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Core Content

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Abstract

Management communication is the study of managers' stewardship of writing and speaking to get work done with and through people. This paper overviews the field of management communication, its history, distinctiveness from other professional communication fields, and its content. The diversity of management communication training across the *Financial Times*' top twenty MBA schools and of the theories influencing award-winning researchers' work prompted a search for fundamental constructs. These training and researcher data, coupled with a review of the field's most read journals and literature on the nature of managerial work, suggested a place to begin. Five core management communication activities are proposed: predicting audience response, selecting workplace language, seeing and shaping organizational genres, diagnosing communication effectiveness, and using discourse interaction.

Key words: management communication; workplace language; organizational genres; communication effectiveness

Management Communication: History, Distinctiveness, and Core Content

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Management communication is the study of managers' stewardship of writing and speaking to get work done with and through people (Hill, 2003; Suchan & Dulek, 1998; Dulek & Fielden, 1990; Kotter, 1982). A major objective of the field is "to develop and disseminate knowledge that increases the effectiveness and efficiency of managers" (Smeltzer, 1996, p. 22). As Smeltzer, Galb, and Golen (1983) noted: "Management views communication as a means to an end, something to be exploited in the service of organizational objectives after weighing the cost-benefit considerations" (p. 74). Academics in management communication have sought to facilitate this goal from a social constructionist perspective that does not ignore the fundamental responsibility to treat each other and the planet respectfully.

Managers are individuals with decision-making responsibilities for an organization or its subunits (Hill, 2003; Reinsch, 1991). They spend most of their time interacting with others, diagnosing unstructured problems, developing and implementing plans, managing information, and relaying decisions about strategic goals, financial support, and assigned tasks (Kotter, 1982). Success involves developing, motivating, and retaining outstanding employees (O'Rourke, 2010; Mintzberg, 1973). Managers also need to assess the impact of oral and written messages in recurring situations and to implement modifications to achieve organizational goals (e.g., Suchan, 2006). Academics in management communication have originated and appropriated frameworks and tools to assist managers with these activities, although much more developmental work remains to be done.

This chapter describes: (1) the historical development of management communication, (2) its unique focus relative to other professional communication fields, and (3) its core content related to managers communication activities. Sources used for this overview included: journals focusing on communication enactment that are most read by academics in professional communication fields; the publications of Association for Business Communication Outstanding Researcher Award (ORA) recipients who are known for their work on management communication; and the descriptions and syllabi on the websites of the *Financial Times*' top business schools. Also contributing were publications on the nature of managerial work and discussions with ORA researchers over many years including recent emails and phone calls.¹ A descriptive rather than an empirical piece, this chapter was also influenced by a personal commitment over three decades to develop frameworks and tools that help managers see, shape, and evaluate workplace communications.

Management communication is a widely dispersed, interdisciplinary field. Academics, who have invested in its development, must persevere to crystalize the field's theoretical propositions and paradigms, like the devotees of organizational communication have done since the formative work of Charles Redding and Karl Weick. This chapter is offered as another step toward formalizing this specialized field.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

Management communication emerged with the development of graduate business education, particularly the Masters of Business Administration (MBA). Although “universities formed business schools and departments to train managers, beginning with the University of Pennsylvania’s Wharton School in 1881,” and although the study of business communication has been around for over a century (Russell, 1991, p. 126), the academic area of management communication is relatively new (Knight, 1999).²

Impetus to develop management communication in academe came with the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) accreditation standard stipulating that business programs provide graduate training in written and oral communication.

C.I.3.C Standard: Basic skills in written and oral communication, quantitative analysis, and computer usage should be achieved either by prior experience and education, or as part of the MBA curriculum (AACSB, 1991, p. 20 quoted in Smeltzer, 1996).³

Shortly thereafter, in 1979, instructors from top-ranked U.S. business schools who were charged with teaching management communication convened at Yale University to share syllabi, discuss teaching methods, and identify target areas for research. The group adopted the name Managerial Communication Association or “MCA.” (Munter, 1989).

In 1984, MCA members voted by a small margin to retain their “by-invitation only” membership, which some viewed as an impediment to the growth of the field. But individual MCA members have not been isolationists. Members Paul Feingold, Christine Kelly, and JoAnne Yates played a critical role in founding and editing the *Management Communication Quarterly* (MCQ). Others published two of the few textbooks in the field: Mary Munter’s (2012) popular *Guide to Managerial Communication* and James O’Rourke’s (2010) *Management Communication: A Case-Analysis Approach* fourth edition, which won the Association for Business Communication Distinguished Publication Award. MCA members have shared their research and pedagogical materials by lecturing in a wide variety of business schools around the world and by participating in the Association for Business Communication.

An international organization in existence for some time, the Association for Business Communication (ABC) has been another forum for developing management communication. Within ABC, the MBA Consortium spearheads regular conference sessions on management communication pedagogy. The ABC’s research journal, the *Journal of Business Communication* along with the *Journal of Business and Technical Communication* (originated at Iowa State University in 1987) are primary publication sites for management communication research and are two of the most read journals by academics in professional communication fields (Rogers, Campbell, Louhiala-Salminen, Rentz, & Suchan, 2007; Lowry, Humphreys, Malwitz, & Nix, 2006). Also, since the ABC began giving the Outstanding Researcher Award in 1990, over half of its recipients have been well known for their scholarship on management communication.

While most of the business schools offering MBA or MBA-type degrees remain in the United States (see Table 1) graduate business degrees have mushroomed globally and with them a wide variety of management communication and related courses (Knight, 2005). Consider the following examples from the *Financial Times*' top ten programs (whose websites were reviewed in October 2012):

- Stanford Graduate School of Business offers an extensive and varied collection of communication courses including *Strategic Communication*, *Interpersonal Dynamics at Work*, *Negotiations*, and *How to Make Ideas Stick*.
- University of Pennsylvania Wharton School of Business has diverse offerings—*Management Communication*, *Negotiations*, *Advanced Persuasive Speaking*, *Advance Persuasion and Data Display*, and *Communication Challenges for Entrepreneurs: Pitching Your Business*. Wharton also has a Writing Center for MBAs.
- MIT Sloan Business School covers writing and speaking skills for management in a course titled *Communication for Leaders* and offers an *Advanced Managerial Communication* course emphasizing interpersonal skills and how to run meetings.
- INSEAD's communication course called *The Art of Communication*, focuses on individual and group presentation, including the production of effective visual aids.
- IE (Instituto de Empresa) Business School has a *Communication Skills* course in which students learn a range of communication techniques, such as structuring a message for high impact and developing an authentic communicative style.
- IESE (Instituto de Estudios Superiores de la Empresa) Business School has two courses covering many topics associated with organizational communication: *Managing People in Organizations* (which teaches management styles, sources of authority, hierarchical communication, and organizational cultures) and *Communication and Interpersonal Relations* (which looks at relations with superiors, group dynamics, and group decision-making).
- Hong Kong University of Science & Technology (UST) Business School offers a management communication core course to help graduate business students improve their ability to communicate efficiently and effectively as managers, and has relevant electives, including *Maximizing Your Leadership Potential*.

Some MBA programs, like the University of Michigan Ross Business School, require MBAs to complete consulting projects for organizations (domestic, international, corporate, entrepreneurial, or nonprofit). These real-world projects give MBAs the opportunity apply critical thinking and analytical tools they have learned in core courses, to develop teamwork skills, and to improve their communication skills by preparing project proposals, status reports, final written reports, and final oral presentations (Pawlik, Rogers, & Shwom, 2013).

Table 1: *Financial Times* Top 51 Global MBA Programs Shows Growth in Programs Outside the United States

25 US	Stanford; Harvard; Wharton; Columbia; MIT; Chicago; Berkeley; Duke; Northwestern; NYU; Dartmouth; Yale; Cornell; Michigan; UCLA; Carnegie; Darden; Emory; Georgetown; Rice; Indiana; Penn State; Rochester, Texas A&M, University of Texas at Austin
16 Europe	London; Insead; IE; Iese; IMD; HEC; Oxford; Rotterdam, SDA; Cambridge; Warwick; Manchester; Esade; Cranfield; Cass; Imperial
04 China	Hong Kong UST; Ceibs; CuHK; Uni of Hong Kong
03 Singapore	Insead; NUS; NTU
02 India	Ahmedabad; Indian School
02 Australia	AGSM; Melbourne
01 Brazil	Coppead
01 Canada	Toronto

Source: *Global MBA rankings 2012*. (2012). Retrieved 10/28/12, from <http://rankings.ft.com/businessschoolrankings/global-mba-rankings-2012>

Although graduate business schools around the world have not yet settled on a standard way to deliver management communication training, interest in graduates who are skilled communicators has not waned. The Graduate Management Admission Council’s survey of 2,825 representatives from over 2,000 companies in 63 countries worldwide found that employers seek good oral and written communication skills as their *highest criterion* (89%) when hiring MBA graduates, even to a greater degree than proven ability to perform (73%), strategic skills (69%), and core business knowledge (69%) (Murray, 2009).

FOCUS OF MANAGEMENT COMMUNICATION

In 1996 Smeltzer wrote that management communication had no solid focus, definition, or distinctive content. He concluded that:

communication scholars who would like to identify themselves as specialists in management communication have an ambiguous professional self-construct. They do not know what is central, distinctive, and enduring about their profession (p. 7).

Management communication is interdisciplinary, drawing from rhetoric, composition, linguistics, and social science generally. This complicates the task of identifying theoretical constructs that are foundational. In 1988, Shelby described management communication as a patchwork discipline that picks content on the basis of what is intuitive, convenient, or practical rather than on the basis of well-articulated rationale (see

also Feingold, 1987). Not long thereafter, Suchan (1991) characterized management communication as “still a fledgling area” (p. 1).

One can argue that management communication remains fledgling. No Ph.D. programs have emerged to train future faculty who continue to be sourced from diverse fields. *Management Communication Quarterly*, the research journal named for the field and initiated by its devotees, has through a succession of editors become the “flagship” and “defining” journal for *organizational* communication (Putnam, 2012, pp. 510 & 511). Management communication courses are delivered under diverse names with less standardization of content than one finds in business and corporate communication. For example, only four of the 25 top non-U.S. programs that Knight (2005) investigated used “management communication” as the course title. Globally, course content incorporates a wide range of topics, such as corporate communication, cross-cultural management, interpersonal skills, and leadership. Methods of delivery “do not seem to follow any particular model” (Knight, 2005, p. 139). Despite this, Knight (1999) concluded that management communication training of some sort appears to have “a permanent home in professional graduate management education” (p. 22)

Although management communication is less developed than other professional communication fields, a review of research and teaching content suggests a definitional perspective:

Management communication focuses on the manager and the enactment of communication related to management activities in organizational contexts.

Of particular interest are oral and written texts that the managers originate and receive from multiple groups: co-workers, suppliers, and customers (Shelby, 1988). As O’Rourke (2010) wrote in his textbook for managers: “An understanding of language and its inherent powers, combined with the skill to speak, write, listen, and form interpersonal relationships, will determine whether you will succeed as a manager” (p. 1).

Management communication has been distinguished from other professional communication fields for some time (Shelby, 1993). For example, we know that business communication shares a keen interest in oral and written texts, including language issues, content development, structure and format. But management communication looks at these textual concerns for business more broadly. Business communication is largely tied to undergraduate education in business schools; management communication to the MBA.

Corporate communication concerns “the corporation’s voice and the images it projects of itself on a world stage populated by various . . . constituencies” (Argenti & Forman, 2002, p. 4). It is an arm of upper-management. Involving public investor relations, crisis communication, corporate image, and corporate social responsibility. It has an underlying marketing function. Specialists, like the PhDs trained in corporate communication at the Aalto University School of Business, learn how to produce external communications, like annual reports, CEO blogs, and scripts for CEO presentations to the investment community. By contrast, management communication is interested in the day-to-day communications of middle managers.

Organizational communication is closely aligned with organizational behavior and communication studies generally, giving far less attention to the enactment of oral and written communications. Sometimes “organizational” and “management”

communication are used interchangeably, and there have been efforts to “create a shared space” for organizational communication and communication fields focusing on enactment (Aritz & Walker, 2012, p. 5). However, at present, there’s not much cross-fertilization. For example, Hartelius and Browning (2008) published a literature review on the application of rhetorical theory in “managerial research,” but cited none of the most-read journals noted earlier, journals which focus on language, writing, speaking, and genre. What Munter (1989) wrote years ago remains representative of how organizational communication differs from professional communication fields concerned with enactment:

[I]f you see the word *organizational* in the title, the course –taught at either the graduate or undergraduate levels –will emphasize the effects of the organization on communication: communication networks, information flow and direction, hierarchies, motivation, and so on. The communication skills, if any, tend to be interpersonal and small group communication, rather than writing and speaking (p. 270).

Management communication’s interest in writing and speaking distinguishes it from organizational communication. Its focus on *the textual life of the manager* differentiates it from the broader field of business communication and the more specialized corporate communication.

MANAGERS’ CORE COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES

If management communication is the study of the written and oral textual life of the manager who must get work done through people, then what is its content? What communication activities do managers engage in? What does research and pedagogical literature tell us about these activities?

The following five core communication activities were derived from literature on the nature of managerial work, a review of most-read journals by academics in the field, publications of award-winning researchers, course descriptions, and the author’s own experience in the field.

- Predicting audience response
- Selecting workplace language
- Seeing and shaping organizational genres
- Diagnosing communication effectiveness
- Using discourse interaction

These activities are offered as a *preliminary rather than comprehensive* list. They could comprise the topics in a primer on management communication, much like those taught in core courses in accounting, finance, marketing, and operations. These activities appear in some form or fashion in research and pedagogical materials, although they have not been pulled together like this. All require more research attention.

Predicting Audience Response

Predicting how audiences will respond to messages is a critical aspect of managing communication to get work done through people. “Management skills are *responsive*,” observed McKnight (1991, p. 205). Clampitt (1991) compared a manager’s communicative task to dancing. The better you know your partner, the more effective your communication will be. As Munter (2012) wrote:

You not only need to know where *you* want the audience to be as a result of your communication, you also need to figure out where *they* are right now. . . . The more you can learn about your audience—who they are, what they know, what they feel, and how they can be persuaded—the more likely you will be to achieve your desired outcome (p. 10).

The audiences that managers communicate with to “achieve desired outcomes” are many and diverse, however. Managers oversee various employee groups, report to upper management and board members, negotiate with different suppliers and labor union leaders, serve customers and investors, interact with local communities and government officials, respond to reporters interested in their successes or failures, and more. These audiences have unique needs, views, and interests that may converge or conflict and that change over time. Their work responsibilities, language skills, and communication habits also differ.

But workplace audiences are also interdependent. They form informal and formal networks independent of management. They are known to gossip, become Facebook friends, meet for social events, become upset with each other, and rail against management. Effective managers also build networks of their own including hundreds of individuals both inside and outside their organizations (Ibarra & Hunter, 2007; Cross & Parker, 2004; Watts, 2003; Cross, Borgatti, & Parker, 2002). These networks intersect forming a web of relationships that shifts over time as circumstances change. For example, during employee contract negotiations, labor union leaders and employees coalesce; management and their backers retrench, while reporters and their constituent readers clamor for information from both sides.

In this complex communicative environment *is not possible for managers to determine fully who is talking to whom and what their audiences know, do not know, or need to know*. Nor can managers dictate how their messages will be received. Whether a message gets read, heard, interpreted, or acted upon as intended, depends on many situational and personal factors beyond a manager’s control. At best, managers guess how audiences will respond. Communicating to achieve desired work outcomes with multiple audiences is a *predictive* activity not a prescriptive one.

Bases for Predictive Analysis

Predicting how audiences will respond to messages in management contexts is not as simple as seeking answers to demographic questions about age, sex, education, social position, cultural background, and the like. Managers need to focus their questions around the needs of workplace participants. Considered individually, these needs are

many, varied, and difficult to coral. Looking at *shared* needs is less unruly and potentially fruitful for predictive analysis.

Two needs relevant to most workplace participants are: (1) the need for work productivity and (2) the need for cooperative relationships. Absent productivity and cooperative relationships, organizations have difficulty remaining viable and participant's pay, promotions, or jobs may be jeopardized. These potentialities are no secret and bring workplace participants together when times are tough, such as when management and unions need to reach agreement so that an automotive company can survive an economic downturn. Using these shared needs as a framework for predicative analysis seems like a sensible point of departure.

Work Productivity

Seeing that work gets done productively is a critical aspect of a manager's job. Clear, concise, and relevant workplace messages contribute to this. Predictive analysis to increase productivity examines message relevance:

- Will this message waste receivers' time?
- Will receivers fail to understand how this message is relevant to them?
- Is there some probability that receivers will trash or ignore this message?

A "yes" answer to any one of these questions suggests that a message is faulty in its structure and content, unnecessary, or directed to the wrong audience. Related to this, Mathas and Stevenson (1976) provided a helpful way to select receivers. They divided receivers into three groups:

- *Primary* receivers must reach a decision or act upon the message.
- *Secondary* receivers are likely to be affected by the action or decision.
- *Intermediate* receivers are gatekeepers who determine if and when others receive the message.

Shaping messages for primary receivers is a key consideration. Sometimes it is also necessary to engender goodwill or demonstrate message urgency with intermediate receivers (like secretaries or deputy assistants) as they may prevent successful delivery. Reaching primary receivers also involves analyzing media preferences and timing. These considerations suggest questions like these:

- What communication media is likely to reach primary receivers expediently?
What are receivers' media preferences?
- When are primary receivers most available to receive this message?
- Will any intermediate receivers stop this message from being delivered? If so, how might these intermediate receivers be persuaded to deliver the message or how might they be sidestepped?
- Should this message be directed to any secondary receivers?

Cooperative Relationships

To do their job, managers must build cooperative relationships with a large number of people--subordinates, peers, superiors, and a variety of organizational outsiders (Hill, 2003; Stewart, 1988; Kotter, 1982; Mintzberg, 1973). Workplace relationships are tied to organizational roles, responsibilities, and situations that carry with them various expectations for communication. Managers are often expected to mentor employees, to assign work tasks that are reasonable, and to appraise their performance with thoughtfulness and objectivity. Managers need employees to be receptive, to learn, to complete assigned tasks, and to perform those tasks well. Managers must devise plans, persuade superiors to support those plans, and get employees to enact them. Managerial success depends upon cooperation. When a manager has good communication skills, these relationships may evolve into highly functional partnerships (Clampitt, 1991).

Key to relationship building is communicative civility and polite concern for the feelings or face needs of others (Holmes & Stubbe, 2003; Brown & Levinson, 1987). This expectation persists, even in contentious situations, including when individuals and groups disagree or become belligerent. A manager is a "professional" after all and, as such, must subjugate personal feelings to bigger organizational goals.

There are also issues related to the political environment and the organization's reporting relationships and reward systems. In a hierarchical environment, it is fair to predict that relationships may be hurt if messages skip the queue, for example. Observing the chain of command may also have negative consequences for a reporting manager, however. That manager may go unrecognized for an original idea by those who have reward power, for example. This makes the question of who should and should not receive messages enormously complex—"Should I 'cc or 'bcc upper management or would they find this a waste of their time?" "If I 'cc upper management, will my direct boss be upset?" "What are the trade-offs?"

All in all, the need to build cooperative relationships can guide predication, raising targeted questions, such as these:

- Who should and should not receive this message?
- How are receivers likely to react to this message? Will it surprise them? Are they likely to ignore it, dismiss it, consider it, or accept it?
- What face issues may come into play? Could this message embarrass or hurt receivers? How might these face issues be mitigated?
- Am I the best person to deliver this message? Will receivers expect this message to come from me? Will they see it as important, affirming, or threatening?
- Is this the best time to deliver this message? Are work pressures or relational tensions too great to relay this message now? Is this a religious holiday for them? Should the message be delayed?
- Should this message be delivered face-to-face or in some other oral or written format?
- If this message were leaked, would it damage our relationship? Should this message be oral, private, and undocumented at present?
- Should this message invite receivers to express their views or is it wise to wait and see how they respond first?

Finally, a comprehensive resource on predictive audience analysis in organizational contexts is Young's (2011) book titled *How Audiences Decide*. Young identifies the types of decisions that audiences are asked to make in professional contexts, for example, whether to comply, staff, employ, invest, or provide financial support. He then describes the criteria that audiences use to make such decisions and provides examples to illustrate how these criteria can help managers formulate messages that get read, understood, and acted upon. Young's analysis is relevant to the productivity and relational concerns of managers. For example, consider the decision criteria employees may use when responding to a manager's request for cost-cutting measures or longer working hours:

- Are the circumstances significant enough to merit my manager's request?
- Will my sacrifice be appreciated?
- Will my manager do his/her part?
- Does my manager share my values?

By identifying decision criteria that audiences use and examples of textual options that may address these criteria, Young (2011) provides a wonderful resource for management communication research and teaching.

Selecting Workplace Language

Eccles and Nohria (1992) noted that to "see management in its proper light, managers need first to take language seriously" (p. 205). "Without the right words, used in the right way," they continued, "it is unlikely that the right actions will occur. Words do matter—they matter very much" (p. 209). This conclusion raises a basic question: What are the right words used in the right way? Across management contexts, the answer is "it depends." Managers' workplace environments are both idiosyncratic and interactively complex. Formulaic approaches may be irrelevant. Communicating effectively is not a repetitive process that can be applied straightaway in different situations (Kent, 1993). Thus managers need to develop a repertoire of options from which to choose and to follow the protocols of Business English Lingua Franca (BELF) when interacting with non-native speakers of English in some contexts.

Developing a Repertoire of Options

What does mean for managers to "take language seriously" as Eccles and Nohira (1992) suggest? It means developing a repertoire of linguistic and rhetorical options from which to choose and observing the relative effectiveness of those options in the workplace. Research has elaborated options that are highly useful for managers to know. Three examples are: (1) direct and indirect structuring, (2) narratives, and (3) sentence-level tools.

Direct (high-impact) or *indirect* (low-impact) *structuring* are both useful depending upon the nature of the workplace situation and the manager's goals (Suchan & Colucci, 1989; Fielden & Dulek, 1984). For example, research on advance organizers (subject lines, introductions, headings, and meeting agendas), which introduce the

specific topic at the onset of the message, are shown to help users more efficiently comprehend a message (Rogers, 1990). Advance organizers work well for informational messages, particularly when receivers are suffering from information overload (Hemp, P. 2009; Fann-Thomas & King, 2006). But an indirect structure may have a better chance of success if receivers are in the habit of using it for a particular task, or if they are likely to dismiss the message outright without explanation or proof first, or if the news is bad or face threatening (Suchan & Dulek, 1990).

Narratives (or stories) are another option that should not be dismissed in preference for probative statistics. Jameson (2001) described narratives as having “an internal logic strong enough to link the component events into a unified whole with a point that is more than the sum of the parts” (p. 478). She found that narratives were a means for managing conflicts involving incompatible demands, that they could soften receiver resistance to arguments based on statistical evidence or theory, and that they impacted a manager’s power to inform and influence (see also Forman, 2013; Jameson, 2000; Bal, 1997; Suchan, 1995). “Storybuilding,” the collective group activity of “organizing disparate facts and experiences into a sequence that implied cause and effect,” helped managers “challenge corporate policies, advocate change, and influence important constituencies” (Jameson, 2001, p. 477; see also Stutts, N. & Barker, R. T., 1999).

Sentence-level choices that managers need to know include constructions that have been dismissed as ineffective in some business communication textbooks, such as *passives, nominalizations, expletive constructions, and hedging* particles. But research shows that such constructions are expedient choices for some management situations. For example, Hagge & Kostelnick (1989) found that “suggestion letters” written by auditors in a Big Eight accounting firm consistently employed “both the mandative subjunctive and the modals *could, should, might, may, and would* . . . to convey the sense of uncertainty inherent in the auditing process and to mitigate the impositive force of directive [r]ecommendations” (p. 321). They also found that extensive use of agentless passives (such as “are not documented” and “have been returned”) in sections of letters that defined a problem in a client’s organization. These constructions effectively removed references to the individual or organization that caused the problem. As Brown and Levinson (1987) observed in *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage*, the passive coupled with a rule of agent deletion is perhaps the means *par excellence* in English of avoiding reference to persons involved in FTAs [Face Threatening Acts]” (p. 194; see also Rogers, Ho, Thomas, Wong, & Cheng, 2004; Rogers & Lee-Wong, 2003).

In summary, managers need to develop repertoire of linguistic and rhetorical alternatives from which to choose.

Using Business English Lingua Franca (BELF)

For managers who work across cultures with non-native speakers of English, using the right words in the right way involves learning the protocols of *Business English Lingua Franca (BELF)*. BELF is a “simplified English” without complex sentences, idiomatic expressions, jargon, or unusual words (Kankaanranta & Planken, 2010, p. 392; Rogerson-Revell, 2010; Kankaanranta & Louhiala-Salminen, 2010 & 2007; Louhiala-Salminen & Charles, 2006; Louhiala-Salminen & Kankaanranta, 2005; Nickerson, 1998). Two

recurring protocols characterize BELF: (1) focus on content comprehension and (2) “let it pass” strategies.

Focusing on content comprehension

As an instrument for getting work done with non-native speakers of English, *BELF* focuses on user comprehension of content rather than on grammatical or syntactical correctness (Table 2). Errors that disrupt understanding matter, such as unclear pronoun references and lack of subject-verb agreement. Accent errors, like missing articles or incorrect plurals that do *not* impede understanding, are ignored (Rogers & Rymer, 2001). A Japanese manager may never master the use of “a,” “an,” and “the,” although he interacts regularly with employees at a manufacturing plant where English is the native language. He can relax knowing that communication effectiveness is not dependent on English language mastery in every respect, nor will his business associates expect mastery.

Table 2: English Language Perspective Compared to Business English Lingua Franca Perspective

	English Language Perspective	Business English Lingua Franca Perspective
Speaker/writer aims to...	Emulate native speaker	Get job done
Non-native speaker seen as...	Leaner who slows down work & requires patience	Communicator in his/her own right
Main Communication concerns	Language errors	Increasing English vocabulary & responding quicker
Important culture...	Host country culture	Global business culture
Goal of non-native speaker is to:	Increase of understanding of “perfect” English	Increase understanding of “Englishes” for global business

BELF’s focus on content comprehension invites users to engage in a number of distinctive practices (Kankaanranta & Planken, 2010). BELF interactions are known to include good deal of checking and re-checking—“Do you understand my meaning?” Delivery tends to be slower and more formal procedurally and linguistically. Procedural formality involves topic control and turn taking. For example, in meetings individuals may be invited to speak with their turns directed through a chairperson. Formal

procedures of this kind act “as a barrier to spontaneous, self-selected turns, with some NNSE [Non-native speakers of English] participants feeling they lack the ability to use the appropriate formal register to claim turns or interrupt” (Rogerson-Revell, 2010, p. 447; see also Du-Babcock, 1999). Linguistic formality may involve frequent nominalizations, passive rather than active voice, and Latinate words learned in English language courses. Words and phrases from users native languages may be interspersed with English.

Using “Let it pass” strategies

Effective BELF users are also shown to ignore linguistic anomalies. Firth (1996) called this the “let it pass” strategy, which disregards the surface features of talk in the interest of making meaning together. A characteristic of “let it pass” is lack of other repair. One participant’s non-traditional usage will go uncorrected and may be even replicated by participants who know better in an attempt to identify (Rogerson-Revell, 2010; Sweeney & Hua, 2010). Participants may also admit their own linguistic limitations—“I don’t know if I say this the best way.” Small talk about safe topics, like music or food, may be interjected to build rapport and solidarity (Pullin, 2010).

The consequences of not knowing BELF’s idiosyncrasies for international management communication is just beginning to become known. One dramatic example from the discipline of finance is Brochet, Naranjo and Yu’s (2012) discovery that *linguistic complexity* in conference calls held in English by non-U.S. firms contributed to reductions in trading volume and in price movement. Negative market responses were even more pronounced when there was a greater presence of foreign investors. The “*form* in which financial information is presented,” they concluded, “can impose additional processing costs by limiting investors’ ability to interpret the reported financials” (see abstract).

Managers who communicate in global environments need to know how BELF works. This is particularly true for native English speakers (Kankaanranta & Planken, 2010). Sweeney (2010) characterized this as “the native speaker problem,” that is, the native speaker continuing “to speak idiomatically, using complicated or obscure vocabulary, and bringing with them their cultural communication norms” (p. 480).

In summary, managers must take language seriously. This involves choosing strategies that are best suited for different contexts. A large repertoire of linguistic and rhetorical options from which to choose and knowledge of BELF will enable this.

Seeing and Shaping Genre

Organizational genres are another communication tool for managing. Organizational genres are typified messages recognized by their form, content, and the actions they engender (Bakhtin, 1986; Miller, 1984; Yates, 1989b; Swales, 1990 & 2004; Yates & Orlikowski, 1992 & 1994; Spinuzzi, 2003). They are often associated with work roles (e.g. Nickerson, 2000). The *status report* a project team delivers to their supervising manager, the *flowsheet* on which a nurse records patient information in a hospital’s emergency room, and the *post-audit letter* a tax accountant completes to examine the

accuracy of the Internal Revenue Service's calculations for penalty assessment are organizational genres (Pawlik, Rogers, & Shwom, 2013; Østerlund, 2007; Devitt, 1991).

Research shows that organizational genres comprise an infrastructure for managing communicative activities. They channel, sequence, and expedite recurring work. They facilitate organized interaction among individuals with vastly different responsibilities (Yates & Orlikowski, 2002; Nickerson, 1998 & 2000; Zachery, 2000). They serve as collaborative tools and documentation (Winsor, 1999; Freedman, Adam, & Smart, 1994).

Organizational genres originated to meet the need for structured and efficient work processes as businesses grew and record keeping and reporting became more complex (Yates, 1989a). For example, the memorandum, with its innovative subject line, replaced the letter. The subject line directs a writer to surface the topic of the memo and it facilitates efficient filing and retrieval.

But more than this, genres draw attention to the kind of work activities that are important. For example, the standard quarterly financial report with its expectation that figures be displayed in tables rather than solely elaborated in prose, not only makes quarterly results easier for users to see, but also exerts pressure on reporting employees to focus on profit-making activities—e.g., We should streamline the XYZ manufacturing process so that we have more profits to report next year.

Genres may also be modified to redirect work activities as organizational goals change (Bremner, 2012). The dean who added “media citations” to the categories in the faculty annual report is an apt example. Intent on elevating his business school's MBA in the *Business Week* rankings, the dean wanted faculty to produce research that would impact managerial practices and, thereby, get reported in trade magazines and the popular press. Whether the higher MBA ranking that followed can be attributed to the addition of “media citations” to the faculty reporting genre is unclear. But the author of this chapter did modify her publication activities as a consequence of this change.

Genre Sets and Systems

Sometimes genres are clustered into *sets* and *systems* that sequence the flow of work and compile information for discussion and retrieval (Østerlund, 2007; Spinuzzi, 2004). *Genre sets* comprise a full range of genres for one side of a multiparty interaction, such as the set of deliverables that consulting teams produce at the beginning, middle, and end of project work—contracting documents, status reports, and final presentations (Pawlik, Rogers, & Shwom, 2013). Contracting documents become instruments for benchmarking team progress when status reports are delivered, for example.

Genre systems comprise an intermingling of two or more genre sets, such as the genre sets that nurses, doctors, and clericals use as they move a patient through the emergency room. Nurses regularly update patient flowsheets; doctors consult these flowsheets to complete their reports; clerks compile all these genres for future reference when patients are released (Østerlund, 2007). Functioning as they should, genre systems provide an iterative, systematic means for individuals with different work responsibilities and interdependencies to interact effectively. But effective function requires genre oversight.

Need for Genre Management

Managers are not always attentive to the potential of genres or the need to manage them. Genres can become so ingrained in work routines that they go unmanaged. Sometimes genres can fail to produce desired results or become abused. They can be diluted in their use if they do not serve the best interest of their users (Bremner, 2012). An automotive company's Dealer Contact Report (DCR) is a case in point. Field managers were expected to complete DCRs to describe decisions for handling customer problems at car dealerships. But some field managers ignored the required DCR format. Instead of elaborating on the Problem, Recommendation, Action, and Timetable categories specified on the DCR, they ignored these categories and simply wrote narrative chronological accounts of their discussions with dealers. Field managers said narratives were easier to write and were appreciated by their district managers. But their narratives did not provide the kind of documentation that upper management needed to follow-up on cases or to defend company decisions should a case be taken to court. Therefore, training was implemented to show field managers why they needed to follow the dictates of the DCR genre and to help them do so expeditiously (Rogers, 1989).

Organizational genres offer "perceived fixity" that can stabilize, direct, and expedite work activities (Østerlund, 2007, p. 83). But genres can also lose their power if their form and content requirements are abused or ignored. Shaping genres that meet workplace needs, reinforcing their diligent use, revising and replacing them when work needs change, comprise a managerial endeavor of some complexity and consequence.

Diagnosing Communication Effectiveness

Managers also need diagnostic skills to monitor and improve communications. This is not easy. Managers must be able to evaluate the effectiveness of messages and of those who deliver them in light of contextual and discursive realities (Bhatia, 2008). Approaches that work for one context may not work in another context. Jobs and situational demands change and with them the communicative competencies needed to do them well. Messages must be crafted for receivers with different and changing expectations and obligations.

Managers are confronted with multiple questions related to communication effectiveness: What types of communications are required for this job at this juncture in the life of the organization? Who possesses the skills to communicate in this job well? Is the employee assigned to this job meeting its communication requirements? If not, where is improvement needed? Am I communicating the job requirements clearly? Will this message achieve what we want it to achieve with its receivers? Managers use a variety of diagnostic tools to address such questions.

Hiring and Placement

There are a slew of tools to measure personality traits, communication style, and communication competence generally. Sometimes managers employ these to facilitate hiring or placement decisions. Richmond and McCroskey's (2003 & 1990) Nonverbal Immediacy Scale and the 'SocioCommunicative' Style Scale are two examples. First

published in 1962, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator assessment, which measures how individuals are inclined to view the world and make decisions, remains popular for matching employees with jobs. Also used are assessment centers, which place candidates in simulated situations like those they would encounter in a particular job. For example, candidates for a managerial position might be given a simulated in-basket exercise. How candidates process in-basket messages suggests their ability to discern the relative importance of messages, to select appropriate media for responding, and to delegate.

Performance Appraisal and Message Monitoring

Providing employees with “feedback about performance is one of the most important communication tasks of the manager” (Clampitt, 1991, p. 147). Organizations develop appraisal genres for this purpose, which typically incorporate some assessment of communication skills. But regular informal feedback is also important. Clampitt (1991) provides a useful overview on performance feedback in *Communicating for Managerial Effectiveness*.

Templates for evaluating various components of individual messages have also been developed, such as the Analysis of Argument Measure--which scores the use of claims, data, and warrant in persuasive messages based on Toulmin’s (1958) definitive work on the components of an argument--and the Persuasive Adaptiveness Measure for Managerial Writing, which scores the extent to which a message adapts the readers’ perspective (Rogers, 1994). Challenged to provide new MBA students with a baseline assessment of their managerial writing skills using the Graduate Management Admissions Test Analytical Writing Assessment, Rogers and Rymer (2001) developed four basic tools: the Task Tool evaluates how well a piece of writing fulfills the assigned task and meets reader expectations; the Coherence Tool assesses if a message forms a meaningful whole for readers; the Reasoning Units Tool examines how logically convincing readers find claims and support in the writing, and the Error Interference Tool identifies errors that impede reader understanding and/or hurt the writer’s credibility. Managers can use such tools to help employees improve their skills.

Competing Values Framework

Used for management evaluation and training in Asia, Europe, and the United States, the Competing Values Framework (CVF) is a multifaceted tool for diagnosing the effectiveness of individual messages and communicative performance on the job. Rather than evaluating effectiveness against some absolute standard, this tool asks managers to compare a message or an employee’s performance as it is “now” to what it “should be” for the situation or the job (Quinn, Hildebrandt, Rogers, & Thompson, 1991; Rogers & Hildebrandt, 1993). The “now” and “should be” scheme is dynamic; it accommodates contextual variability.

In brief, the CVF was empirically built by asking communication experts to associate a comprehensive list of valued communication characteristics with four types of communication: relational, informational, promotional, and transformational. Experts’ responses were subjected to multidimensional scaling which revealed relationships between the valued characteristics and the types of communication. The resulting CVF

identifies sets of characteristics most strongly associated with each type of communication, as shown in Figure 1. For example, the characteristics “open, candid, and personal” are highly valued for relational communications, whereas promotional communications are expected to be more conclusive, decisive, and action oriented.

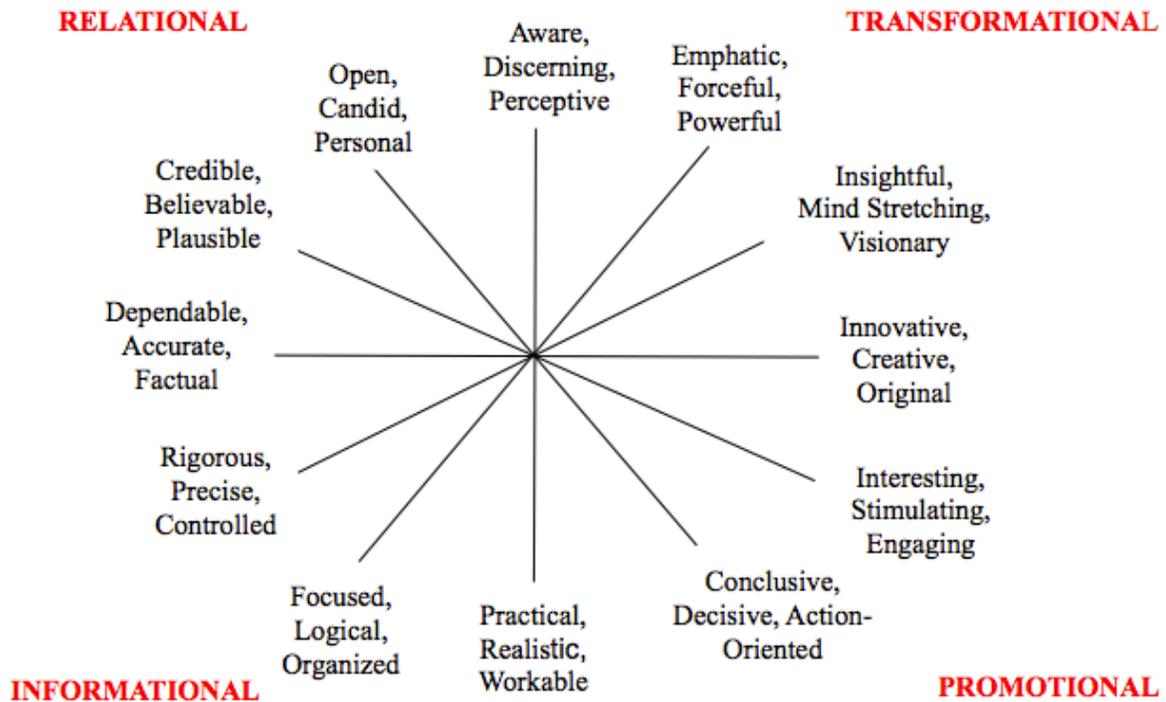


Figure 1: Competing Values Communication Framework illustrates the relationships between four basic types of communication and valued characteristics

The CVF further illustrates the relationships between relational, informational, promotional, and transformation types of communication. Each type of communication is visualized as a quadrant. Quadrants that are side-by-side share characteristics. For example, being dependable, accurate, and factual is valued for highly relational and informational communications; being innovation, creative, and original are valued for highly transformational and promotional communications. Types of communication in quadrants located across from each other have “competing values.” For example, there is a tension between the characteristics open, candid, and personal expected when relating and the characteristics conclusive, decisive, and action-oriented needed to promote. The fact that some characteristics are competing suggests that while all the characteristics are valued, the extent to which they are targeted depends upon the goal of the communication—a highly promotional communication will tend to be more conclusive and action oriented; a highly relational communication more personal and open. In brief,

the CVF provides a conceptual map for understanding the qualities most expected for different types of communication (Quinn, Hildebrandt, Rogers, and Thompson, 1991).

By attaching a seven-point scale to each set of valued characteristics, the CVF becomes an instrument for evaluating individual messages or the extent to which an individual is communicating to meet the demands of his or her job (Rogers & Hildebrandt, 1993). Data is collected from workplace associates (such as subordinates, peers, superiors, suppliers, and customers). These associates use a 1-7 point scale to score the importance of each set of characteristics for an individual’s job—where that individual’s communication is “now” (N) and where it “should be” (SB). These scores are then averaged and used to create profiles. N scores are connected with a solid line; SB scores with a dotted line, as shown in Figure 2. Characteristics on which N and SB match suggest strengths. Where N and SB differ by two points or more, improvement is needed. Associate profiling has been used to train medical staff at Detroit’s Henry Ford Hospital and for new entrants into the Ross School of Business’s Global MBA Program to assess their skills, for example. Individuals can also score their own communication for their job to create “self profiles” and set goals, as is done by participants in a Singapore government officer-training program.

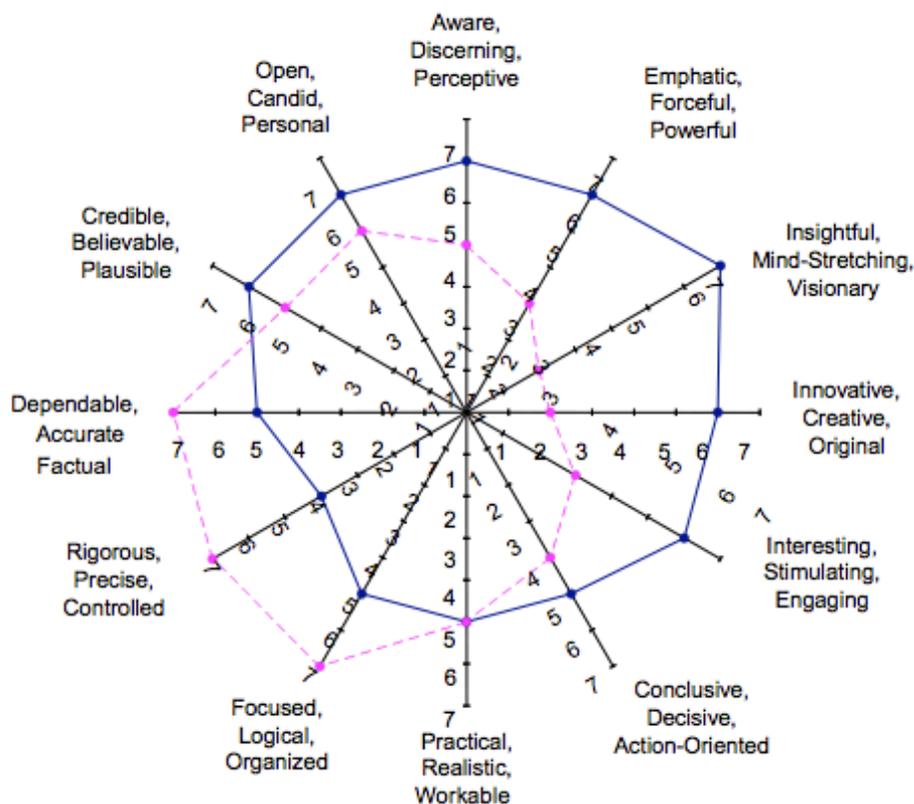


Figure 2: Profile of a relatively newly hire with a liberal arts background whose communication is “now” too transformational whereas it “should be” more informational for his responsibilities as an analyst.

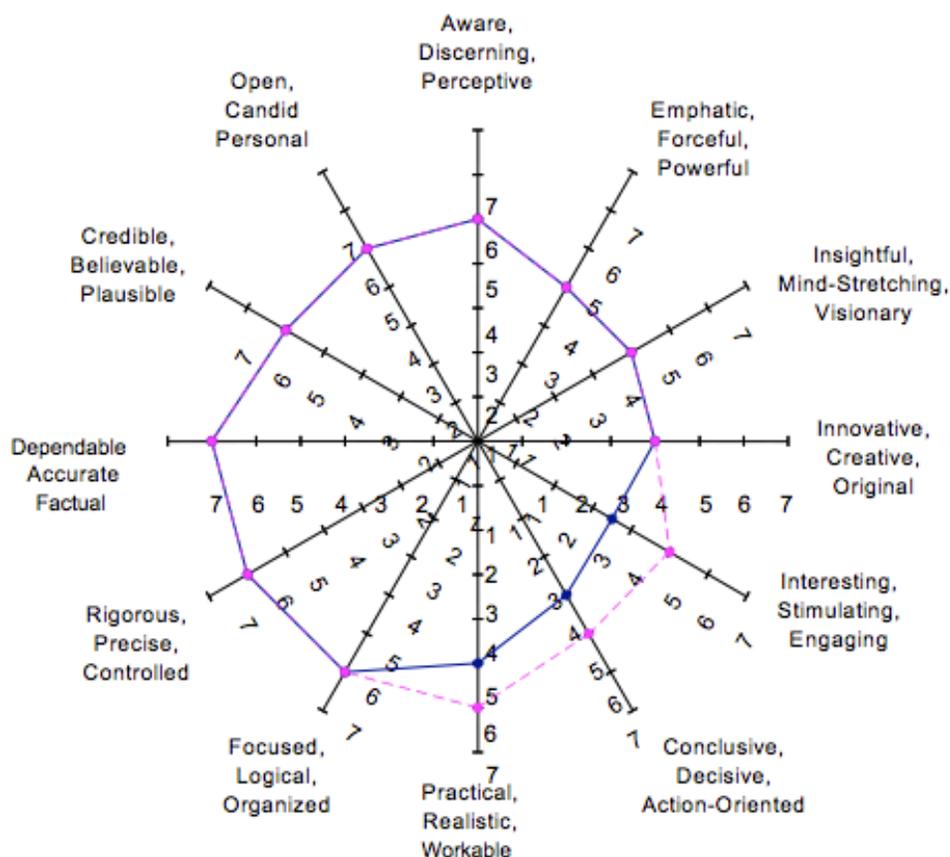


Figure 3: Profile of a memo that needs to be a bit more persuasive.

Individual messages can also be scored on N & SB, as shown in Figure 3. For example, the CVF has been used to evaluate the effectiveness of CEO presentations of poor earnings at the New York Society of Security Analysts (Rogers, 2001) and the effectiveness of email messages to customers at TVS Logistics in Chennai, India.

More evaluative instruments that account for the unique contextual communicative demands need to be developed for management communication.

Using Discourse Interaction

Another core activity for managers is using “discourse interaction.” Couture and Rymer (1991) originated the term “discourse interaction” to describe *oral and written discussions about documents as they are planned, drafted, and revised*. These interactions may be dyadic, within groups, or across groups. When writers discuss their drafts with supervising managers and when groups collaborate on writing or use document cycling (passing a document back and forth between writers and various parties), they are engaged in discourse interaction.

Discussions about *oral* texts have also been characterized as discourse interaction (Pawlik, Rogers, & Shwom, 2013). Examples include a project team planning their oral status report, a CEO and his deputy debating how to frame an upcoming presentation of poor earnings, and a manager giving feedback on a consulting team's presentation rehearsal. Such interactions about oral and written discourse are pervasive in the communicative life of a manager.

Research suggests that discourse interaction can enhance the text under discussion and also benefit discussants and their organization in a variety of ways. Discourse interaction in management contexts is instrumental in getting work done. As Ede and Lunsford (1986) noted about collaborative writing:

Working with someone else gives you *another point of view*. There is an extra voice inside your head; that can make a lot of difference. *Others can see things about what I am doing or what I am saying that I can't see*. And if they are good and we work together well, we can do that for each other. (p. 29, italics added).

When talking about discourse under construction, discussants discover new ideas, learn about procedures, practices, and others' views, explore possible political implications, discover weaknesses, unearth disagreements, reach consensus, surface ethical concerns, and reach consensus. For example, Rogers and Horton (1992) observed 19 groups composing documents together in two different environments—one with computers and projection capabilities, the other with flipcharts and notepads. In both environments group discussion of the documents spawned a deep analysis of rhetorical complexities including the ethical dimensions of language choices. Groups developed a shared voice for talking about the issues. Cross (2001) discovered that a large-scale collaboration involving participants from multiple departments in the composing processes, helped participants form a “collective mind” despite episodes of “apathy, cacophony, and anticonsensual revolt” (p. 57). These and other studies suggest the value of discourse interaction for managing (e.g. Forman, 1992).

Discourse interaction also presents the manager with an opportunity to guide what is not said, what is said, and how it is said. It can function as a powerful teaching tool. Consider what the writer learns from this supervisor's feedback:

You can wait to email this. Ulrich won't even look at it until after quarterly earnings are reported. By the way, send it as an email attachment and use a memo format. Include more details about the customer and get yourself out of it. Keep it objective. Don't use “I.” It's his turf, not yours.

This supervisor provides information on timing and distribution, genre use, the level of detail required, and the appropriateness of self-reference. This could have reinforced with a summary:

So the next time you prepare this report for Ulrich, consider his schedule, use a memo format, provide more supporting detail, and keep the tone neutral, not personal.

Research shows that the potential benefits of discourse interaction are not fully recognized by managers, however. Consider the contrasting views of the writers and supervising managers that Couture and Rymer (1991) studied. Writers reported that supervisor input brought clarity to important aspects of the writing assignment and surfaced considerations that were not apparent before the interaction, such as content that should and should not be included to keep a supervisor out of trouble, make the department look good, or to help sell something (Couture & Rymer, 1991, pp. 96 & 99). Discourse interaction was also reported to move the project along. For example, one writer observed that discussing a document with his supervisor was the point at which they worked out the technical details of the project, such as work commitments, scheduling, and overall cost (Couture & Rymer, 1991 & 1993).

By contrast, supervisors were largely oblivious to these benefits. They viewed these interactions as an unfortunate necessity to correct grammatical errors, clarify misunderstandings, point out where more elaboration was needed, and explain reporting requirements. Supervisors expressed resentment over the need for discourse interaction. “Professionals,” like the writers reporting to them, “should not have to be told what to do” (Couture and Rymer, 1991, p. 99). While supervisors acknowledged that the writers were inexperienced, they failed to observe that interactions were contributing significantly to the mentoring process and to the work itself. As Couture and Rymer (1991) concluded:

Writers and managers may have radically different perspectives on the function of discourse interaction, inhibiting them from collaborating effectively. . . . The disparity in their perceptions, we believe, causes much of this interaction to be minimally effective (pp. 97-98 & 99).

Research on collaborative writing suggests that discourse interaction can fail if it is not managed well. Forty-two percent of the respondents to Lunsford and Ede’s (1990) well-known survey on writing collaboration reported that their group writing was “not too productive” or “not at all productive” (p. 50; see also Ede & Lunsford, 1986). Locker (1992) watched a team produce 13 inadequate document drafts before the writing task was assigned to a new team. A writing group that Cross observed (1990) took 77 days to compose the cover letter for an annual report and their final version failed to address audience needs and contained poor explanations and redundancies.

To date, managing discourse interaction to get work done has received far too little research attention. Compiling directives for collaborative writing (e.g., Cross, 2011, 1994, & 1990; Locker, 1992; Paradis, Dobrin, & Miller, 1985) and document drafting (e.g., Shwom and Hirsch, 1994) and considering how they might be used to achieve management goals would be a place to begin.

OTHER MANAGEMENT COMMUNICATION ACTIVITIES

The proposed five activities for managing the oral and written texts to get work done with and through people should be viewed as starter kit. Other foundational constructs that merit elaboration include:

- Systems theory (Suchan, 2006; Suchan & Dulek, 1998)
- Network theory (Ibarra & Hunter, 2007; Cross & Parker, 2004)
- Media selection (Lengel & Daft, 1968; Yates & Orlikowski, 1992 & 2002)
- Cultural identity and cultural intelligence theory (Jameson, 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003; Nickerson, 1999; Hildebrandt, 1998; Thomas, 1998; Hildebrandt & Liu, 1991)
- Interpersonal communication (Iacoboni, 2008; Stone, Patton, & Heen, 2000; Tannen, 1995), including listening (Barker, R. T., Pearce, C.G. & Johnson, I. W., 1992), building credibility and trust (Thomas, Zolin, & Hartman, 2008), doing “empathy work” (Clark, Murfett, Rogers, & Ang, 2013), and conflict management (Thomas, Thomas, & Schaubhut, 2008)

Instrumental, day-to-day activities that managers need to master include informational management and persuasion. Managing information requires decisions about what information to share and retrieve, as well as ways to get information heard and understood despite information overload (Hemp, 2009; Reinsch, Turner, & Tinsley, 2008). Managers need textual tools to help readers and listeners comprehend and process information quickly (e.g., Kostelnick & Hassett, 2003). Young (2011) provides a thorough list of textual aids to perception, attention, sentence-level comprehension, and information integration. Heath and Heath (2007) describe techniques for making information “sticky” so that its impact is long lasting.

Persuading is also essential for managing (Hill, 1997). “Communication is almost always an attempt to control change—either by causing it or by preventing it,” Hanna & Wilson observed in *Communicating in Business and Professional Settings* (1998, p. 21). Reinsch and Shelby (1997) found that managers’ most challenging situations involved the “conflict or the necessity of persuading someone” (p. 18). Theories of persuasion and compliance gaining have been applied to management activities (e.g., Shelby, 1986; 1988; 1991). The persuasiveness of various textual choices across cultures is also being explored (e.g. Zhu & Hildebrandt, in press). Commonly used for management communication teaching are Toulmin’s (1958) components of an argument (claim, data, warrant, qualification, and rebuttal) and the six principles of persuasion (reciprocity, commitment and consistency, social proof, authority, liking, and scarcity) that Cialdini (2009) laid out in his book *Influence: Science and Practice*. Tests of evidence and logical fallacies are also explored, including in Huff’s (1954) classic book *How to Lie With Statistics*, which is complemented by Seife’s (2010) recent publication titled *Proofiness: The Dark Arts of Mathematical Deception*.

CONCLUSION

In summary, the field of management communication is newer than other professional communication fields. It shares with business and corporate communication a keen interest in effective speaking and writing on behalf of organizations. But it differs from these fields and from organizational communication in its focus on the oral and written texts that the manager creates, receives, and is responsible to manage to get work done through people. The manager's role requires some ability to predict how various audiences will respond to textual choices, to develop a repertoire of language options from which to choose, to use BELF strategies when working with non-native speakers of English in some contexts, to see and shape genres to manage recurring events, to diagnose the communication effectiveness of messages and employees, to use discourse interaction as learning and consensus-building vehicles, to manage information so that it gets understood and remembered, to persuade to cause or prevent change, and much more. Research provides some frameworks and tools that can be rallied to assist managers with this work, but much more remains to be done.

NOTES

¹ Special thanks to Randolph Barker, Geoff Cross, Ron Dulek, Gail Fann Thomas, Janis Forman, Herb Hildebrandt, Daphne Jameson, Catherine Nickerson, Lamar Reinsch, Jone Rymer, Jim Suchan, and JoAnne Yates for directing me to studies they have conducted and theories that influence their teaching of management communication. I asked these Association for Business Communication Outstanding Research Award recipients (who are known for their work on management communication) the following question: Which two or three of *your* publications most influence your management communication research and/or teaching? Their answers helped with this chapter and are provided in the Appendix.

² In “the early 1980s scholars were comparing organizational and business communication with no reference to managerial communication.” Although management communication is a young field, it has ancient roots. Rhetoric began to be developed as a formal area of knowledge with ties to business in the 5th century B.C.E. (Reinsch, 1996; Kennedy, 1963).

³ Founded in 1916, the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business, now known as AACSB International, “advances quality management education worldwide through accreditation, thought leadership, and value-added services” (AACSB International, <http://www.aacsb.edu/about/default.asp>, accessed October 2012). In 2005, Knight found that at the MBA level, communication was longer mentioned specifically in the AACSB International standards, but communication appears throughout the interpretative guidelines (<http://www/aacsb.edu>)

Appendix: Association of Business Communication Outstanding Researcher Award recipients who are known for their Management Communication research recommend readings from their work.

Researcher	Which three of <i>your</i> publications most influence your management communication research and/or teaching
Randolph Barker	<p>Stutts, N. & Barker, R, T. (1999). The use of narrative paradigm theory in audience value conflict identification. <i>Management Communication Quarterly</i>, 13(2), 209-244.</p> <p>Barker, R. T., & Camarata, M. (1998). The role of communication in creating and maintaining a learning organization: Preconditions, indicators and disciplines. <i>The Journal of Business Communication</i>, 35(4), 443-467.</p> <p>Barker, R. T., Pearce, C.G. & Johnson, I. W. (1992). An investigation of perceived managerial listening ability. <i>Journal of Business and Technical Communication</i>, 6(4), 438-457.</p>
Geoffrey Cross	<p>Cross, G. A. (2011). Envisioning collaboration: Group verbal-visual composing in a system of creativity book review. <i>IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication</i>, 54(2), 215.</p> <p>Cross, G. A. (2001). <i>Forming the Collective Mind: A Contextual Exploration of Large-Scale Collaborative Writing in Industry</i>. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.</p> <p>Cross, G. A. (1994). <i>Collaboration and Conflict: A Contextual Exploration of Group Writing and Positive Emphasis</i>. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.</p>
Ronald E. Dulek	<p>Suchan, J. & Dulek, R. E. (1998). From text to context: An open systems approach to research," <i>The Journal of Business Communication</i>, 35, 87-110.</p> <p>Fielden, J.S. & Dulek, R. E. (1984). How to use bottom-line writing in corporate communications," <i>Business Horizons</i>, 27(4), 24-30.</p> <p>Dulek, R. E. & Annette Shelby, A. (1981). Writing principles stressed by business communication instructors. <i>Journal of Business Communication</i>, 18(2), 41-50.</p>
Janis Forman	<p>Forman (2013). <i>Storytelling in Business: The Authentic and Fluent Organization</i>, CA: Stanford University Press.</p> <p>Forman, J. & Rymer, J. (1999). Defining the genre of the 'case write-up'," <i>Journal of Business Communication</i>, 36(2), 103-133.</p> <p>Forman, J. (1992). Ed. <i>New Visions of Collaborative Writing</i>. Portsmouth, New Hampshire: Boynton/Cook Publishers.</p>
Herbert W. Hildebrandt	<p>Hildebrandt, H. W. (1998). International/intercultural communication: A comparative study of Asian and U.S. managers. <i>World Communication Journal</i> 17(1), 49-68.</p> <p>Hildebrandt, H. W. & Liu, J (1991). Communication through foreign languages: An economic force in Chinese enterprises. <i>Journal of Asian Pacific Communication--The Economics of the Language in the Asian Pacific</i> 2(1).</p> <p>Quinn, B., Hildebrandt, H. W., Rogers, P. S. & Thompson, M. (1991). A competing values framework for analyzing presentational communication in management contexts. <i>Journal of Business Communication</i>, 28(3), 213-231.</p>

<p>Daphne A. Jameson</p>	<p>Jameson, D. A. (2007). Reconceptualising cultural identity and its role in intercultural business communication. <i>Journal of Business Communication</i>, 44(3), 199-235.</p> <p>Jameson, D. A. (2001). Narrative discourse and management action. <i>Journal of Business Communication</i>, 38(4), 476-511.</p> <p>Jameson, D. A. (2000). Telling the investment story: A narrative analysis of shareholder reports. <i>Journal of Business Communication</i>, 37(1), 7-38.</p>
<p>Catherine Nickerson</p>	<p>Nickerson, C. (2000). <i>Playing the corporate language game. An investigation of the genres and discourse strategies in English used by Dutch writers working within multinational corporations</i>. Amsterdam-Atlanta: Rodopi.</p> <p>Nickerson, C. (1999). Genre theory and intercultural communication. The usefulness of genre theory in the investigation of organisational communication across cultures. <i>Document Design</i> 1(3), 202-215.</p> <p>Nickerson, C. (1998). Corporate culture and the use of written English within British subsidiaries in the Netherlands. <i>English for Specific Purposes</i>, 17(3), 281-294.</p>
<p>N. Lamar Reinsch, Jr.</p>	<p>Reinsch, N. L., Jr., Turner, J. W., & Tinsley, C. H. 2008. "MultiCommunicating: A practice whose time has come?" <i>Academy of Management Review</i>, 33(2), 391-403.</p> <p>Patel, A., & Reinsch, N. L. (2003). "Companies can apologize: Corporate apologies and legal liabilities." <i>Business Communication Quarterly</i>, 66(1), 9-25.</p> <p>Reinsch, N. L. Jr., & Shelby, A. N. (1997). What communication abilities do practitioners need? Evidence from MBA students. <i>Business Communication Quarterly</i>, 60(4), 7-29.</p>
<p>Priscilla S. Rogers</p>	<p>Clark, C. M., Murfett, U. M., Rogers, P.S., & Ang, S. (2013). Is empathy effective for customer service? Evidence from call center interactions. <i>Journal of Business and Technical Communication</i>, 27(2), 123-153.</p> <p>Rogers, P. S., Ho, M., Thomas, J., Wong, I., & Cheng, C. (2005). Preparing new entrants for subordinate reporting: A decision-making framework. <i>Journal of Business Communication</i>, 41(2), 1-32.</p> <p>Rogers, P. S. & Hildebrandt, H. W. (1993). Competing values instruments for analyzing written and spoken messages. <i>Human Resources Management</i>, 32(1), 121-142.</p>
<p>Jone Rymer</p>	<p>Rogers, P. S. & Rymer, J. (2001). Analytical tools to facilitate transitions into new writing contexts: A communicative perspective. <i>Journal of Business Communication</i>, 38(2), 112-152.</p> <p>Rogers, P. S. & Rymer, J. (1995). What is the relevance of the GMAT analytical writing assessment for management education? A critical analysis, Part 1. <i>Management Communication Quarterly</i>, (8)3, 347-367.</p> <p>Couture, B. & Rymer, J. (1991). Discourse interaction between writer and supervisor: A primary collaboration in workplace writing. In M. M. Lay and W. M. Karis (Eds.), <i>Collaborative Writing in Industry: Investigations in Theory and Practice</i> (pp. 87-108). Farmingdale, NY: Baywood.</p>

<p>Jim Suchan</p>	<p>Suchan, J. (2006). Changing organizational communication practices and norms: A framework. <i>Journal of Business and Technical Communication</i>, 20(1), 1-43.</p> <p>Suchan, J. (1995). The influence of organizational metaphors on writers' communication roles and stylistic choices, <i>The Journal of Business Communication</i>, 32(1), 7-29.</p> <p>Suchan, J. & Dulek, R. (1990). A reassessment of clarity in written managerial communications. <i>Management Communication Quarterly</i>, 4(1), 87-99.</p>
<p>Gail Fann Thomas</p>	<p>Thomas, G. F. & Stephens, K. (2011). Problematizing political space through discursive analysis: The case of the United States Coast Guard and the live fire zones on the Great Lakes." <i>Discourse Perspectives on Organizational Communication</i>. Madison, NJ: Fairleigh Dickinson University Press Communication Series.</p> <p>Thomas, G. F., Zolin, R. and Hartman, J. L. (2009). The central role of communication in developing trust and its effects on employee involvement. <i>Journal of Business Communication</i>, 46(3), pp. 287-310.</p> <p>Thomas, K. W., Thomas, G. F., & Schaubhut, N. (2008). Conflict styles of men and women at six organizational levels," <i>International Journal of Conflict Management</i>, 2(14), pp. 148-166.</p>
<p>JoAnne Yates</p>	<p>Yates, J. & Orlikowski, W. J. (2002). Genre systems: Structuring interaction through communicative norms," <i>Journal of Business Communication</i> 39(1), 13-35.</p> <p>Yates, J. & Orlikowski, W. J. (1992). Genres of organizational communication: A structural approach to studying communication and media," <i>Academy of Management Review</i>, 17(2) (1992), 299-326.</p> <p>Yates, J. (1989). <i>Control through Communication: The Rise of System in American Management</i>. Baltimore, NY: The Johns Hopkins University Press.</p>

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