Introduction to Leadership Communication

Ivana Mrozková
Božena Bednaříková

Recenzovali: Mgr. Silvie Válková, Ph.D.
John Rayment, MBA

1. vydání
ISBN 978-80-244-4304-1

CONTENTS

PREFACE

The course Leadership Communication belongs among the first courses at the Department of Czech Philology to be taught in English. Its main objective is to overcome the stereotypical image that leadership is not for common people and that it is practiced only by those who have power, whether political, economic, or social, and, as such, it is just for politicians, managers, company presidents, chairpersons of organizations, etc. The course aims to show quite the opposite, i.e., that leadership concerns us all. At a certain time in our lives each of us has found himself/herself in a situation when he/she had to organize an event: a meeting, a workshop, a family celebration, a party, a sports competition, a petition of tenants or members of a club, etc. Each of us has had to negotiate, promote his/her opinion, idea, or product, or to persuade someone to do this and that. Each of us has worked in a team (a student team, a project team, etc.) where roles had to be divided and responsibility had to be shared. Each of us has had to invite someone to cooperate or has had to ask for help. At a certain time of our lives each of us has desired to exercise his/her influence, to change something, to make a difference.

On the other hand, the course has been introduced with the objective of bridging the gap between the popular, often simplistic approaches to leadership (see the bookstore shelves full of books with guaranteed tips on how to become a good leader of anything) and the highly abstract theories (in a positive way, of course, as the abstract theories necessarily form the basis for each practical approach to leadership and for each practical application).

To put it shortly, the crucial goals may be formulated through five basic questions:

1. *Do you think that "leadership" (leadership and management) is something that does not concern you, something that is reserved for an (often suspicious) elite?*

2. *Are you searching for verification of what leadership and communication skills you have?*

3. *Do you want to know more about communication between men and women, between superiors and subordinates, and between members of different cultures?*

4. *You have been asked to prepare a team presentation. Would you like to know how to motivate others to participate in it? Are you uncertain how to avoid a situation in which all the work would fall to you?*

5. *Do you want to practice your ability to follow instruction in English and actively participate in it, however, while staying in the Czech Republic?*

The chapters in this book try to answer those questions, or at least help the reader find their own way to answer them. Therefore they provide not only definitions, interpretations, and theories, but also case studies, examples, tables, figures, and schematic descriptions that illustrate the subject matter.

The book also contains a list of reference literature and a list of books recommended for further reading, but also suggestions of topics for further thought.

The book is primarily intended for undergraduate students of philological and/or humanities studies, with at least a B2 level (according to the CEFR) knowledge of English. But it

would also be useful as a study text in continuing education and/or any leadership development courses and programs.

The text was written by two authors, the main author being Ivana Mrozková and the co-author Božena Bednaříková. We would both like to thank our students – *Leadership Communication* course participants – whose ongoing feedback has helped to clarify the way to combine the theory and the practical implications and whose questions and enthusiasm for the subject encouraged us to write the book.

Special acknowledgement goes to the **ESF grant project Inovace bohemistických studií v mezioborových kontextech (reg. č.: CZ.1.07/2.2.00/28.0178)**, which enabled us to implement this course and to work on the study texts.

Ivana Mrozková and Božena Bednaříková
Olomouc 2013

1. Leadership

Definition, Leaders vs. Managers, Followership, Leadership, and Communication Styles

1.1 Leadership (and Communication)

What is leadership and how does it relate to communication? Some people say that leadership is not something performed by "common" people, but only by those heading countries or political parties, or chairing boards or working as the CEOs of large organizations. They see leadership as only a top-level and grand-scale activity, but the authors' view is that throughout our lives we will all find ourselves in situations that require us to take the lead. At work we may be asked to organize a meeting, workshop, or conference; at home we may decide to organize a family reunion; at school we may help launch a new activity for our fellow-students; in the street we may witness an accident and want to assist those involved. These are just a few illustrations of situations which would require us to take the lead, and thus leadership skills are relevant to us all, no matter what our level, and a crucial leadership skill is that of communication. This text considers communication skills we can all use both in leadership and followership roles and in both grand-scale and everyday situations.

There are many **definitions** of leadership; what they have in common is that they generally view it as a group activity, connected with the exercise of power or influence by individu-

als on others, involving a certain degree of collaboration, and aimed at modifying the attitudes and behavior of others in order to achieve a shared goal (Hackman and Johnson, 2004; Northouse, 2001; Gardner, 1990; Burns, 2003).

The use of terms such as "influence" and "modify the attitudes and behavior of others" may be disconcerting at first sight if we focus on leaders getting other people to do what they want. As followers we do not want to feel manipulated and it is important to be aware of potential manipulation and ways to avoid being manipulated, but our focus is on how leaders can persuade people without manipulating them.

As human beings, we exist as part of society and must get along with each other, which requires a degree of collaboration, flexibility, and 'give and take', achieved through our influencing and modifying each other's attitudes and behavior. Manipulation is when this use of influence and power becomes one-sided and exploitative, so that the leader is actually attempting to achieve results which are not part of a shared goal. Rayment and Smith (2010) call this MisLeadership.

An important issue that was discussed especially during the pioneer times of leadership studies was the question of whether leadership can be learned, in other words, whether leaders are born or made (Gardner, 1990; Northouse, 2001; Matusak, 1997). It has been proven that even if many character traits that influence our leadership skills are an inherent part of our personality, we can identify our weak and strong points, try to improve our performance, and even use our weak points in such a way that we convert them into advantages. In fact, the same happens in communication: some of us communicate more freely, with less effort than others, but we all know that mastery comes with study and practice. History provides many examples of deficiencies being overcome, and by devoting time and effort to studying and practicing communication and leadership skills we can improve our effectiveness. Demosthenes, who overcame his weak voice by practicing speeches

over the noise of the tide, and the British king, George VI, who learned how to deal with his shyness and stuttering, are two examples out of many.

1.2 Leadership vs. Management

It is important to distinguish between leadership and management as these two terms are often treated as synonymous when they actually deal with different issues. Leadership is connected with vision and change, management with immediate goals and maintaining the status quo (cf. Kouzes and Posner, 1987, Gardner, 1990, and others). Managers are concerned with organization, planning, and controlling, while leaders deal with strategies, communicating vision, motivating, and inspiring. This is not to say that the concepts of a manager and leader should be positioned against each other; on the contrary, a good leader should be a good manager and vice versa.

1.3 Leadership and Followership

We have talked about leadership and leaders, but no leaders and leadership can exist without followers, or constituents or even subordinates as they are sometimes called. Indeed, the communist regime in former Czechoslovakia collapsed because the leaders suddenly found themselves without any followers (see, for example, the former communist leader Miloš Jakeš and his famous speech *"Jako kůl v plotě" – Left standing alone*).

We have established that leaders need followers. But do followers need leaders? We think they do as a society needs a certain structure and organization to be effective, and leaders and followers are an integral part of these structures. What is very important to realize is the concept of interchangeable leadership, together with the concept of empowerment. In contemporary society most leaders are not "for life" but their

mandate is limited to a certain period of time. Interchangeable leadership roles also mean that a person can be a leader in one team/organization/institution and at the same time a follower in another: an example might be a CEO of a company who is simultaneously serving on the advisory board for the state government. Empowerment means that a leader shares his/her power with his/her followers. We will explain the concept in more detail in the chapter where we deal with leadership and power.

Just as there are different types of leaders, there are also different types of followers. Matusak (1997) recognizes three main types of followers: **docile sheep, alienated passive-aggressive followers,** and **effective followers.**

Docile sheep do what they are told to do; they do not complain about anything but neither do they do anything more than what is required of them. Some sheep can be helped to grow into effective followers with encouragement, motivation, and more responsibility; however, some are content to be sheep and they are happy when left alone.

Alienated passive-aggressive followers exist in almost every group of people. They are the complainers: nothing is right for them; the work is too hard, they are not appreciated enough, the leader is either too weak or too hard and demanding. Again, more responsibility and appreciation can sometimes help to turn them into effective followers, but some only get more alienated and more resentful and they become toxic for the atmosphere in the whole team and then the best solution is to part with them and dismiss them from the team.

Effective followers are the dream of every good leader. They support the leader but they do not follow blindly, which means the leader should be prepared to listen to their suggestions and also constructive criticism, which is aimed at the improvement of the organization and its activities, not just negative criticism of the leader's personal qualities. Effective

followers are highly motivated and dedicated to the common vision they share with the leader and the other followers. They can work independently, and the leader often shares power with them.

1.4 Leadership Styles and Leadership Communication Styles

We have discussed followership in the previous part, and now we will turn our attention back to leadership and leadership styles. Each leader has his or her favorite and prevalent leadership style. Many books and scholarly works, as well as research, are aimed at the identification of these styles and suggesting the best style for a particular situation, context, activity, or group of followers. Only the most frequently-studied and researched styles and approaches will be mentioned from the truly vast field of leadership theories.

The most traditional approach to leadership style is the **trait** approach, which tries to determine which character traits and features are indispensable in a leader, and, on the contrary, which ones should be suppressed. This approach can be found in many philosophical works and historical texts (cf. Machiavelli's The Prince).

Another well-established theory of leadership is the theory of **situational** leadership. The leader chooses his/her approach towards his/her followers according to the situation, the goal to be achieved, and the characteristics of the followers. There are four basic leadership styles recognized by this theory: Delegating, Supporting, Coaching, and Directing.

There are many other theoretical approaches, e.g., the **style** approach (dividing the leader's behavior into task behavior and relationship behavior), **contingent** leadership (similarly focusing on the style-setting match, again with relationship-motivated and task-motivated leadership styles), **path-goal** leadership, **servant** leadership, **invisible** leadership, and many

others. In the next chapter we will provide more details about **transformational** and **charismatic** leadership.

Finally, let us mention leadership communication styles. Hackman and Johnson offer a very clear and understandable division into **authoritarian**, **democratic**, and **laissez-faire** (no leadership, absence of leadership) leadership communication styles. The communication style is derived from the prevalent leadership style used by the leader. We can also use another division, which, as its main feature, considers the leader's approach towards the goal and the followers: we can distinguish a **task-oriented** communication style or a **interpersonal-oriented** communication style. We will use a classification from the communication theory point of view in the next chapter.

Suggestions for further reading

Matusak, L. R.: *Finding Your Voice: Learning to Lead … Anywhere You Want to Make a Difference.* Jossey-Bass, 1997.

Johnson, C., Hackman, M.: *Leadership. A Communication Perspective*. Waveland Press, 2004.

Northouse, P. G.: *Leadership. Theory and Practice*. Sage, 2001. 2nd.

Gardner, J.: *On Leadership*. Free Press, 1990.

Suggestion for further thought

Watch the leadership skills in the film *Apollo 13* (1995, dir. Ron Howard) and the development of leadership in *Sister Act 1* (1992, dir. Emile Ardolino).

2. Transformational Leadership

Charismatic Leadership, Charisma, Communication, and Leadership

In the previous chapter we introduced some basic terms of leadership studies: leadership, followership, leaders, and followers; we brought up the difference between leadership and management, and we analyzed leadership styles as viewed by the different schools of leadership studies. In this chapter we will focus on transformational and transactional leadership, terms coined by Burns in the '70s. The transformational leadership theory is one of the most popular leadership theories, especially because of its emphasis on ethics, on the moral qualities of the leader, and the attention paid to followers. The critics of this theory point out deficiencies in its methodological background as the concepts of morality, ethics, and charisma used in the theory are difficult to define and measure by objective instruments in specific contexts.

2.1 Transformational Leadership

James MacGregor Burns (1918–2014), a US historian and political scientist, was interested in issues concerning leadership throughout his whole academic career. He became famous outside academic circles as a presidential biographer; in 1971, he won the Pulitzer Prize for his work Roosevelt: Soldier of Freedom. In 1978 he published the first edition of

Leadership, a work that is considered one of the cornerstones of leadership studies as a scholarly discipline. Here Burns introduced the terms "transformational" (or transforming as it is sometimes called) and "transactional" leadership for the first time.

Transformational and transactional leadership styles are complementary styles that leaders use in different situations with different goals. Transformational leadership stresses the ethics and morality of the leader's acts, and the fact that during the leadership process the leader changes himself/herself for the better. One of the most important features of this leadership style is the attention paid to the followers: the leader should be attentive to the needs of his/her followers, and he/she should help them to reach their full potential, to empower them. By empowerment we mean sharing power: the leader shares power with the followers, which, under the right circumstances (with active followers involved), has a synergetic effect; power is not diminished but, on the contrary, it is multiplied. World-famous transformational leaders included Mahatma Gandhi, Mother Theresa, and Václav Havel.

Transactional leadership focuses on exchanges, positive or negative: if you do something for me, I will do something else for you, or I will give you something, or, if you do something for me, I will not punish you. Politicians promising to lower taxes, CEOs giving bonuses to employees for outstanding work, parents banning their children from using computers for not tidying their rooms etc. are typical examples of transactional leaders.

As stated before, both styles are complementary; we cannot say that transformational leadership is good and a transactional leadership style is bad. Each style can be effective in a different situation, and one leader can use both of these styles; however, it is the prevalent style that helps us to classify a leader as a transformational or transactional leader. We can also see that from a long-term perspective transformational

leadership has more lasting results as it involves the change of both the leader and followers. Let us take an example from the educational context: a student can learn something in order to pass an exam and get credits (transactional), but the knowledge will last longer if the student is motivated and persuaded (by a teacher) that what he/she learned will be used in his/her future work/studies, and will help him/her to become a better expert, to get a better job etc. (transformational). We can use another example from the context of a family: a child can tidy his/her room because otherwise his/her parents will punish him/her, or because they will give him/her a reward, e.g., money (transactional), or the child can tidy the room because he/she knows that his/her parents will have more time to spend together with their children having fun, or that they will live in a better environment (transformational).

Table 1.
Transformational and transactional leadership

Transformational leadership	Ethics, morality
	Attentive to the needs of followers
	Helps followers to reach their full potential (empowerment)
Transactional leadership	In the process the leader changes himself/herself
	Focus on exchanges

2.2 Charismatic Leadership

Transformational leadership theory is sometimes grouped together with the charismatic leadership theory created by House, as it also stresses ethical values and the visionary aspects of leadership. Most people will agree that a leader should have something that attracts followers, that helps him/her to persuade others. This something, called a "sparkle" in popular language a long time ago, is charisma. Northouse describes charisma as "a special gift that select individuals possess that gives them the capacity to do extraordinary things" (Northouse, 2001:133).

The concept of charisma was introduced by Weber (1947) and defined as a special personality trait that gives a person exceptional powers, something that is reserved just for a few, and is of divine origin. However, despite being a superhuman gift, for charisma it is necessary to be recognized and validated by others: a person is considered charismatic through the eyes (and minds) of others. It means that a person cannot decide "I will be a charismatic leader from now on". It is also true that the charisma of a person can be recognized by a certain group of people and considered non-existent by another. This was the case of Czech and US presidential candidates (George W. Bush, Karel Schwarzenberg), of cultural icons (rappers, alternative music), celebrities, and others.

There are certain characteristics and behaviors which are typical of charismatic leadership. A charismatic leader is dominant and self-confident; he/she has a strong desire to influence others, and has developed a good sense of his/her own values. Charismatic leaders often serve as role models; they appear competent in activities and situations they choose to be involved in. They frequently stress the moral and ethical values present in their visions and goals, and they have high expectations for their followers, features they have in common with transformational leaders. The followers have to be

careful when following a charismatic (or any other) leader, as the goals and solutions presented as the right, ethical, and moral ones can, after closer assessment, be seen as unethical, immoral, and even evil. Hitler's and Stalin's struggles for the "well-being of the German people/the working class", as they called it, are only the most blatant examples of charismatic leadership gone very wrong.

2.3 Communication and Leadership

From the overview of the basic concepts and theories of leadership as already mentioned, we can see that communication is regarded as a crucial leadership skill. In every scholarly work on leadership we read that a leader should be a good communicator, that he/she has to have an ability to articulate his/her vision to his/her followers, and so on. Hackman and Johnson (2004) even define leadership as a specific form of communication, with the aim of influencing and persuading others and conveying the leader's visions and goals.

Therefore it is interesting to notice that it is only in the last 15 years (since 2000) that the focus of leadership scholars started to include leadership communication, and an interdisciplinary approach blending the findings of leadership studies, sociology, political science, and linguistics, the theory of communication, and media studies. This textbook is another small contribution.

2.4 Communication Styles

We have already mentioned leadership communication styles in the previous chapter, where we used a division of communication styles based on the leadership style used by a leader. Now we will divide communication styles according to distinctive features of communication exchanges and typical characteristics of communication acts. In this sense we rec-

ognize three basic styles and one "blended" style: **assertive**, **aggressive**, **passive**, and **fake passive**.

Table 2. *Communication styles*

Communication style	Examples
Assertive	Recognition of others
	Effective listener
	Direct
	Honest
	Negotiation
	Compromise
Aggressive	Absence of listening
	Domineering
	Sarcastic
	Know-it-all attitude
	Abuse
Passive	Hesitations
	Hedges
	Scared
	Unsure
Fake passive	Hesitations, hedges
	Strong opinion

Recognition of other people, negotiation, and the ability to compromise are typical of the **assertive** communication style. A person using this style is an effective listener, and he/she is direct and honest when communicating. On the other hand, an absence of listening, domineering, and even abuse of the other members of the communication situation is a fundamental characteristic of the **aggressive** communication style, as are a sarcastic tone and know-it-all attitude used by the speaker. The third type, the **passive** communication style, comes across to the receiver as unsure; the speaker can even appear scared, and his/her messages are full of uncertainty, which can be expressed in language by hesitation markers such as *"ahem, ahem"*, *"well"*, and *"eh"*, and by hedges (utterances that limit the objectivity and truthfulness of the message – see more in the chapter on communication and power), such as *"I guess"* and *"I think"*.

We have added one more style which was typical of the first Czech President, Václav Havel: the fake passive style, a blend of the passive and assertive styles. Václav Havel´s communication style appeared passive as it was full of hesitations and hedges, and it showed humility and respect for others, but on the other hand, Václav Havel never ceased to express strong opinions.

Václav Havel, playwright, one of the best authors of absurd dramas, dissident during the communist era in Czechoslovakia, and later the President of post-communist Czechoslovakia and the first President of the new Czech Republic, created a new style not only in communication, but also in politics and leadership. He refuted the notion that leaders always have to be strong and authoritarian, that they are weak when they listen to others, when they share power. Therefore Václav Havel is often mentioned as an excellent example of a transformational leader, and his speeches (e.g., his speech in the US Congress) are quoted in many leadership textbooks.

On the other hand, Václav Klaus, who succeeded Václav Havel as the Czech President, is often seen as a transactional leader. His leadership style was transformational in the first years of his career as the Minister of Finance, and later as the first Czech Prime Minister, when he helped to change the socialist economy into a market one, but soon became transactional, more focused on staying in power than moral principles. A typical example of such a transaction was the so-called opposition agreement in 1998, when he supported the winning Social Democrats, whom he had despised just a few weeks before that, in exchange for the position of the Head of the Parliament and other positions that ensured he would have influence in politics and the economy. Václav Klaus is a typical example of the aggressive communication style; he is arrogant and self-conscious, and he often attacks and humiliates not only his opponents but his counterparts in communication generally, whom he treats as inferior.

We will have a closer look at specific characteristics of communication and at various communication techniques we can use in different communication situations and contexts in the next chapters of our textbook.

Suggestions for further reading:

Matusak, L. R.: Finding Your Voice: *Learning to Lead … Anywhere You Want to Make a Difference*. Jossey-Bass, 1997

Johnson, C., Hackman, M.: *Leadership. A Communication Perspective*. Waveland Press, 2004

Northouse, P. G.: *Leadership. Theory and Practice*. Sage, 2001. 2nd.

Burns, J. M.: *Transforming Leadership: A New Pursuit of Happiness*. Atlantic Monthly Press, 2003

Suggestions for further thought:

Transformational leadership of Mahatma Gandhi in Richard Attenborough's film *Gandhi* (1982)

YouTube: Václav Havel's speech in the US Congress: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zplMpbZkEaM

3. What is Communication?

The Communication Process, encoding, Decoding, Message, Ambiguity of Language

3.1 What is Communication?

The term "communication" is used very frequently, in many different contexts and situations. But what does it really mean? But it is necessary to consider what it really means, whether all people mean the same thing when they say "communication", and whether communication is a "thing".

Communication is the exchange of information. Some people think it is just one activity among others: the flow of information from one person to another (Axley, 1984), no more important than planning, managing, and other human activities. For most, however, communication is more than just one activity among others because it lies at the center of human existence. Virtually every conscious human activity (and many subconscious ones) results from or leads to communication. From a very early age humans are surrounded by and exposed to numberless communication situations. Someone had to explain to us how to carry out such basic functions as brushing our teeth or holding a spoon.

According to Webster's College Dictionary, communication is "1. the act or process of communicating; the fact of being communicated. 2. the imparting or interchange of thoughts, opinions, or information by speech, writing, or signs." The first part

of this definition views communication as a process, which it clearly is – to do it effectively, we need to think what to communicate and how to do it, carry out the communication, and assess the response and effect of the communication and whether it was what we intended. This process indicates that communication is not created in its final form but evolves, and changes over time. Indeed, the ultimate effect of a particular piece of communication may not be known for many years, if ever.

The second part of Webster's definition includes the exchange of thoughts, opinions, and information, and this can include the sender's feelings, attitudes, and beliefs, in other words the exchange of the meaning within and behind the communication. Taking these points together, we can define communication as *the process by which people interactively create, sustain and manage meaning* (Conrad and Poole, 1998).

Communication being a process, we can identify various ways in which communication is structured and a number of models of communication.

3.2 Communication Process: Models of Communication

Hackman and Johnson (2004) identify three communication models based on the activity of a sender, receiver, or both, termed respectively the action, interaction, and transaction models. However, there are other factors to consider in communication, so we have added a fourth and complex model.

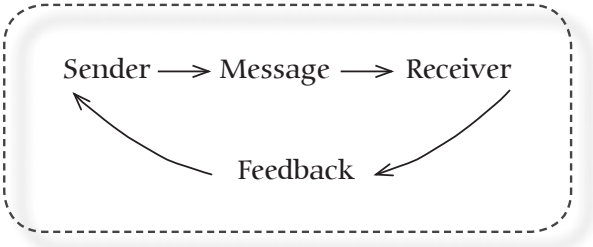
3.2.1 Action model

Communication can be perceived and intended as a linear action: a sender creates (codes) a message and sends it to a receiver who receives it and decodes it. (The concept of the encoding and decoding of messages is covered in more detail in the next section.)

This model sees communication as a simple act of sending information. The sender does not expect or receive a response or reaction from the receiver: a student just listens to a lecture, a viewer watches a TV series.

3.2.2 Interaction model

However, the sender usually wants the receiver to react, and the receiver's reaction is included in the interaction model as feedback.

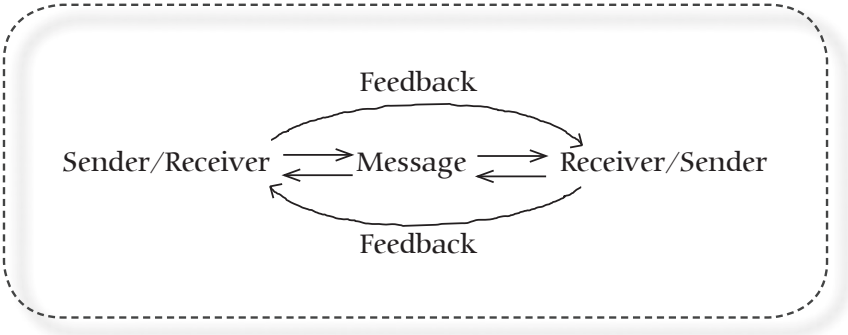


Thus this model allows for a response by the receiver, but not a reaction by the original sender to the receiver's activity. A good example is a question/answer session where the sender just asks a question and then he/she receives an answer.

3.2.3 Transaction model

The transaction model accepts the interactive nature of communication as it allows for the two-way character of exchanging information: the receiver may act after he/she receives the message, but the sender may then react to this feedback, and the original receiver then reacts to this sec-

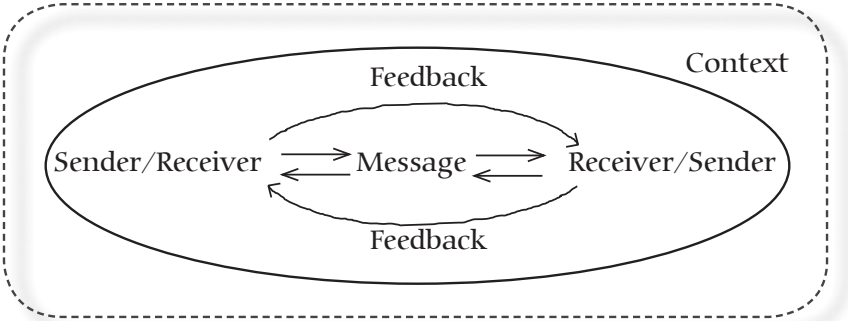
ond element of communication from the original sender, and so on.



This is what most conversations are like. A transaction is any "face-to-face" encounter. It may be an action of communication/agreement made between two people/two parties/two companies involving an exchange of items, money, services, etc.

3.2.4 Complex model

These three models develop the true nature of communication as being two-way between the parties involved, but do not take into consideration another very important aspect that can be crucial for effective communication, the context



in which the communication takes place. No message should be sent without consciously or unconsciously taking into account such contextual aspects as when and where the communication takes place and which parties are directly involved and anyone else who may be listening.

3.2.5 Communication models revisited. Context

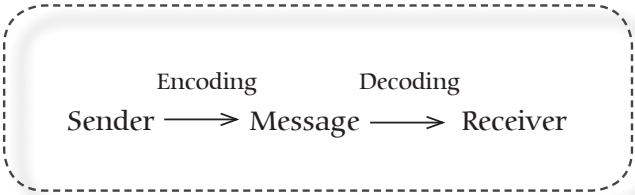
When we talked about communication models, we described four basic types, building from a simple action model (sender – message – receiver) to the complex model which includes not only the communication act itself but also its context (sender/receiver – message – receiver/sender + context). Context is an integral part of any communication act and plays an important role in understanding what is being communicated.

It is difficult to define context since it is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon that includes the situational, pragmatic, cultural, language, and literary context. In communication we can say that the context is everything that surrounds the communication, that it is the environment in which communication takes place, including not only the immediate situation but also such elements as common knowledge, cultural background, and the individual experience of the participants. Thus context exercises an immense influence on every communication act.

3.3 Encoding, Decoding, Message

We agreed that communication is a process rather than a "thing". So now we will try to discover how the communication process works. The basic operations included in the process are the **encoding** of a meaning into a message, selecting a communication channel for sending the message, sending the message, and then, on the part of the receiver, receiving the **message** and **decoding** and reacting to it.

When the sender sends a message he/she has to select the code to use, varying from simple (a yellow flag on a ship meaning infectious disease on board) to very elaborate ones (the language of a poem). Language has a special position in encoding as even if we do not use language as the primary code, the recipient usually converts whatever code is used into language, if only mentally.



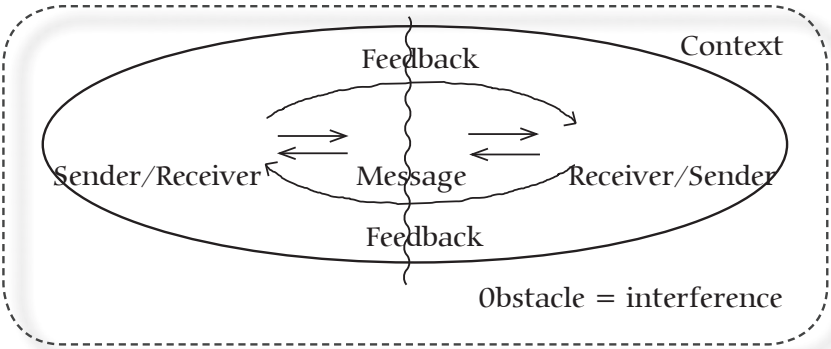
In many cases the code used is clear to both the sender and receiver. Native Americans used smoke signals as a code, with puffs of smoke having agreed meanings equivalent to "Buffalo here" or "Enemy approaching". But even when we see a painting or watch a film we usually convert the visual images into words, if only in our minds. Depictions of the Last Supper lead us to think in terms of the people who are sitting at the table; they are eating and there is great tension between certain individuals, others being ignorant of that fact.

Selecting a proper code for a particular communication act is crucial for the result of the communication. If the sender selects the wrong code the receiver will not be able to decode it and the communication may end in misunderstanding or even disaster.

In an ideal situation decoding will be the same process as encoding, only in reverse. However, this is often not the case as the sender and receiver have different cultural, educational, gender, generational, and other background contextual experiences that influence their perception of the encoded message. The conditions in which we communicate are rarely ideal

either. There might be noise so we cannot hear clearly, we can be short-sighted and therefore not able to read the subtitles of a film, there can be an insufficient level of cellphone signal, and so on. The various obstacles to clear communication are called interference. Interference can be physical (a bad line on the phone, difficult-to-read handwriting, the sender-speaker is too distant from the receiver-listener) or mental (different language, different life experience, different cultural background).

Table 3. ***Complexity of the communication process***



This means we should pay attention to choosing a proper and appropriate code for each message, taking into consideration the personality of the receiver (age, gender, and educational and cultural background), as well as possible physical and mental interferences.

3.4 Ambiguity

The ambiguity of a message, and where the transmission code is language, the ambiguity of language, is one of the main obstacles to, or interferences with, effective communication. To help understand the difference between the following sentences we have to write or pronounce them correctly, with or without

commas, or making or not making a pause after the words *Science* and *classes*.

1. *The students of Political Science, who were absent from most classes, failed the test.*

2. *The students of Political Science who were absent from most classes failed the test.*

In the first sentence (1) we mean all students of Political Science. One of their additional characteristics is that they were absent from most classes; the information is added *by the way*, as an afterthought, and it is not relevant for the main meaning of the sentence. In a grammatical sense, we call such inserted clauses *non-defining relative clauses*.

In the second sentence (2) not all the students failed the test, but only those who were absent from most classes.

The ambiguity of language is clarified in writing by punctuation (commas in the case mentioned above), or in speech by using prosodic features such as stress or, as in this case, pauses.

Another example (a Czech one):

1. *Stavební historie tohoto náměstí bude završena výstavbou nového českého divadla.*

2. *Stavební historie tohoto náměstí bude završena výstavbou nového, českého divadla.*

What we have in the mind in the first sentence (1) is the new Czech theater (the old one was probably destroyed, demolished, etc., while in the second sentence (2) we are speaking about a new theater, this time a Czech one (the old one was probably a German one, i.e., presenting German dramas on the stage).

The ambiguity of a message can also be caused by cultural differences. In different languages there can be different parts of reality associated with the meaning of a particular expression. For example, *house* in English has a narrower meaning than the Czech *dům*: the English *house* typically denominates a one-family dwelling, while the Czech expression can include an apartment building as well. The English *go* includes different means of transport, while the Czech language needs individual verbs to express the means: *jít*, *jet*, *letět* etc. More examples can be found in the chapter on cultural differences.

In almost every message more is meant than it is actually said. The additional meaning hidden in the message is sometimes called the secondary message, or metamessage, a term coined by the US linguist Deborah Tannen. Hidden meanings in messages will be focused on in the chapters on communication and power, discourse analysis, and communicational strategies.

No message is also a message. Politicians who refuse to answer questions about shady deals and students who stay silent when asked about homework convey messages about their willingness to explain their activities, to prepare for the lessons etc.

The reasons why ambiguity is important for communication vary. It is used to save face or to express politeness; in politics it is used to avoid making direct judgments or promises, in advertising it shows creativity and attracts the attention of customers by appealing to their imagination. Again, we will deal with examples and the functioning of ambiguity in the following chapters.

Suggestions for further reading:

Gibson, R.: *Intercultural Business Communication*. Oxford University Press, 2002

Adler, R. B., Rodman, G.: *Understanding Human Communication*. Hartcourt College, 2000. 7th

Clampitt, P. G.: *Communicating for Managerial Effectiveness*. Sage, 2001. 2nd

Suggestions for further thought:

Different meanings in different contexts: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ybj2FJ8iDCs

4. Communication Channels

Selecting Appropriate Channels, Case Study: e-mails

An integral part of the communication process is choosing an appropriate communication channel. When we are choosing an appropriate code for our message, we also have to think about how to get the message to the receiver; in other words, we have to think about the communication channel we would use. The selection of a communication channel can be characterized as the choice of a medium: fax, phone conversation, e-mail, official letter, TV commercial, billboard etc.

When we decide which communication channel to use we should consider whether the channel in question meets certain requirements: whether the receiver has a mobile phone when we promise to call him/her when he/she comes to the place where we want to meet him/her, whether he/she has an e-mail address for our e-mail message etc., whether we want the message to be delivered within a particular time frame, i.e., when we need a response immediately it is better to use a phone call, and when we want to send an official invitation well ahead of the time of an event we will use the postal service. We should also ascertain whether the communication channel meets the level of formality expected for the occasion: when we want to communicate an official message, such as confirmation of acceptance to university studies, we will use a formal letter sent by regis-

tered mail, or when we want to inform a friend of a change in the time we will meet them an email or text message will suffice.

Phillip Clampitt (2001) suggests that the appropriateness of the channel chosen should be assessed according to the objectives of the sender, the attributes of the channel, and the characteristics of the receiver(s). As we can see from the examples mentioned above, the sender should take all three aspects into consideration before selecting the right channel.

4.1 Communication Channels Case Study: E-mails

Above we have shown that choosing an appropriate communication channel is very important for good communication; now we will try to analyze a particular communication channel that is widely used today: e-mail. We will suggest in which situations it is and in which it is not appropriate to communicate via e-mail, what information should be present in an e-mail, and what can or should be omitted.

4.1.2 When should we send an e-mail?

We should consider sending an e-mail when we can fully exploit its advantages. E-mail messages are fast, brief, and economical, and can be sent to many recipients at the same time. They are still considered rather informal, though this characteristic is becoming more and more suppressed as a result of the use of e-mail for sending official newsletters, official communications from institutions etc.

4.1.3 How should we send an e-mail properly?

When sending an e-mail we should comply with several rules which are generally accepted for e-mail communication.

First of all, we have to check whether we have the correct address: when there are two John Smiths in an organization, one can have a john.smith@xxxxx.com address while the other can be just j.smith@xxxxx.com or john.smith2@xxxxx.com, etc. Therefore it is necessary to ascertain that we are sending a message to the right John Smith. It is also important to check whether we are sending the e-mail to the right person: a love e-mail sent to the wife instead of the lover can lead to divorce, and an e-mail calling a party colleague unflattering names sent by accident to that very colleague led to mistrust among members and subsequent splitting of the Czech Green Party in 2008, and later, though indirectly, also to the fall of the whole Czech government.

Given the number of e-mails we send and receive every day, it is important to state the subject of the e-mail in the subject line. It helps to distinguish important e-mails from less important ones, and sometimes it can even decide whether the recipient will open the e-mail or delete it without reading. It also makes further communication regarding the same subject easier.

Greetings are an integral part of an e-mail, especially during the first or second e-mail exchange; when we continue writing an e-mail "chain" and there is a minimal time period elapsing between the exchanges they become redundant. The greeting used depends on how well we know the recipient, as well as on the level of formality between the sender and the recipient. It can vary from the formal *Dear Sir or Madam* (when we do not know even the name of the recipient) through *Dear Dr. Jones* to the informal *Hi Peter*.

The main body of an e-mail should contain the information from the sender and his/her intent(s) or aim(s), formulated in a clear and brief message. If there is more than one point to be made it is necessary to structure the message and divide it into several paragraphs. That will ensure that the recipient can easily take in the information and it also makes it easier to

answer. Some senders/recipients prefer to use bullet points or numbers in order to ensure greater clarity of the message. The usage of small talk and the necessity to personalize "business" emails is a question of the cultural background of the senders/recipients. In general, when we know the recipient, we can start an email with *How are you doing?*, *How are you?*, or, more informally, *How are things?*

We should state what reaction to the e-mail we expect from the recipient at the end of the main body of the email, e.g., *Could you send the information asap?* or *Could you suggest a time for meeting you and your colleagues?*

The conclusion can contain either rather formal formulations, such as *I look forward to hearing from you soon.* or *I appreciate your cooperation.*, or less formal ones, such as *See you soon.* or *Talk to you later.* The same is true about the final formulations, which can vary from the formal *(Yours) sincerely*, through the neutral *(Best) regards*, to the informal *Rgds*, *Best*, or *Cheers* (in BE).

As the signature should also serve as a source of contact information in e-mails, it is advisable to attach such information after signing your name. For formal "official" e-mails the information should contain your full name and surname, position, name of the institution or organization, address, including state, country, and zip code, phone and fax numbers, and electronic media information: the web address of the institution, e-mail address, Skype, etc.

4.1.4 When and how not to send an e-mail

We have considered the appropriateness of sending e-mail and its advantages. However, there are times when it is not appropriate to send an e-mail. E-mails should be avoided as communication channels for high-impact news such as the announcement of a death, serious disease, or dismissal from a job. E-mails are also not the best solution for situations

when the message can easily be misinterpreted, for example for expressing direct criticism.

Another issue to take into consideration is the fact that no e-mail is absolutely confidential. It is easy to forward a message, or to send it to a wrong addressee. The data from an e-mail account can be stolen by hacking or claiming the password under false pretences (false password verification, false security announcements etc.). So generally, anything that we would not state in public should be avoided in e-mails.

The time aspect, or, in other words, when the message will be read and processed, is also important for deciding whether to write an e-mail or whether to use another communication channel, for example a phone call. We have to keep in mind where on the globe the person is at the moment if we want to send an urgent message as there can be a significant delay in retrieving the message as a result of time zones: Washington, DC, USA, is six hours behind Central European Time (CET), while South Korea is six hours ahead, so when we send a message to the US East Coast in the morning we will have to wait till the recipient wakes up, while if we want to contact a business partner in Korea we should do so in the CET morning as there is a better chance he/she will still be online. When we know the person we correspond with it is good to know how often he/she opens his/her mailbox or whether he/she is on vacation or at a conference and has difficulties accessing the Internet. Generally, it is expected that e-mails should be answered within three days, but the e-mail-answering etiquette varies according to different cultural and organizational settings.

Another situation in which we should not send an e-mail is a situation in which we feel hurt, angry, or annoyed. Again, we have to consider the time factor; while sending an angry e-mail can be a way to vent our feelings and it can help us feel better at the moment, in the long term it is definitely not an advisable strategy. E-mails can stay in the recipient's e-mail

box for a long time, even when we cool down and would like to forget our rushed words. Therefore we should think twice before we send an angry or accusing e-mail, and generally we should avoid doing so. The same applies to e-mails expressing personal criticism. We should try to be less direct than in face-to-face communication and make criticism positive by stressing good points as well, rather than just stating the negative. A commonly used strategy is to use impersonal rather than personal statements: instead of writing *You should/should not do this*... we can use *It would be a good idea to do this*...

4.1.5 Emoticons and abbreviations

Generally, emoticons (or smileys) are considered one of the characteristic features of informal style, so they are avoided in official correspondence. Some e-mail providers, as well as smartphones, have their own set of emoticons we can choose from and paste into a message; however, they are usually not compatible with all e-mail systems, and therefore there is a possibility they will not appear in the received message. In such a case a lot of the message can be lost as we usually use emoticons as means of evaluation and a prompt as to how to read the message. They can indicate a joke or irony or express feelings of boredom, disapproval etc. The diacritic marks used in many languages can also cause problems when the e-mail language cannot read them. It cannot be said that we should avoid diacritics altogether, but it is necessary to be careful when communicating with different cultures.

As being brief is the crucial demand in an e-mail, we can choose from a wide range of abbreviations with different degrees of informality: from the neutral *FAQ (frequently asked questions)* or *FYI (for your information)*, through the slightly informal *ASAP (as soon as possible)*, to the distinctly informal *HAK* or *xoxo (hugs and kisses)*. More abbreviations used both in e-mails and text messages can be found in the table.

Abbreviations

asap	as soon as possible
atm	at the moment
btw	by the way
b4	before
c u l8r	see you later
gr8!	great!
r u	are you
thx	thanks
tmrw/2moro	tomorrow
ttyl	talk to you later
2day	today
2nite	tonight
brb	be right back
:)	I'm happy/joking or Good news
:(	I'm sad or Bad news
RSVP	please reply to an invitation
fyi f	or your information
smh	shaking my head
lol	laughing out loud

4.1.6 Attachments

When attaching documents we should be aware of certain restrictions on what to attach. First of all we should consider the size of an attachment, as some e-mail services can have attachment size restrictions. For bulky attachments we can use various compression programs or upload sites on the web (e.g., ulozto.cz, google.doc etc.).

Before attaching a document we should make sure we have saved the latest and correct version of the document; it is always advisable to make sure twice that we are indeed sending the right version rather than to have to apologize for attaching an incorrect one.

We should be sure that the attachment we are sending is a relevant one and avoid sending or forwarding messages containing hoaxes (false information, e.g., about infected needles stuck in the local bus and tram seats), chain letters ("Chinese prayers of good luck", or an image of Dr. Seuss' Cat in the Hat), or various fake virus warnings.

As we can see, even e-mail communication has its rules, which should be observed for effective communication. Although it is used widely in many situations and for various communicative purposes, it is necessary to state that there are still situations in which an e-mail is considered inappropriate. However, e-mail is a communication channel that evolves very quickly and the rules are changing as well.

Suggestions for further reading:

Clampitt, P. G.: *Communicating for Managerial Effectiveness*. Sage, 2001. 2nd.

Maggio, R.: *How to Say It*. Prentice Hall Press, 2009. 3rd.

Suggestions for further thought:

Examples of e-mail hoaxes at http://www.hoax-slayer.com/, http://chainletters.net/chainletters/cat-in-the-hat/

5. Leadership and Diversity

Intercultural Communication

5.1 Diversity

We live in a diverse world. All attempts at unification have failed so far. We embrace diversity. In fact, even multinational companies have to adjust to individual cultures: McDonald's in India uses different meat than beef for hamburgers, in Muslim countries it is necessary to use halal food; a Japanese firm asking its factory employees in the Czech Republic to start work by doing morning exercises together faced resistance from the workers, which resulted in lower work efficiency etc. Many studies and research surveys proved that diverse teams are more effective and more successful. Diversity enables a task or a problem to be seen from different sides, different points of view to be considered, and consequently more innovative solutions to be reached.

5.2 Culture

The term "culture" has different meanings in different contexts. Apart from national culture, we can speak about regional culture (Moravian and Bohemian, the culture of the American South), organizational or corporate culture (the culture of Apple or of Unilever), religious culture (of the Protestants, Catholics, or Muslims), age culture (of various age

groups and generations, e.g., generation X, the hippie generation, today's 30-year-olds) and so on. We will concentrate on culture in the national or ethnic sense. Kramsch (1998) characterized culture in this sense as "a common system of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating, and acting" (Kramsch, 1998: 10).

Similarly, Gibson (2002) defines culture as "a shared system of attitudes, beliefs, values, and behavior" (Gibson, 2002: 7). There are several models which are used to explain the concept: they include the iceberg, onion, and tree models. All three models illustrate the relationship between visible and underlying attributes of culture: behavior, clothing, food, meanings, symbols, beliefs, attitudes, values, rules, norms etc. The elements of culture can be divided into three major groups: products of culture, e.g., literature, folklore, art, music, and artifacts, ideas, e.g., beliefs, values, and institutions, and behaviors, e.g., customs, habits, dress, foods, and leisure (Tomalin & Stempleski, 1993). To understand a culture means not only to recognize differences in clothing, food, or architectural style but also to discover the invisible underlying structures crucial for grasping the complexities of a culture.

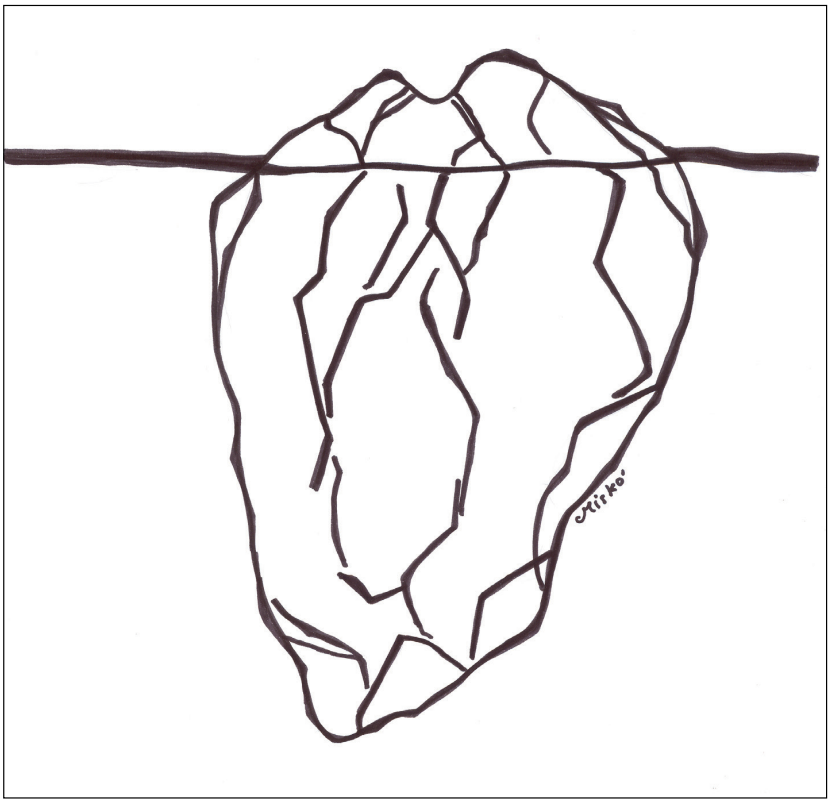
5.2.1 Models of culture

When we come to a different country and meet a new culture we will first notice differences that are apparent on the streets – different styles in housing, clothes of a strange design, and unknown food combinations – and then we find out about the different customs and habits of the natives, and only after talking to the people, studying their art and literature, reading about their history, and participating in ceremonies do we start uncovering why the people behave in such a way, what lies behind the rituals, and how the traditions have been shaped. All three models illustrate the above-mentioned process.

5.2.1.1 Iceberg model

The iceberg model of culture shows how only just a very small part of a culture is visible at first sight. Most of it (values, attitudes, and historical background) stays hidden from our sight for a long time. We have to immerse ourselves into the culture and go "under water" to study the culture in more detail, and only then can we recognize and appreciate its complexities.

Figure 1. ***Iceberg model***



5.2.1.2 Onion model

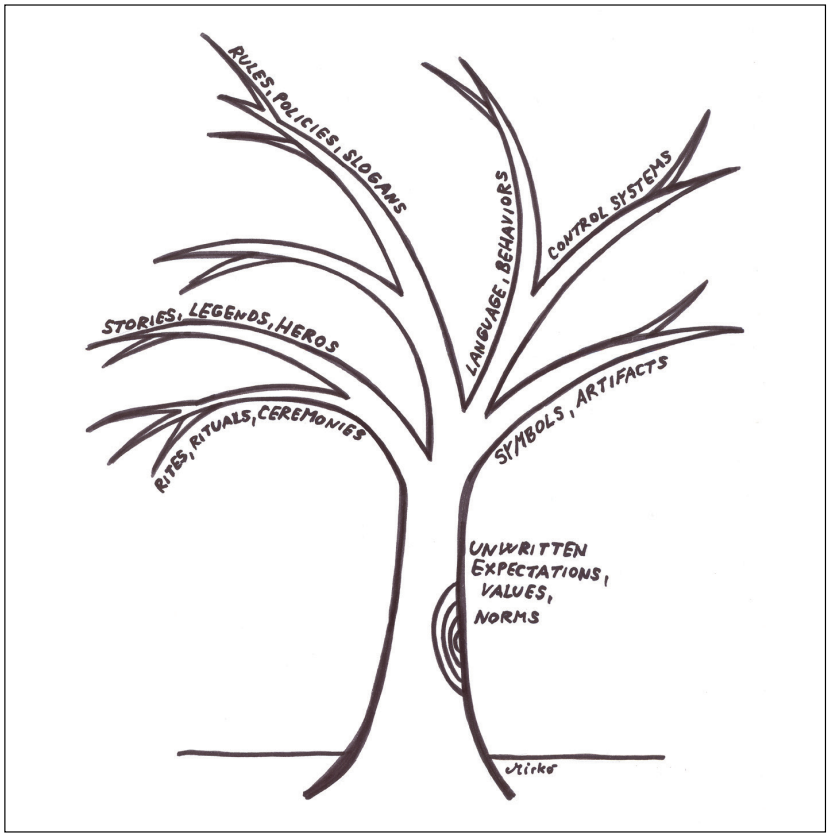
The onion model suggests that the core values, attitudes, and behaviors of a culture stay hidden under different layers of the onion skin that represent different elements of culture. Only after we peel off the surface layers of clothing, food, and customs and penetrate through the deeper layers of art, literature, and music can we explore the inner core.

Figure 2. ***Onion model***

5.2.1.3 Tree model

The tree model not only shows that the core values, attitudes, and beliefs are hidden from our sight, but it accentuates the connection between the core values, beliefs, and assumptions of a culture and the surface attributes of that culture. In other words, it shows that the outer elements of a culture, such as clothing, designs, behaviors, rituals, and even lan-

Figure 3. ***Tree model***



guage, stem from the unwritten values and norms of a culture, which are deeply rooted in its core values, beliefs, and assumptions.

5.3 Intercultural Communication

Let us go back to the communication models described in the first two chapters. To the ideal complex communication model we had to add an obstacle, interference. We have identified different cultural contexts as one of the most common obstacles to good communication. As we saw in the previous chapters, cultural differences influence communication in many ways. We have already discussed differences in how cultures name certain concepts in their respective languages, and the issue of the interference of the original language (mother tongue). We can use as an example the analysis of the English word *HOUSE* and its translational counterpart in Czech. The meaning of the word *house* is much narrower in English than it is in Czech. That can lead to misunderstandings in descriptions and giving directions when a Czech describes a building with many apartments where he/she lives as a *house* when speaking English and the image this creates for an English listener is that of a house for one family. On the other hand, the Spanish word *casa* denotes a much broader meaning: it can be used not only for the meaning "a house/building" but also for the meaning "apartment/flat" and "home".

The same is true about many other meanings: the Czech verb *půjčit (si)* can mean both *to borrow* and *to lend* in English; the difference between the two lies just in the reflexive *si*: *půjčit si = to borrow*, *půjčit = lend*. There are other differences in the usage of complementation and in the contextual setting but we wanted to show just the basic difficulties in using different languages and different codes. We have also indicated that cultural differences can cause serious misunderstandings in non-verbal communication, as gestures, eye contact, and

personal distance, to name just a few, have different meanings in different cultures.

When considering how to overcome the obstacles in communication created by different cultural backgrounds, first of all we should be aware of the barriers to intercultural communication that exist and possible ways to deal with them.

5.3.1 Barriers to intercultural communication

According to Gibson (2002), there are three main categories of barriers to intercultural communication: attitude, decoding, and stereotypes.

Attitudes towards intercultural communication can be problematic, especially in the case when a person accentuates the so-called ethnocentric approach. This approach is characterized by overestimating the importance of his/her own language and looking down on other languages and their speakers. A typical attitude of an ethnocentrist is expressed in utterances such as *"Everyone should speak Czech while in the Czech Republic"* or *"When in Rome do as the Romans do"*.

Decoding, and especially different ways of decoding, have been identified as another barrier to successful intercultural communication (concerning differences in meanings in different languages, see above). Misunderstandings can be prevented by guided interpretation: by checking perception, efficient listening, and giving feedback.

Stereotypes are the most common barriers to intercultural communication. Stereotypes can be defined as repeated fixed patterns, ideas, or images. Therefore we can identify movement stereotypes, stereotypes in thinking, and stereotyped gestures; however, those that are best known are stereotypes connected with nations and ethnic groups (cultural stereotypes) and social and gender stereotypes. While a certain degree of generalization is necessary and helps us function in the complex world, if a stereotype becomes

too rigid it creates a barrier to effective communication. Stereotypes then function as a basis for racial and social prejudice and can be used and misused for propaganda and manipulation.

5.3.2 Culture shock

When we decide to live in another cultural environment for a prolonged period of time we will most probably go through various stages of reaction and adjustment to the new culture, through phases of culture shock. What is traditionally called culture shock is in fact a gradual process which has its physical and mental symptoms (Gibson, 2002). Mental symptoms can include homesickness and a sense of loss, confusion, anxiety, and helplessness, while physical symptoms can vary from headaches and sleeplessness, a desire for the consumption of alcohol, drugs, including sleeping pills or antidepressants, and certain types of food (chocolate), to stomach pain and general sickness.

Elizabeth Marx (1999) classifies the phases of culture shock into the following: honeymoon phase, culture shock, recovery, culture shock, recovery, culture shock, and breaking through. In the initial honeymoon phase everything seems new, great, and exciting; after a short period of time, however, we start to find out that we do not like this particular food, and that particular attitude is very annoying: we have got to phase two, the "real" culture shock, or frustration phase. This phase is characterized by mostly negative feelings towards the new culture; people seem to be unresponsive to our needs and do not respect our feelings, and we feel neglected and alone. After some time, depending on the person's personality, comes the recovery phase. The phases of culture shock and recovery can appear repeatedly until, finally, the breaking-through phase comes and we feel "at home" in the new culture.

Then, when we come back to our original culture we can experience reverse culture shock, or 're-entry' shock (Gibson, 2002), and live through the process of adjustment once again.

The process of adjustment to a new culture experienced by students in a foreign country was described by ASSIST, Inc., an organization that has over 30 years of experience in student exchanges.

Table 4. ***Adjusting to a new culture***

Adjusting to a New Culture
(according to ASSIST, Inc., USA)

The adjustment cycle is predictable, normal and healthy, yet not everyone experiences all stages of the cycle, nor experiences it in the same order.

STAGE 1
Isn't that interesting! This is when the newly arrived student is so excited about everything. Things are novel and interesting, and reactions are of pleasure and excitement. The student may be the center of attention, too!

STAGE 2
The thrill is gone. Routine begins to set in as the student becomes accustomed to the environment. Things are not so fascinating now, and the work at school is overwhelming. The student is no longer the center of attention, and deeper friendships have not yet developed.

STAGE 3
It is not all I dreamed it would be. Our home ways are better, and I'm tired of trying. Homesickness is setting in,

and the holidays may be approaching. There is a feeling of being an outsider, and sometimes there is rejection of the way things are done in the new culture. This is normal and is referred to as culture shock or cultural fatigue.

STAGE 4

I'm beginning to feel that I belong here. Spring is coming, and there is a rebirth with the passing of the bleakness of the winter months. The student becomes accommodating, and old values, attitudes, beliefs and ideas are no longer threatened in terms of the new culture. Assimilation has taken place. Things may be different, but they are not necessarily better or worse than at home.

STAGE 5

I feel at home here. The final stage is achieved when the student completely accepts the foreign culture as his or her own. This final stage is not always reached, nor is it always completely positive. The student has achieved a greater empathy with a different people, and an enhanced ability to communicate with them.

STAGE 6

I have a new perspective of my own country and a fuller awareness of myself as a world citizen. I feel I have greater confidence, direction and commitment. The exchange year is over. The student returns to his or her home country full of enthusiasm for the year and the many new experiences and friendships made.

5.4 Dealing with difference and diversity

As we have described various aspects of communication between different cultures we can see that the key to dealing

with cultural differences and diversity is adaptability, being flexible when encountering a different environment and different thoughts, values, and attitudes, high tolerance for ambiguity in communication, and openness. It is important not only to tolerate the different culture, but to accept it. To accept the culture does not mean that we necessarily have to adopt the different culture as our own, but that we understand what the values and beliefs are behind the 'strange' customs, what their deep roots in history and tradition are.

Cultural learning and managing diversity can enrich not only our communication skills but also our lives in general, and therefore we should pay more attention to the intercultural and diversity aspect of our environment.

Suggestions for further reading:

Kramsch, C.: *Language and Culture*. Oxford University Press, 2006

Gibson, R.: *Intercultural Business Communication*. Oxford University Press, 2002

Suggestions for further thought:

Intercultural communication: the film *My Big Fat Greek Wedding* (2002, dir. Joel Zwick)

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UTE0G9amZNk

6. Leadership and Gender

Gender Communication

There are many stereotypes about men and women: we can read that men and women are from different planets (Gray, 1994), that they represent different cultures (Tannen, 1992), and that they cannot understand each other. We are all individuals with our own individual communication styles; however, a closer look shows tendencies to certain behaviors, tendencies that evolved during the entire history of human communication.

The roles of men and women have evolved differently over time as specialization proved to be advantageous for the development of the species; men became hunters and later warriors and defenders and women collectors and later carers for the children and home. Only in the last 200 years, with the growth of technologies and rapid changes in civilization, have the roles started to change dramatically, which has been reflected in communication and in language.

Discourse studies show that language and communication patterns reflect power relationships in society and that standard language promoted and replicated in the society by the media, the system of education, and the system of government is the language of the group of people who are in a position of power and who held key leadership positions in the economy, executive, and legislature (Fairclough, 2001). Therefore it is clear that the communication patterns and language we use contain elements that reflect male dominance through the

centuries. It can be seen in many languages that the male gender takes precedence over the female, not only in grammar but also in morphology and lexicology: in Czech, when we have only women, we use the particular feminine form of the verb, *ženy šly* "the women went"; however, when we have both men and women we use *muži a ženy šli* "the men and women went", the same form as in the case of men only, *muži šli* "the men went". The same is true of the usage of denomination for parents in Spanish: *los padres* means just "fathers", as well as both "fathers and mothers", i.e., parents. Masculine forms are generally seen as neutral but feminine forms as marked, as deviant from the norm (see the Czech female versions of the words he/she surgeon – *chirurg/chirurgyně* or *chiruržka*, or psychiatrist – *psychiatr/psychiatrička* or *psychiatryně*).

In her book Communicating Gender Suzanne Romaine states that women "have been persistently seen as Others", as a subordinated group, and "their ways of communicating and behaving are described as deviant and illogical in relation to some other norms of behaving, which define the socially powerful" (Romaine, 1999: 10). As an example we can use expressions such as *working mother* and *mankind*: we do not use the collocation "working father" as all fathers are inherently "working", and *womankind* means "women as distinguished from men", not people in general.

In many areas of public communication, as well as in many languages, there is a tendency to use more gender-neutral expressions, such as in English *chairs or chairpersons* of various boards and *police* or *police officer* instead of *chairman* or *policeman*; in Czech advertisements companies are looking for a *ředitel/ředitelka* (male/female director) or *asistent/asistentka* (male/female assistant), and in France the title *mademoiselle* (Miss – an unmarried woman) has been banned from official administrative language as suggesting a different (lower) status. However, these are just small steps, and as language reflects the social reality with a certain delay, there is still

a long way to go to achieve gender equality both in social order and in communication.

We can still see that different scales are used when assessing the communication styles of males and females: if a male politician uses an assertive or even arrogant communication style he is considered decisive and resolute; when the same style is used by a woman, she is quickly called a "shrew" and her style is criticized as unfeminine and too aggressive, as was proved by Margaret Thatcher's notorious nickname The Iron Lady. On the other hand, if a female politician shows emotion and uses what is considered a female communication style, she is rejected as a weak politician and she is not assessed as a good leader, as happened to Hillary Clinton during her presidential campaign in 2008.

That is not to say that there is nothing that can be done about the situation or that we should accept the status quo and not question the ways in which we communicate. As Suzanne Romaine puts it: "What we must try to change are the conventional uses of language in sexist ways. Otherwise, we get trapped in a circular argument: Men have power because men define meanings and men define meanings because men have power." (Romaine, 1999: 6).

We can start by mentioning he/she in English, by distinguishing gender in languages that can do it and speak of women as *la estudiante*, *studentka*, *directora*, and *ředitelka* and not in the masculine form even in the singular, as is often the case when speaking about working positions and official job titles. We should be sensitive to utterances such as *All the people went to see the football match; only the women stayed at home*, to what images are used in advertising and publicity, or, to put it simply, to use critical thinking in communication.

So when we describe male and female communication styles here we use the terms not as meaning literally positive or negative but as generalizations of two opposite ends of a scale, so that positive and negative face do not mean an

evaluation of "good" or "bad" face but a simple description of a dichotomy relation. The usage of style varies according to different situations and contexts and with different individuals. It is difficult, if not impossible, to find a "pure" male or female communication style in a person.

6.1 Male Communication Style

A male communication style is typically described as concentrating on power relations, hierarchical, power-based, and individualistic. Men are more likely to use direct language to express their communicative intention: they give direct orders, express their disagreement openly, and do not waste time on indirect "beating around the bush". Tannen characterizes the male communication style as report talk: stating the facts and not giving a long analysis of the feelings involved. In private men usually tend to be silent; they say what they need or want but otherwise do not enjoy long exchanges with their partners or friends. On the contrary, in public, men are not afraid to express their opinions for fear that they would hurt the feelings of others or that they would threaten the other communication partner's face and they are more sure of themselves: they do not think of losing face too much. They focus on expressing concepts, not feelings, and they do not care much about expressing emotions. Men generally tend to interrupt more often in communication exchanges. Their body language shows confidence.

6.2 Female Communication Style

On the contrary, a female communication style is generally characterized as solidarity- and consensus-based, focusing on inclusion and sharing. Tannen uses the term "rapport talk", exchanges that are aimed at establishing friendly relations, "being on the same wavelength", feeling safe and

secure during the communication exchange, and feeling well-liked and appreciated. Many women tend to avoid conflicts, especially in public. A different contrast appears in the female communication style: women talk more in the private sphere, where they feel relatively safe, while in public they remain silent as they do not want their face to be threatened. It is more natural for them to express their feelings and emotions freely in private. In public, especially if a woman is in a leadership position, it is difficult for them to express what they feel because they are afraid to be labeled as emotional or even hysterical (cf. the cases of Margaret Thatcher and Hillary Clinton mentioned above). Women in general are good at active listening; they know how to encourage their communication partner to share their views, which is very important, for example, in negotiation. Female body language is not (and it is, conventionally, not supposed to be) very confident. For centuries women were considered weak and insignificant so their expected body language was supposed to reflect that: even nowadays women are expected to appear shy, non-aggressive, and nice persons.

Sometimes the male and female understanding of body language differs. When nodding, females show they are listening, while males nod only when they agree, which can lead to many misunderstandings. The usage of gestures is also different; men use them to emphasize their points in discussion and to appear more confident, while women were taught that extensive and strong gestures should be avoided, again, for the reasons already mentioned above: women were not supposed to be too visible in public.

The role of women in society has changed significantly during the past century; however, a century is rather too short a time in the evolution of language and communication patterns to fully reflect the changes. In general, we know we should perceive each person as an individual, but we have to be aware of underlying stereotypes and patterns

we tend to use unconsciously, and which can influence our communication.

Table 5. ***Male/female communication styles***

Male	Female
Communication Style	
Power relations	Solidarity
Hierarchical, power-based	Consensus-based
Individual	Inclusion, sharing
Direct	Indirect
Report Talk	Rapport Talk
In private: "Silent men"	"Talkative women"
In public: "Talkative men"	"Silent women"
Expressing concepts	Expressing feelings
More frequent interruptions	Active listening

Body language		
To agree	nodding	to show they are listening
To emphasize, extensive	gestures in public	to be avoided

Women in general are more likely to	Men often see this as
ask for information	an admission of incompetence (especially in public)
negotiate from the outside in, i.e., focus on big picture items first and then specific ones	an invitation for a decision. Men negotiate inside out, i.e., go from specific items to a picture.
hedge when making a point	lack of competence
appear humble (as they are often expected to be or at least act)	lack of self-confidence
view taking charge of self-presentation as arrogance	confident
say I'm sorry as a conversational closer even when they don't have to take blame and they don't really feel they are to blame	putting oneself down
say thank you to keep the conversational flow egalitarian and expect the other to take responsibility/ blame similarly when they do so (a mutual face-saving technique)	putting oneself down

more likely to soften criticism by pointing out positives in performance or taking blame for not understanding (again a mutual face-saving technique)	weakness. Men go straight to the criticism with the view "this is business, feelings are not a part of it".

Suggestions for further reading:

Tannen, D.: *You Just Don't Understand. Women and Men in Conversation*. Ballantine Books, 1992

Romaine, S.: *Communicating Gender*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., 1999

Suggestions for further thought:

Gender and cultural differences in communication and relationships on the screen: *Green Card* (1990, dir. Peter Weir)

7. Leadership and Power

Types of Power, Empowerment, Communication, and Power

7.1 Power

Power is a word that is used very frequently in many areas: in politics, in business, in different scholarly disciplines such as psychology, sociology, anthropology, and leadership studies, and also in communication and language studies. Dictionaries define power as "ability to act", (Webster) or "capability of doing or accomplishing something" (reference.com dictionary); however, meanings connecting power to "national or political strength" are also mentioned, as in *the balance of power in Europe*, and "political control of a government", as in expressions such as *the Communist Party came to power in 1948*.

Leadership communication experts Michael Hackman and Craig Johnson define power as "the ability to influence others" (Hackman & Johnson, 2004), and they stress that power must be used to achieve group goals, not only individual ones. However, there are still questions that need to be tackled, such as where power comes from, whether it can be shared, and how we express the fact that we have power, that we are in a position of power when communicating. In this chapter we will deal with the relationship between power and communication in general, and in Chapter 10 we will describe more specific details of expressing power and solidarity as communication strategies.

7.1.1 Sources of power

Classifications of types of power usually use as their basis various sources of power: power can be related to the official position of a CEO, it can stem from the wisdom of the oldest person in the family or tribe, or it can be connected with the reputation of an expert in a particular field of science. The most commonly used typology of sources of power is the typology proposed by John French and Bertram Raven, who identified five primary sources of power and subsequently distinguish five types of power: **coercive**, **reward**, **legitimate**, **expert**, and **referent power.**

Coercive power is based on punishment and threats. Extreme examples that can be mentioned include the use of physical punishment in schools or death sentences for adversaries of the communists in Czechoslovakia in the '50s of the 20th century. However, coercive power is not just a memory of the past. Negative reinforcement is widely used even nowadays, though usually not in its extreme forms. Employees are threatened that they will lose their jobs if they do not do what is asked of them, students are warned that if they do not submit their work they will not receive credits, parents tell their children they will not be allowed to play computer games if they have poor results at school – those are just a few examples of coercive power in practice.

It is important to state the requirements in advance when using coercive power and to be persistent in administering the punishment or the threats will be perceived as "empty threats" only and the coercive power becomes inefficient. If an instructor states the requirements for getting credits for a course and then keeps changing them, the result will be unsatisfied students who do not know how and what to prepare in order to finish the course. When a parent keeps saying "You will not be allowed to watch TV tonight if you do not help clean your room" and then allow the kid to watch his/her favorite program even if he/she

has not helped with the cleaning, after some time the kid will make fun of the threats and they will not have any effect.

Reward power is based on positive reinforcement: people are promised money or various benefits if they fulfill the wish of the person in power. It is not necessary that the reward is always something substantial, such as a company car or extra vacation time; it can also be the support a person gets in his/her projects, creating a positive atmosphere in the workplace, being responsive to the needs of an individual – to allow a flexible schedule for a mother with small children, or to ask students to prepare a project they find interesting and important for their future career. Again, it is important to set the rules in advance, so that the recipients of the reward are aware of the fact that something is a reward and not something they are entitled to.

Legitimate power, which is sometimes also called official or position power, is associated with a position of power. Prime Minister, Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of a company, President: these titles are indicators that the individuals holding the post are in a position of power. This type of power is not in direct relation with the personal qualities of the individual occupying the position. Everybody has met bosses, teachers, politicians, officialis or officers whose leadership, managerial, and personal characteristics seemed to be somehow unsuited to the position they held, and yet they had been appointed to the position for various reasons. Their subordinates acknowledge their legitimate power; however, they do not hold them in esteem.

There are two types of power that are based on the personal qualities of an individual: expert and referent power. **Expert power** is associated with the expert knowledge of a person. Favorite teachers, famous scientists, skillful physicians, successful businesspersons, all these have a very good knowledge of their field and this knowledge is the source of the respect they get from other people.

Referent power is based on a personality we respect and would like to imitate, on the attraction of role models. People

whom we admire tend to influence us with their behavior, attitudes, and values; they have a certain power over us. Referent power was used, for example, in the YouTube clip "Persuade Your Granny", shot before the Czech parliamentary elections in 2010, in which famous and respected young actors asked young Czech voters to persuade the older generation not to vote for the left-wing parties. The clip was seen by one in ten of the Czech population (1 million people) and it created a heated discussion on whether it is acceptable to use one's referent power in such a way. It is true that referent power is not always positive: teenagers can admire an informal leader of a street gang who does and says "cool" things although his/her actions can be classified as criminal activities, while senior citizens can nostalgically follow communist leaders who downplay crimes from the '50s as "misunderstandings".

Table 6: *Types of power*

Types of power	Examples
Coercive power	Punishment, threats
Reward power	Positive reinforcement
Legitimate power	Position
Expert power	Expert knowledge
Referent power	Respect towards personality

7.2 Empowerment

Empowerment is a term commonly used in leadership studies and it means sharing power with others. By sharing power

with others, the power of a leader is not diminished but, on the contrary, it increases (Hackman & Johnson, 2004). In successful modern companies new organizational structures follow different patterns than traditional hierarchical ones. The attention is shifted towards more self-managed teams, in which the role of the leader either rotates among the members of the team or it is more or less formal, and the leader serves as a mediator of processes inside the team and as an external representative of the team (Northouse, 2001). Typical examples of new empowered teams could be modern IT companies or various research teams where a classical hierarchy is considered as inimical to effectively developing new products and technologies.

Hackman and Johnson give five reasons why leaders choose to share power. Empowerment increases job satisfaction and employees' performance, it fosters greater cooperation in an organization, it helps collective survival, supports personal growth and learning, and it prevents abuses of power (Hackman & Johnson, 2004). There are several ways in which leaders can encourage the empowerment process in an organization. They can modify the environment in the organization to foster more independent work without direct supervision and to enhance the responsibility of each individual member of a team. They supply resources for the empowerment process, they enable employees to get new skills by organizing skill development courses and seminars, and they provide them with key information necessary for the successful completion of their tasks, e.g., how to operate a new PC program developed for more effective work, employees can go for internships to a partner institution to learn new processes etc. Leaders should encourage self-development and self-confidence in team members and help them build a sense of personal power as confident team members are more likely to take the initiative and achieve higher goals.

In the process of empowerment, as well as in leadership in general, it is of crucial importance to communicate the goals

and visions clearly. Therefore we will pay attention to communication behaviors that reflect one's position of power: powerful and powerless talk.

7.3 Powerful and Powerless Talk

In all societies standard language is the language used by those in power, by politicians, by officials, and at schools. The usage of standard language shows that a person belongs to a higher socio-economic group which influences the government, media, and education. This group then influences what we consider to be the standard language (Fairclough, 2001). On the other hand, the usage of inappropriate language can reduce one's perceived power, and it can diminish the expert and referent power of a person. The former Czech Prime Minister Mirek Topolánek was famous for his outspoken language, with lots of colloquialisms and even swearwords; however, when he used politically incorrect language towards homosexuals in an interview he overstepped the patience of the public, who started to consider his image of a "hillbilly" or "Wallachian man with balls" (as he called himself) not as a breath of fresh air in politics but rather as an embarrassment, and it was one of the causes of the precipitous end of his government.

7.3.1 Powerful talk

Powerful talk is characterized by the usage of standard language on most occasions, both of the formal and colloquial varieties. It is necessary to choose the "right" language, language appropriate for the occasion, audience, and purpose: when the President of the country discusses the items on his agenda with an advisor he can use less formal language and colloquial expressions, while when he has an important speech at the UN Assembly, he will use formal expressions

and forms. Powerful talk is confident, knowledgeable, and to the point, while powerless talk lacks these qualities.

7.3.2 Powerless talk

There are many detailed descriptions of what makes a speaker sound powerless. Here we will use a brief overview as suggested by Hackman and Johnson (2004); Chapters 8 and 10 will describe some of these features and their usage in more detail. Typical features that are characteristic of powerless talk are:

Hesitations and vague expressions (*well*, *ah*, *you know*, *whatnot*), hedges, or expressions used to mitigate the impact of the message (I think, I guess), tag questions (*it is wrong*, *isn't it?*), disclaimers (*Don't get me wrong*, *but…*; *I know this sounds crazy*, *but…*), accounts, excuses, or justifications that deny responsibility for one's actions: *It was an accident*, *It just broke down all by itself*, *I couldn't write the essay because my computer did not work…*), and side particles (*like*, *simply*, *that is: I*, *like*, *went there*, *and there was*, *like*, *a weird thing happened*).

The usage of elements of powerless talk can lower the credibility of the speaker; he/she is perceived as less confident and less knowledgeable, and his/her speech loses its persuasive and informational impact. Therefore it is necessary to practice speaking without using these elements in public communication.

7.4 Communication and Face

The term "face" in communication was introduced by pragmalinguists and sociolinguists as a term borrowed from sociology, first used by a US sociologist, Erving Goffman (1955). "Face" represents the respect a person has for himself/herself; he/she tries to live in such a way that he/she does not "lose face". Each person has a face, sometimes also called a social

face, and all communication acts are driven by the effort to protect one's face and save and not harm another person's face when communicating.

The US linguist Deborah Tannen, who was one of the pioneers of gender conversation analysis, describes two basic tendencies in communication: the tendency towards independence, involving the need to feel respected, to keep one's personal integrity and space, and to preserve one's autonomy, and the tendency to inclusion, the need to be viewed as a "nice" person, polite and showing respect to others (Tannen, 1992). Those two tendencies are reflected in two faces: the tendency towards independence in the negative face, the tendency towards inclusion in the positive face (Brown & Levinson, 1978).

The sociolinguist R. A. Hudson also distinguishes two faces; however, he objects that the term "negative face" implies that the face is less valuable, that it is somehow wrong. Therefore he introduced the terms "solidarity-face", connected with a tendency towards inclusion, or positive face in Brown and Levinson's terminology, and "power-face", reflecting the tendency towards independence, negative face. By such terms he also wants to stress that both faces are closely connected with concepts of power and solidarity. Both imply a certain type of respect: solidarity-face says: "I respect you because…"; power-face reflects: "I respect your right to…" (Hudson, 1999).

7.5 Solidarity and Power

Relationships of solidarity and power in language and communication have become an important part of studies of sociolinguistics and conversational and discourse analyses. Both sociolinguistics and discourse analysis (especially critical discourse analysis) focus on how language and communication reflect the social relationships between the sender and the receiver. Efforts to protect one's own face and save the other

person's face are an integral part of communication strategies expressing solidarity. Unlike hierarchical social structures connected with power and represented by formal, direct forms of communication, solidarity is connected with the equality of the participants in a communication act.

As mentioned earlier, in the chapter dealing with communication and power, power is often considered a self-explanatory term. *Webster's College Dictionary* defines power as a "(great) ability to do or act" with its synonyms being *strength*, *might*, and *force*, or "the possession of control or command over others", with its synonyms being *authority* or *ascendancy*. Solidarity, as already mentioned, indicates the social distance between the sender and the receiver. It is based on experience and the social characteristics the sender and receiver share (e.g., a similar age group, the fact that they attended the same school, the same address, free-time activities, the same sex etc.). Another very important factor is the extent to which both parties are ready to share intimacy in communication.

The relationships of power and solidarity can be shown through the usage of personal names: *John* vs. *Mr. Smith*. *John* has a high degree of solidarity; to be addressed in such a way implies that the receiver has less power than the sender, that he/she is a so-called close subordinate. *Mr. Smith*, on the other hand, shows a low degree of solidarity and implies that the receiver has greater power than the sender; he/she is a so-called distant superior (Hudson, 1999).

Relations of power and solidarity are reflected on various levels in communication and language. Linguistic signals of power and solidarity differ in different languages, but every language has such signals, which indicates how important a role they play in human relationships.

Power and solidarity can often be expressed by the same form: the sender who calls the receiver by a personal name (*John*) can imply either a great degree of solidarity (i.e., a friendly relationship between two people of the same social status), or

the fact that the sender has greater power (the relationship is the relationship of a superior towards a subordinate, e.g., teacher-student). We can find even more apparent distinctions between power and solidarity relations in the usage of honorary verb forms and pronouns in many languages: *Vy/ty* in Czech, *Usted/tú* in Spanish, *Sie/du* in German etc. This form, which we can still find, e.g., in Shakespeare's English, has vanished from the modern English language. A formal style which uses honorary forms as a norm is used by a sender to preserve the receiver's power-face, to show that the sender respects the receiver's independence, power, and distance. There are many variations as we can choose from different registers according to what the exact power-solidarity relationship between the sender and the receiver is.

Discourse structures that reflect power and solidarity relations include not only the forms of address or the usage of honorary forms but many others too: entries and exits in a discourse (*Hi John* vs. *Good morning, Mr. Johnson*, *See you* vs. *Good-bye*), turn-taking, the usage of hedges (see above), and so on. Again, different languages use different means: In Czech, for example, negation is often used in questions which indirectly express a demand, order, or offer (*Nechcete se posadit?* – literal English translation: *"Don't you want to sit down?"*), while in English the meaning is different: *"I know you want to sit down."* and there are different ways to express a polite request in English: *Sit down, will/would you?* or *Would you like to sit down?*

Suggestions for further reading:

Van Dijk, T.: *Discourse and Power*. Palgrave Macmillan, 2008

Simpson, P.: Mayr, A.: *Language and Power*. Routledge, 2010

Fowler, R.: *Language in the News: Discourse and Ideology in the Press*. Routledge, 1991

Fairclough, N.: *Language and power*. Harlow, England; New York: Longman, 2001. 2nd.

Suggestions for further thought:

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=n_ffqEA8X5g (tips for communication)

8. Public Leadership and Communication

Discourse Analysis, Persuasive Techniques and Political Rhetoric, Public Communication, and the Media

8.1 Public Leadership and Public Communication

Communication with the public is the main task of a public relations department and speakers for the organization in big firms and institutions. The area of public communication for an organization or institution comprises working with the media, researching public attitudes, disseminating financial information, lobbying government agencies, publicizing company events, creating international communication programs, supporting marketing programs, maintaining positive relationships with community groups, advising top management, responding to customer concerns, fundraising, planning promotional events, writing and delivering speeches and presentations, and organizing persuasive campaigns.

The core of public communication lies in various speeches and presentations. Although the purpose and environment of presentations may vary, the basic rules for how to prepare and deliver a good presentation remain the same. We will deal with these rules in the next chapter. However, before we do that we would like to explain more general terms that are important for public leadership communication analysis: **discourse**, **ideology**, and **discourse structures**.

8.2 Discourse

The term "discourse" is used in a wide range of scholarly disciplines, e.g., sociology (Foucault, Bourdieau), anthropology, psychology, and linguistics, and its definitions have been changing and evolving.

Discourse has a special status in communication; it is used not only in everyday situations but also to formulate abstract ideas, beliefs, and opinions. It is an important means of socialization as socialization takes place through discourse. Therefore, many scholars characterize discourse as a social practice (Van Leeuwen, 2008, Fairclough, 2001, Van Dijk, 2008), as an interaction, or as a communication act that takes place in a certain social, historical, cultural, or political situation.

Discourse is a specific communicative event which involves a number of communicative actors (Van Dijk, 2000). Therefore, we can define discourse as a spoken/written product of the communicative act (ibid.). Discourse has verbal and non-verbal dimensions, and it involves various context features. It is seen as a dynamic process of the creation and interpretation of text/talk, text/talk being perceived as a static concept, a product of discourse (Tárnyiková, 2002). The meaning of the specific communicative event (discourse) is determined in the process of the encoding and decoding of text/talk.

The word "discourse" can have various meanings: discourse in a general sense; as an object of discourse analysis discourse is seen as a form of language use (as mentioned above); the concept of discourse can also refer to specific genres (political discourse, academic discourse) or sets of genres associated with a social domain or field. Political discourse, then, is a term which comprises all the discourse genres that are used within the field of politics (pamphlets, billboards, political speeches, etc.).

8.2.1 Ideology

Ideology is a set of ideas, attitudes, and beliefs that determines the perspective from which a person should interpret the social and political realities around him/her. Ideology is reflected in political and social discourse through various means and structures which will be described further. Dominant ideologies are sustained through communication practices (Simpson & Mayr, 2010: 4). Dominant groups reproduce power and ideology through certain imagery; we can see it, for example, in the discourse at universities, where students are talked about as clients. That should imply the image of a student being an active force in education, being actively responsible for his/her education, as well as being respected as a "customer" in education, not just a passive object which is being taught.

It is important to mention ideology when speaking about discourse as ideology serves as a background for creating text/talk and their interpretation in many contexts and situations.

8.2.2 Discourse structures

Various discourse structures can be analyzed in discourse analysis. In most cases we concentrate on semantics: we analyze the meanings involved, how they are created (encoded) and interpreted (decoded), which propositions were present, what presuppositions and entailments were made, and so on.

However, there are other discourse structures to be considered for analysis. When analyzing the graphics of a text, we can assume the intentions of the sender, such as whether he/she wants us to pay attention to particular information and hence stress it by using bold letters, or uses dull and small types of lettering in order to downgrade the importance of a message. In fact, the entire graphic design suggests how important the message is in the opinion of the sender. In a newspaper,

the editor can decide that a particular news item will be on the front page, while another will be mentioned further inside in small print.

In talk, sound can be considered as an equivalent to graphics in text. Issues arise such as which words we stress and which ones are only mumbled, or rushed over in order to get rid of them. This again shows of what importance a particular part of the talk is to the sender. When we dealt with presentations and public speaking we pointed out that speaking clearly and out loud shows our confidence, and that a low voice and indistinct pronunciation are associated with powerless talk. However, it is also important to take into consideration the situational and pragmatic contexts: when trying to calm a distressed child we will use a different tone than when speaking to a crowd we want to mobilize to action.

Morphology analysis is another important part of discourse analysis. In some languages (Czech and other languages) morphology analysis can show whether standard or non-standard varieties of the language are used, while in others word formation, and especially neologisms, can show the ideological background of the sender: when a suicide bomber is called *a freedom fighter* or *a terrorist* there is an obvious difference in the evaluation of the act and its legitimacy.

In syntax analysis we pay attention to the style used in discourse. Some senders use ornate complex sentences or short simple ones. Another important element is the usage of pronouns: when we talk about us vs. them it shows the difference between inclusion and confrontation.

Rhetorical structures are another type of discourse structure which is often analyzed, especially when dealing with public communication (public speaking, presentations, media). Examples of using rhetorical structures, such as, e.g., rhetorical questions (*So, what will I tell you now? I will tell you that everybody should economize…*), similes (*For Mr. Bárta, the 500,000 crowns are the same as 500 for me or you.*) and meta-

phors (*We have to tighten our belts.*) will be given and further analyzed in the chapter on Communication and Influence.

Graphics as a discourse structure is connected with schematic structures, such as the organization and layout of a text (headlines in newspapers, where an article is situated). Other schematic structures include, e.g., greetings (there is a difference between greeting an audience with *Hey*, *guys*, and *Good morning*, *ladies and gentlemen*) and the organization of news reports (what comes first as "breaking" news, what is mentioned at the end as a kind of curiosity). As we can see, all schematic structures are connected with the organization of discourse.

Interaction structure is also important for discourse analysis. It shows us whether the sender is really interested in an interaction and how the interaction is supported or suppressed.

Compare:

I saw a wonderful dress in the department store today. – Really? What was it like?

I saw a wonderful dress in the department store today. – Hmmm. …

8.2.3 Context

The importance of context is essential in every discourse. We have already shown how context can help to eliminate ambiguity in language; it can provide guidance to decoding indirectly stated meanings.

The basic types of contexts include situational, cultural, social, verbal, and intertextual contexts.

8.2.4 Persuasion

Strategies used to influence what, how, and in which way people think. In its extreme version it can take the form of

manipulation. Persuasive rhetorical techniques will be further mentioned in the chapter on communication and influence.

8.2.5 Legitimation

Legitimation is one of the main social functions of ideologies (Van Dijk, 2000: 255). It is used in order to defend oneself, a group, or an idea, or to prove that that one group, idea, or person is the right one and that their claim(s) is/are legitimate. It is again used on many levels, especially by institutions.

8.2.6 Cooperation and politeness

For a communication exchange to make sense, it is important that both the sender and receiver cooperate in the encoding and decoding of the message; they should be willing to produce a successful communication act, successful in the sense that it will be understood by the receiver in the same way as it was intended by the sender. An extreme example of the two parties not cooperating can be the usage of two different languages, one not known to the sender, the other not known to the receiver. Cooperation means giving the right amount of relevant information in communication. When someone is lost in an unknown city and asks for directions, he/she does not expect a lecture on the history of the city or on the local sights but clear instructions how to get to a certain place. On the contrary, if someone answers the question *Do you know how to get to the city center?* by saying *Yes, I do*. and not adding anything else, the answer is neither relevant nor sufficient.

Generally, we assume that both parties cooperate in communication, that they follow a cooperative principle. Grice divided the cooperative principle into four sub-principles, which he called maxims. He distinguished the maxims of quantity, quality, relation or relevance, and manner.

Leech argued that there are also other principles in communication than just principles of cooperation, that people do not communicate only to ask for and receive an appropriate amount of relevant information, that sometimes they talk only to maintain friendly relations, and he formulated the so-called politeness principle. It comprises six maxims: those of tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement, and sympathy. A typical example of saying more than would be strictly required by the cooperative principle is hedging.

Table 7. *Principles and maxims*

Principles	Maxims
Cooperative principle (Grice)	Quantity
	Quality
	Relation/relevance
	Manner
Politeness principle (Leech)	Tact
	Generosity
	Approbation
	Modesty
	Agreement
	Sympathy

We have already mentioned the maxims of politeness as proposed by Leech, which are used, or should be used, in communication in order to maintain friendly relations. Politeness

strategies help the participants in a communication act to be consistent with face, or, in other words, to show solidarity while communicating.

One of the most thorough analyses of politeness strategies can be found in the work of Brown and Levinson. They distinguish four main types of politeness strategies: direct action, positive politeness, negative politeness, and indirect expression. In direct action the sender does not take into consideration any face-saving measures as he/she is allowed to do so by the situation (e.g., a rescue officer uses an imperative: *Lie down!* in a life-threatening situation) or by his/her superior position (*Come to the blackboard*. – a teacher's command to a pupil).

Positive politeness is connected to expressing solidarity relations, to social distance among people. The sender appreciates the receiver's positive face (solidarity face) and implies closeness. It is usually used for positive evaluation, praise etc. (*You look great today*.). If there is a relationship of a greater distance between the sender and the receiver, politeness that is too positive is considered unsuitable and even annoying, e.g., the flattery of a sales agent when he/she praises a beautiful apartment, nice children, a great diamond ring, etc. The cultural context is very important for deciding what is appropriate and what is not; cf. the difference between the Czech and US contexts, with the US perception being much more "positive" and stressing solidarity and friendly relations in communication much more than the Czech one.

Negative politeness is connected to the receiver's negative or power face. The sender shows respect towards the receiver's face and tries not to force him/her to do what he/she does not want and not to bother him/her. Negative politeness is a compromise between the intention to achieve one's goal in communication and the obligation not to force the other person (Hirschová, 2006). Therefore the strategies used comprise demands, requests, and orders in the forms of questions (see above: solidarity), as well as hedges, i.e., limitations on con-

tent and the illocutionary force of the statement: *You are late, I'm afraid.*

Indirect expressions use intentionally non-definite statements which try to persuade the other party indirectly while at the same time keeping the possibility of denial that the sender had indeed had such a goal in mind. Instead of stating what we really mean we just drop hints; for example, in a restaurant you would like the other person to pay the bill:

Oh, I do not have enough cash to pay the bill. Do you think they take credit cards in here?

This allows the other person to offer to pay, or to refuse to take the hint by saying *I don't know, there was a VISA sign on the entrance door* or even say *I am sorry, I do not have enough cash myself.* In the event of a refusal the sender can deny that he/she ever thought of asking the other party to pay: *I did not mean that you should pay. I have to go to the ATM anyway.* This technique again helps to save the face of both the sender and the receiver. Indirect expression structures typically include irony, rhetorical questions, metaphors, etc.

8.2.7 Critical discourse analysis

Conversational analysis has shown how important everyday conversations are, that what might seem just meaningless chatter is very important for expressing our interest in another person, our solidarity, and therefore also for relationships with other people. As we have discussed above, discourse analysis focuses on any piece of discourse, written or spoken. It is a "systematic account of the complex structures and strategies of text and talk as they are actually accomplished … in their social contexts" (Van Dijk, 2000: 198). Social contexts, and contexts in general, are crucial for discourse analysis as it focuses on the relationships between

language and power and the relationships among discourse, power, and ideology. These relationships are considered to be a crucial part of one of the forms of social practice, i.e., of discourse.

Norman Fairclough, one of the founders of critical discourse analysis, points out that discourse is determined by social structures, and on the other hand discourse influences society by helping to reproduce the social structures (Fairclough, 2001).

Fairclough introduced into discourse analysis the term "orders of discourse", used earlier by the sociologist Michel Foucault. By orders of discourse he understands sets of conventions associated with social institutions, with social order. The orders of discourse are created by power relations in social institutions and society as a whole, and they reflect their ideologies.

People are often not aware of the impact discourse has on supporting the existing social order. Therefore scholars (Fairclough, van Dijk and others) insist we should not only describe and analyze discourse in a general way but we should do it critically, in other words to consider who and what is behind what is being said or written. Critical is used "in the special sense of aiming to show up connections which may be hidden from people" (Fairclough, 2001: 4).

Critical discourse analysis (CDA), also known as critical language study (the term used by Fairclough) and critical discourse study (the term used by van Dijk) focuses on using critical thinking in discovering what relationships and intentions lie beneath the surface level of discourse, what desired effect a discourse should have or has on receivers. Especially in political discourse, where we would suspect it, but also in publicity and other types of discourse, where it is more hidden, we can see that discourse has an ideological meaning: a happy white four-member family around the table with the mother bringing a dish and serving the others in a commer-

cial reinforces a stereotype of what an 'ideal' family should look like.

In the next part of the chapter we will show how discourse analysis can be used in the description of persuasive techniques aimed at gaining influence through communication.

8.3 Persuasive Techniques. Political Rhetoric

As we have pointed out above, public communication is aimed at gaining influence. Political leaders try to exercise power over their constituents and persuade them that their leadership is the best. The same is true of business leaders who claim that their products and practices are the best, that they are the only ones the public should use and buy. This subchapter will be devoted to describing and analyzing actual persuasive rhetorical techniques through real examples that were used in the presentations and speeches of famous personalities.

Most of the persuasive techniques (rhetorical questions, antithesis, metaphors) have been known since ancient times (they are mentioned, e.g., in Aristotle's Rhetoric), but some are more recent, or at least they have been used more recently. Experts on rhetoric provide slightly different lists of such techniques (Wiecke, 2005, Atkinson, 2008); however, the core ones are the same. The most common persuasive rhetorical techniques include alliteration, allusion, antithesis and contradiction, lists of three, metaphor, extended metaphor, and simile, parallelism, parenthesis, (rhetorical) questions and suggesting answers, repetition, and wordplay.

8.3.1 Alliteration

Alliteration is widely used, especially in the English context. Since medieval times, the repetition of the initial letters or sounds has become a sign of high style and the skillfulness of the writer or speaker. Nowadays it is very common, especially

in newspaper headlines and advertising: *"George the Great gives the speech."*

8.3.2 Allusion

Allusion is an expression or phrase that intentionally focuses the recipient's attention on a text/discourse or part of a text/discourse that is generally known to the public. In his very first presidential New Year's address to the nation Václav Havel uttered a famous sentence: *"Naše země nevzkvétá."* (Our country is not blossoming) – an allusion to communist presidents' New Year speeches, which always stressed that our country was doing well and was "blossoming" – developing towards a sunny future.

8.3.3 Antithesis, contradiction

The above-mentioned example can also be used as an example of an implicit contradiction: the state of the country is put in contradiction with what was stated as a true statement in the past. Another example of contradiction can be found in J. F. Kennedy's famous inaugural speech:

"And so, my fellow Americans, ask not what your country can do for you. Ask what you can do for your country."

8.3.4 Lists of three

In the same speech we can find another technique which can be found in many important and impressive speeches: a list of three similar or interconnected things that is used to underline their importance.

"The energy, the faith, the devotion which we bring to this endeavor will light our country and all who serve it, and the glow from that fire can truly light the world."

8.3.5 Metaphor, extended metaphor, simile

In most memorable speeches the individual items of persuasive techniques are interconnected and one grows into another, forming powerful images: *"…this endeavor will light our country and all who serve it, and the glow from that fire can truly light the world"*. The first part of the metaphor describing America's future is further extended to the world's future. Powerful imagery begins with simple similes, but usually speakers use more refined metaphors which are based on the internal and extensive similarities of images.

8.3.6 Parallelism

Parallelism introduces two image lines that are not necessarily connected or their connection is not apparent at the beginning.

Some examples of parallelism:

"Blessed are those who mourn, for they will be comforted" and *"Blessed are the meek, for they will inherit the Earth."* (the Book of Matthew in the Bible) – parallelism is one of the chief rhetorical devices of Biblical poetry and sacred texts.

"What you see is what you get." (English proverb)

"I have a dream." – in the famous speech by Martin Luther King, Jr., this phrase was repeated again and again, which brought clarity and emphasis.

8.3.7 Parenthesis

Parenthesis is an explanatory or qualifying expression, phrase, or sentence inserted into another sentence (passage) with which it does not necessarily have any grammatical connection. It is usually marked off by pauses, brackets, dashes, or commas.

"Mr. XY, who has a large income from his activities connected with consulting for the coal mining company, voted for the bill on the extension of territory where mining is allowed."

8.3.8 (Rhetorical) questions and suggesting answers

Rhetorical questions are a common way of stressing the importance of what is being said, and have been mentioned in manuals of rhetoric since antiquity. Such questions do not expect answers; the answers are readily provided by the speaker.

To put some examples one could mention common rhetorical questions such as *Aren't you ashamed of yourself?* or *You're not really going to wear that, are you?* or use examples of rhetorical questions form literature: *Here was a Caesar! when comes such another?* (from 'Julius Caesar' by Shakespeare).

8.3.9 Repetition

Repetition is a common yet very powerful persuasive technique. The power of repetition has been captured in sayings such as: *"A lie repeated one hundred times becomes the truth."* (Joseph Goebbels). Again, the example from Kennedy's speech: *"And so, my fellow Americans, ask not what your country can do for you. Ask what you can do for your country."*

8.3.10 Wordplay

Wordplay was one of the typical features of Václav Havel's speeches. The above-mentioned example of the country not "blossoming" is just one example out of many.

Some of the images and expressions used in powerful speeches are so well chosen that they become used by the media and later by the general public, at first as an allusion and later as a cliché.

We can mention expressions such as *blbá nálada* (a bad atmosphere in society, Václav Havel), *utahování opasků* (the necessity to economize, Václav Klaus), *tunelování fondů* (embezzling funds in a special way that looks legal), or *odklonění peněz* (a way of laundering money) that became part of media, political, and later general discourse.

The famous speeches of world leaders serve as an inspiration for speechwriters and useful study material for all who want to improve their communication and persuasive skills. In the following extract from Kennedy's speech we can see how the examples mentioned above are integrated into a larger text:

"In the long history of the world only a few generations have been granted the role of defending freedom in its hour of maximum danger. I do not shrink from this responsibility; I welcome it. I do not believe that any of us would exchange places with any other people or any other generation. The energy, the faith, the devotion which we bring to this endeavor will light our country and all who serve it, and the glow from that fire can truly light the world. And so, my fellow Americans, ask not what your country can do for you. Ask what you can do for your country." (John F. Kennedy)

8.4 Public Communication and the Media

Media organizations operate in the public space and as such they have the ability to shape public opinion. Their own interests that they might follow may not necessarily be advantageous either for the public or for society as a whole. The relationship between media organizations and the recipient is asymmetric. Communication is unidirectional; what is absent is full feedback. On the one hand, there is a well-organized institution with financial and human resources and access to information tools, on the other hand, there is a recipient with a lack of all that. That is why society demands socially responsible behavior from the media. It is manifested in the regula-

tion of the activities of the media: formally through legislation, informally by the pressure coming from the social space, i.e., from institutions, associations, interest groups, individuals, etc. (McQuail, 1999).

8.4.1 News reporting

As a product of media organizations' own activities news reporting is considered one of the major types of media content in which the media organizations endeavor to maximize the viewership/readership. That may be proved by the frequency of television and radio news reporting programs, by placing the news in a prime-time slot or on the first pages in print media, by the number of ads on radio and television news reporting programs during the broadcast, and by the establishment of special news reporting channels or web portals.

News reporting is presented as a reflection of current reality and as such positive values are attributed to it: the production of news reporting is presented as truthful, objective, and balanced. The media organizations claim that the message performs a strictly informative function and its purpose is merely to compensate the information possessed by the recipient and the sender. The recipient is offered interpretations of news, the so-called preferred reading (Reifová et al., 2004, 35-36.)

This part of media production is given specific attention by:

- *social sciences and the humanities (communication theories and theories of mass communication)*,
- *stylistics (in the field of linguistics)*,
- *jurisprudence (in the broader social context)*.

Here it may be assumed that with analytical tools one can capture deviations from the proclaimed values of the news reporting and reveal breaches of standards of objectivity and also/moreover determine the value orientation of the media – the ethical principles of journalistic work, social norms, or even respect for the legal rules.

8.4.2 Mass communication and the normative concept of the media

The normative concept of the media observes the relationships between society and the media. Generally, the media are respected as independent subjects but on the other hand there are some expectations towards them on the part of society. Above all there are requirements for the socially responsible behavior of the media that cover:

- *respect for the public interest (activities that are beneficial to society, and/or that do not harm society,*
- *support for a plurality of views, including the interests of minorities,*
- *the rejection of socially pathological phenomena,*
- *criteria for quality of information (in the broader sense of the word).*

Within the normative concept of the media, special attention is paid to news reporting (McQuail, 2005). The qualitative criteria for the production of news reporting are named in the concept of principles of information quality of Jörgen Westerståhl.

In the Czech environment the normative concept of the media stands outside the mainstream theory of mass communication, which is rather constructivist and does not accept the requirements for predetermined qualitative values of media communication, including news reporting. One reason is the emphasis on the recipients (the audience) and their socially conditioned interpretation of the text. Hence the interpretative approach aimed at the recipients outweighs the emphasis on the author, i.e., the agent of communication, who consciously adjusts the form of communication to the anticipated effects on the recipients. Another difference is in understanding the informative function, specifically in functional stylistics and the theory of mass communication. Although the functionalist mass communication approach that defines the function of

the media in society operates with the function of information, it does not see it as being identical to the linguistic informative function. The function of information is defined as providing information about events and conditions in society and in the world, suggesting power relations, the promotion of innovation and progress, and facilitating adaptation (McQuail, 1999: 101-102). It is understood as a means of influencing and shaping human consciousness, which is necessarily reflected in the behavior and conduct of the recipients (Jílek, 2009: 58). The definitional framework of the function of information is therefore different from the linguistic definition of the informative function, as it implicitly includes other conative functions, particularly the persuasive one.

8.4.2.1 The normative concept of the media and the theory of the law

The law is a social normative system that reflects the need to reduce the entropy of society (the disorder caused by competing human interests, behavior, and the satisfaction of needs) and as the prescriptive regulatory system it protects individual interests, providing protection against other interests, and authoritatively resolves conflicts between them (Knapp, 1995: 30-34). The theory of law is complies with the normative concept of mass communication. The media organizations operate in the public sphere, they have the ability to shape the public opinion, their relationship to the recipient is asymmetric, and the news reporting is presented as informative. These are the reasons why society demands from the media socially responsible behavior and respect for the public interest (as opposed to the particular private interests) and regulates their activities through laws. The media organizations are also under pressure from non-governmental institutions, associations, interest groups, and individuals, but on the other hand they themselves adopt self-regulation, codes of ethics etc. A com-

prehensive concept of the socially responsible behavior of the media is included in the normative theory of social responsibility (Pürer, 2003: 57-86, McQuail, 1999: 147-180, McQuail, 2005: 161-188, Reifová et al., 2004: 206, 279, Weischenberg, 2002: 152-189).

Media activities in the Czech Republic are regulated through laws, including enforcement by the state:

- *general laws (criminal, civil, administrative, labor, or financial law),*
- *specific laws regulating certain aspects of the media or having an effect on their activities (regulation of advertising, free access to information, copyright law, etc.),*
- *media laws (The Press Act, on Czech Television, on Czech Radio).*

It is on this basis that the boards of the public service media have been established, i.e., authorities that exercise the public's right to control the media.

Another reflection of the normative theory of mass communication is represented by the self-regulation of the media. It is also the crucial source of the legitimation of quality requirements in the media. It has found its expression in so-called Codes of Ethics for the media. They are accepted by all media organizations (electronic and print media), they are published on the websites of media organizations, and through them the media organizations claim to respect objectivity, fairness/balance, and neutrality.

In the Czech media environment they have been derived from the Code of Ethics for Journalists of the Syndicate of Journalists of the Czech Republic. Once the Code of Ethics has been publicly declared, it is legitimate to require compliance with it. In the case of Czech Television, the Supreme Administrative Court did so, despite the existence of a special law (see the judgment of the Supreme Administrative Court of 15 December 2004, ref. 7 As 38/2004 – 58). The courts have also been using linguistic theory to justify their decisions.

8.4.2.2 Normative concept of the media and stylistics

In its processual approach functional stylistics sees function as the basic pragmatic factor in producing utterances. All other procedures, such as shaping the utterances, the choice of adequate and stylishly unmarked means of expression at the respective levels of language, text composition, and the thematic and content organization of the utterances, are subordinate to function. Function is also the basis for determining/establishing stylistic areas (as sets of stylistic norms). For the stylistic sub-area of news reporting functional stylistics considers the informative function to be the basic standard-setting aspect, while the other functions should be excluded.

Czech (and Slovak) stylistics also understands the informative function as being crucial for news reporting (Čechová, 2003, Bečka, 1992, Mistrík, 1985). The informative essence of news reporting is the basis of setting the standards for the style type – they are neutrality, factuality of linguistic means, the lack of implicit and explicit subjectivity, and clarity. From the linguistic point of view the informative function is purely an attempt to establish equality with respect to the information held by the emitter and the recipient of a message, specifically with the exclusion of formative/persuasive intentions (Jílek, 2009).

8.4.3 Information quality concept

The principles of information quality (objectivity) as a tool of assessing linguistic means were elaborated by Jörgen Westerståhl. His concept is based on the normative theory of social responsibility and as such it identifies qualitative criteria for news reporting.

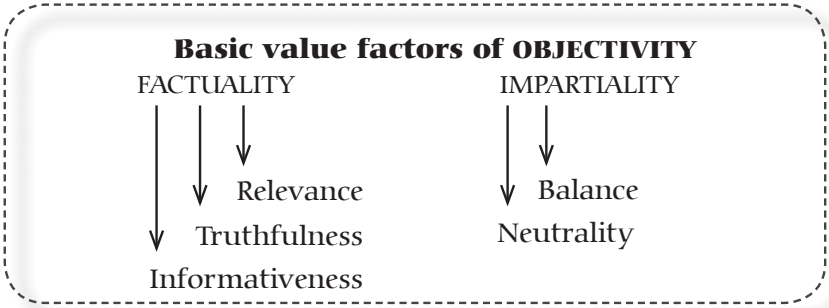
The qualitative criteria include (Jílek, 2009: 58):

- *methods for the selection and retrieval of information,*
- *work with information in terms of its distribution,*
- *the linguistic representation of information.*

As far as the linguistic representation of information is concerned, the linguistic means can be distinguished as unmarked (they do not violate the principles of information quality) and marked (they breach the principles of information quality).

Westerståhl (Westerståhl, 1983: 403–424), with the principles of information quality in mind, constructed a factor of factuality with aspects of truthfulness, relevance, and informativeness and a factor of impartiality with aspects of neutrality and balance (see the scheme below).

Table 8. ***Basic value factors of objectivity***



The basic requirements for the aspect of **truthfulness** are:

- *the presentation of events without comments, or clear separation of news reporting from comments,*
- *the accuracy of reports,*
- *the completeness of reports.*

Marked language means that potentially act as comments include evaluating expressive means (word formational and lexical), context expressivity, means expressing irony, and any kind of emphasis that could hierarchize the importance of the information. The marked means that potentially violate the accuracy of news reporting are phraseology, metaphors and metonyms, and vocabulary with indefinite semantics, such as *masses*, *cir-*

cles, *public* etc. In terms of not meeting the requirements of completeness the marked language means envolve failure to comply with the text pattern or a lack of response (direct or contextual) to one of the basic questions *Who? When? Where? What?*.

The aspect of **relevance** covers the selection of information to be published on the one hand, and the inclusion of information in a specific place in news reporting programs/news reporting sites on the other hand. It also includes work with information itself – the thematization of information (i.e., the area which is given to it) and the proportionality of partial information about the event. From this aspect the media can generally be classified into serious, popular, and tabloids.

By fulfilling the aspect of **informativeness**, a form of communication is realized which can ensure a smooth reception and perception. From the linguistic point of view it concerns the intelligibility of the news reporting. Among the marked language means that attack that rule are fast speech tempo, territorially limited vocabulary, sociolects, historicisms, scientific terms, abbreviations, acronyms, neologisms, and lengthy and complex sentence structures.

Prerequisites for the aspect of **balance** are putting opposing views in the form of quotations or paraphrases, which are given in the same or a corresponding time ratio, space, and form. The marked means consist of a combination of quotes and paraphrases and in spatial disparity between opinions and opposing views.

The aspect of **neutrality** then assumes non-emotionality of expression, the use of standard language, and the use of neutral language means.

If functional stylistics understands the informative function as a mere balance of the information possessed by the recipient and the sender and if it excludes any formative intentions of news reporting, one can conclude that Westerståhl's information quality concept counting with concepts of factuality and impartiality is fully compatible with it.

8.4.3.1 The possible causes of violations of information quality

Basically, there are **institutional and individual causes** of such violations. The **institutional** ones cover both commercial and political interests.

Primarily, the breaches of information quality are motivated by commercial interests. The aim is to maintain and increase the audience for the media content, i.e., the interest in the medium itself, which is reflected in the interests of advertisers and in the price of the products that are advertised. Media institutions and their management or owners can also be motivated by political interests. The public service media are also affected by commercial interests, although it should not be so. Even in the case of public service media management and media councils, political pressure cannot be excluded. What is considered the primary indicator of success even with the public service media is the media ratings, regardless of the fact that the media law guarantees their financial income from public sources. The media adapt information about the outside world to match detected characteristics of the audience, but more dominantly to constructed ones and to its basic non-intellectual expectations. They assume a recipient who does not have time or knowledge enough to navigate through a complex reality, or to think about the meaning of events. Therefore topics often appear that appeal to the basic aspects of human nature, such as crimes or scandals. On the other hand, socially important topics are presented as entertainment.

Hence the normative principles of information quality, such as truthfulness, relevance, informativeness, balance, and neutrality, are constantly violated and the result is the penetration of non-reporting intentions, especially persuasion, acquisition, and entertainment, into the sphere of news reporting. Thus news reporting has been effectively transferred to the sphere of commentaries, i.e., analytical genres (publicism).

As far as **individual** causes of violating the principle of information quality are concerned, the pressure of time or the space allocated may be mentioned. The resulting text can also be affected by the professional competences and/or the personal opinions of the author and his/her attitudes, but with the same impact on the breach of the principle of information quality (objectivity) as in the case of the institutional influence (see Jílek, 2009: 65–71).

The media present news reporting as purely informative and objective; the real texts, however, do not meet those values. The normative approach to mass communication based on the requirement for socially responsible behavior on the part of the media identifies the qualitative characteristics that should be met by news reporting and it formulates the news reporting standards. The legitimate claims on the form of news reporting must be considered a major source of standards. This fact legitimizes the requirements for compliance with the quality standards of news production. Westerståhl's normative concept is compatible with a functionally oriented stylistic view of news reporting and its understanding of the informative function and as such it is applicable for determining the news reporting style sub-area, as well as being an analytical tool to assess the applicability of the respective language means in news reporting.

Suggestions for further reading:

Fairclough, N.: *Media Discourse*. Academic, 1995

Fowler, R.: *Language in the News: Discourse and Ideology in the Press*. Routledge, 1991

Suggestions for further thought:

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xpmJ9cphd4o
(Zeman on media professionals)

9. Presentations

Stages of a Presentation: Preparation, Organization, Practice, Delivery, and Assessment

We use presentations to communicate the results of our work, to persuade people that our view of a problem and our opinions are right, and not only to sell various products but also to introduce an idea or a project. A presentation is a special type of public speaking aimed at introducing and explaining a topic to a (broader) audience. Ludlow and Panton give the following main objectives of a presentation: presentations are used to demonstrate a process or the usefulness of a project, to create understanding and promote wider knowledge of a subject or topic, to entertain the public, to sell a new product or a concept, to represent an organization or an interest group, and to suggest possible solutions to a problem (Ludlow & Panton, 1992).

No matter what the specific aim of a presentation is, the stages of how to prepare and deliver a successful presentation are always the same. The presentation stages include **preparation**, **organization**, **practice**, **delivery** and **assessment**.

9.1 Preparation

When we hear we should prepare a presentation for a certain occasion on a certain topic, we should consider the following three key areas: **content**, **venue** and **audience**.

When we think of **content**, first we should think about the aim of the presentation, whether we want to inform the audience about something (a typical example would be a presentation of a topic in class, or to provide information about a new project), to persuade the audience (e.g., that the program of a political party is the best), or whether the presentation is organized for a special occasion (the opening of a new university building, a colleague's birthday etc.). That will influence which facts we choose to present and how we will present them, whether we will need exact quotations and figures or whether we will speak in more general terms, and what degree of formality or informality we can use in our speech.

The presentation **venue** is important for the structure of the presentation. We need to know in advance which visuals we can use, whether to prepare a PowerPoint or some other type of computer-aided presentation, or whether to prepare transparencies or use a flipchart or just an ordinary blackboard. There might not be any technical equipment available so we will have to adjust our presentation to those circumstances.

Knowing the **audience** and understanding their needs is the third crucial element to consider when preparing the presentation. A presentation at a scientific conference attended by specialists in the field will be different from a presentation aimed at introducing the subject to elementary school pupils. When thinking about to whom we will deliver the presentation we have to decide which facts are relevant for that particular focus group, which details might be redundant, and what circumstances and figures should be stressed.

Having considered the three main points of the preparatory stage, we have a basic idea of what we would like to say. Now the question is how to say that, and that is the focus of the next stage: organization.

9.2 Organization

At the organization stage we know which content we are going to present and we have to decide in which way we are going to do that. First we have to decide which organizational pattern we will use and then we will write an outline of the presentation and think about visual aids.

There are several organizational patterns we can choose from. For example, Thomas Wieke suggests using the so-called **AIDA** principle, which was first used in direct marketing for selling various products. AIDA means **Attention, Interest, Desire** and **Action**. At first we should attract the **attention** of the audience, to show them that the topic of our presentation is important, useful, and therefore worthy of their attention. But attention is not enough; we should also make the audience interested in the topic, and they will start listening not only because we caught their attention, but we have aroused their **interest** in the presentation, in what will come next. **Desire** was originally designed to create in a prospective buyer a desire to buy the product being presented, but we can also create a desire to learn how a problem was solved or whether a technology worked or a project was successful. The final level of the AIDA principle is **action**: we would like the audience to react in a certain way to our presentation, to support our solution of the problem, to implement the new technology, or to vote for our initiative (Wiecke, 2005).

O'Hair, Rubenstein, and Stewart distinguish several organizational patterns for a presentation according to its content and aim. The main patterns include **chronological, spatial, causal, problem-solution**, and **topical** patterns, as well as **narrative** and **circle patterns**. These main patterns can be mixed and adapted to the individual needs of the speaker and to the focus of the presentation (O'Hair, Rubenstein, & Stewart, 2004).

A chronological pattern can be used for presentations dealing with various historical issues, but these are also useful

for explaining the evolution and development of a project or technology. Typically, we start in the past and gradually come to the current state of an issue; however, we can also start in the present and then go back into history.

A spatial pattern, which could also be called territorial, organizes the main points according to their physical closeness and distribution in space, or on a territory. It can be used in various descriptions: of an apartment, of a building project, of a historical monument: *First you will see the oldest part of the castle, where the most valuable findings were made, including …, then we will continue and visit the dungeon, which was …, and at the end we will admire the newly restored living quarters of the prince's family.* A spatial pattern can be found in reports of company growth and market analyses (*The sales in Prague are on the same level, … , the sales in West Bohemia went down when the new competition opened their new center …., the sales in Southern Moravia increased as the new campaign aimed at… was started…*), as well as political analyses (*The EU as a whole, … the old EU countries …., the new EU countries, … the EURO zone…*).

When we arrange the parts of the presentation using a **causal** or **cause-effect pattern**, we start with the cause or causes of a problem (*the high unemployment rate among young people, insufficient education*) and continue with the consequence/s (*social protests, street gangs*). Sometimes it is better to start with the effect (*XY's victory in the elections*) and then explain the causes (*massive publicity campaign, support in the biggest electoral districts, positive image in the media*).

A problem-solution pattern is typical of persuasive presentations, and of various process descriptions. At first we state what the problem is and give its definition, causes, and effects, and then we analyze the possible solution(s) and their advantages and disadvantages, and finally we stress our proposed (or already chosen) solution.

A topical pattern gives us an opportunity to present equally important points in presentations. For example, when

speaking about why the city government should support the university that is based in the city, several relatively autonomous points can be mentioned: the university as a major employer, the university as the center of innovation, tradition, and the prestige of being a university city.

In addition to the above-mentioned patterns, there are narrative and circle and spiral organizational patterns. In a **narrative pattern** we use a story or a sequence of stories to support or illustrate our points, while a **circle and spiral pattern** starts with an idea which leads to another idea, then continues with yet another, and at the end either comes back to the initial one (circle pattern) or comes back to the initial idea on a different, higher level (spiral pattern).

9.3 Outline

Once we have decided on a structure and organizational pattern, we can write an outline of the presentation. In the outline we will identify the main points we would like to make and put them together according to the organizational pattern we have chosen. The outline is very important as it helps us focus on the main points and create a clear and logical structure. It is not necessary to write full sentences; usually, it is sufficient to mention just the key words of the main points, the "headings". However, sometimes, especially with less experienced presenters or with a complex and difficult-to-explain topic, it can be useful also to think about how to link the points together and what exactly the main point means, and therefore it is useful to indicate the links and clarify the points in full sentences.

9.4 Visual Aids

When working on the outline, we should also decide what visual aids, if any, we will use. Visual support is important for keeping the attention of the audience, for focusing on the main

ideas, and for stressing the main points. We can choose from a variety of equipment for the visual part of the presentation, including a PC, overhead projector, slide projector, flipcharts, and various types of black-, white-, and other boards. We can also distribute leaflets, print-outs, brochures, and samples.

It has become standard in scholarly and scientific presentations to use PC programs for visual presentations, the best known being PowerPoint and Prezi. While PowerPoint comes almost as a basic program within all computers, Prezi can be obtained online from prezi.com, together with an explanation of how to use it. While PowerPoint provides a mostly linear way of presenting, Prezi allows the user to integrate rather difficult relations among concepts into one slide and then to highlight various details within the slide.

It is important to take the presentation venue into consideration before deciding on visual aids as we might be surprised that some equipment is not available (PC, LCD projector, internet access) or it is not compatible with our storage medium. Therefore it is necessary to have a "Plan B": to store the presentation both on your laptop as well as on a memory stick or online, and be ready to deliver the gist of the presentation even without the visual aid.

When we have decided what kind of visual aids we will use we should consider what information should be provided visually. It is essential that the visual information supports what is being said rather than distracting the audience's attention. Therefore too many types of print, too many pictures and photos, pictures and graphs that overlap the text, too much text, or too much animation can harm the overall effect of the presentation instead of enhancing it.

The information in the visual part of the presentation should be clear and structured. Preferred structures are various types of bullet point structures or numbered lists; full sentences should be avoided except when quoting or using definitions. When using PowerPoint we should be careful not to put too

much information on one slide; some orthodox presentation experts state that there should be no more than six words on a slide.

9.5 Practice

After finishing the outline, deciding which visual aids to use, and preparing the slides or any other type of visual information, it is time to practice. Practice is very important for good delivery. The best way is to practice in front of the mirror so that we can see the body language we use, or to video record the presentation. If we do not have that much time or the necessary devices we should still at least try to deliver the whole presentation aloud. It will help to get an idea about the timing as usually there is a limited time period for the presentation. It will also help to concentrate on clear speech and pronunciation, to identify the words that are difficult to pronounce, and verify the correct pronunciation. It is useful to have a friend or colleague as a coach who will tell us what could be improved.

If we do not have the opportunity to deliver the presentation aloud, for example when traveling, we should try to do so several times silently, in our head. It requires concentration but it will become useful before the actual delivery when we have to fight speech anxiety.

9.6 Delivery

Now we have come to the stage we have worked so hard for; our presentation is to start shortly and we are nervous. There are several ways to overcome speech anxiety or stage fright. Each presenter can choose what works for him or her. The most frequently recommended methods are to take several (not more than ten) deep breaths before coming to the "stage", perceive the audience not as a group but only as individuals (who are less threatening than a "crowd"), and imagine we

are speaking to our friends, or, on the other hand, to total strangers whose opinion of our performance does not matter. We have to pay attention to speaking slowly and clearly, as speech anxiety sometimes forces the speaker to rush his/her presentation.

When delivering the presentation or speech we should also pay attention to our body language. Our facial expression, smile, gestures, whole body movement, eye contact, and even dress are extremely important for a successful presentation. According to O'Hair, Rubenstein, and Stewart (2004), we should keep our facial expression matching the situation, and except on rare and sad occasions such as a funeral or a grave illness they advise a confident and natural smile.

Another important factor which can make a presentation a success or ruin it is eye contact. Eye contact is important both for the audience and for the presenter; the audience see that they matter to the presenter and that he/she is really speaking to them and they are likely to pay more attention. For the presenter, eye contact is necessary to help to adjust the presentation to the situation and the state and mood of the audience. When the audience seem puzzled, he/she can add an explanation, or when they seem bored or their attention is wandering, he/she can add a joke or shorten the presentation.

Body movement and gestures during the presentation should be moderate and natural. The usage of excessive gestures could be distracting and counter-productive as it shifts the attention of the audience from the topic to the movement.

The last, but not least important, factor influencing the success of a presentation is the dress and general appearance of the presenter. We should adjust our outfit to the situation, and we should also modify other factors linked to our general appearance such as our hair-do, make-up, and accessories. If we are new to the group of people we will be presenting to it is advisable to ask in advance about the dress code appropriate for the occasion.

9.7 Assessment

After delivering our presentation we should take a moment to assess our performance. It is useful to get feedback from our audience, but even when we cannot get an assessment from the audience in the form of questionnaires or direct feedback (people telling us how they liked/disliked the presentation), we can guess from the reaction of the audience whether the presentation was well received or not. Even if we deliver the same presentation twice the outcome can be entirely different as the situation, audience, and the presenter are not exactly the same and even slight variation in all the above-mentioned factors influencing the success of the presentation can mean a great difference.

Suggestions for further reading:

Wiecke, T.: *Rétorika v praxi*. Rebo Production, 2005

O'Hair, D., Rubenstein, H., Stewart, R.... *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking*. Bedford/ St. Martin's, 2004

Atkinson, M.: *Speech-making and Presentation Made Easy: Seven Essential Steps to Success*. Vermilion, 2008

Suggestions for further thought:

Notes reading (Sarah Palin): http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WrTYi2JhEM4

Table 9. *Presentations*

Presentations			
1.	Preparation	Content	
		Venue	
		Audience	
2.	Organization	Pattern	
		Outline	
		Visual aids	
3.	Practice	PRACTICE!!!	
4.	Delivery	Speech anxiety	
		Dress/general appearance	
		Body language	Facial expression
			Smile
			Eye contact
			Gestures
			Body movement
5.	Assessment		

10. Leadership in Groups and Teams

Fundamentals of Group Interaction, Meetings, Negotiations

People tend to live in groups, and in order to function in a group they need to communicate. Therefore, communication is the essential characteristic of a group. Apart from that, we can characterize a group as a certain number of people (more than two) who have a common purpose or goal, are dependent on and influence each other, usually communicate face to face, and form a group of a specific size, a small group having from 3 to 20 people. Recently, face-to-face communication is being replaced by other communication channels as virtual groups communicate via social networks, Skype, video conferences etc.

Fisher (1970) suggested four phases in the evolution of a group: **orientation, conflict, emergence, and reinforcement**. During the **orientation phase** people get together and they get acquainted with one another, as well as with the norms of the group: they accept other members' behavior, accept jokes, and start feeling like group members. However, soon another phase, the **conflict phase**, sets in: the members exchange strong opinions and express disagreement and conflicts emerge. If the group survives the conflict stage, in the next phase, called the **emergence phase**, the members work together towards one or at least fewer solutions, they form coalitions, and dissent disappears. The last phase is the **reinforcement phase**, when the group has reached consensus in

most matters, and the atmosphere is generally positive and solution-oriented.

Table 10. *Group characteristics*

Group characteristics
A common purpose or goal
Interdependence
Mutual influence
Face-to-face communication (x virtual groups)
Specific size

Another classical group development scheme was created by Tuckman (1965). He distinguishes five group development phases: **forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning**. In the **forming phase**, the group members get to know one another, as well as the aims of the group, and in the **storming phase** the members negotiate the goal of the group and the means to achieve it, usually through a series of arguments; in the **norming phase**, on the other hand, the aim of the group, its rules, and ways to achieve the goal are established. In the **performing stage** the group achieves its final decision on how to reach the goal, and actually performs it, and in the final, **adjourning phase** the objectives of the group are achieved, and the group disbands or moves on.

For group effectiveness it is necessary to provide good timing and give a group time to develop, and the group members should maintain a high degree of cohesion and commitment.

Nowadays most people do not work independently as individuals but they are usually part of a larger unit, a working

group or team. There is a difference between a **working group** and **team** in the result achieved (Hackman & Johnson, 2004). **Working group** members share information, discuss problems and solutions together, and make decisions; however, the results of their work are individual products and they get an individual evaluation for their work. The result of **teamwork** is a joint product. Team members have a single, unique purpose and clearly defined performance goals (e.g., to present a project on a certain topic to get credits in the class).

Table 11. ***Group evolution and group development***

Group evolution (Fisher, 1970)	Orientation phase Conflict phase Emergence phase Reinforcement phase
Group development (Tuckman, 1965)	Forming Storming Norming Performing Adjourning

10.1 Meetings

When describing communication in groups and teams we have to mention a specific communication situation that is typical of working together: meetings. Working group and team meetings, or, more generally, business and political meetings are crucial for the successful communication of groups and teams and therefore also for the final success of their work. In this final section of the book, we will have a closer look at communication in meetings, and suggest how to turn meetings into a useful tool for the success of the work of groups and teams.

Meetings generally do not sound very exciting and not many people look forward to attending a meeting. In the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, the word "meeting" acquired a connotation of something boring, time-consuming, and formal as it was connected with the power mechanisms of authoritarian regimes in the past, with compulsory attendance at various sorts of meetings where the attendees were told that society (or the factory, school, or simply any institution) was very successfully advancing on its way towards a better future, towards communism. That was in sharp contrast with the reality and together with the required "positive" approach (the attitude that "nothing can be bad in a communist society") and the fact that no criticism was allowed led to a complete rejection of meetings as a tool for better organizational management, for problem solving, or as a communication channel that helps to improve communication within a group, team, or institution.

In the past two decades meetings have been rehabilitated and become an important part of communication in organizations. According to the aims, we can distinguish several kinds of meetings: **motivational** (the aim is to motivate people to perform a task, or to be devoted to the organization), **informative** (to give information about a particular project or task), **problem-solving** (the aim is to find a solution to a problem), and **operational** (a regular meeting of a group, which usually has a little bit of all the above-mentioned types).

A meeting can be formal or informal; however, in each some basic structure is necessary. In the Anglo-Saxon tradition the most common meeting procedure to be followed is put together in the so-called Robert's Rules of Order, a set of rules that are followed in most formal meetings, and referred to in informal meetings as well. In Central Europe, each organization has its own rules; in the case of the political and administrative sphere they are usually written down in the form of regulations. It is necessary to get to know the rules to hold a successful meeting.

Before we call a meeting we should think about whether the meeting is really necessary, as meetings cost a lot of money because people are usually paid for the time when they are at the meeting, while they could be doing something more productive, and people can easily be demotivated by a poorly-organized meeting or by a meeting with no clearly defined aim. Other communication channels should be considered prior to the decision to hold a meeting: a phone conversation, e-mail, an e-mail sent to all group members, a newsletter, or face-to-face meeting, and it should be decided whether one of these would not suit the aim of the proposed meeting better.

Therefore, during the preparatory, planning phase of a meeting it is necessary to state exactly what goal is to be achieved by having the meeting, who the participants are, who will be invited, and when and where the meeting will be held. Then it is time to work on a precise agenda, which should be provided to the participants in advance, in sufficient time before the meeting. In some cases the participants can be asked to propose points to be added to the agenda; this usually happens at the operational type of meetings, when the agenda comprises points that are important for the functioning of an organization. In each agenda there should be time devoted to discussion or the responses of the participants.

As stated earlier, the procedure of a meeting varies according to the culture, and we should be aware of the differences. Therefore at a formal political meeting in the US we can expect the meeting to begin with the Pledge of Allegiance to the flag and the US, while there is no such common opening in Central Europe. The ways of voting and other important rules can also be different, and it is essential to know them in advance, especially when we are to chair the meeting.

The objectives of a meeting can, according to the type of meeting, be one of the following: to share information, to solve a problem, to introduce a new concept or project, to review the progress of an existing project, to follow up on an earlier meet-

ing, or to motivate people in the group. That will also help to decide who the people who will participate in the meeting are and who to invite. It will give us a basic idea about the time frame of the meeting, and which points will be on the agenda.

Agenda preparation is one of the most important parts of preparation for a meeting. There should be a clearly defined and realistic goal of the meeting, and a list of points (topics, questions) to be dealt with at the meeting. The agenda should include the time frame and venue of the meeting. It is important to include sufficient time for discussion.

When actually chairing a meeting we should start on time and welcome everybody, making sure that everybody knows the aim of the meeting and the agenda, and then follow the points on the agenda, and not allow the participants to digress from the points planned and agreed upon at the beginning of the meeting. The chair of the meeting should encourage everyone to participate, build up the trust of the participants, which is necessary for free discussion, stimulate, guide, and control the discussion, and strive to achieve consensus, or at least majority decisions (usually by vote). The chair should also decide who will keep the minutes (the accurate records of the meeting) and, something which is very important, keep to the time schedule and close the meeting on time.

After the meeting it is important to send the minutes of the meeting to every participant as soon as possible. The minutes should also be sent to people who could not participate in the meeting in order to inform them about the content of the meeting and the tasks that need to be done. Therefore the minutes should include information about the deadlines and who is responsible for which task.

The meeting can be considered successful if it covered all the items on the agenda, the atmosphere was comfortable and relaxed, without personal attacks and conflicts, with constructive criticism aimed at tasks, not people, when everybody understands and supports the tasks and aims of the group, and

if agreement was reached and decisions approved. Then we can say that we used the right communication channel when we chose a meeting.

10.2 Negotiations

One of the most common communication situations where all the above-mentioned discourse structures, pragmatic features, and power relations can be observed and used is a situation when we negotiate. There are many types of negotiations, from children negotiating when to go to bed to countries negotiating conditions of peace after a war conflict. Negotiations can be defined as a process of bargaining between two or more parties to reach a solution that is acceptable to all parties (Gibson, 2002).

Casse and Deol distinguish three basic types of negotiation based on **compromise**, **synthesis**, and **synergy** (Casse and Deol, 1985). Each has its advantages and disadvantages.

Compromise allows problems to be overcome quickly and makes it possible to move forward faster; however, the frustration after giving something up may lead one or both parties to a lack of commitment to the final decision which was adopted. In **synthesis** all the ideas of all participants are taken into account. The integration of all those ideas into a final agreement leads to motivation and the commitment of the parties; however, the final decision can involve irrelevant elements which can weaken the outcome of the negotiation and make it questionable. In **synergy**, the result is greater than the sum of the parts. It is a win-win situation as the outcome is the creative product of the interaction, and everybody participates in the solution and feels they gained by the outcome. The disadvantage of this type of negotiation is that it requires a lot of time and a high level of flexibility on the part of all the parties.

O'Connor et al. (1992) described the stages in negotiation. At the beginning of negotiation it is necessary to build relationships among the parties and agree on the negotiation pro-

cedure. Then the parties exchange information on the subject of the negotiations and ask questions in order to get more details about the information given. Options are formulated and the parties state their initial bids. The next stage is bargaining, and finally the parties settle and conclude the negotiation. The stages differ in different cultures (see cultural differences in communication); in Brazil, much time is devoted to building relationships among the parties to the negotiation, and only after an extensive trust-building stage can a deal be negotiated and concluded. On the other hand, in the US, the first two stages are relatively short as a basic level of trust and the procedure to follow are taken for granted. Americans (and people from most Western nations) usually assume that the procedure used in negotiation will be the one they are used to, and that the others should adopt it.

Table 12. *Stages in negotation*

Stages in negotiation (O'Connor et al., 1992)
Relationship building
Agreeing on procedure
Exchanging information
Questioning
Options
Bidding
Bargaining
Settling and concluding

When negotiating the parties use different tactics to achieve their goals. Historically, aggressive negotiating tactics which

use so-called "hard" skills were much more common than negotiation based on compromise and the promotion of win-win situations. Even nowadays we can be part of negotiation that uses aggressive methods which comprise character and background attacks, insults, teasing, ridicule and even profanity, threats, and attacks on competence and physical appearance, as well as non-verbal indicators that express hostility (rolling eyes, looks of disgust…).

Table 13. ***Aggressive negotiating tactics***

Aggressive negotiating tactics (hard skills in negotiation)
Character attacks
Background attacks
Insults
Teasing
Ridicule
Profanity
Threats
Attacks on competence
Attacks on physical appearance
Nonverbal indicators of hostility

In the past, hard skills were given preference and being "tough" was considered (and, unfortunately in many parts of the world is still considered) to be a basic characteristic of

a good leader, of a great politician, or of a skillful business person. However, times are changing, and using aggressive negotiating tactics is becoming more and more unacceptable in many social, political, business, and cultural contexts and situations. Soft skills are gaining preference over hard skills used in aggressive negotiating tactics. The Harvard Negotiation Project developed a problem-solving style of negotiation that exploits soft skills in this type of communication situation. There are several rules that were identified as being crucial for successful negotiation: separate the people from the problem (common goal, build trust, defuse strong emotions), focus on interests, not positions (interest = reason why the negotiator takes his/her position), invent options for mutual gain (brainstorming solutions to meet the ends of both negotiators), and insist on objective criteria (agree on a set of criteria and determine the terms of the settlement).

Table 14. ***Problem-solving style of negotiation (soft skills) developed by the Harvard Negotation project***

Problem-solving style of negotiation (soft skills)
Separate the people from the problem
Focus on interests, not positions
Invent options for mutual gain
Insist on objective criteria

Negotiating skills come in useful in many situations every day. We use these skills when we want a store to replace a defective product we have bought, in a hotel when we want to exchange a noisy room with a bad view for a better one, when we want our salary to be increased, or when we want

to negotiate the postponement of our essay deadline, and we could go on with numerous examples.

Suggestions for further reading:

Fisher, B. A. (1970).: Decision emergence: Phases in group decision making. *Speech Monographs*, *37*, 53-66.

Tuckman, B. (1965).: Developmental sequence in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, *63*, 384-399.

Clampitt, P. G.: *Communicating for Managerial Effectiveness*. Sage, 2001. 2nd.

Suggestions for further thought:

Examples of negotiation and tips on YouTube, e.g., http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oy0MD2nsZVs

CONCLUSION

The discipline called **Leadership** (*Theory of Leadership*, *Leadership Theory*) is a discipline that addresses a vast number of issues. These are usually expressed in phrases (sometimes seemingly almost contradictory) such as *Leadership and Management*, *Leadership and Strategic Thinking*, *Leadership and Policy/Public Affairs*, *Leadership and Governance*, *Leadership and Ethics*, *Leadership and Success*, *Leadership and Performance*, *Leadership and Vision*, *Leadership and Sustainability*, *Leadership and Control/Involvement/Engagement*, etc, and/or whatever else you might imagine. Eventually you might encounter different adjectives capturing either many a sub-branch of leadership or its typical characteristics: *effective leadership*, *creative leadership*, *transformational leadership*, *transactional leadership*, *situational leadership*, *emotional leadership*, *thought leadership*, *adaptive leadership*, *innovation leadership*, *open leadership*, *educational leadership*, *religious leadership*, *psychodynamic leadership*, and many others, or even blendings such as *neuroleadership*. The word itself, in spite of the fact that you would not find any information on its morphological adaptation, i.e., on how to decline it in Czech, in Internetová jazyková příručka Ústavu pro jazyk český, nevertheless appears in a new dictionary of neologisms: Nová slova v češtině. Slovník neologizmů 2. (Martincová, 2004).

Introduction to Leadership Communication intends to be, on the one hand, a normal introductory guide to the leadership communication course that offers the students the opportunity to gain basic knowledge of leadership and communication, to develop their communication skills and skills related to leadership, and to apply the knowledge and skills they have acquired

in a practical way. But on the other hand it also wants to be a bridging publication that links its authors and the readers across their age, experience, and educational and cultural backgrounds. It wants to bridge their multiple perspectives by drawing on an integral (yet open) framework that will assist them in developing and implementing comprehensive skills to cooperate, to communicate, to search for and to find strategies, to get necessary and useful insights, and to create a tool that could be used in addressing the challenges facing the ever-changing and complicated world of interpersonal communication.

GOOD LUCK!

REFERENCES

ADAMOVÁ, Karolina, KŘÍŽKOVSKÝ, Ladislav, ŠOUŠA, Jiří, ŠOUŠOVÁ, Jitka. *Politologický slovník.* Praha: C.H. Beck, 2001. ISBN 80-7179-469-4.

BEČKA, Josef Václav. Česká stylistika. 1. vyd. Praha: Academia, 1992. 468 s. ISBN 80-200-0020-8.

BERGER, Arthur Asa. *Media Analysis Techniques.* London: Sage Publications, 2005. ISBN 978-1-4129-0683-8.

CLAMPITT, Phillip G. *Communicating for Managerial Effectiveness.* London: SAGE Publications, 2001. ISBN 0-7619-2152-4.

COOK, Guy. *Applied Linguistics.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. ISBN 0-19-437598-6.

ČECHOVÁ, Marie a kol. *Současná stylistika češtiny.* Praha: ISV nakladatelství, 2003. 342 s. ISBN 80-86642-00-3.

ČMEJRKOVÁ, Světla, HOFFMANNOVÁ, Jana, HAVLOVÁ, Eva. *Užívání a prožívání jazyka.* Praha: Nakladatelství Karolinum, 2010. ISBN 978-80-246-1756-5.

VAN DIJK, Teun Adrianus. *Discourse studies: a multidisciplinary introduction. Volume 1: Discourse as structure and process.* Teun A. van Dijk. London: SAGE Publications, 1997. 356 s. ISBN 0803978456.

VAN DIJK, Teun Adrianus. *Ideology.* London: Sage, 1998. 384 s. 1st. ISBN 0761956557

VAN DIJK, Teun Adrianus. *Discourse and Power.* Palgrave Macmillan, 2008. ISBN 978-0-230-57409-0.

FAIRCLOUGH, Norman: *Critical discourse analysis : the critical study of language.* [s.l.]: Harlow: Longman, an imprint of Pearson Education, 1995. 265 s. ISBN 0582219841.

FAIRCLOUGH, Norman: *Language and power.* Harlow, England; New York: Longman, 2001. 2nd.

FAIRCLOUGH, Norman. *Media Discourse.* Bloomsbury Academic, 2011. ISBN 978-0-3405-8889-5.

FASOLD, Ralph. *The Sociolinguistics of Language.* Oxford: Blackwell Publishers, 1997. ISBN 0-631-13825-0.

FIDELIUS, Petr. *Řeč komunistické moci*. Praha: Triáda, 1998. ISBN 80-86138-03-8.

FOWLER, Roger. *Language in the News, Discourse and Ideology in the Press.* London and New York: Routledge, 2007. ISBN 978-0-415-01419-9.

HACKMAN, Michael Z., JOHNSON, Craig E. *Leadership: A Communication Perspective.* Long Grove: Waveland Press, 2004. ISBN 1-57766-284-9.

HIRSCHOVÁ, Milada. *Pragmatika v češtině.* Olomouc: Univerzita Palackého v Olomouci, Filozofická fakulta, 2006. ISBN 80-244-1283-7.

HUDSON, Richard A. *Sociolinguistics.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1999. ISBN 0-521-56514-6.

JELÍNEK, Milan, ŠVANDOVÁ, Blažena a kol. *Argumentace a umění komunikovat.* Brno: Masarykova Univerzita, Pedagogická fakulta, 1999. ISBN 80-210-2186-1.

JÍLEK, Viktor. *Žurnalistické texty jako výsledek působení jazykových a mimojazykových vlivů.*1. vyd. Olomouc: Univerzita Palackého v Olomouci, 2009. 120 s., CD-ROM 130 s. ISBN 978-80-244-2218-3.

JOHNSTONE, Barbara. *Discourse Analysis.* Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 2008. ISBN 978-1-4051-4427-8.

KNAPP, Viktor. *Teorie práva*. 1. vyd. Praha: C. H. Beck, 1995. 247 s. ISBN 80-7179-028-1.

VAN LEEUWEN, Theo. *Discourse and Practice, New Tools for Critical Discourse Analysis.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2008. ISBN 978-0-19-532330-6.

MARTINCOVÁ, Olga (ed.). *Nová slova v češtině. Slovník neologizmů 2.* Praha: Academia, 2004. ISBN 80-200-1168-4.

MCQUAIL, Denis. *Úvod do teorie masové komunikace.* Praha: Portál, 1999. 448 s. ISBN 8071787140.

MCQUAIL, Denis. *McQuail's Mass Communication Theory.* 5th Edition. London: Sage, 2005. 616 s. ISBN 1-4129-0371-8.

MISTRÍK, Jozef. Štylistika. 1. vyd. Bratislava: Slovenské pedagogické nakladateľstvo, 1985. 584 s.

PÜRER, Heinz. *Publizistik- und Kommunikationswissenschaft*. 1. Aufl. Konstanz: UVK UTB, 2003. 598 s. ISBN 978-3-8252-8249-3.

RAYMENT, John, SMITH, Jonathan. *MisLeadership: Precalance, Causes and Consequences.* Surrey: Gower Publishing, 2011. ISBN 978-0-566-09226-8.

REIFOVÁ, Irena a kol. *Slovník mediální komunikace.* Praha: Portál, 2004. 328 s. ISBN 80-7178-926-7.

ROMAINE, Suzanne. *Communicating Gender.* Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers, 1999. ISBN 0-8058-2926-1.

SALZMANN, Zdeněk. *Jazyk, kultura a společnost, Úvod do lingvistické antropologie.* Praha: Ústav pro etnologii a folkloristiku AV ČR, 1997. ISBN 0009-0794.

SPOLSKY, Bernard. *Sociolinguistics.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1998. ISBN 0-19-437211-1.

STEMPLESKI, Susan, TOMALIN, Barry. *Film.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010. ISBN 978-0-19-437231-2.

ŠTEKAUER, Pavol. *Rudiments of English Linguistics.* Prešov: Slovacontact, 2000. ISBN 80-88876-04-4.

TANNEN, Deborah. *You Just Don't Understand: Women and Men in Conversation.* New York: Ballantine Books, 1990. ISBN 0-345-37205-0.

TOMALIN, Barry, STEMPLESKI, Susan. *Cultural Awareness.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2008. ISBN 978-0-19-437194-0.

WEISCHENBERG, Sibylle. *Journalistik: Theorie und Praxis aktueller Medienkommunikation, Band 2.* 1. Aufl. Wiesbaden: Westdeutscher Verlag GmbH, 1995, Nachdruck 2002. 674 s. ISBN 3-531-12378-5.

WESTERSTÅHL, Jörgen. Objective News Reporting: General Premises. *Communication Research*, 1983, vol. 10, pp. 403–424.

WIDDOWSON, Henry G. *Linguistics.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. ISBN 0-19-437206-5.

WIDDOWSON, Henry G. *Discourse Analysis*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2007. ISBN 978-0-1943-8921-1.

WIEKE, Thomas. *Rétorika v praxi: Hovořit je umění, Zásady působivého projevu, Efektivní komunikace*. Čestlice: Rebo Productions, 2005. ISBN 80-7234-418-8.

YULE, George. *Pragmatics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2007. ISBN 978-0-19-437207-7. Summary

REGISTER

Summary

In the book **Introduction to Leadership Communication** the authors Ivana Mrozková and Božena Bednaříková present the discipline of *leadership* studies as a discipline that addresses a vast number of issues (inter)connected with communication and communication skills in everyday life. The topics intertwinning leadership and communication are widely discussed and specified in parts devoted to communication, communication models and communication channels, to the difference between leadership and management, to transformational and transactional leadership and to relations of leadership to culture and diversity, to power, to gender, etc. Special attention is given to public communication and the media. The book aims at overcoming the stereotypical image of leadership as an issue that is not for common people and that it is practiced only by those who have power. The insight into the topics of leadership and communication is provided through necessary definitions, interpretations and theories, but also supported by case studies, examples, tables, figures and schematic descriptions that help to illustrate the subject matter. As a whole it is a bridging publication that combines the theory and practical implications, thus drawing on an integral framework assisting the reader to develop and implement his/her comprehensive skills to cooperate, to communicate and to find strategies in interpersonal communication.

Introduction to Leadership Communication

Ivana Mrozková
Božena Bednaříková

Publikace vznikla v rámci projektu *Inovace bohemistiky v mezioborových kontextech*.
Tento projekt je spolufinancován Evropským sociálním fondem a státním rozpočtem České republiky.

Výkonný redaktor Jiří Špička
Odpovědná redaktorka Vendula Drozdová
Sazba Julie Janošťáková
Obálka Lenka Pořízková
Kresby Mirka Bednaříková
Tabulky Jana Mrozková

Vydala a vytiskla Univerzita Palackého
Křížkovského 8, 771 47 Olomouc
www.upol.cz/vup
e-mail: vup@upol.cz

Tato publikace neprošla ve vydavatelství technickou ani jazykovou redakční úpravou.

1. vydání

Olomouc 2014

ISBN 978-80-244-4304-1

Publikace je neprodejná