make your gestures appropriate for the words you're expressing or you'll appear artificial, or even comical. Match the frequency and vigor of your gestures to your message, and don't overdo it. Powerful, animated gestures are fine for young audiences but may threaten or irritate older or conservative audiences.

- 3. Make your gestures convincing: Each gesture should be a distinct, clearly visible movement. Hand gestures should involve the total arm and shoulder. Keep your wrists and hands relaxed. Use broad, slow, expansive gestures for large audiences.
- 4. Make your gestures smooth and well-timed: Timing is as important in gesturing as it is in comedy. The gesture must come on the correct word-not before or after. Don't memorize your gestures or they will appear canned. Simply practice your presentation until the gestures become natural.
- 5. Make natural spontaneous gesturing a habit: Practice gesturing during informal conversation with friends. Have fun with it. and soon gesturing will be a natural part of your presentation toolbox.
- c) Facial Expression: Audiences check speakers' faces to add meaning to their words. Your face-more clearly than any other part of your body-reflects your attitudes, feelings, and emotions. Your audience wants you to be confident, friendly, and sincere and watches your face for evidence of these qualities. The key to conveying a warm sincere attitude is smiling throughout your presentation. Be sure to remove expressions which don't belong on your face, such as licking, biting, or clicking the lips, tightening the jaws, frowning, or switching any part of the face. The audience consider these expressions as a nervousness or unfriendliness and become less receptive to your message. To reduce your anxious about speaking, be relax, and let your face reflect your good thoughts, attitudes, and emotions.
- d) Eye Contact: Your eyes either link you to, or separate you from, your audience. Every listener wants to feel you are talking to him or her. In most cultures, direct eye contact refer to sincerity and influences the attention and concentration of the audience; lack of eye contact refer to insincerity, disinterest, or lack of confidence. If you don't look at them, they probably won't look at you or listen to you. Here are 3 keys for using your eyes effectively in presentations:
 - 1. Know your material: Practice your verbal message until; you don't need to strain to remember the sequence of ideas and words. Doing so frees you to concentrate on the audience.
 - 2. Establish a personal bond with each listener: some of the audience are active. Choose some of them in every section of the audience and focus on them. Maintain eye contact with and speak directly to each one for the time it takes to say a sentence or complete a thought, then shift to the next. Doing so will energize and encourage you, and everyone around these energizers will think you're looking at them.
 - 3. Monitor visual feedback: if the audiences aren't looking at you, they're probably not listening, and you need to regain their attention. Do they look puzzled? Bored? Can they hear you? Is the microphone on? Visually monitoring your listeners enables you to make adjustments necessary to most clearly communicate your message.
- e) Conclusion: Videotaping one of your presentations is an excellent way to discover your strong, effective body language as well as any unconscious, nervous mannerisms. Watch great speakers for ideas of how to maximize your own body language. Develop a strong message you firmly believe in and is excited about. Practice it thoroughly. Relax, be natural, and let your enthusiasm and sincerity

project naturally to your listeners. Finally, have fun, and you'll do fine as a present!

- 4- Handle conversational situations effectively: Good speaking is always based on the effective delivery. Besides good delivery, however, you may need some additional techniques/or situations that involve more give than with your audience:
 - 1) Question and answer periods: In fact, your ability to answer questions immediately is one of the main advantages speaking has over writing.
 - 2) Listening and discussion sessions: Your ability to listen well and to elicit information from others is crucial to your professional success. The benefits you gain from good listening are tremendous: it increase your information, your understanding, and thus enabling you to make better decisions and solve problems; and Finaly you increase cooperation and thus improve your chances for effective implementation.
 - 3) Impromptu conversations: Impromptu speaking without. advance preparation. For example, your boss may suddenly ask you to "bring us up-to-date on a certain project; or a client may ask you to explain a certain service. Usually, you will not be asked to make impromptu remarks unless you have some knowledge in the area.
 - 4) Telephone conversations: People tend to waste time on the telephone because they don't prepare. Just because phone conversations do not demand intensive preparations does not mean you should not prepare at all. To use the phone to the best advantage, you need to: (I) Listen carefully, and (2) Use your voice effectively.
 - 5) Media presentations: Speaking on television and radio is becoming increasingly important for business and professional people.

A guideline for verbal skills used by presenter

Inflection Do speak: Do not speak:	With expressiveness and enthusiasm in your voice.In a boring monotone.
Qualify	
Do speak: Do not speak:	 In a warm, pleasant tone. In a distracting tone, for example, too nasal too high, too rough, or too whiny.
Volume Do speak:	 Audibly Too quietly aware of this pitfall especially (1) you are using visual aids, (2) you are woman. Or (3) your volume tends to drop to the ends of your sentences.
Speed Do not speak: Do speak: Do not speak:	 At the correct speed: slowly enough so you can be understood, quickly enough to maintain energy; Varying your rate to avoid droning; With effective pauses, such as, before or after key term, separating items in a series, indicating a major break in your thought Too slowly (which may bore your listeners) too quickly (which may lose them), At a completely consistent speed, droning with no variation or pauses.
Enunciation Do enunciate Do not	 Clearly Mumble (which may be associated with talk, too quietly); Use run-on words (which may be caused talking too quickly); Drop final consonants, such' as "thousand "ju and goin).
Full body movement Do more deliberately Do not move randomly	 To change mood or pace; To draw attention to and from your visual aid; * To reinforce an idea (such as, make a transition by stepping to the side or emphasize important point by leaning forward). Nervously; Continually, such as constant pacing or swaying

Hand and arm gestures Do gesture: Do not move	* Naturally, as you would in conversation; • To reinforce your content (such as describing size or shape, emphasizing an important pointing enumerating a list, or pointing to a special item on your visual aid). •Nervously, such as ear tugging, scratching, and lip licking (you will probably find it fairly easy to correct distracting gestures once you know you are using them); •Into one position for too long, especially: the figure leaf" hands clasped in front), the (hands clasped in back), the "Jingle' * With stylized, artificial, unvaried, constant repeated gestures.
Facial expression Do maintain Do not maintain	 Relaxed, animated, conversational facial expression, Stony, deadpan, expression.
Eye contact Do look at Do not look at:	 The entire group, rather than at just one side the room; The key decision-makers in the group; Good listeners who nod and react A prepared script, which you read word by word, showing your audience a constant of the top of your hand The middle of the back of the room. The bad listeners who may distract you.
Posture Do stand Don't stand	 In a relaxed, professional manner, Comfortably upright, with your weight distributed evenly; With your feel. neither too close nor too far apart. In a formal militaristic "Attention" pose; In an informal slouch, keeping weight to one side or swaying side to side; In a narrow-angle, ankles together reciting school-child stance; or in a wide-angle "Cowpoke straddle".
Dress Do dress Don't dress	 Appropriately for the occasion and the audience. Comfortably and in good taste; To project an image consistent with your communication objectives. In any clothing that will distract from you message e.g. exaggerated dangling Jewelry, loud ties.
Approach (to the speaker's position) Do approach	Calmly and unhurriedly;With a brief pause for eye contact before launching into your presentation.

2- Writting:

- A) General instructions: Effective written communication has simple and clear rules. In order to reach your readers you should bare in mind the following steps:
- 1. Define your subject: You must go to the point as early as possible. It is always better those readers know what your subject is about from the first paragraph, the second max.
- 2. Organize your message: Every message should be organized by an opening, an introductory comments, underlining the main subject, including your recommendations in the conclusion. We will talk later about approaches to persuasive messages. Your message must be: clear, natural, concise, and accurate. Beside you must diversify your style, imprlove your writting skills (by reading), organize your persausive message and check understandability of your message before delivery.
- 3. Know your reader: Of course you must have a target audience while writing your message. Reader's characteristics determine your language, the way you present your ideas, the kind of arguments you are going to use.

B) The Effect of writting:

The effects of one-sided versus two-sided: A one-sided message sets forth the source's claim to the receiver, while two-sided message recognizes opposing positions.

- 1. Presenting both sides of the argument suitable if the man is <u>opposed</u> to the issue, but the one-sided is more effective with those favoring the communicator's side.
- 2. A two-sided message is more effective if the issue may face late <u>counterpropaganda</u>. Thus you protect the audience against future counterpropaganda. You are presenting the opposite point of view and thus builds up the resistance to that point in the reader.
- 3. A two-sided message is more effective if the audience are better <u>educated</u>, regardless of their position, whereas the one-sided presentation was primarily effective among the less educated group who were already in favor of the communicator's position.
- The effects of stating a conclusion: The researchers did an experiment: they did a presentation about the current economic issues and the conclusion presented to one group stated that it was desirable to devaluate American currency. The researchers found that when the conclusion was clear, the audienc become to change their opinion in the direction advocated by the communicator. A later study by Thistle Waite, found that the message with a conclusion was more effective in changing the attitudes of the less intelligent subjects than those of the more intelligent. In the other hand there are some other factors influence in changing the opinion, those factors are: 1. Credibility of the source. 2. The intelligence, personality type, and sophistication of the audience. 3. The complexity of the argument. 4. Familiarity of the topic.
- The Effects of Order of Presentation: The organization of the arguments in the presentation provides another interesting aspect of persuasive communication. Studies have focused on two points: 1) The Order: shall we put the top of the arguments at start or at the end, 2) The Primacy: when we have 2 different views, which view has the periority in the show (the primary effect or the recency effect). Now we have 2 options:
 - 1. Top order: start with weak arguments and reserve the important arguments to the end.
 - 2. Bottom order: start with strong arguments and keep weaker ones to the end.

Hovland and Mandel discovered that the order and the law of primacy are not much important. The more important, for audiences, are other factors such as attention, learning and acceptance, which may contribute to making one order of presentation.

In the two viewpoints case: Primacy may occur when the audience is asked to make a public commitment of the first viewpoint from the presentation (before going to the second viewpoint). Also, primacy may occur if the second view contradicts the first view of the presentation. However, primacy-may not be effective if the audience is forewarned of the fallibility of the first viewpoint, or if activities intervene between the two presentations, or if different sources present the two viewpoints.

In one viewpoint case: It is desirable first to arouse the subject's needs and then to present information that may satisfy such needs. This order is more effective in changing the attitude firstly and later arousing the needs. Researchers conclude that there is no universal principle of primacy in persuasion, and either primacy effect or recency effect depends on a number of other factors. These are time of measurement, similarity of issues, earlier positive experience with the communicator, warnings against premature commitment, arouse of needs before presentation of information, ambiguity inherent in the sequence of communications.

★ Successful Characteristics of Writting:

1. Repetition: Communication researches assumes that repetition in itself helps make persuasion successful. But in the other hand it may irritate the audience.

- 2. Variation: Repetition with variation, on the other hand, serves both constantly to remind the listener or reader of the goal of persuasion, and simultaneously, to appeal to several of his needs arid drives. Merton identifies some 60 appeals, which aimed to the same. goal"?; thus persons given more than one type of reason to buy bonds were found more likely to do so.
- 3. Regarding cumulative exposure: Anis and Meier found that exposure to 7 editorials was precisely as effective as exposure to 15. Hovland and Sheffield found that exposure to two Army orientation films produced no consistently greater results than exposure to a single (but different) film in the same series. On the other hand, Peterson and Thurston found that the effect of cumulative exposure to films on the same topic to be in all respects greater than the effect of a single exposure. Klapper states that these contradictory findings regarding cumulative exposure are difficult to reconcile with the consistent findings regarding repetition with variation.
- ★ Understanding the Audience: The source must be aware of the audience needs which must be fulfilled, thus he must examine the current needs of the audience and shape his messages to staisfy those particular needs. Here we will discuss the main variables that have impact on audience behavior and the psychological process that audience experience during receiving the messages. There are many variables that combine together and form audience behavior. We can divide these variables into two sets of groups:

1- Individual variables:

- A) Physiological variables: Refers to basic needs for individual like thirst & hunger.
- B) Social variables: Are classified into three categories:
 - 1- Motives (include desires and needs) 2- Attitudes (include emotions)
 - 3- Personal characteristics.
- C) Cognitive variables: Include <u>concepts</u> that come from his frame of reference where he understanding and reacting to his environment + <u>thinking and deciding</u> + <u>learning</u> the ability to utilize from previous experiences.

2- Environmental variables:

- A- Relation: between local community and the people, and their impact on individual attitudes (values sources of communication, sources of effect).
- B- Communication methods in the environment.
- C- Characteristics of the messages in the environment individual, like: 1- Geographic environment, 2- Social environment, 3- Nature of individual community (liberal, conservative), 3- Economic standard.

The model of individual's behavior

- Basic variables: physical needs psychological needs social needs.
- Environmental variables: impact of environment on man attitudes and behavior communication methods Social, geographical environment.
- Cognitive variables: Concepts Thinking, rationalizing Learning.
- Maslow's Pyramid model: The psychologist Abraham Maslow, developed a clear and understandable model of human needs. He listed the human needs in a pyramid form, in various levels. Some are weak, others strong, but various ones must be met from time to time to keep us alive and growing. The important thing is to identify these needs, because they often serve as the first premise in persuasive argument, for example, a

person dying of thirst can be easily persuaded to take drastic action in order to get water to fulfill the need for liquid. Maslow says that these needs are tied together in such a way that weaker needs, like selfrespect, emerge only after strong needs, like the need for food, have been fulfilled. He says that needs are arranged in a pyramid style with lower levels having the stronger needs, and the higher levels having the weaker needs. Further, it should be noted that higher needs are not any better than lower ones. They are just different and likely to emerge until stronger needs are met.

- A) Basic needs (on the bottom): Those are strongest needs which usually taken as the straight points for motivation theory and are also called psychological drives. The body makes automatic efforts to maintain a constant, normal state of the blood stream. Hunger, thirst, sleep, etc..., are part of these needs. It is possible to satisfy the hunger need in part by other activities such as drinking water. They are too strong to be forgotten, so until those needs be satisfied we cannot linked to others.
- B) Security needs: It comes in the second level in the pyramid. Adults have been taught to defence andy threat or danger while children express it freely. A child who, sent to hospital because of illness for a day or two, may develop fear, looking at need for security. If we feel that our job may end shortly, we have a strong need to get income security. We might want to get another more secure job, or we might want to save money for hard times. In other words, this need for security emerges and reemerges as various threats to our security become evident and must be met.
- C) Belonging Needs: The third level of needs are belonging needs. We become aware of them once our security and safety needs are satisfied. Usually the man seeks groups to fill this need. Many people relate to small number of groups such as families and work groups. Cities are full of persons who seem to have a strong need for belonging. We continue to join groups throughout our lives, for this need is also a reemerging one.
- D) Love and esteem needs: In the forth lever we will want love and esteem. As human beings we want to be wanted and valued. We are happy when our families understand and admire the things we do. However, this need is never fully satisfied, and we try to seek other ways which help us in satisfy our need for love and esteem by others.
- E) Self Actualization: At the peak of the pyramid is the need for self-actualization. This need might be called the need to live up. Although this need is weaker than the other needs, yet in some cases this need is fulfilled before basic needs, for example we see some artists have suffered cold and hungry just so they could continue painting or composing music. These persons define their selfactualization level as a basic need. To those artists, creative activity is as basic as breathing or eating or sleeping. Some of these needs are truth, goodness, beauty, individuality, perfection, and justice.

The Maslow's pyramid of needs:

<u>Selectivity</u>: Audience are always interacting with what we call the selectivity process. This process acquire four stages:

- 1- Selective Attention: Referring that audience may expose to the message which matches their needs, culture and attitudes.
- 2- Selective Perception: Referring that audience may expose to the message within frame of reference.
- 3- Selective Retention: Referring to audience ability to either remember or forget specific messages according to their



The Maslow's pyramid of needs

values, interests and variables explained before.

4- Selective Decision: According to all differences in variables and factors audience differ in their reaction to messages and their response to various appeals. The reaction of everyone of the audience is affected according to many social, psychological, economic variables as shown in the comprehensive behavioral model.

<u>Feedback</u>: Feedback is very important to the communication. It tells us if we are on course or off-course. The least powerful position in the world is to keep doing the same thing over and over without knowing its impact. Sometimes criticism will hurt our feelings but our success in the workplace and in life is directly correlated with our ability to hear criticism. That is how we learn feedback gives us indications to what extent did receivers understand our messages. Communicators are always asked to stimulate the audience and encourage them to provide their feedback during the communication process. This is why communicators should be aware with different types of questions.

<u>Types of Questions</u>: There are two classifications under which types of questions are identified. Traditional classifications of questions are divided into three categories.

- A- Closed: These questions limit the answer to yes or no.
- B- Open ended: These questions let people respond as extensively as they like.
- C- Direct questions: These type ask a very specific information, it considered a good indicators of the reaction to your message, and here you depend on the open-ended Q.
- D- Some types of that smart questions are:
- 1- Questions seeking information: Such as what was the result of the meeting yesterday?
- 2- Questions encouraging discussion: Such as: what was your feedback about this meeting? How do you think we should improve this process?
- 3- Investigation questions: These questions are designed to follow-up an other question for additional information.
- 4- Hypothetical: These type present a hypothetical situation to stimulate creativity.
- 5- Questions stimulating thoughts: Such as: What in your opinion? What do you think?
- 6- Questions showing interest or expressing feelings: Such questions are used to reveal attitudes such as: what do you feel about this decision? What was the employees' reaction on the change of policy? All of these questions can stimulate many responses that can help you modify your message or emphasis it. There are different styles of responses like paraphrasing, enriching, judging, analyzing supporting or withdrawing.
- C) Styles of responses: Communicator should not be annoyed by interruptions, but he should always be prepared for them and ready to modify his messages accordingly. There are many <u>productive interruptions</u> such as: clarification, elaboration, focusing, reinforcement and encouragement. All of these types can facilitate the flow of the messages. On the other hand, communicator should be aware of <u>non-productive interruptions</u> such as objection, joking, corrections, judgments, jumping to conclusion and changing the subject. In this case communicator should be fully aware of the verbal and non-verbal clues of feedback from his audience, and be ready to modify his message and gain audience attention once more.
- 1- Verbal feedback: These clues are divided into two categories:
 - Positive feedback: It can be recognized by reinforcing productive feedback or a balanced feedback from your audience.
 - Negative feedback: It can be recognized by having one of the audience attacking you

2- Nonverbal Feedback:

- The Eyes: The eyes of each audience member, it may be hard to see the eyes of people more than 20 feet away, so start with them. First check to make sure their eyes are open! Unless you give instructions to close your eyes and imagine, shut eyelids mean a bored. Check to see if the people are giving interest to your presentation with their eyes. Questions about not being able to see your slide text, for instance, are a good sign of audience interest.
- The Body Language: People go out from the back door is not good, as it means you're not interesting enough or you're too long between breaks and they have to go to the bathroom. How people sit is important, leaning forward with erect posture is good but leaning back getting comfortable for a catnap is bad. See that crossed arms refer that this person is resistant to what you are saying. See that the head position is important, Purposeful positive head movement is an excellent signal, like nodding indicating agreement or that a person has just had an "Ah-hah!" experience. Shaking heads is not necessarily bad, depending on other signals. It's OK to be controversial and get the audience thinking, but not completely disagreement on all points.
- The Participation Factor: If audience participates in your presentation this refere to how well they are receiving you. Even if you have told them to save questions until the end, in every crowd there are always one or two ham-actors who start asking questions during the show. You have to deal with them and direct them to the conclusion of your talk, but this is a great signal. They are telling the rest of the audience that your subject matter, that you are engaging. Are they laughing at your well-placed and relevant humor? Good sign, even in the stuffiest of business presentations. Do you get a lot of questions during the Q&A? Excellent! What about your audience involvement bits? It is good to see people answer your questions, but if the answer is "I dont know" this is a bad sign. During group exercises you want to see people who actually did what you asked them to do. We can summarize the cues that audience might be giving in the following table, along with what these signals mean and how can you make adjustments in your presentation.

chapter three

Reception skills

Because they are both receptive skills, reading and listening have much in common;. Mere understanding of ideas is often not enough for effective reading and listening, because the value and validity of the ideas may be open to question. Passive acceptance of everything you read or hear is undesirable as the opposite extreme refusal to believe anything. The intelligent course is to learn when to be critical in your reading and listening and how to use the tools of critical thinking to place the proper evaluation on what you read or hear. shortly, both reader and listener are involved in the complicated processes of assimilating and critically evaluating ideas, and they make use of the same basic knowledge and ways of thinking. The reception skills require a big amount of unbroken and concentrated attention. Listening, especially is an instantaneous experience that generally cannot be repeated, thus if your mind wanders off for a few minutes in the last night or if you spend too much time taking notes, you will lose what the speaker is saying and it will be difficult to re-continue with him again. Also the concentration is required during the reading, but the situation is different, because if the the attention is distorted you can alway return.

1- Listening:

- A) How to Prepare for Listening?: To be ready for listening, follow these guidelines:
 - a) Determine your purpose: There are a big difference between hearing and listening, listening involves both the mind and the ears, thus listening has purpose, and this is pointing to different kinds of listening. Your purpose in listening may be to act friendly and sociable as would be the case in a party conversation; or to obtain or to analyze critically, as in listening to a political debate. In each situation there are different skills and different degrees of attentiveness. In each situation the demands are different because the purpose is different so you must decide on your purpose for listening in every listening situation. You will be a better listener as a result of knowing why you are listening.
 - b) Get ready to listen: This requires that you prepare yourself for listening-physically, mentally and emotionally. Professionally, don't look to distracting sights and sounds, and always give your self maximum opportunity for listening by sitting near enough to the speaker to see and hear easily. 'If possible, read about a topic in advance, because the more you know about a topic the more interested you will be in what the speaker has to say about it, the mental preparation ususally leads to emotional involvement, and this in turn, increases your readiness to listen.
- **B)** Habits of Listening: Habits of efficient listening contribute greatly to success in all fields, specially in business.
 - a) Supervisors must know how to listen. They listen to their employees to find out what they think so that management can help settle grievances and establish good employee relationships. They also listen to their employees because they know that their employees often contribute time and money saving ideas to those employers which prove to be sympathetic and appreciative audiences.
 - b) All employees must know how to listen. Listening is also extremely important at all

levels of employment. Many employees in business rely on listening skills to help them carry out their daily assignments. The employees working, in <u>travel and tourism</u> must listen just as carefully to determine the wishes of customers. One large <u>retailing</u> organization found that two out of every three former customers had taken their business elsewhere because its salesmen were carless to customer's needs. Also the <u>managers in services departments</u> must listen effectively to success in their jobs. When a customer brings a car into an automobile service department, the service manager must listen and record what the customer thinks is wrong with the automobile. All employees work in services field must do the same. A person listening will express his attitude to other people as surely as the way in which he speaks to them.

C) 9 Symptoms of Poor Listening:

- 1- Condemning the subject: Sometimes people gives prejudge on such subjects that it is not important, but actually those people is not important.
- 2- Criticizing the speaker: Sometimes people stop on the speaker performance or the quality of his audio visual aids», such as pronunciation mistakes, involuntary movements or mannerisms, all these can prevent good listening to the meaning.
- 3- Selective listening: Selective listening means that you are programmed to turn a deaf ear to certain topics or themes. Adolf Hitler achieved a unique mastery in this field: he only wanted to hear good news. Those who brought him bad news, or told him the truth, encountered a personal insult. The danger in selective listening is that it can become habitual and unconscious: We become totally unaware that we only want to listen to certain people or that we are filtering information.
- 4- Interrupting: Continous interrupting is the most obvious signs of the bad listener. Of course interrupting is an inevitable part of everyday conversation, springing from the fact that we can think faster than the other person can talk. The interrupter usually has not been listening to the half-completed part of meaning. He may often be working on his own next piece of talk, and therefore be too busy to listen. Once the remark is convered, he fly up for the next one.
- 5- Daydreaming: Day dreaming may be a natural escape from an intolerable situation but it can also be a symptom of poor listening. The daydreamer has switched off and his attention is given to an inner television screen. Some in her agenda has gained precedence over what is being said to him.
- 6- External distractions: Uncomfortable chairs, noise, heat or cold, sunlight or gloom: these situations control the listener negatively. The good listener will try to deal with the distraction in some helpful way; the poor one allows it to dominate his mind and rob him of attention.
- 7- Evading the difficult or technical: None of us cares for the difficult. The lazy listener gives up at the first obstacle.
- 8- Emotional words: Some people are vulnerable toward a trigger words. Words enter the atmosphere carrying certain associations, pleasant or unpleasant.
- 9- Going to sleep: His late nights and very tiredness may be signs that he has not understood the importance of listening, Tiredness does affect our listening.

- **D) 10 Guides to Good Listening:** Based on a study of the 100 best and the 100 worst listeners Ralph G. Nicholas has produced ten useful guides to listening. They can be described briefly as most of them are positive versions of the negative symptoms of poor listening.
 - 1- Find area of interest: It is a rare subject which does not have any possible interest or use for us, we naturally screen what is being said for its interest or value.
 - 2- Judge content, not delivery: You are not interesting in the personality of the speaker, what you need to find out is: what he knows, and what he can add to me.
 - 3- Hold your fire: Stimulation snd underestimation are the twin evils against listening. The over stimulated listener gets too excited and the safe for underestimating speaker.
 - 4- Listen for ideas: The good listener focuses on the main ideas. He does not focus on to the peripheral themes or seize of some fact or other which may block his mind from considering the central ideas.
 - 5- Be flexible: The good listener should be flexible and moderate not bias to certain ideas or color facts to his own interest.
 - 6- Work at listening: Good listening takes energy. Attention is a form of directed energy. We must establish eye contact and maintain posture and facial expression that the fit speaker's effort. When to express himself more clearly and we in turn profit by better understanding the improved communication we have helped him to achieve.
 - 7- Resist distractions: A good listener instinctively fights distraction. Sometimes the fight is easily won-by closing a door, shutting off a radio, moving closer to the person talking, or asking him to speak louder. If the distractions cannot be met that easily then it becomes a matter of concentration.
 - 8- Exercise your mind: Good listeners regard apparently difficult or demanding presentations or speakers as challenges to their mental abilities.
 - 9- Keep your mind open: Effective listeners try to identify their own prejudices. Instead of turning a deaf ear, they seek to improve upon their perception and understanding precisely in those areas.
 - 10- Capitalize on thought speed: Most persons talk at a speed of 125 words per minutes. If thought were measured in words per minute, most of us could think easily at about four times that rate. The good listener uses his thought speed to advantage; he constantly applies his spare thinking time to what is being said.
- **E)** Active Listening: Requires listening to all verbal and the nonverbal interact with the feeling behind the message. We can focus on four listening categories:
 - 1- Selective listening: When you prepare yourself to select certain topics of your interest, you concentrate to catch it and avoid other topics.
 - 2- Comprehensive listening: This refers to listening with concentration to information, opinion, emotions and feelings. The comprehensive listening includes listening to verbal and watching non-verbal clues of the presentation.
 - 3- Critical listening: This refers to listening with analyzing to the presentation in order to conclude positive and negative aspects of the presentation.
 - 4- Appreciative listening: This type of listening is linked to type of information and the

credibility of the communicator where you appreciate the kind of information and the communicative skills of the communicator.

8- Avoid jumping to conclusion.

- **F) Strategies for Improving Listening Skills:** There are several strategies we should bare in mind for improving our listening skills:
 - 1- Prepare to listen. 2- Limit your own talking. 3- Be patient, provide the time needed.
 - 4- Concentrate. 5- List interjections. 6- Clarify and confirm your understanding.
 - 7- Rephrase in your own words.
 - 9- Practice listening. 10- Listen to verbal, watch non-verbal.
 - 11- Listen for emotions and feelings.

1- Reading:

- A) What is reading?: Reading is: "a process in which you use your different skills and stages to achieve an understanding of the whole". Reading can teach you how to predict new ideas, activate existing knowledge, relate old information with new, form a main idea and make inferences. Study Skills: Survey Questions Read Recite Review.
- B) Stages of reading: Good reading is divided into three thinking stages:
 - **\$^Before reading:** Preview to find out what the material is about, what you already know about the topic, and what you need to find out while reading. the following questions guide you to energize your reading: What is the topic of the material? What do I already know about the subject? What is the purpose of reading? How is the material organized? and What will be my plan of benefiting?
 - **Ú During reading:** Anticipate upcoming information, visualize and integrate old and new knowledge, and assess your own understanding in order to make adjustments. Here 4 advices during reading:
 - Work hard to assimilate the information you read into a larger pattern and monitor their own comprehension. If you don't understand or if you get confused, go back and reread to resolve the confusion.
 - Understand reading process and control it. This is called knowing about knowing.
 - recognize inadequate comprehension and interrupt their reading to seek solutions.
 - Good readers supervise their own understanding to the material.

There are 5 thinking strategies of good readers:

- 1- Predict: Make educated guesses.
- 2- Picture: For good readers, the words and ideas on the text promote mental images that relate directly or indirectly to the material. Because these mental images depend on the reader's experience, visualization is a highly individualistic process.
- 3- Relate: Draw comparison. When you relate your existing knowledge with the new information in the text, you are making it part of your framework of ideas.
- 4- Monitor: Monitor your ongoing comprehension to test your understanding of the material. Keep an internal summary of the information as it presented and how it relates to the overall message. Poor readers continue to read even when they are confused, but good readers seek to resolve the difficulty.
- 5- Correct Gaps in Understanding: Do not accept gaps in your readings comprehension. They may signal a failure to understand a word or a sentence, Stop and resolve the problem so you can continue to build your internal summary.

\$^After reading: Recall and react to what you have learned. Recall is self testing and can be oral, silent or written. Study strategies developed by experts, stress the importance of a final recall or review to improve both comprehension and memory. To recall, talk to yourself and test your understanding. Put the material together under one central ideas or generalization, and then review the relevant details and commit on them. Now, supposed to have understood the material, and this leads us to discuss the Levels of Reading Comprehension. You might be able to answer detail questions but not the overall meaning of the passage. The levels of reading comprehensions are:

- 1. Interpretive: What did the author mean? To answer you must interpret the facts along with the author attitude, using meaning to assume conclusions. At this level, you are considering both what is stated and what is not stated in order to figure out what the author wants to say.
- 2. Applied: How does the author message apply to other reflection and critical thinking situation? These questions are called for reaction.
- 3. Main Idea: What is main idea? The main idea of a passage is the core of the material, the particular point the author is trying to convey. The main idea of a passage can be stated in one sentence that includes specific ideas or details in the passage. It may take shapes such as: Thesis, Main Point, Central focus, Controlling idea, Central thought. To understand the main idea, look at the text where paragraphs are composed of sentences that develop a single general topic. You must look at the specific word presented and try to decide on a general topic. Then put the ideas in short list of keywords. Note that each sentence is related to a single subject, and the total of them will express the general idea of the subject.
- 4. Differentiate Topic, Main Idea, and Supporting Details: <u>Topic</u> is a word or phrase that describes the subject or general category. <u>The main idea</u> is a complete sentence that states the topic and adds the writer's position or focus on the topic. The supporting <u>details</u> are specifics that develop the topic and main idea (non verbal communication).
- 5. Differentiate Distracters in Main Idea: To gain insight, recognize the incorrect responses to main idea of a passage that can be a phrase or a sentence that either too broad or too narrow.
- 6. Questioning for the Main Idea: To determine the main idea of the text, ask questions in three basic areas: 1-Establish the topic (Who or what is this about?, What general word or phrase identifies the subject?). 2-Identify the key supporting terms: (What are the important details?). Look at the details that seem significant to see if they point in a particular direction (What aspect of the subject do they address?). 3-Focus on the message of the topic: (What is the main idea the author is trying to convey about the topic? = this may be one senctence or broad enough details or focused enough to describe the author's idea).
- 7. Stated Main Ideas: Researches show that readers understand better when the main idea is directly stated, particularly when it is stated at the beginning of a passage. This thesis or main ideas statement provides an overview of the author's message and connects the supporting details.

- 8. Unstated Main Ideas: Researches show that only about half of the paragraphs in the textbooks have directly stated main ideas. The question's technique we referred to can guide you in forming your statement. In this case, the author has presented a complete idea but for reasons of styles and impact has not chosen to express it clearly in one sentence. As a reader, it is your job to connect details systematically and focus the message.
- 9. Getting the Main Idea of Longer Selections: Understanding the main idea of longer sections such as chapters and articles seems more difficult than understanding a single paragraph. Longer selections have several major ideas contributing to the main point and many paragraphs of supporting details. To pull the ideas together under one central theme, an additional step is necessary. Simplify the material by organizing paragraphs or pages into manageable subsection and then deciding how each subsection contributes to the whole.

C) Details:

- **Ú What is a Details :** Details develop, explain, and prove the main idea. They are the facts, descriptions and reasons that convince the reader and make the material interesting. It answer questions and paint visual images so the reader has an experience with the author and sees what the author sees and understands. How to deal with the details?:
 - 1. Recognize Levels of Importance: To organize related ideas into levels of importance, the general topic is stated first, followed by subcategories of details, which may be further subdivided into specific examples.
 - 2. Distinguish Major and Minor Details: All details are not of equal importance. It is sometimes impossible to remember all of them, and sometimes it is a waste of time. With practice you will learn that some details are major and should be remembered whereas others are of only minor significance in supporting the main idea. Using transitional words may help to signal levels of importance (major: first, second, last) (minor: for example, to illustrate).
 - 3. Follow Detailed Directions: Some rules of reading change dramatically, when the task is to follow print directions. Suddenly all details are of the same importance (e.g. a computer program) you cannot read directions like which in a newspaper article. When confronted with a set of directions, recognize that the task is different and commit to reading step by step, word by word, or phrase by phrase.
 - 4. Patterns of Organization: The logical presentation of details in textbook tends to form several identical patterns: Psychology texts tends to list many definitions and examples. History texts present events in time order with numerous conclusions. Each organizational pattern can be predicted by key terms that signal the structure.
 - Examples of Organizational Patterns in Textbooks: To organize material for the reader, introductory texts often use key ideas. The listing technique may be used within one paragraph, or may be used over three or four pages. The items are of equal value and thus the order in which they are presented is of no importance.
 - 5. Classification: In order to simplify a complex topic, authors begin by stating the information which is divided afterwards into certain numbers of groups and

- categories. The divisions are then named and the parts are explained. Transitional words to signal classification: 2 divisions, 3 groups, 4 elements, 5 classes.
- 6. Definitions with Examples: In each introductory course, you enter a complete new field with its unique concepts and ideas. You are expected to survey the field from the beginning to end. You must learn the terminology for major ideas that create a framework for the entire course. At that point you need to remember these terms by marking your text and taking notes defining the conditions. You can also include examples to visualize the terms. (for example, in this case, to illustrate, more specifically, in more precise terms).
- 7. Description: Is similar to listening, the characteristics that make up a description are no more than a definition or a simple lists of details.
- 8. Time Order, Sequence, or Narration: Items in time order, sequence, narration are listed in order in which they occurred or specifically planned order in which they must develop. Changing the order would change the results. For example, events in history are typically organized in time order or narration. Transition words to signal time order or sequence: until, after afterward, before when.
- 9. Comparison and Contrast: Another pattern you will find in introductory texts is one that relates items according to existing comparisons and contrasts. To enrich your understanding of a topic, items are paired and them similarities and differences are listed. Transitional words to signal comparison and contrast: similar, like, in the same way, different on the other hand.
- 10. Cause and result: In some patterns, one of the several factors or causes are shown to lead to or result in certain events, or effects. Cause-and-effect patterns can be complex because a single effect can have multiple causes and vice versa. Transition words to signal cause effect include: for the reason, hence, consequently, on the account, thus.
- **D)** Three Main Newsmagazines in the USA: Newsmagazines are similar to newspapers in that they cover current events and areas of special interest such as business, science and arts. Because they are usually published weekly, they cannot cover breaking news like newspapers and TV. There are three main newsmagazines in the United States: Time Newsweek US News&World Report. These magazines contain the following elements:
 - 1. News Stories: Newsmagazine stories present the same 5Ws and H as newspapers do, but they include more details, use more colorful and dramatic language.
 - 2. Feature Stories: The feature story for the week is usually prominently displayed on the cover to attract attention. Most features include background information so you can understand how the current situation came to be. Colorful pictures, graphs, and survey results enrich the stories.
 - 3. Editorials: The topics of these opinion essays in newsmagazines appeal to a broader national readership than those found in the newspapers. Rather than being isolated on a particular page, the editorials often appear beside the related stories.
 - 4. Essays: Newsmagazines also include essays that can either cover very serious matters or be humorous. These pieces can be written by professional journalists, politicians, or readers-anyone who has an opinion or experience they want to share.
 - 5. Critiques: Newsmagazines include critiques or reviews of new movies, plays, music CDs, and books that summarize the work, state critique opinion, and predict the

impact of the work.

Specialized Magazine: Specialized Magazines cover almost every subject: fashion, business, technology, decorating, hobbies, health and entertainment. Such publications can be very precise in their focus. Although much of the content and the terminology may be difficult to follow for a new reader, there are always columns, and articles devoted to beginners. Specialized magazines include:

- 1. Feature Article: they are highlighted on the cover and in the table of contents. If you don't find the catchy summaries to be interesting, the articles probably won't be. Sometimes a feature theme is addressed throughout an entire issue.
- 2. Letters to the editor: If you are not familiar with a particular magazine read the letter to the editor section. These letters, sent in by readers, will refer to past stories and can give an idea of the audience the magazine appeals.
- 3. Brief News Updates: Most magazines begin with short summaries that are comparable to headline news updates on TV and radio. These updates cover news in the field on upcoming events research findings, products and trends.
- 4. Regular Columns: Columns appear regularly in magazines and are usually written by the same columnists each time, although guest writers can contribute as well, the columns are editorials about a current issue, event or person in the magazine field of interest, and reflect the writer's own bias.
- 5. Advertisements: Magazines make most of their revenue through selling advertising pages.