

BUSINESS COMMUNICATIONS

Himstreet and Baty

Sixth Edition



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Principles and Methods

Sixth Edition

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PREFACE

Thinking things through — finding answers to knotty problems — is perhaps best done in writing. Refinement demands that we visualize what is in the mind. Whatever cannot be made clear in writing probably is not clear in the mind. Clarity is a product of attentive practice and reflection.

— Leonard F. Read
Meditations on Freedom

If all my possessions were taken from me with one exception, I would choose to keep the power of speech, for with it I would soon regain all the rest.

— Daniel Webster

Through the previous five editions of *Business Communications*, as well as in this sixth edition, we have been guided by the idea that the business communication course should have as its primary goal the development of the student's ability to put thoughts into understandable written words. Additionally, we've tried to keep pace with developments in the field — we've even tried to anticipate developments by incorporating sections on oral communication and communication management when those topics were not yet an integral part of the business communication course. We gave those topics prominence twelve years ago in our third edition after first introducing them in the second edition of 1964.

In our first edition, we introduced the sentence-by-sentence analysis of written messages to accompany before-and-after examples. This approach, along with other teaching devices reviewers have found effective, has been retained in the sixth edition. Several significant changes have been made, however, from previous editions.

Changes from Previous Editions

Users of the fifth edition may wonder about the reduction from twenty to eighteen chapters. Through combining, we've deleted little; in fact, the coverage of material in the sixth edition is greater.

1. We did delete one thing. As a reviewer of the manuscript commented,

“The new edition has also eliminated the sexism (of previous editions).” Communication being what it is, we know someone may interpret what we’ve said in a way we hadn’t intended. As a result, we tried to eliminate all sexist language.

2. The former chapter on collection messages has been incorporated in briefer form into the chapter on writing persuasively. By doing so, we’ve concentrated the letter-writing chapters on preparing pleasant, unpleasant, and persuasive messages rather than on writing specific letter types — claims, orders, acknowledgments, sales, collections — a practice that has reflected negatively on business communication courses in many schools.

3. The section on report writing has been reorganized, reducing it from six to five chapters. This change allowed us to develop a new chapter devoted to the preparation of memorandums and short reports, as suggested by reviewers and users of previous editions. For those who like the sentence-by-sentence analysis of messages, we’ve adapted it to a page-by-page analysis of formal reports. The report section has also been revised to indicate that more than one way exists to organize reports. Some sample reports include “Introduction,” “Purpose,” and “Methods” as report headings; others do not. Because most people expect the first part of the body of a report to be an introduction, it need not be labeled as such. Thus, both the student and the teacher have opportunities to use alternative types of organization.

4. Listening, as a communication skill, has received greater emphasis in this edition through its integration into a new chapter on interviewing as a part of the job-search process. The treatment of the job-search process has been significantly revised. Because the application letter and the personal résumé or data sheet are so closely related, we have placed the discussion of their preparation in a single chapter. Then, because the job-getting process normally culminates in an employment interview or interviews, we’ve included a chapter on how to conduct and how to take interviews. The interviewee should be much better prepared for the interview process when he or she knows something about what the interviewer’s goals and role may be.

5. Two previous chapters on oral communication have been combined into one with greater emphasis on the development of effective voice qualities and on the presentation of oral reports and speeches. When oral presentations are to be integrated throughout the course, we suggest earlier coverage of this chapter than its placement in the book would indicate.

6. Two other major changes have been the addition of a chapter introducing the student to organizational communication and the extensive revision of the chapter on communication management. That chapter now provides specific suggestions for people responsible for coordination and control of communication activities. For the student who has never been, nor may ever be, in a position having this responsibility, these chapters provide meaningful depth about the role of communication in organizations.

Course Design

The text contains content appropriate for either a one- or two-term course. The comprehensive grammar and usage review in the appendix, with its accompa-

nying exercises, provides a workbook-like approach to these topics. It can be coupled with Parts I and II for a course designed to strengthen writing skills and to develop ability in letter writing. These abilities are of particular importance to students who work or will work in organizations having word-processing centers. Parts III, IV, and V provide the content for a course in research methods and written and oral reporting.

Because we think every topic in the book is important, we had difficulty determining the best sequence of material. And although we think the sequence is sound, the book provides opportunity for creative adaptation. For example, Chapters 1 and 2 on communication foundations and symbol use may be combined with the chapters on interviewing, oral presentations, and organizational communication to provide a sound foundation for the study of face-to-face, interpersonal communication. The interviewing and oral communications chapters could be taught at the beginning, with Chapters 1 and 2, to establish even greater understanding for the writing process.

As another variation, some teachers have told us they begin with the employment application because (1) students write better when they are familiar with the topic — they are knowledgeable about themselves — and (2) the job-search process may have more immediate meaning and value than would some other starting point.

In any case, we hope the emphasis in the course will be on communication skills. The quotations at the beginning of this preface clearly indicate what should be the goals of the course, and they are the goals of this book: to help students get things clear in the mind and then to make that clarity evident by exposing it in either written or oral fashion.

Although we'd like to say this is a totally "real world" book, we can't. If it were, we'd only have to include examples of letters and reports gathered from the real world and say they were exemplary. The content is better than that, we think. It should help to improve the performance of "real world" people.

A reviewer has commented, "The overall tone of the text now relates to a wider range of students . . . recognizing the older student, working full time while going to school. More examples have been used representing the 1980's 'college student.' I'm pleased to see the addition of such areas as interviewing, oral presentations, short reports, and motivation factors."

Our Thanks

Although we have been indebted to many people and organizations through the years, to list them all would take pages. Particular thanks for their reviews of the fifth edition and the manuscript of this edition are due to Douglas Andrews, the University of Southern California; Alton V. Finch, University of Mississippi; Barbara Loush, Oakland (Michigan) Community College; Edith Luft, Orange County (New York) Community College; and Natalie Seigle, Providence College. Additionally, our faculty colleagues and members of the American Business Communication Association have taught us much about desirable textbook content and organization. Last, but not least, we are extremely indebted to our students who provide our motivation and endorsement.

**William C. Himstreet
Wayne Murlin Baty**

PART 1

COMMUNICATION FOUNDATIONS and WRITING PRINCIPLES

OBJECTIVES

1. To develop an understanding of the communication process and related behavior.
2. To identify how words are used as basic verbal symbols of human communication.
3. To improve composition skills.
4. To provide a psychological background for planning interpersonal and group messages.

1

COMMUNICATION FOUNDATIONS

- *Information Theory*
- *Theory of Human Communication*
- *Behavioral Concepts*
 - Maslow's Need Hierarchy*
 - McGregor's Theories*
 - Transactional Analysis*
 - Communicating Interpersonally and the Johari Window*
- *Language and Culture*
- *Hierarchy of Communication Levels*
- *Summary*

Is 3a the broadest definition of communication?

com·mu·ni·ca·tion 1: an act or instance of transmitting **2a:** information communicated **b:** a verbal or written message **3a:** a process by which information is exchanged between individuals through a common system of symbols, signs, or behavior **b:** personal rapport . . . **5a:** a technique for expressing ideas effectively **b:** the technology of the transmission of information.¹

This dictionary definition of communication describes the aim of this book. The following pages are devoted to developing the ability to communicate effectively in a business environment.

Although this book is concerned primarily with written communication through letters and reports, considerable attention is also given to various oral communications. We should recognize that, with the exception of the mechanical and grammat-

¹ By permission. From *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary* © 1980 by G. & C. Merriam Co., Publishers of the Merriam-Webster Dictionaries.

ical aspects of writing, most principles underlying effective business communication are common to both written and oral communications. Additionally, the student of business should understand something of the theory of human communication and the behavioral concepts that support this theory.

Business people who hope to be known as good communicators must be versed in several aspects of management and communication. They must know the field of management, be skillful in human relations, and have an understanding of business operations. Add to these an adequate skill in the use of the English language, and the result is an effective set of managerial tools for decision making.

In recent years, two basic concepts have been set forth by communication-oriented researchers. One is the idea of technical communication of information; the other is the idea of the human aspects of the communicative processes. These have been known popularly as information theory and the theory of human communication. In addition to the familiar areas of semantics and English usage, these new areas have contributed greatly to improved communication of all types.

What are the skills and types of knowledge necessary for good business communication?

INFORMATION THEORY

Electronic computers and satellites have posed almost as many problems as they have solved, but they have led to the development of communications systems involving vast amounts of data. The continuing research has contributed to the general knowledge of the communication process.

Samuel F. B. Morse, who in the nineteenth century developed the Morse code for use in telegraphy, may have been the first person to apply some form of mathematical analysis to communication. Morse assigned a short telegraphic dot to the most frequently used letter, e. For less frequently used letters, he assigned longer symbols, such as dash-dot-dash for *k*. His code used only two symbols, a dot and a dash. This code is the forerunner of the binary code now used on the punched cards and various tapes that are the basic information elements of the computer. Through its decoding process, the computer produces printed matter from the symbols punched on cards or recorded as electronic impulses on tapes. What implication does such a mathematical system have for business communication?

What does *binary* mean?

When information to be communicated is composed of predictable symbols — dots, dashes, holes in certain places in cards, impulses on an electronic tape, or alphabetic characters — emphasis in communication need be given only to the unpredictable. Here, for example, are a pair of familiar sayings:

1. _ P_NN_ S_V_D _S _ P_NN_ __RNED.
2. _ ST_TCH _N T_M_ S_V_S N_N_.

Because we are familiar with the sayings “A penny saved is a penny earned” and “A stitch in time saves nine,” we are able to recognize them even though vowels

Do habits help us predict?

weren't used. Vowels omitted in context are highly predictable, so only consonants are actually necessary. Although we don't write without vowels, our chances of communicating adequately would be pretty good if we omitted them. Because of our backgrounds, we are able to predict certain elements in communications. Therefore, communication theory places stress on transmitting the unpredictable and letting the predictable take care of itself.

However, our ability to predict can often be a hazard. Note the following common sayings:

1. Sly as a
fox.

2. Eager as a
beaver.

3. Paris in the
the spring.

Because we read in thought groups and are also familiar with the sayings, we may have failed to detect the repetition of a word in each saying. We tend to see and hear what we *want* to see and hear. And much of this is based on previous learning, prejudices, and conditioning circumstances. As we extend our understanding of the communication process, first from the perspective of the physical sciences and then from that of the humanistic sciences, we should recognize some of the problems in communicating.

At midcentury, Dr. Claude Shannon at the Bell Telephone Laboratories² developed a mathematical theory of the engineering aspects of communication. This theory applied basically to the technical problems involved in accurately transferring various types of signals from sender to receiver. Shannon saw the fundamental problem of communication as reproducing at one point, either exactly or approximately, a message selected at another point. Although he was concerned with mechanical or electronic communication, Shannon certainly selected the fundamental problem of all communication. However, within the scope of his communication problem — getting the exact message from transmitter to receiver — he did not concern himself with the problem of semantics, since word meaning is not a problem in the process of sending coded matter from one piece of equipment to another. Shannon's schematic presentation of the communication process is similar to Figure 1-1.

**Can a computer predict
word meaning?**

At this point, some nontechnical definitions of terms used in communication theory are important.

Information is the property of a signal or message enabling it to convey something the recipient finds both unpredictable and meaningful. Loosely, information is the inside interpretation of an outside event. For example, when we touch a hot surface, our inside interpretation of the event may be "Ouch!" This interpretation is information and can be measured in bits of information. A computer may store millions of bits of information. On command, the computer is capable

² Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver, *The Mathematical Theory of Communication* (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1949). For a concise description of the theory, see Francis Bello, "The Information Theory," *Fortune*, December 1953 [reprinted in *The Mighty Force of Research* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956), and in *Readings in Communications*, Francis W. Weeks, ed. (New York: Holt, 1961)].

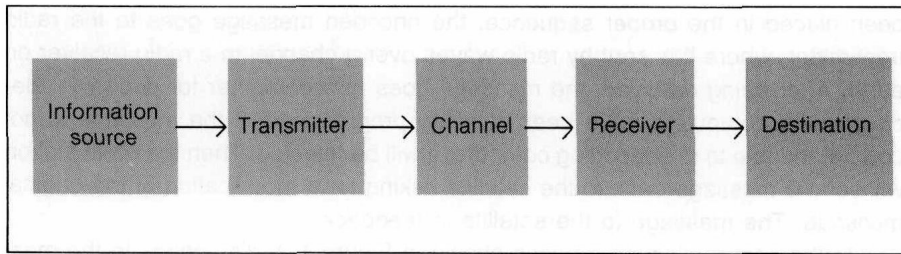


Figure 1-1 Simplified Communication Process

of recalling any one or a combination of bits. In proper combination, these bits form meaningful messages. In human communication, bits of information are words or other communicative symbols that can be used to describe a person's interpretation of events. Simply, information is the stuff of which messages are made.

A message is a transmissible combination of bits of information.

Encoding is the process of selecting and organizing bits of information into transmissible message language.

Decoding is the process of interpreting a message.

Feedback is a message or part of a message that the recipient returns to the sender so that the message may be modified or adjusted to make it clearer to the recipient. When one person responds to another's message, the response is called feedback.

Input is the sum of the experiences that build up the supply of bits of information in an information source such as a computer or a human mind. In other words, information fed into storage or memory for use in communication is input.

Output is the total information released from the information source for transmission.

If we look at Figure 1-2 and apply a simple situation, what goes on in communication becomes readily apparent. Suppose a satellite circling the earth passes through a change of temperature, and the change must be reported to earth. When the instruments detect the temperature change, the information source, which is a small computer in the satellite, selects those bits from its stored bits of information that best describe the change of temperature. After the bits have

Is an information bit similar to a word in human vocabulary?

What are the similarities between human communication and machine communication?

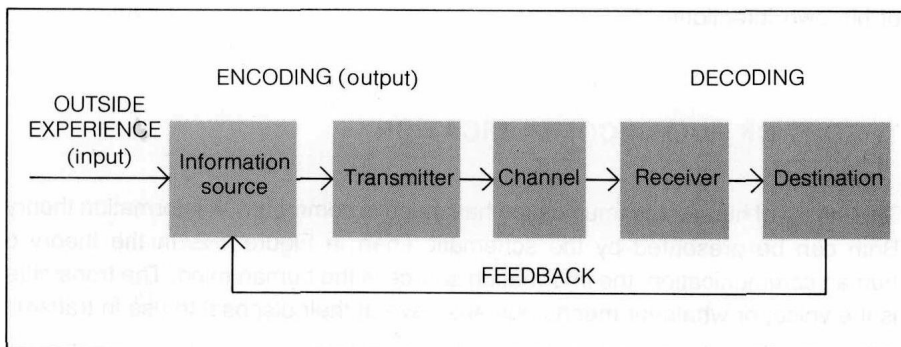


Figure 1-2 The Communication Process

been placed in the proper sequence, the encoded message goes to the radio transmitter, where it is sent by radio waves over a channel to a radio receiver on earth. After being received, the message goes to a computer for decoding. Because both computers have been similarly programmed, if the message is not understandable to the decoding computer it will be rejected. Then the earth station will send a message back to the satellite asking for a modification of the original message. The message to the satellite is feedback.

In the communication process shown in Figure 1-2, disruptions in the message that require corrective feedback would probably occur in the transmission-reception process. Noise or static disrupts radio systems just as noise disrupts person-to-person discussions. Messages are also disrupted when too much information is transmitted. Transmission channels and receiving equipment, like human receivers and minds, can handle only limited quantities. Thus, one principle from information theorists that applies to all communication is *keep the message content within the quantity that can be handled by the communication system*. In other words, don't overload the channel.

**Does decoding take place
at the receiver or at the
destination?**

Communication is a process that remains incomplete until the message reaches its destination as undiluted or unchanged as possible. Proper encoding, clear transmitting and receiving, and accurate decoding are all involved. Thus, the main concern of information theorists is the most accurate method of selecting a message, transmitting it without noise, and reproducing it at the receiving-destination end. In addition, the proper selection of the channel and use of media are critical to the effectiveness of even the most carefully prepared message. Scientific research will continue to refine the various instruments now available, including the prototypes of equipment that can convert coded information into simulated human voices and the "talking" typewriters that can convert voice sounds into printed words.

**Do specific words have
the same meaning for all
people?**

However, whether spoken, written, graphic, or nonverbal, the message simply cannot be more effective than the quality of its preparation. A poor message will always be poor regardless of how well its transmission was effected. And as long as human beings are involved in the process of communication, semantics, behavioral patterns, and attitudes will enter the communication process. Furthermore, motivation enters into human communication, and a bit of self-reflection may support the observation that "no individual can give an unequivocal definition of his own intentions."³

THEORY OF HUMAN COMMUNICATION

The theory of human communication has much in common with information theory. Both can be presented by the schematic chart in Figure 1-2. In the theory of human communication, the information source is the human mind. The transmitter is the voice, or whatever means humans have at their disposal to use in transmit-

³ Jurgen Ruesch, "Psychiatry and the Challenge of Communication," *Psychiatry*, 17 (February 1954), 5.

ting, and the channel becomes sight or sound waves. The receiver and the final destination, of course, are the sensory organs — ears, skin, nose, eyes — and the mind of the recipient of the message. Thus physical scientists and behavioral scientists are talking about the same process. The physical scientists simply talk about machines and the behaviorists about people.

Dr. Jurgen Ruesch and his coworkers in the field of psychiatry have been instrumental in the development of theories of human communication.⁴ Behavioral scientists working in the fields of sociology and psychology have strongly influenced business management by stressing interpersonal communication problems in the business environment. Basically, the various contributions to a theory of human communication have emphasized that difficulties in communication lie not so much with what we say or write but with what goes on in our own minds and in the minds of those with whom we are communicating. Bridging the gap between one mind and another primarily by the use of words is the communication task. It is not unlike the task of communicating from machine to machine.

Briefly, the theory of human communication advances the importance of such factors as social situation, role, status, rules, and instructions in understanding social action and personal intent.⁵

A *social situation* is established when people enter into the communication exchange and their behavior is organized around a common task. Within the communicative situation, people assume individual *roles* based on their parts in the activity; and these roles are mutually agreed to by the participants. On the college campus, a senior student assumes an authoritative role and the freshman a submissive role. *Status*, on the other hand, is closely related to role but is determined by officially prescribed duties and rights. A professor has more status than an assistant professor by virtue of the difference in titles. As their working relationship develops, however, the assistant professor might, through teaching ability and publications, play a more dominant role than that indicated by their relative status.

Within the business world, of course, such things as job titles, office furnishings, uniforms or other clothing, and a great variety of status symbols help us identify status. But more subtle clues are frequently identifiable to assist in the recognition of true roles. Frequently we find people whose own actions, time with the firm, close relationship with executives, and work habits result in their assumption of higher roles in the activities of the organization than their job titles and other status marks would indicate. Thus, good communicators must be conscious of role and status and must use this knowledge to identify the role and status of various individuals. In addition, they must develop skill in tailoring messages to the characteristics of the receiver.

All games are played by *rules*. And the game of communications is no exception. Written and unwritten rules, such as company policies and practices, help determine who may talk to whom, how a message should be presented, the

Do you know of anyone whose role exceeds his or her status?

What unwritten rules govern classroom conduct?

⁴ See Jurgen Ruesch, "Synopsis of the Theory of Human Communication," *Psychiatry*, 16 (August 1953), 215–243.

⁵ Jurgen Ruesch and Gregory Bateson, *Communication, the Social Matrix of Psychiatry* (New York: Norton, 1951).

duration of a communication session, and what or what not to say. As people live and work in an environment, they gradually learn the rules of the game. In fact, they must learn them if they are to create a place for themselves within that environment.

Is the aroma of a cooking dinner a nonverbal clue?

Because not all messages are verbal (that is, conveyed through the use of words), the communication theorist must be aware of nonverbal communication. For example, facial expressions, gestures, other bodily actions — even the absence of any of them — are clues to whether a person is upset or pleased. And it is fairly easy, too, to recognize when a person's speech does not convey true intention. These nonverbal elements and their implications, along with roles and status, serve as secondary messages or *instructions* to assist the receiver in understanding the message. Both the sender and the receiver strengthen their communicative ability, then, as they develop greater understanding of human behavior to accompany their skill in using communication tools.

BEHAVIORAL CONCEPTS

Although many business activities have been taken over by highly sophisticated systems, those systems are still developed and operated by people. Within an organization — whether it be the home, the school, the industrial enterprise, or the governmental structure — coordination of human effort is the key to achieving goals. An understanding of human behavior is critical to effective communication whenever people interact with one another. Such an understanding provides the motivating force for task accomplishment.

Whether working with a single individual or with a group, a manager must keep in mind that each person is, and wants to be, his or her own person. Through past experience, we all have developed our own values, prejudices, likes, and dislikes. Although we all have some characteristics in common, the composite of our individual characteristics makes each of us different. We react in individual ways to messages.

Take the case where the boss storms into the office, rants, raves, and then stomps out. One employee's reaction is, "The boss was really angry. I've never seen her act that way before." Another might think, "That's no way for an executive to act." The first might appear frightened; the other might display disgust.

When a new piece of office equipment, with time-saving possibilities and labor economies, is introduced, a secure, competent employee might say, "Here comes the new machine!" From the tone of voice and facial expression, it is apparent that the employee is looking forward to the addition with pleasure. Another employee, far less secure and less competent, might use the same words, but indicate through tone and facial expression fears about being able to cope with the new equipment.

Because of the variety of possible reactions to a single message or event, business has turned to the behavioral sciences for information about possible

management problems. This new attention to humans as dynamic beings with constantly changing needs and desires has led business to adopt policies and practices that are more people oriented than production oriented. The newer philosophy can be summed up as “The *right person* for the job is only a temporary solution because people change; the *right job* for the person is a more viable policy.”

What does *viable* mean?

Maslow's Need Hierarchy

Abraham H. Maslow's concept of a hierarchy of needs has been widely cited as an excellent approach to understanding the changing nature of people's desires.⁶ Maslow suggests a sequence of needs through which people successively move as they satisfy their wants and desires:

1. *Physiological needs*: food, shelter, and protection from the elements.
2. *Security and safety needs*: to be free from physical danger and to be secure in the feeling that physiological needs can be met.
3. *Social needs*: to be loved, to be accepted, and to belong.
4. *Ego needs*: to be heard, to be appreciated, to be wanted. These needs deal with status, and although economic status is often involved as a means of attaining social status, the satisfaction of ego needs ordinarily comes only with or after the satisfaction of economic needs.
5. *Self-actualizing needs*: to achieve one's fullest potential through professional, philanthropic, political, educational, and artistic channels.

As people satisfy needs at the first level, they are then motivated by those at the second level. As second-level needs are satisfied, those at the third level prevail, and so on. Keep in mind, though, that each of the need levels is always present. Lower-level needs simply diminish in importance as motivators as we satisfy them.

At what need level are most college students?

In the communicative process, we should be able to identify and appeal to need levels in various individuals. A simple review of advertising messages reveals this type of appeal. Ads for luxury cars appeal to ego needs, ads for breath fresheners appeal to social needs, and ads for fire alarms appeal to security needs.

If we accept Maslow's theory about need levels, then we should agree that a business environment that assists people to satisfy those needs is desirable. A satisfied worker is generally more productive than a dissatisfied one. The ability to apply behavioral knowledge to interpersonal relationships not only helps the individual, it also strengthens the organization.

⁶ Abraham H. Maslow, *Motivation and Personality* (New York: Harper & Row, 1954).

McGregor's Theories

In America, most people have fairly well satisfied the lower-level needs and are actively pursuing the satisfaction of social and ego needs. They want to be a part of things, they want to be recognized, they want to belong, and they want respect. This view of people has not been held by management in the past, however. Indeed, the view that people are probably motivated only to satisfy lower-level needs has dominated management thinking for many years in many areas. This traditional view has held that people are only concerned about putting in time and collecting pay. They must be told what to do, how to do it, when to do it. It's not necessary to tell them why the job should be done. They may prefer not to be put in the position of believing their task is important. Although most of us would not admit to believing this concept, we have probably observed it in practice.

Douglas McGregor attempted to describe two styles of management, the traditional view of people and the emerging modern view — that management can be effective and production can be enhanced at the same time that management assists the individual to satisfy his or her higher need levels.⁷ Basic to McGregor's theories of management styles is the view that people cannot become mature if their experiences throughout life remain immature. Given the proper environment and the opportunity to be treated as mature, people can develop maturity. At the risk of oversimplification, here is a description of McGregor's two theories. He called the traditional style of management theory X and the newer style theory Y.

Do these views apply to both democratic and authoritarian societies?

1. *Theory X*: Strong control, concern for the job to the exclusion of concern for the individual; motivation derived primarily from external incentives.

2. *Theory Y*: A balance between control and individual freedom. As the individual matures, the need for external motivation decreases; concern of management is for the individual first and the job second.

In essence, as management moves from theory X styles to theory Y styles, external control gives way to self-control. Basic to theory Y, of course, are the assumptions that people are capable of change and that a gradual change to a permissive style in their leaders and in their environments will provide them with the impetus to change. In effect, theory Y advances the idea that if you treat adults as adults, permitting them to control their own destinies, they will act as adults and not as children. Such increased concern for the human element will inevitably lead to broad changes in our social and cultural structure.

Transactional Analysis

In the past few years, *transactional analysis* (TA) has become extremely popular as a means of analyzing behavior patterns in interpersonal relationships. De-

⁷ Douglas McGregor, *The Human Side of Enterprise* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960).

veloped from psychiatry, TA focuses on two-person exchanges of communication.⁸ It is based on the premise that all persons have a set of ego states that are reflected in three broad categories:

1. **Parent:** The parent in each of us contains attitudes and behavior learned externally, usually from our parents. In effect, this is the “law-and-order” attitude. It is critical, prejudicial, but nurturing.
2. **Adult:** The adult in each of us contains the rational, objective intelligence that enables us to cope with the real world.
3. **Child:** The child in each of us contains the memories of our childhood experiences. It is impulsive, exciting, and fun loving.

Why do parents engage in pillow fights with their children?

When communication, which is a transaction, takes place between two people, one person provides a stimulus from one of the three ego states, and the other responds from one, as shown in Figure 1-3.

As long as the stimulus elicits the desired response and the stimulus-response lines do not cross, communication is satisfactory. As a simple example, a question from one person to another may begin a transaction: “Where did I leave my car keys?” Answer: “On the kitchen table.” In this case, both the question and the answer come from the adult ego states of the two people, and the stimulus and response lines are parallel. Therefore, a complementary transaction has occurred. On the other hand, if the answer to the question is “Can’t you keep track of

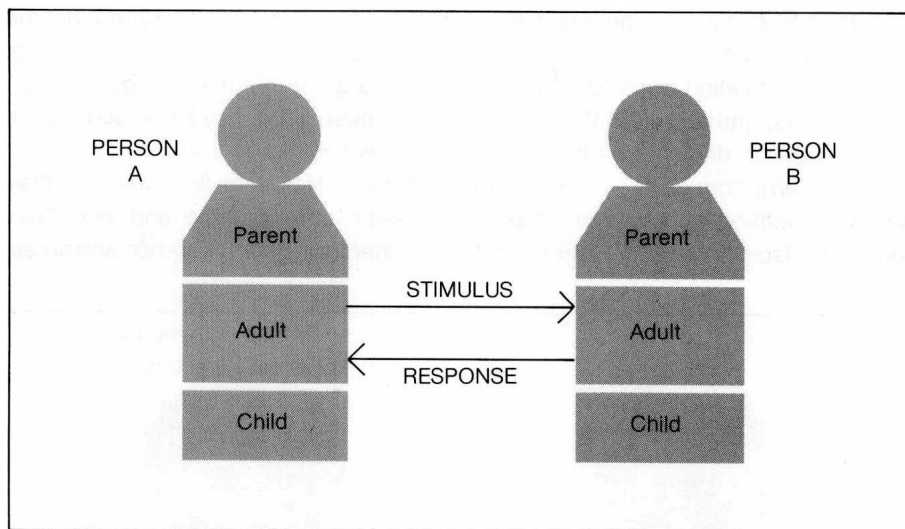


Figure 1-3 Transaction Schematic Showing Three Categories of Ego

⁸ A thorough discussion of TA is beyond the scope of this book. The following books provide an interesting introduction to TA concepts, which are very helpful in understanding the human dynamics of communication. Eric Berne, *Games People Play* (New York: Ballantine, 1964); Muriel James and Dorothy Jongeward, *Born To Win* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1971); and Thomas A. Harris, *I'm OK — You're OK* (New York: Harper & Row, 1969).