
UNIT: 1

COMMUNICATION - INTRODUCTION, MEANING & DEFINITION

Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Objectives
- 1.3 Communication: Meaning and Concept
- 1.4 Historical Background of Communication
 - 1.4.1 Fayol's Contribution
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- 1.5 Definitions of Communication
- 1.6 Models of Communication
 - 1.6.1 Shannon's Model of the Communication Process
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- 1.7 The Communication Process
- 1.8 Functions of Communication
- 1.9 Importance of Communication
- 1.10 Types of Communication

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we discussed about the word 'communication'. The word "communicate" is derived from the word "common" - to share, exchange, send along, transmit, talk, gesture, write, put in use, relate.

So an investigation of this subject might begin with the question: What do all studies of communication have in common? What are the shared concepts that make the study of "communication" different from the study of subjects such as "thought" or "literature" or "life?" When someone says, "This is a communication problem," what does that mean?

1.2 Objectives

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the meaning and concept of Communication
- Understand the Process of Communication

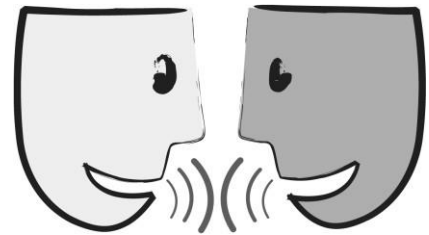
- Understand the importance of Communication
- Understand the functions of Communication

1.2 COMMUNICATION: MEANING AND CONCEPT

Communication establishes relationships and makes organizing possible. Every message has a purpose or objective. The sender intends -- whether consciously or unconsciously -- to accomplish something by communicating. In organizational contexts, messages typically have a definite objective: to motivate, to inform, to teach, to persuade, to entertain, or to inspire. This definite purpose is, in fact, one of the principal differences between casual conversation and managerial communication. Effective communication in the organization centers on well-defined objectives that support the organization's goals and mission.

Supervisors strive to achieve understanding among parties to their communications. Organizational communication establishes a pattern of formal communication channels to carry information vertically and horizontally. (The organization chart displays these channels.)

To ensure efficient and effective accomplishment of objectives, information is exchanged. Information is passed *upward* from employees to supervisors and *laterally* to adjacent departments. Instructions relating to the performance of the department and policies for conducting business are conveyed *downward* from supervisors to employees. The organization carries information from within the department back up to top management. Management furnishes information about how things are going, notifies the supervisor of what the problems are, and provides requests for clarification and help. Supervisors, in turn, keep their employees informed and render assistance. Supervisors continually facilitate the process of gaining necessary clarification and problem solving; both up and down the organization. Also, supervisors communicate with sources *outside* the organization, such as vendors and customers.



Communication is the process by which a message or information is exchanged from a sender to a receiver. For example a production manager (sender) may send a message to a sales manager (receiver) asking for sales forecasts for the next 6 months so they can plan production levels. The sales manager would then reply (feedback) to the production manager with the appropriate figures.

This is an example of internal communication, i.e. when communications occur between employees of a business. Communication therefore links together all the different activities involved in a business and ensures all employees are working towards the same goal and know exactly what they should be doing and

by when. Effective communication is therefore fundamental to the success of a business.

A business will of course need to communicate with people or organisations outside of the business. This is known as external communication. For example a marketing manager will need to tell customers of a new special pricing offers or the finance director may need to ask banks for a loan.

Receivers of Messages

Internal	External
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Workers• Directors• Managers	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Customers• Local community• Suppliers• Shareholders• Government• Banks

Effective communication is all about conveying your messages to other people clearly and unambiguously. It's also about receiving information that others are sending to you, with as little distortion as possible. Doing this involves effort from both the sender of the message and the receiver. And it's a process that can be fraught with error, with messages muddled by the sender, or misinterpreted by the recipient. When this isn't detected, it can cause tremendous confusion, wasted effort and missed opportunity. In fact, communication is only successful when both the sender and the receiver understand the same information as a result of the communication.

1.4 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF COMMUNICATION

Early discussions of management gave very little emphasis to communication. Among the pioneering management theorists, Henri Fayol was about the only one who gave a detailed analysis of and supplied a meaningful solution to the problem of communication.

1.4.1 FAYOL'S CONTRIBUTION

The diagram shows how Fayol presented a simplified version of the Formal organisation. If the formal channels in this organisation were strictly followed and F wanted to talk/communicate with P, the communication would have to go through E-D-C-B-A-L-M-N-O-P and back again. In other words, F would have to go through a total of twenty positions. On the other hand, if F could lay a gangplank, to P, it would allow the two employees F and P to deal at one sitting, and in a few hours with some questions or other which via the scalar chain would pass through twenty transmissions, inconvenience many people, involve masses of paper, lose weeks or months to get to a conclusion less satisfactory generally than the one which could have been obtained via direct contact as

between F and P. This gangplank concept has direct implications for horizontal communication systems in modern formal organisations.

142 BARNARD'S CONTRIBUTION

It was largely Chester Barnard in the late 1930's who meaningfully developed communication as a vital dynamic of Organisational behaviour. He was convinced that Communication is the major shaping force in the organisation. He ranked it with common purpose and willingness to serve as one of the three primary elements of the Organisation. Communication Techniques, which he considered to be written and oral language were deemed not only necessary to attain organisation purpose but also a potential problem area for the organisation.

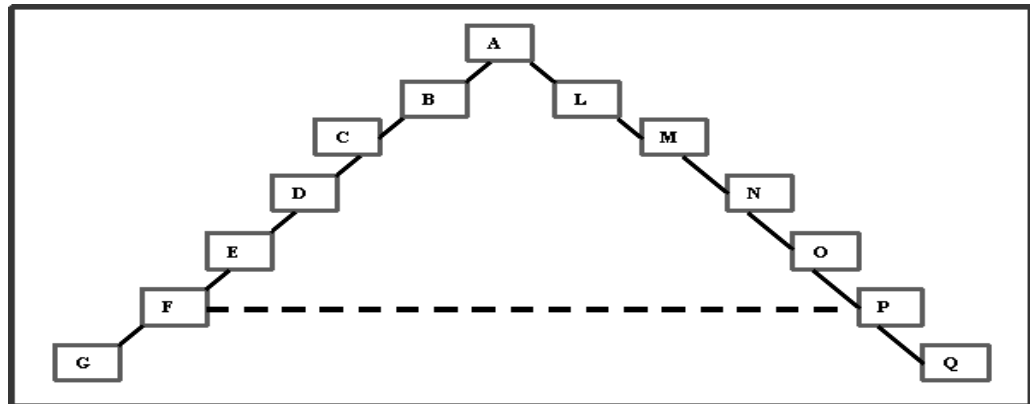


Figure 1: The Gangplank Model

Barnard listed seven specific communication factors which are especially important in establishing and maintaining objective authority in an organisation.

1. The channels of communication should be definitely known.
2. There should be definite formal channel of communication to every member of an organisation.
3. The line of communication should be as direct and short as possible.
4. The complete formal line of communication should normally be used.
5. The person's serving as communication centers should be competent.
6. The line of communication should not be interrupted while the organisation is functioning
7. Every Communication should be authenticated.

1.5 DEFINITIONS OF COMMUNICATION

Communication is the sum of all the things one person does when he wants to create understanding in the mind of another. It involves a systematic and continuous process of telling, listening and understanding. (Louis A Allen)

Communication can be defined as the process through which two or more persons come to exchange ideas and understanding among themselves.

The word Communication describes the process of conveying messages (facts, ideas, attitudes and opinions) from one person to another, so that they are understood. (M.W. Cumming)

Communication is the process whereby speech, signs or actions transmit information from one person to another. This definition is concise and definitive but doesn't include all the aspects of communication. There are other definitions, which state that communication involves transmitting information from one party to another. This broader definition doesn't require that the receiving party obtain a full understanding of the message. Of course, communication is better when both parties understand... but it can still exist even without that component

Communication is a process of transmitting and receiving verbal and non verbal messages that produce a response. The communication is considered effective when it achieves the desired reaction or response from the receiver, simply stated, communication is a two way process of exchanging ideas or information between human beings.

Communication can be defined as the process through which two or more persons come to exchange ideas and understanding among them. Communication is the understanding, not of the visible but of the invisible and hidden. These hidden and symbolic elements embedded in the culture give meaning to the visible communication process. Equally, if not of more importance is the fact that communication is a personal process that involves the exchange of behaviours. Invansevich and Matteson noted that Communication among people does not depend on technology but rather on forces in people and their surroundings. It is a process that occurs within people.

No matter the type or mechanism of communication, every instance of communication must have a message that is being transferred from sender to receiver. In order for communication to be successful, the sender and receiver must have some signs, words or signals in common with each other so the sent message can be understood. The ideal definition of communication is a 2-way interaction between two parties to transmit information and mutual understanding between themselves. The interchange of information from one party to another is best communicated when a discussion is available so the receiver can ask questions and receive answers to clarify the message

There are at least three general types of communication goals:

- 1) Self Presentation Goals (who we are and how we want to be perceived),
- 2) Relational Goals (how we develop, maintain, and terminate relationships),
- 3) Instrumental Goals (how we manipulate others, gain compliance, manage interpersonal conflict, use and recognize interpersonal influence strategies (anchoring and contrast effects, reciprocity, commitment, liking, social proof, authority, and scarcity etc.)

1.6 MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

The essence of "communication" is that it is a process -- an activity that serves to connect senders and receivers of messages through space and time. Although human beings tend to be interested primarily in the study of human

communication, the process is present in all living things and, it can be argued, in all things. From this we may conclude that communication is a fundamental, universal process. It was Aristotle, in his *Rhetoric* who first gave the science a proper framework. He proposed a simplistic model for communication which had as its components, a sender, a receiver and a message. It formed the crux around which the later theories were based. Lasswell later added the concept of a channel, which was to be chosen by the sender. While the field of communication has changed considerably over the last thirty years, the models used in the introductory chapters of communication textbooks. Some of the important models which are used to explain the process of Communication are discussed in this chapter.

1.6.1 SHANNON'S MODEL OF THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Shannon's (1948) model of the communication process is, in important ways, the beginning of the modern field. It provided, for the first time, a general model of the communication process that could be treated as the common ground of such diverse disciplines as journalism, rhetoric, linguistics, and speech and hearing sciences. Part of its success is due to its structuralist reduction of communication to a set of basic constituents that not only explain how communication happens, but why communication sometimes fails. Good timing played a role as well. The world was barely thirty years into the age of mass radio, had arguably fought a world war in its wake, and an even more powerful, television, was about to assert itself. It was time to create the field of communication as a unified discipline, and Shannon's model was as good an excuse as any. The model's enduring value is readily evident in introductory textbooks. It remains one of the first things most students learn about communication when they take an introductory communication class. Indeed, it is one of only a handful of theoretical statements about the communication process that can be found in introductory textbooks in both mass communication and interpersonal communication.

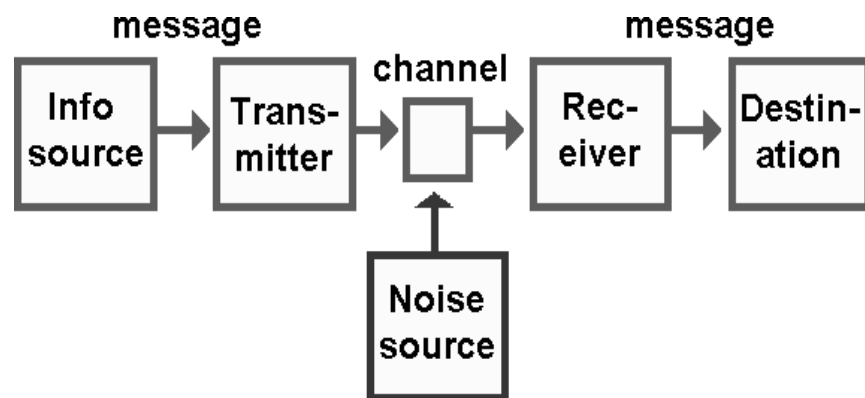


Figure 2 Shannon's Model of the Communication Process

Shannon's model, as shown in Figure 2, breaks the process of communication down into eight discrete components:

1. An information **source**. Presumably a person who creates a message.
 2. The **message**, which is both sent by the information source and received by the destination.
 3. A **transmitter**. For Shannon's immediate purpose a telephone instrument that captures an audio signal, converts it into an electronic signal, and amplifies it for transmission through the telephone network. Transmission is readily generalized within Shannon's information theory to encompass a wide range of transmitters. The simplest transmission system, that associated with face-to-face communication, has at least two layers of transmission. The first, the mouth (sound) and body (gesture), create and modulate a signal. The second layer, which might also be described as a channel, is built of the air (sound) and light (gesture) that enable the transmission of those signals from one person to another. A television broadcast would obviously include many more layers, with the addition of cameras and microphones, editing and filtering systems, a national signal distribution network (often satellite), and a local radio wave broadcast antenna.
 4. The **signal**, which flows through a channel. There may be multiple parallel signals, as is the case in face-to-face interaction where sound and gesture involve different signal systems that depend on different channels and modes of transmission. There may be multiple serial signals, with sound and/or gesture turned into electronic signals, radio waves, or words and pictures in a book.
 5. A carrier or **channel**, which is represented by the small unlabeled box in the middle of the model. The most commonly used channels include air, light, electricity, radio waves, paper, and postal systems. Note that there may be multiple channels associated with the multiple layers of transmission, as described above.
1. **Noise**, in the form of secondary signals that obscure or confuse the signal carried. Given Shannon's focus on telephone transmission, carriers, and reception, it should not be surprising that noise is restricted to noise that obscures or obliterates some portion of the signal within the channel. This is a fairly restrictive notion of noise, by current standards, and a somewhat misleading one. Today we have at least some media which are so noise free that compressed signals are constructed with an absolutely minimal amount information and little likelihood of signal loss. In the process, Shannon's solution to noise, redundancy, has been largely replaced by a minimally redundant solution: error detection and correction. Today we use noise more as a metaphor for problems associated with effective listening.
 2. A **receiver**. In Shannon's conception, the receiving telephone instrument. In face to face communication a set of ears (sound) and eyes (gesture). In television, several layers of receiver, including an antenna and a television set.
 3. A **destination**. Presumably a person who consumes and processes the message.

1.6.2 INTERMEDIARY MODELS OF THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

The intermediary model of communication is frequently depicted in introductory texts in mass communication, focuses on the important role that intermediaries often play in the communication process. There are, many intermediary roles associated with communication. Many of the intermediaries have the ability to decide what messages others see, the context in which they are seen, and when they see them. They often have the ability, moreover, to change messages or to prevent them from reaching an audience (destination). In extreme variations we refer to such gatekeepers as censors. Under the more normal conditions of mass media, in which publications choose some content in preference to other potential content based on an editorial policy, we refer to them as editors (most mass media), moderators (Internet discussion groups), reviewers (peer-reviewed publications), or aggregators (clipping services), among other titles . Delivery workers (a postal delivery worker, for instance) also act as intermediaries, and have the ability to act as gatekeepers, but are generally restricted from doing so as a matter of ethics and/or law.

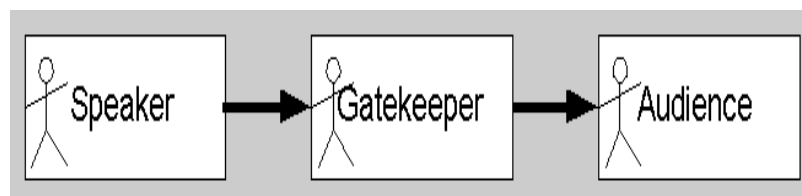


Figure 3 Intermediary Model

1.7 THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Communication is the process of passing information and understanding from one person to another. The communication process involves six basic elements: sender (encoder), message, channel, receiver (decoder), noise, and feedback. Supervisors can improve communication skills by becoming aware of these elements and how they contribute to successful communication. Communication can break down at any one of these elements.

Out of the various models of Communication which have been discussed in the previous pages, the Interactive Model of communication is one of the most used, discussed and implemented model of Communication.

The model of the Communication Process is depicted as follows:

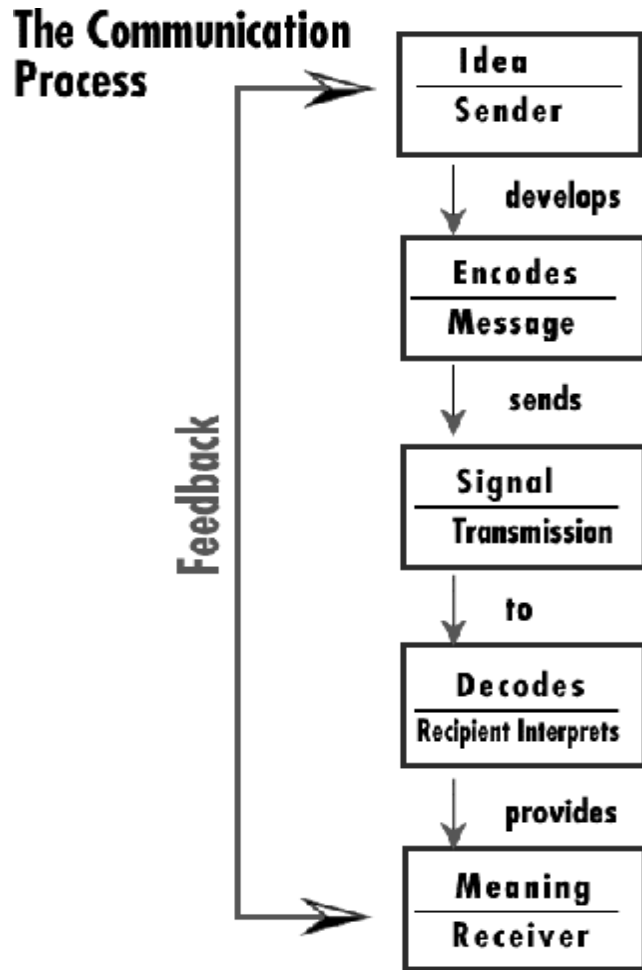


Figure 4 : The Communication Process

Sender Encodes

The **sender** initiates the communication process. When the sender has decided on a meaning, he or she **encodes** a message, and selects a channel for transmitting the message to a receiver. To encode is to put a message into words or images. The **message** is the information that the sender wants to transmit. The medium is the means of communication, such as print, mass, electrical, and digital. As a sender, the supervisor should define the purpose of the message, construct each message with the receiver in mind, select the best medium, time each transmission thoughtfully, and seek feedback.

An external stimuli prompts the sender to send a message. This prompt may arrive in a number of ways: letter, email, fax etc. As the sender thinks of the ideas for the message, he also reacts to the various conditions in his external environment – physical surroundings, weather, noise, discomforts, cultural customs and others. Next, the internal stimuli have a complex influence on how the sender translates ideas into a message. When the sender encodes, his own world of experience, affects his choice of symbols – mental, physical, psychological, semantic. Attitudes, opinions, emotions, past experience, likes and

dislikes, education, job status and communication skills may also influence the way the sender communicates the ideas. Also especially important are the perception of and consideration for the receiver's viewpoint, needs, skills, status, mental ability and experience.

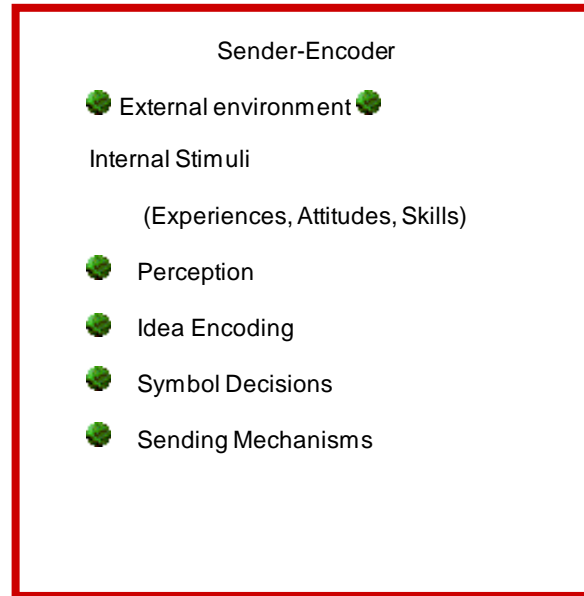


Figure 5 : Sender - Encoder

Words can be verbal - written and spoken. Words are used to create pictures and stories (scenarios) are used to create involvement.

Written communication should be used when the situation is formal, official, or long term; or when the situation affects several people in related ways. Interoffice memos are used for recording informal inquiries or replies. Letters are formal in tone and addressed to an individual. They are used for official notices, formally recorded statements, and lengthy communications. Reports are more impersonal and more formal than a letter. They are used to convey information, analyses, and recommendations. Written communications to groups include bulletin-board notices, posters, exhibits, displays, and audio and visual aids.

Communication and the need to exchange information are no longer constrained by place and time. Email, voice mail, and facsimile have facilitated communications and the sharing of knowledge. **Email** is the computer transmission and storage of written messages. Voice mail is the transmission and storage of digitized spoken messages. **Facsimile** (fax) is the transmission of documents.

Verbal or spoken communication includes informal staff meetings, planned conferences, and mass meetings. Voice and delivery are important. Informal talks are suitable for day-to-day liaison, directions, exchange or information, progress reviews, and the maintenance of effective interpersonal

relations. Planned appointments are appropriate for regular appraisal review and recurring joint work sessions. Planning for an appointment includes preparing, bringing adequate information, and limiting interruptions. Telephone calls are used for quick checkups and for imparting or receiving information.

Teams using information technology have access to information, share knowledge, and construct documents. Meetings take place electronically from multiple locations, saving the organization's resources in both the expenses of physically bringing people from different locations together, and the time lost by employees traveling. **Teleconferencing** is simultaneous group verbal exchanges. Videoconferencing is group verbal and visual exchanges.

Nonverbal Communication

Nonverbal messages include images, actions and behaviors used to communicate. Images include photographs, film, charts, tables, graphs, and video. Nonverbal behaviors include actions, body language, and active listening. Actions and body language include eye contact, gestures, facial expressions, posture, and appearance. The effective communicator maintains eye contact for four to five seconds before looking away. Gestures should be natural and well timed. Grooming and dress should be appropriate for the situation. Listening requires good eye contact, alert body posture, and the frequent use of verbal encouragement.

The **channel** is the path a message follows from the sender to the receiver. Supervisors use *downward* channels to send messages to employees. Employees use *upward* channels to send messages to supervisors. *Horizontal* channels are used when communicating across departmental lines, with suppliers, or with customers. An informal channel is the grapevine. It exists outside the formal channels and is used by people to transmit casual, personal, and social interchanges at work. The **grapevine** consists of rumors, gossip, and truthful information. The supervisor should pay attention to the grapevine, but should not depend on it for accurate information.

Receiver Decodes

Information technology is revolutionizing the way organizational members communicate. Network systems, electronic links among an organization's computer hardware and software, enable members to communicate instantaneously, to retrieve and share information from anyplace, at anytime. The **receiver** is the person or group for whom the communication effort is intended.

Noise is anything that interferes with the communication. Feedback ensures that mutual understanding has taken place in a communication. It is the transfer of information from the receiver back to the sender. The receiver **decodes** or makes out the meaning of the message. Thus, in the feedback loop, the receiver becomes the sender and the sender becomes the receiver.

The receiver, as well as the sender are influenced by non verbal factors such as touch, taste and smell. All these factors demand interpretation, according to individual experiences.

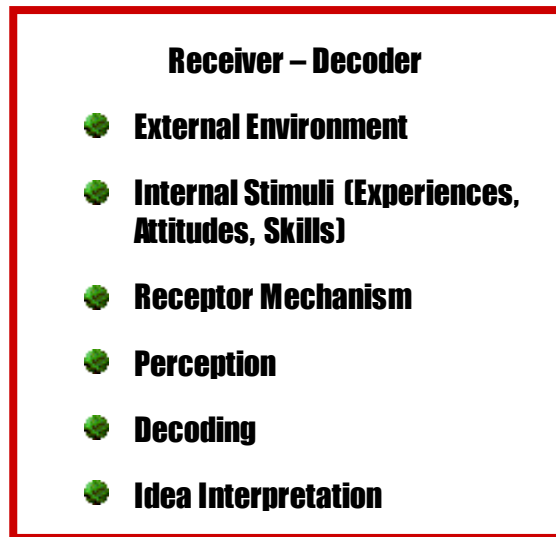


Figure 6 – Receiver – Decoder

1.8 FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNICATION

Communication has been considered to be the bottleneck of Management, where any management function is just not possible to take place without making use of Communication.

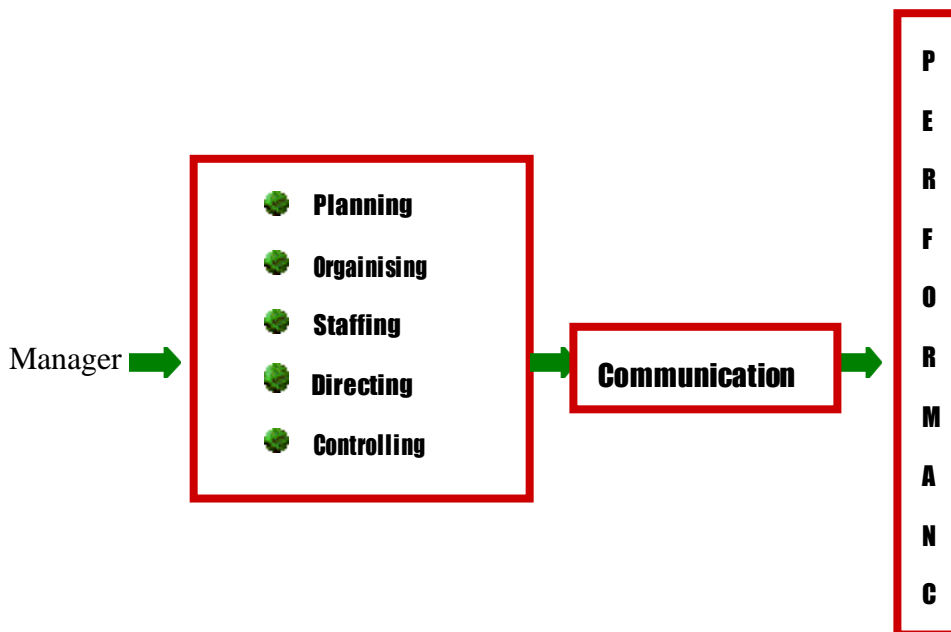


Figure 7: Communication Bottleneck

We can therefore say that Communication serves four major functions in an organisation, these are Control, Motivation, Emotional Expression and Information. Other than these Communication can also

be said to fulfill the following functions in an organisation.

- Instructive Function
- Influence Function
- Integration Function
- Informing Function
- Evaluation Function
- Directing Function
- Teaching Function
- Image Projection Function
- Interview Function

1.9 IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNICATION

Good communication has many advantages for a business: strong communication:

- Motivates employees – helps them feel part of the business (see below)
- Easier to control and coordinate business activity – prevents different parts of the business going in opposite directions
- Makes successful decision making easier for managers– decisions are based on more complete and accurate information
- Better communication with customers will increase sales
- Improve relationships with suppliers and possibly lead to more reliable delivery

Improves chances of obtaining finance – e.g. keeping the bank up-to-date about how the business is doing

Communication is to an organisation what the nervous system is to the human body. Effective Communication will lead to the smooth working of any organisation. The following points illustrate the importance of Communication in Business

- Smooth Working of a Business Firm
- Basis of Managerial Function
- Maximum Production and Minimum Cost
- Prompt Decision and its Implementation
- Building Human Relations
- Job Satisfaction and Good Morale
- Avoids Illusion
- Contacts with external Parties.

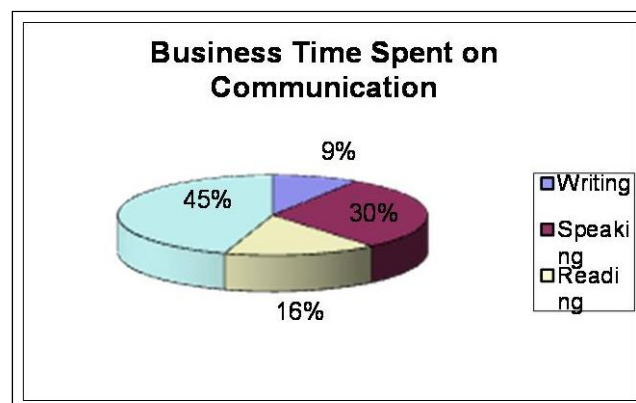


Figure 8: Business Time Spent on Communication

The above given figure explains how much time an individual spends on various perspectives of communication.

THE BASICS OF EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

- Seek to Clarify your ideas before you speak
- Examine the true purpose of each communication
- Consider the Total Physical and Human Setting Whenever you communicate
- Consult with others where appropriate, in planning your communication

The Basics of Effective Communication

1.10 TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

Communication is key to any business success! Unless potential clients and customers are aware of your business, they will not have the information to contact you or to purchase your products. When they are aware of your business, they must be able to contact it easily.



Two types of communication are essential - external and internal.

- **External** communication reaches out to the customer to make them aware of your product or service and to give them a reason to buy. This type of communication includes your brochures, various forms of advertising, contact letters, telephone calls, web sites and anything else that makes the public aware of what you do. Image is extremely important in external communication! Your logo should represent who you are; your letterhead should be a selling tool; your telephone message should reflect your professionalism.

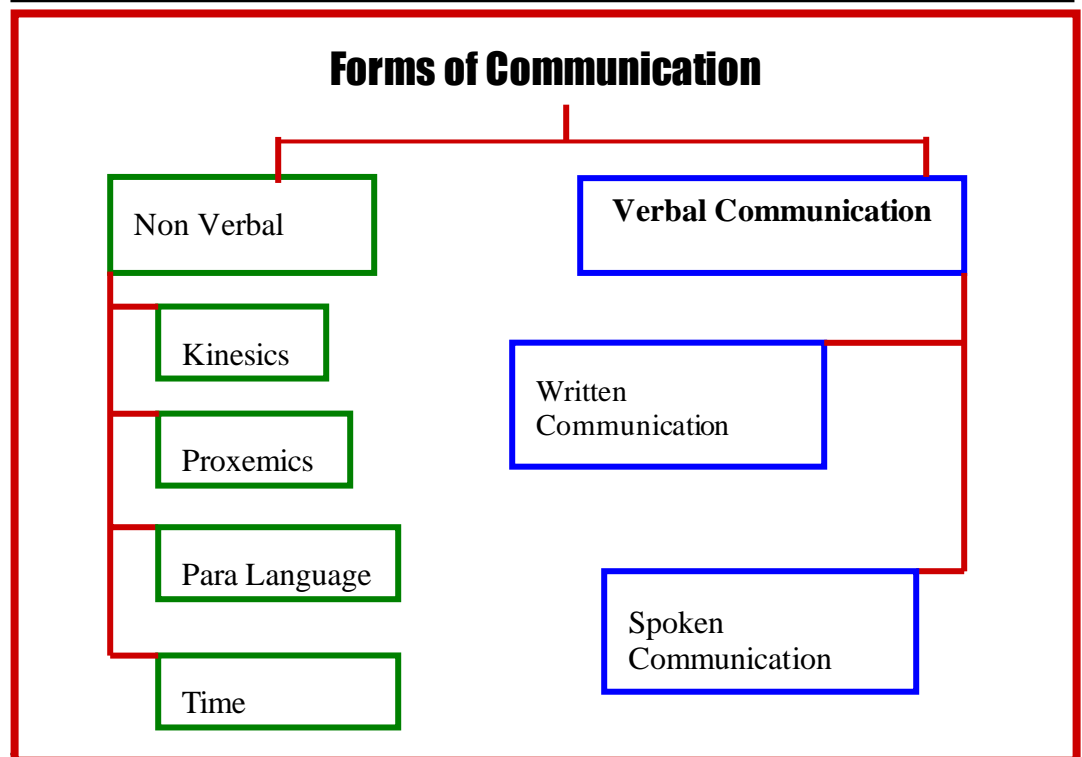
External Communication comprises of Formal contacts with outsiders as well as some informal contacts with outsiders.

- **Internal** communication is essential to attracting and retaining a talented staff. You must provide the direction for the company by consistently communicating that message; you must motivate your staff through various forms of communication, which can include awards, newsletters, meetings, telephone calls and formal and informal discussions. The internal communication is further subdivided into two parts, Formal Communication channel and Informal

Communication Channel. The formal communication network is the official structure of an organisation, which is typically shown as an organisation chart. Information may travel up or down, up or across an organisation hierarchy. But, when managers depend too heavily on formal channels for communicating, they risk encountering ‘distortion’ or misunderstanding. The Informal Communication network in an organisation is basically the grapevine in the organisation. As people go about their work, they have casual conversations with their friends in the office. And this comprises the informal communication channels. Sometimes these informal channels are more strong and effective than the formal communication networks. They also turn out to be speedier than many formal channels of communication.

Effective communication requires tools and planning. In this session, we will discuss those tools, as well as planning guidelines, to facilitate that key element of your business - communication.

The Basic Forms of Communication



Forms of Communication

Communication can broadly be divided into two parts, Non Verbal Communication and Verbal Communication.

UNIT: 2

COMMUNICATION NETWORKS, DIRECTIONS OF COMMUNICATION, TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

Structure

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Objectives
- 2.3 Definition of Communication
- 2.3 Characteristics of Communication
- 2.5 Communication Networks
 - 2.5.1 Formal Communication Network
 - 2.5.2 Informal Communication Network
- 2.6 Directions of Communication
 - 2.6.1 Downward Communication
 - 2.6.2 Upward Communication
 - 2.6.3 Horizontal Communication
 - 2.6.4 Diagonal Communication
- 2.7 Types of Communication
 - 2.7.1 Verbal Communication
 - 2.7.2 Non-Verbal Communication

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Communication is the life blood of any organization and its main purpose is to effect change to influence action. In any organization the main problem is of maintaining effective communication process. The management problem generally results in poor communication. Serious mistakes are made because orders are misunderstood. The basic problem in communication is that the meaning which is actually understood may not be what the other intended to send. It must be realised that the speaker and the listener are two separate individuals having their own limitations and number of things may happen to distort the message that pass between them. When people within the organization communicate with each other, it is internal communication. They do so to work as a team and realise the common goals. It could be official or unofficial. Modes of internal communication include face-to-face and written communication. Memos, reports, office order, circular, fax, video conferencing, meeting etc. are the examples of internal communication. When people in the organization communicate with anyone outside the organization it is called external

communication. These people may be clients or customers, dealers or distributors, media, government, general public etc. are the examples of external communication.

2.2 OBJECTIVES:

After completing this unit you will be able:

- To understand network of communication
- To understand flow of communication in business organization
- To differentiate types of communication
- To know the importance of Verbal and Non Verbal Communication

2.3 DEFINITION OF COMMUNICATION:

Communication in simple terms is a transfer of information between people, resulting in common understanding between them. Communication has been defined differently by different writers and behavioral theorists. Some popular definitions are –

- According to Newman and summer, -Communication is an exchange of facts, ideas, opinions or emotions by two or more persons.¶
- According to Allen Louis, -It is the sum of all the things one person does when he wants to create an understanding in the mind of another.¶
- Bellows, Gilson and Odirone define communication as — A communion by words, letters, symbols or messages, and as a way that one organization member shares meaning with the other.¶
- Hoben defines communication as — The verbal interchange of thoughts or ideas.¶
- In the words of Anderson, -Communication is the process by which we understand others and in turn endeavor to be understood by them. It is dynamic, constantly changing and shifting in response to the total situation.¶
- According to Berelson and Steiner, communication is -the transmission of information, ideas, emotions, skills, etc., by the use of symbols, words, pictures, figures, graphs, etc.¶ It is the act or process of transmission that is usually called communication.¶
- In the words of Fotheringham, -Communication is a process involving the selection, production and transmission of signs in such a way as to help a receiver perceive a meaning similar to that in the mind of the communicator.¶

2.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF COMMUNICATION

Communication has the following characteristics –

- ✓ **It is Unavoidable** – It is impossible to not communicate, since we communicate unintentionally all the time, even without the use of words.

Our body language, the way we dress, the importance we give to arriving on time, our behavior and the physical environment in which we work, all convey certain messages to others.

- It is a Two-way Exchange of Information – Communication is sharing of information between two or more persons, with continuous feedback.
- It is a Process – Each message is part of a process and does not occur in isolation. This means that the meaning attached to a message depends on what has happened before and on the present context. For example, your boss's response to your request for a promotion will depend on your past relationship with him, as well as his mood at that particular moment.
- It involves a Sender and a Receiver of Information – Any communication starts with a sender of a message and requires a receiver to attach some meaning to that message.
- It could be Verbal or Non-verbal – Communication could be through the use of words in spoken or written form, or through the use of body language such as gestures and facial expressions.

It is successful when the Receiver Interprets the Meaning in the Same Way as that intended by the Sender. The receiver does not always attach the same meaning to a message as the sender. When the message is wrongly interpreted, the communication is a failure. This may be due to several reasons, which we will examine later in this unit.

2.5 COMMUNICATION NETWORK

A communication network refers to how information flows within the organization. Information within an organization generally flows through a system, rather than being a free flow. In the words of Adler, -Communication networks are regular patterns of person-to-person relationships through which information flows in an organization.‖ This means that the flow of information is managed, regulated and structured. Communication networks may be formal or informal. We will deal with each of these in some detail.

2.5.1 FORMAL COMMUNICATION NETWORK –

A formal communication network is one which is created by management and described with the help of an organizational chart. An organizational chart specifies the hierarchy and the reporting system in the organization. Therefore, in a formal network, information is passed on only through official channels such as memos, bulletins and intranet (email within the organization). The organizational chart implies that information can flow in any of three directions – vertically, i.e., upward or downward, and horizontally.



2.5.2 INFORMAL COMMUNICATION NETWORK –

Another name for informal networks is the -grapevine. In this type of network, information does not flow in a particular direction, as we have seen with formal networks. The information is also not passed on through official channels such as memos, notices or bulletin boards. The information need not be circulated within the organization, but could be passed on outside the work environment, wherever co-workers or colleagues meet socially. Thus, informal networks are based more on friendship, shared personal or career interests.



Example – Co-workers may meet outside the work environment at a company picnic, party or a car pool and discuss areas of common interest that may or may

not be work related. Information may then be passed on to each other about happenings in the company, such as layoffs, the company's plans for acquisitions and so on.

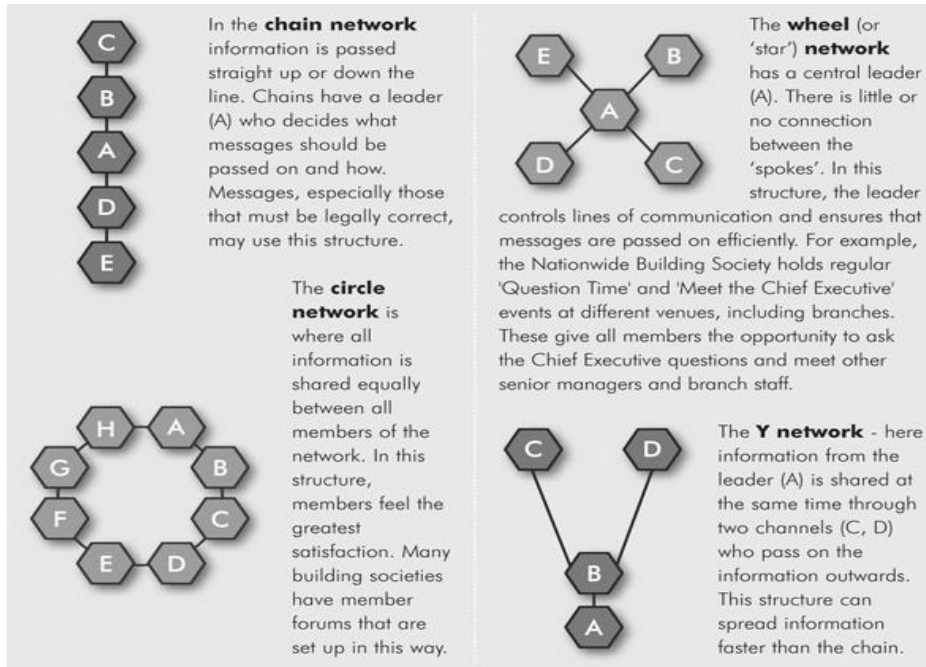
This type of informal network is not just for idle rumors and may be useful in many ways. First of all, it sometimes fills in the -transparency gaps left by formal networks. Such gaps usually occur during times of crisis such as strikes or layoffs. The strikes and layoffs may not be officially announced. Secondly, it may help to confirm important information, such as the fact that the company is going in for a major acquisition. Thirdly, the grapevine can be used for a constructive purpose by the organization.

Example – The government could get the press to publish news in the local paper that there is going to be a petrol price hike soon, just to test the reactions of the general public. If the reaction is negative, then the news may be withdrawn on the basis that it is just a rumor. Similarly, organizations could deliberately plant proposals in the minds of their employees, just to test their reactions.

Given that informal communication networks have their advantages, they should not be suppressed as rumors. On the contrary, competent managers should accept the informal network. At the same time, they should make efforts to counter false rumors and to ensure transparency through the formal network. This means making all types of information - both positive and negative, available to everyone in the organization through official channels. Networks are another aspect of direction and flow of communication. Bavelas has shown that communication patterns, or networks, influence groups in several important ways. Communication networks may affect the group's completion of the assigned task on time, the position of the de facto leader in the group, or they may affect the group members' satisfaction from occupying certain positions in the network. Although these findings are based on laboratory experiments, they have important implications for the dynamics of communication in formal organizations.

There are several patterns of communication:

- "Chain",
- "Wheel",
- "Star",
- "All-Channel" network,
- "Circle"



The Chain can readily be seen to represent the hierarchical pattern that characterizes strictly formal information flow, "from the top down," in military and some types of business organizations. The Wheel can be compared with a typical autocratic organization, meaning one-man rule and limited employee participation. The Star is similar to the basic formal structure of many organizations. The All-Channel network, which is an elaboration of Bavelas's Circle used by Guetzkow, is analogous to the free-flow of communication in a group that encourages all of its members to become involved in group decision processes. The All-Channel network may also be compared to some of the informal communication networks.

If it's assumed that messages may move in both directions between stations in the networks, it is easy to see that some individuals occupy key positions with regard to the number of messages they handle and the degree to which they exercise control over the flow of information. For example, the person represented by the central dot in the "Star" handles all messages in the group. In contrast, individuals who occupy stations at the edges of the pattern handle fewer messages and have little or no control over the flow of information. These "peripheral" individuals can communicate with only one or two other persons and must depend entirely on others to relay their messages if they wish to extend their range.

In reporting the results of experiments involving the Circle, Wheel, and Star configurations, Bavelas came to the following tentative conclusions. In patterns with positions located centrally, such as the Wheel and the Star, an organization quickly develops around the people occupying these central positions. In such patterns, the organization is more stable and errors in performance are lower than

in patterns having a lower degree of centrality, such as the Circle. However, he also found that the morale of members in high centrality patterns is relatively low. Bavelas speculated that this lower morale could, in the long run, lower the accuracy and speed of such networks.

In problem solving requiring the pooling of data and judgments, or "insight," Bavelas suggested that the ability to evaluate partial results, to look at alternatives, and to restructure problems fell off rapidly when one person was able to assume a more central (that is, more controlling) position in the information flow. For example, insight into a problem requiring change would be less in the Wheel and the Star than in the Circle or the Chain because of the "bottlenecking" effect of data control by central members.

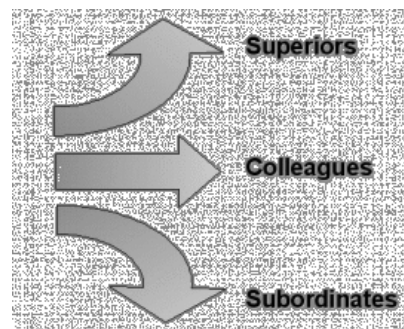
It may be concluded from these laboratory results that the structure of communications within an organization will have a significant influence on the accuracy of decisions, the speed with which they can be reached, and the satisfaction of the people involved. Consequently, in networks in which the responsibility for initiating and passing along messages is shared more evenly among the members, the better the group's morale in the long run.

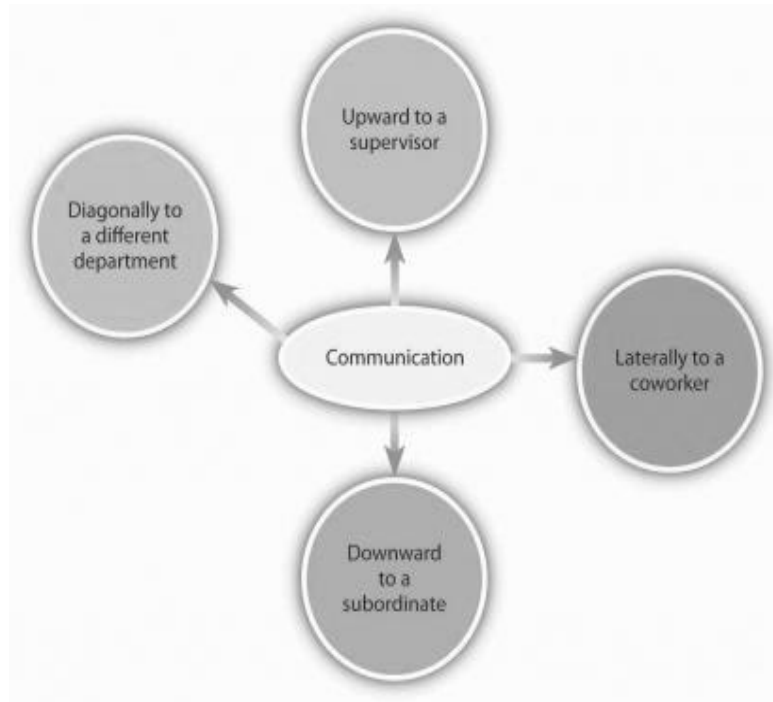
2.6 DIRECTIONS OF COMMUNICATION:

Communication can be either vertical or downward when considering the flow. Communication that moves in both directions – upwards and downwards is termed as Vertical Communication and communication that moves in lateral direction is termed as Horizontal Communication.

Communication can be classified as follows:

- Downward Communication
- Upward Communication
- Horizontal Communication
- Diagonal Communication





2.6.1 DOWNWARD COMMUNICATION –

Downward communication is the information that is exchanged between a manager and a subordinate in other words from top level to low level. In the best of cases, the information is clear and direct. The purpose of such communication is to inform about policies, procedures, programmes and objectives and to issue orders and instructions to the subordinates. The information is sent through verbal or written orders.

The objectives of Downward Communication are:

- To train subordinates in performing the job.
- To motivate employees to improve their performance.
- To know how effectively a person is performing his job.
- To explain organisational policies, programmes and procedures.
- To give instructions about what to do and how to do.
- To highlight the areas of attention

Merits of Downward Communication are:

- **Job Satisfaction** – The management communicates the employees about their better performance in the organization because of which the employees feel motivated.
- **Duty and Authority** – By assigning duties and giving authority to the employees it becomes clear as to what is expected of them and how much authority is vested in them.

- **Plans and Policies** – Through downward communication the employees are informed about the organisational plans and policies.
- **Mission and Goals** – Employees are informed about the mission and goals of the organisation and how they can be an asset by contributing to accomplish the goals.

Demerits of Downward Communication are:

- **Distortion** - In the long line of downward communication, information is very likely to be distorted because of fabrication during interpretation as made by the subordinates. Information to pass through the long chain of command is supposed to lose its originality at every level.
- **Time Consuming** - The line of communication in the downward communication is very long. It takes too much time to transmit the information to the lowest level of management. When information reaches the destination, it is too late & the communication loses its significance.
- **Reduction of Efficiency** - Efficiency is increased when there is a cordial or communicative environment. But downward communication is generally commanding in nature which is against the rules of effective communication. So workers or employees do not get the opportunity to become efficient.
- **Incomplete Information** – Sometimes managers do not communicate the complete information to the team members because they want the team members to be dependent on them. However, managers do not realize that without complete information the team members will not be able to carry out the tasks efficiently.

2.6.2 Upward Communication –

It is non directive in nature. Effective upward communication is possible only when organizations empower their employees and allow them to participate freely in decision making. Through this type of communication employees can communicate information to their superiors freely and can voice their opinion.

Methods of Making Upward Communication More Effective

- **Grievance Redressal Procedure** – It enables employees to bring forward their work related issues to the notice of the top management and seek immediate assistance. General Electric and Federal Express have set up peer review boards where the arguments of both parties are heard and a decision is arrived at.
- **Open Door Policy** – Under this policy employees are free to approach managers at any time and discuss their problems with them.
- **Counseling, Attitude Questionnaires, Exit Interviews** – The personnel department conducts non directive counseling sessions to help employees deal with their work related issues also, questionnaires may be administered periodically to find out about employees attitude towards

work. Exit interviews are held for finding out the reason for leaving and for giving suggestions for improving the workplace.

- **The Ombudsperson** – Through an ombudsperson the employees can have their problems resolved quickly without going through lengthy channels.

2.6.3 Horizontal Communication –

Horizontal communication is necessary to develop a collaborative and proactive culture in an organisation. People communicate with others at their own level, in their own departments or other departments, to solve problems and to share experiences. Devices such as problem clinics and task forces are used for this purpose.

A problem clinic is conducted by people concerned with a problem to diagnose and generate alternative solutions. A task force is constituted of persons from different departments or different sections to work on a given problem and make necessary recommendations to solve the problem.

Horizontal communication involves not only the movement of information from the upper levels to the lower levels of the organizational hierarchy but also is defined primarily as the quality of information sharing among peers at similar levels.

The main objectives of horizontal communication are developing teamwork, and promoting group coordination within an organization. It takes place between professional peer groups or people working on the same level of hierarchy. Horizontal communication is less formal and structured than both downward communication and upward communication, and may be carried out through informal discussions, management gossip, telephone calls, teleconferencing, videoconferencing, memos, routine meetings and so on.

2.6.4 VERTICAL COMMUNICATION –

Vertical communication occurs between various hierarchies. It may be upward or downward. For example manager to employee, general manager to managers, foreman to machine operator, head of the department to cashiers, etc.

Downward communication is more prevalent than upward communication. It is suggested that downward communication is most effective if top managers communicate directly with immediate supervisors and immediate supervisors communicate with their staff.

The major purposes of downward communication are to advise, inform, direct, instruct, and evaluate employees and to provide organization members with information about organizational goals and policies.

2.7 TYPES OF COMMUNICATION:

Communication may be divided into two areas – **verbal and non-verbal communication**. Verbal communication, or communication through words, provides the opportunity for personal contact and two-way flow of information. A large part of our communication, whether at work or outside, is verbal in nature. Verbal communication in turn, may be divided into two areas – oral and written communication. Oral communication may be defined as a process whereby a speaker interacts verbally with one or more listeners, in order to influence the latter's behavior in some way or the other. Oral communication in a business context can take the form of meetings, presentations, one-to-one meetings, performance reviews and so on. Written communication is a process whereby a writer interacts verbally with a receiver, in order to influence the latter's behavior. Written communication at the workplace can take several forms such as letters, memos, circulars, notices, reports and email. We will examine some of these in more detail in later chapters. Non-verbal communication, on the other hand may be defined as communication without words. It refers to any way of conveying meanings without the use of verbal language. The game of 'dumb charades' is a perfect example. Non-verbal communication is generally unintentional, unlike verbal communication. All of us tend to communicate silently and unknowingly send signals and messages by what we do, apart from what we say. Gestures, facial expressions, posture and the way we dress, are all part of non-verbal communication.

Non-verbal communication can have a greater impact than verbal communication, since 'how you say something' is sometimes more important than 'what you say.' Although non-verbal communication can affect both our personal and business relationships, it is particularly important in the workplace.

2.7.1 Verbal Communication

We communicate most of our ideas to others through verbal messages, i.e., through spoken or written messages. However, verbal messages have some drawbacks – the message may not be properly worded, or the message may be misunderstood, or interpreted differently from its intended meaning.



Avoid Words with Multiple Meanings: Words sometimes tend to have different meanings in different cultures.

Therefore, when communicating verbally, it is important to use words that are precise, unambiguous and have a single accepted meaning.

Ensure Clarity through Highly Specific Statements: Instead of describing an object or idea in general terms or in abstract language, use highly specific language to avoid a variety of interpretations.

Avoid overuse of Jargon: Jargon refers to technical terms or specialized vocabulary. Every profession has its own jargon which only experts in that field can understand. For example, IT experts use terms like -computer architecture| which the layperson may not understand. The use of jargon depends on the audience with whom you are communicating. A certain amount of jargon may be permissible when writing a technical report for example, but should be avoided when communicating with a general audience, since the terms may not be understood. Above all, never use jargon just to impress your audience.

Avoid Biased Language and Offensive Words: Language has the power to arouse negative feelings, if it is not used with care. This can happen when the words used seem to be objective, but actually contain an intentional or unintentional bias.

For example, referring to a co-worker as -wishy washy| if he is not quick in making a decision, could lead to misunderstanding and conflict. Similarly, certain words may have a -sexist| connotation and be taken in an offensive way – for example, referring to a lady receptionist as —that female.¶

2.7.2 NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Non-verbal communication can be defined as communication done without speaking or writing. Let us now take a look at some of its characteristics, which distinguish it from verbal communication.

*** Non-verbal Communication Cannot Be Avoided** – While one can avoid verbal communication by refusing to speak or write, it is not possible to do the same with non-verbal communication. That is because non-verbal communication is not always intentional, unlike verbal messages, as pointed out earlier. Sometimes, silence itself may convey a lot of meaning.

Example – A speaker making a presentation may find that the audience is not very interactive. Instead he notices people yawning during his presentation. At the end of the session, when he asks for some feedback, there is total silence. The message conveyed in the above example is that the audience is bored with the session. The silence indicates that they have not listened to the session and that the feedback is negative.

*** Non-verbal Communication is Powerful** – Non-verbal communication helps us to form first impressions and make judgments of others. First impressions generally tend to be lasting impressions.

Let us say you go for a job interview fifteen minutes late and dressed in informal attire. When asked some questions, you avoid eye contact. This immediately reflects on your attitude and the impression formed of you is that of a person who takes things casually, is insecure and lacks knowledge.

*** Non-verbal Communication is Ambiguous** – While precise words can be used in verbal communication to ensure that the message is clearly understood, non-verbal communication is not always clear and easy to understand.

For example, sitting back in a relaxed posture may be a signal of boredom or fatigue. Similarly, avoiding eye contact with your audience could mean that either you are nervous or guilty of something!

Therefore it is not possible to accurately understand the messages conveyed by non-verbal behavior.

*** Non-verbal Communication Cannot Express All Messages** – Non-verbal behavior can only express a person's feelings, attitudes, level of interest, liking or dislike for something. Certain messages about ideas or concepts can only be expressed through the spoken or written word. Consider the following example- A sales manager wanting to report that sales for the current year has exceeded targets, can only do so through a written report or oral presentation. If he is making an oral presentation, his non-verbal behavior can only indicate how pleased he is about the increase in sales.

***Non-verbal Communication Varies Across Cultures** – While certain types of non-verbal behavior are universal, others may be different in different cultures.

Examples – There are different rules regarding the appropriateness of the handshake in oriental and western cultures. Generally, in oriental cultures like India, any form of physical contact is not common and is interpreted as being intimate, while it is an accepted thing in western countries.

Similarly, a nod of the head means yes in some cultures and no in other cultures. In this age of business communication across cultures, it is important for you to understand these differences, especially when doing business overseas. Failure to do this could lead to costly blunders.

Classification of Non-verbal Communication:

We have seen how non-verbal communication plays an important role in business communication. Given its importance, an understanding of the different types of non-verbal communication is essential. There is a common misconception that non-verbal communication is synonymous with body language and includes only body language. The fact is that it is a vast area which has been widely researched and includes several aspects. The table below lists the different types of non-verbal communication, with the corresponding communication terminology.

1 **Kinesics** – This is the most often studied and important area of non-verbal communication and refers to body movements of any kind. Different body movements can express inner states of emotion. Facial Expressions can convey feelings of surprise, happiness, anger and sadness. If you meet a long lost friend and say — I'm very happy to meet you again!, but with a sad facial expression, it conveys the exact opposite meaning. Eye Movements, such as wide open pupils express feelings of surprise, excitement or even fear. The importance of eye contact with one's audience was pointed out earlier. Direct eye contact is an indication of intensity and interest, while lack of it can convey feelings of nervousness and guilt. Gestures, such as movement of the hands while giving a lecture or presentation indicates a high level of involvement in what you are saying. On the other hand, shuffling of the feet is a sign of nervousness and speaking with one's hands in one's pockets is considered to be casual or even rude. Head Movements like nodding the head can convey interest, appreciation, agreement or understanding.

Body Shape and Posture – Body shape is not within one's control but can be stereotyped to convey certain meanings. For example, someone who is strong and muscular is generally thought to be athletic, as opposed to a person who is short and fat!



Posture on the other hand is within our control. In formal settings such as job interviews or classroom settings, it is essential that you maintain an erect posture to convey that you are attentive, since slouching or a relaxed posture conveys a casual attitude.

Physical Appearance – Our outward appearance, including the way we dress and the jewelry and make-up that we wear can convey an impression of formality or informality. Going to a job interview dressed in blue jeans or not sticking to a stipulated dress code at the workplace can convey that you are a rebel, non-conformist or a very casual person.



Therefore, it is important to take care of your appearance, so that you convey the right meaning to others.

1. **Proxemics** – Proxemics is derived from the word -proximity or closeness and is the communication term for personal space and distance. The space and distance which we choose to keep from people is also part of non-verbal communication. Each of us has our own inner and outer circles, which differ for different people.

2.



Our inner most circle is an -intimate space, into which we generally admit only select people such as family and close friends. Next comes a -personal space which might include other friends and colleagues or coworkers. These two spaces involve communication of an informal nature. Most of us also have a -social and public space, which includes official or workplace relationships, where the communication is of a more formal nature. In a business context, it is more relevant to understand the concept of -fixed space and -semi-fixed space.

Fixed space means that the physical features of the work environment such as furniture, room size and seating arrangement are permanent.

This conveys an impression of formality. On the other hand, semi-fixed space means that certain elements of the environment can be changed – for example, the seating arrangement could be changed and this conveys an impression of informality. Sometimes, use of space at the workplace can determine leadership positions. For example, seating at the head of the table conveys leadership or authority. A round table meeting, however, conveys the idea of equality, since no one can be seated at the head of the table! All points of a circle are the same. That is why when heads of state meet (as in UN Security Council meetings), it is always a round table discussion, since all heads are equal. Space should therefore be used carefully in a work environment, so as to convey the right impressions.

3. Time Language – This refers to the meaning or importance attached to time and varies between different people. One person may value time more than another. Similarly, time language also varies across cultures. In most western cultures for example, punctuality is considered to be important. Arriving late for a business meeting is inexcusable. In other cultures, it is more relaxed and time is not given that much importance.

We convey messages to others through the time we spend on a work related activity or by the importance that we give to time. Arriving early at work or for a job interview shows interest, involvement and seriousness. Spending time with an employee and giving him suggestions on how to improve his performance shows interest and involvement in his career growth.

4. Paralanguage – Para means -like or -similar to, therefore paralanguage means -like language. Of all the forms of non-verbal communication, paralanguage is closest to verbal communication. It refers to the tone of voice with which something is said. In other words, it is —how something is said, and not -what is said. The tone of voice includes the pitch (high or low pitch), the pace (slow or fast) the emphasis on words and the volume (soft or loud) and can convey different moods and emotions, as mentioned earlier in this unit. Example: The statement -I practice good business communication can be understood in different ways, depending on the emphasis on certain words.

Saying -I practice good business communication means that I alone practice it above anyone else. On the other hand, saying -I practice good business communication could be interpreted to mean that you communicate particularly well in a business context, rather than in a general context. The important point to keep in mind regarding tone of voice is to avoid mixed signals – that is, making sure that what you say is consistent with how you say it.

5. Physical Context – This refers to the physical environment or surroundings within which we communicate and includes two aspects –

- 1) Color and layout

2) Design.

Colors are known for their symbolic meaning and have associations with different feelings. For example, colors like black and grey are associated with death, mourning and negative feelings. Yellow and green are associated with more positive feelings. Of course, these can also vary across cultures. The point to remember is that you can make the right impressions with use of the right colors. Layout in a work environment refers to the size of an office, or the arrangement of furniture. Design refers to the type of chairs, desks or carpeting. All these can convey status, formality or informality.

We have seen how the types of non-verbal communication outnumber the types of verbal communication. Non-verbal communication is an important supplement to verbal communication and can enhance verbal communication, if used in a positive way. The sender should use the right non-verbal cues to convey a positive message, while the receiver should learn to look for unintended messages conveyed by non-verbal communication.

2.8 GLOSSARY

- **Downward Communication:** Downward communication is the information that is exchanged between a manager and a subordinate in other words from top level to low level.
- **Formal Communication Network:** A formal communication network is one which is created by management and described with the help of an organizational chart.
- **Horizontal Communication:** Communication between employees at the same level in their own departments or other departments, to solve problems and to share experiences is called Horizontal Communication.
- **Informal Communication Network:** In this type of network, information does not flow in a particular direction, as we have seen with formal networks. The information is also not passed on through official channels such as memos, notices or bulletin boards. The information need not be circulated within the organization, but could be passed on outside the work environment, wherever co-workers or colleagues meet socially. Thus, informal networks are based more on friendship, shared personal or career interests.
- **Non-Verbal Communication:** Non-verbal communication can be defined as communication done without speaking or writing. It involves various types of body gestures and postures.
- **Upward Communication:** It is non directive in nature. Effective upward communication is possible only when organizations empower their employees and allow them to participate freely in decision making. Through this type of communication employees can communicate information to their superiors freely and can voice their opinion.

- **Verbal Communication:** Communication done through spoken words is called verbal communication
- **Vertical communication:** Vertical communication occurs between various hierarchies. It maybe upward or downward. For example manager to employee, general manager to managers, foreman to machine operator, head of the department to cashiers, etc.

2.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Define Communication
2. Define Communication Network
3. Explain the Characteristics of Communication
4. Explain Formal Communication Network
5. Explain Informal Communication Network
6. Explain the flow of Communication in the business organisations.
7. Explain the various types of communication in detail.

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UNIT: 3

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ORAL AND WRITTEN COMMUNICATION, DIRECTIONS OF COMMUNICATION, BARRIERS AND GATEWAYS TO COMMUNICATION

Structure

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Objectives
- 3.3 Oral Communication
 - 3.3.1 Meaning of Oral Communication
 - 3.3.2 Advantages of Oral Communication
 - 3.3.3 Limitations of Oral Communication
- 3.4 Written Communication
 - 3.4.1 Meaning of Oral Communication
 - 3.4.2 Advantages of Oral Communication
 - 3.4.3 Limitations of Oral Communication
- 3.5 Difference between Oral Communication and Written Communication
- 3.6 Directions of Communication
 - 3.6.1 Downward Communication
 - 3.6.2 Upward Communication
 - 3.6.3 Horizontal Communication
 - 3.6.4 Diagonal Communication
- 3.7 Barrier and Gateway to Communication
- 3.8 Glossary
- 3.9 Answers to check your progress
- 3.10 References

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The word -communication derived from the Latin word 'communicare' that means to impart, to participate, to share or to make common. It is a process of exchange of facts, ideas, and opinions and as a means that individual or organization share meaning and understanding with one another. In other words, it is a transmission and interacting the facts, ideas, opinion, feeling and attitudes.

It is the ability of mankind to communicate across barriers and beyond boundaries that has ushered the progress of mankind. It is the ability of fostering speedy and effective communication around the world that has shrunk the world and made

_globalization‘ a reality. Communication had a vital role to play in ensuring that people belonging to a particular country or a culture or linguistic group interact with and relate to people belonging to other countries or culture or linguistic group. Communication adds meaning to human life. It helps to build relationship and fosters love and understanding. It enriches our knowledge of the universe and makes living worthwhile.

3.2 OBJECTIVES:

Objective of this unit is to impart knowledge of:

1. Oral and written communication
2. Flow of communication between the various levels of employees within and outside the organization in a business entity.
3. Various obstacles or barriers that come across in the communication

3.3.1 ORAL COMMUNICATION - MEANING

Oral communication implies communication through mouth. It includes individuals conversing with each other, be it direct conversation or telephonic conversation. Speeches, presentations, discussions are all forms of oral communication. Oral communication is generally recommended when the communication matter is of temporary kind or where a direct interaction is required. Face to face communication (meetings, lectures, conferences, interviews, etc.) is significant so as to build a rapport and trust.

3.3.2 ADVANTAGES OF ORAL COMMUNICATION

- There is high level of understanding and transparency in oral communication as it is interpersonal.
- There is no element of rigidity in oral communication. There is flexibility for allowing changes in the decisions previously taken.
- The feedback is spontaneous in case of oral communication. Thus, decisions can be made quickly without any delay.
- Oral communication is not only time saving, but it also saves upon money and efforts.
- Oral communication is best in case of problem resolution. The conflicts, disputes and many issues/differences can be put to an end by talking them over.
- Oral communication is an essential for teamwork and group energy.
- Oral communication promotes a receptive and encouraging morale among organizational employees.
- Oral communication can be best used to transfer private and confidential information/matter

3.3.3 DISADVANTAGES /LIMITATIONS OF ORAL COMMUNICATION

- Relying only on oral communication may not be sufficient as business communication is formal and very organized.
- Oral communication is less authentic than written communication as they are informal and not as organized as written communication.
- Oral communication is time-saving as far as daily interactions are concerned, but in case of meetings, long speeches consume lot of time and are unproductive at times.
- Oral communications are not easy to maintain and thus they are unsteady.
- There may be misunderstandings as the information is not complete and may lack essentials.
- It requires attentiveness and great receptivity on part of the receivers/audience.
- Oral communication (such as speeches) is not frequently used as legal records except in investigation work.

3.4.1 WRITTEN COMMUNICATION - MEANING

Written communication has great significance in today's business world. It is an innovative activity of the mind. Effective written communication is essential for preparing worthy promotional materials for business development. Speech came before writing. But writing is more unique and formal than speech. Effective writing involves careful choice of words, their organization in correct order in sentences formation as well as cohesive composition of sentences. Also, writing is more valid and reliable than speech. But while speech is spontaneous, writing causes delay and takes time as feedback is not immediate.

3.4.2 ADVANTAGES OF WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

- Written communication helps in laying down apparent principles, policies and rules for running of an organization.
- It is a permanent means of communication. Thus, it is useful where record maintenance is required.
- It assists in proper delegation of responsibilities. While in case of oral communication, it is impossible to fix and delegate responsibilities on the grounds of speech as it can be taken back by the speaker or he may refuse to acknowledge.
- Written communication is more precise and explicit.
- Effective written communication develops and enhances an organization's image.
- It provides ready records and references.
- Legal defenses can depend upon written communication as it provides valid records.

3.4.3 DISADVANTAGES OF WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

- Written communication does not save upon the costs. It costs huge in terms of stationery and the manpower employed in writing/typing and delivering letters.
- Also, if the receivers of the written message are separated by distance and if they need to clear their doubts, the response is not spontaneous.
- Effective written communication requires great skills and competencies in language and vocabulary use. Poor writing skills and quality have a negative impact on organization's reputation.
- Written communication is time-consuming as the feedback is not immediate. The encoding and sending of message takes time.
- Too much paper work and e-mails burden is involved.

3.5 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ORAL AND WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

Most of us intuitively understand that there are differences between oral and written language. All communication includes the transfer of information from one person to another, and while the transfer of information is only the first step in the process of understanding a complex phenomenon, it is an important first step. Writing is a fairly static form of transfer. Speaking is a dynamic transfer of information. To be an effective speaker, you must exploit the dynamism of oral communication, but also learn to work within its limitations. While there is a higher level of immediacy and a lower level of retention in the spoken word, a speaker has more ability to engage the audience psychologically and to use complex forms of non-verbal communication

The written language can be significantly more precise. Written words can be chosen with greater deliberation and thought, and a written argument can be extraordinarily sophisticated, intricate, and lengthy. These attributes of writing are possible because the pace of involvement is controlled by both the writer and the reader. The writer can write and rewrite at great length, a span of time which in some cases can be measured in years. Similarly, the reader can read quickly or slowly or even stop to think about what he or she has just read. More importantly, the reader always has the option of re-reading; even if that option is not exercised, its mere possibility has an effect upon a reader's understanding of a text. The written word appeals more to a contemplative, deliberative style.

Speeches can also be precise and indeed they ought to be. But precision in oral communication comes only with a great deal of preparation and compression. Once spoken, words cannot be retracted, although one can apologize for a mistake and improvise a clarification or qualification. One can read from a written text and achieve the same degree of verbal precision as written communication. But word-for-word reading from a text is not speech-making, and in most circumstances audiences find speech-reading boring and retain very little of the information transmitted.

On the other hand, oral communication can be significantly more effective in expressing meaning to an audience. This distinction between precision and effectiveness is due to the extensive repertoire of signals available to the speaker: gestures, intonation, inflection, volume, pitch, pauses, movement, visual cues such as appearance, and a whole host of other ways to communicate meaning. A speaker has significantly more control over what the listener will hear than the writer has over what the reader will read. For these techniques to be effective, however, the speaker needs to make sure that he or she has the audience's attention--audiences do not have the luxury of re-reading the words spoken. The speaker, therefore, must become a reader of the audience.

Reading an audience is a systematic and cumulative endeavor unavailable to the writer. As one speaks, the audience provides its own visual cues about whether it is finding the argument coherent, comprehensible, or interesting. Speakers should avoid focusing on single individuals within an audience. There are always some who scrunch up their faces when they disagree with a point; others will stare out the window; a few rude (but tired) persons will fall asleep. These persons do not necessarily represent the views of the audience; much depends upon how many in the audience manifest these signals. By and large, one should take the head-nodders and the note-takers as signs that the audience is following one's argument. If these people seem to outnumber the people not paying attention, then the speech is being well-received. The single most important bit of evidence about the audience's attention, however, is eye contact. If members of the audience will look back at you when you are speaking, then you have their attention. If they look away, then your contact with the audience is probably fading.

Speeches probably cannot be sophisticated and intricate. Few audiences have the listening ability or background to work through a difficult or complex argument, and speakers should not expect them to be able to do so. Many speakers fail to appreciate the difficulties of good listening, and most speakers worry about leaving out some important part of the argument. One must be acutely aware of the tradeoff between comprehensiveness and comprehension. Trying to put too much into a speech is probably the single most frequent error made by speakers.

This desire to "say everything" stems from the distinctive limitations of speeches: after a speech, one cannot go back and correct errors or omissions, and such mistakes could potentially cripple the persuasiveness of a speech. A speaker cannot allow himself or herself to fall into this mentality. At the outset, a speaker must define an argument sharply and narrowly and must focus on only that argument. There are certainly implications of an argument that are important but cannot be developed within the speech. These aspects should be clearly acknowledged by the speaker, but deferred to a question-and-answer period, a

future speech, or a reference to a work that the audience can follow-up on its own. Speakers must exercise tight and disciplined control over content.

As a rule of thumb, the audience will remember about one-half of what was said in a twenty-minute talk. After twenty-minutes, recall drops off precipitously. Oral arguments should therefore be parsed down as much as possible. There are very few circumstances in which an audience will recall a great deal of the information in a speech longer than twenty minutes. Most evidence suggests that audience recall declines precipitously after 16 and one-half minutes.

Oral communication uses words with fewer syllables than the written language, the sentences are shorter, and self-referencing pronouns such as I are common. Oral communication also allows incomplete sentences if delivered properly, and many sentences will begin with "and," "but," and "except." The upshot of these differences is that one should not think about speeches as oral presentations of a written text. Speeches are genuinely different from written prose, and one should not use the logic of writing as a basis for writing a speech.

3.6 DIRECTIONS OF COMMUNICATION:

Communication can be either vertical or downward when considering the flow. Communication that moves in both directions – upwards and downwards is termed as Vertical Communication and communication that moves in lateral direction is termed as Horizontal Communication.

Communication can be classified as follows:

- Downward Communication
- Upward Communication
- Horizontal Communication
- Diagonal Communication

3.6.1 DOWNWARD COMMUNICATION -

Downward communication is the information that is exchanged between a manager and a subordinate in other words from top level to low level. In the best of cases, the information is clear and direct. The purpose of such communication is to inform about policies, procedures, programmes and objectives and to issue orders and instructions to the subordinates. The information is sent through verbal or written orders.

The objectives of Downward Communication are:

- To train subordinates in performing the job.
- To motivate employees to improve their performance.
- To know how effectively a person is performing his job.
- To explain organisational policies, programmes and procedures.

- To give instructions about what to do and how to do.
- To highlight the areas of attention

Merits of Downward Communication are:

- Job Satisfaction – The management communicates the employees about their better performance in the organization because of which the employees feel motivated.
- Duty and Authority – By assigning duties and giving authority to the employees it becomes clear as to what is expected of them and how much authority is vested in them.
- Plans and Policies – Through downward communication the employees are informed about the organisational plans and policies.
- Mission and Goals – Employees are informed about the mission and goals of the organisation and how they can be an asset by contributing to accomplish the goals.

Demerits of Downward Communication are:

- Distortion - In the long line of downward communication, information is very likely to be distorted because of fabrication during interpretation as made by the subordinates. Information to pass through the long chain of command is supposed to lose its originality at every level.
- Time Consuming - The line of communication is the downward communication is very long. It takes too much time to transmit the information to the lowest level of management. When information reaches the destination, it is too late & the communication loses its significance.
- Reduction of Efficiency - Efficiency is increased when there is a cordial or communicative environment. But downward communication is generally commanding in nature which is against the rules of effective communication. So workers or employees do not get the opportunity to become efficient.
- Incomplete Information – Sometimes managers do not communicate the complete information to the team members because they want the team members to be dependent on them. However, managers do not realize that without complete information the team members will not be able to carry out the tasks efficiently.

3.6.2 UPWARD COMMUNICATION –

It is non directive in nature. Effective upward communication is possible only when organizations empower their employees and allow them to participate freely in decision making. Through this type of communication employees can communicate information to their superiors freely and can voice their opinion.

Methods of Making Upward Communication More Effective

- **Grievance Redressal Procedure** – It enables employees to bring forward their work related issues to the notice of the top management and seek immediate assistance. General Electric and Federal Express have set up peer review boards where the arguments of both parties are heard and a decision is arrived at.
- **Open Door Policy** – Under this policy employees are free to approach managers at any time and discuss their problems with them.
- **Counseling, Attitude Questionnaires, Exit Interviews** – The personnel department conducts non directive counseling sessions to help employees deal with their work related issues also, questionnaires may be administered periodically to find out about employees attitude towards work. Exit interviews are held for finding out the reason for leaving and for giving suggestions for improving the workplace.
- **The Ombudsperson** – Through an ombudsperson the employees can have their problems resolved quickly without going through lengthy channels.

3.6.3 HORIZONTAL COMMUNICATION –

Horizontal communication is necessary to develop a collaborative and proactive culture in an organisation. People communicate with others at their own level, in their own departments or other departments, to solve problems and to share experiences. Devices such as problem clinics and task forces are used for this purpose. A problem clinic is conducted by people concerned with a problem to diagnose and generate alternative solutions. A task force is constituted of persons from different departments or different sections to work on a given problem and make necessary recommendations to solve the problem.

Horizontal communication involves not only the movement of information from the upper levels to the lower levels of the organizational hierarchy but also is defined primarily as the quality of information sharing among peers at similar levels.

The main objectives of horizontal communication are developing teamwork, and promoting group coordination within an organization. It takes place between professional peer groups or people working on the same level of hierarchy. Horizontal communication is less formal and structured than both downward communication and upward communication, and may be carried out through informal discussions, management gossip, telephone calls, teleconferencing, videoconferencing, memos, routine meetings and so on.

3.6.4 VERTICAL COMMUNICATION -

Vertical communication occurs between various hierarchies. It maybe upward or downward. For example manager to employee, general manager to managers, foreman to machine operator, head of the department to cashiers, etc.

Downward communication is more prevalent than upward communication. It is suggested that downward communication is most effective if top managers communicate directly with immediate supervisors and immediate supervisors communicate with their staff.

The major purposes of downward communication are to advise, inform, direct, instruct, and evaluate employees and to provide organization members with information about organizational goals and policies.

3.7 BARRIERS AND GATEWAYS TO COMMUNICATION

No matter how good the communication system in an organization is, unfortunately barriers can and do often occur. This may be caused by a number of factors which can usually be summarised as being due to physical barriers, system design faults or additional barriers.

Perceptual Barrier: This is one of the most common barriers to communication because different people interpret our actions, words and mannerisms in different ways. People want to receive those messages which are of significance to them. Perceptions of people differ and depend on the cultural, emotional, personal and spiritual background of the person. People normally tend to assume things rather than clarifying it with the other person. When this happens, communication is blocked right away and conflict arises. That is why it is important to clarify things before reacting.

Language Barrier: Language is another barrier to communication. Sometimes, we don't realize and we use such words or phrases which may or may not be understood by the other person, thus leading to a barrier. This could be words from a dialect that is not common to the people in your office or it could be jargon that others don't know the meaning to.

Therefore, one should only use such words which are common and easily understood by all rather than showing off how good a grasp you have over the language and unnecessary causing a barrier between you and the listener.

Interpersonal Barriers to Communication: Interpersonal barriers, on the other hand, are barriers to communication that come as a result of the way different people relate to one another. Some people may lack the social skills, therefore they withdraw. Others may find it hard to make time to get to know their co-workers on a more personal level because of their routines like work, and after office activities.

Information Overload: Managers are surrounded with a pool of information. It is essential to control this information flow else the information is likely to be

misinterpreted or forgotten or overlooked. As a result communication is less effective.

Time Pressures: Often in organization the targets have to be achieved within a specified time period, the failure of which has adverse consequences. In a haste to meet deadlines, the formal channels of communication are shortened, or messages are partially given, i.e., not completely transferred. Thus sufficient time should be given for effective communication.

Distraction/Noise: Communication is also affected a lot by noise to distractions. Physical distractions are also there such as, poor lightning, uncomfortable sitting, unhygienic room also affects communication in a meeting. Similarly use of loud speakers interferes with communication.

Emotions: Emotional state at a particular point of time also affects communication. If the receiver feels that communicator is angry he interprets that the information being sent is very bad. While he takes it differently if the communicator is happy and jovial (in that case the message is interpreted to be good and interesting).

Complexity in Organizational Structure: Greater the hierarchy in an organization (i.e. more the number of managerial levels), more is the chances of communication getting destroyed. Only the people at the top level can see the overall picture while the people at low level just have knowledge about their own area and a little knowledge about other areas.

Poor retention: Human memory cannot function beyond a limit. One can't always retain what is being told specially if he is not interested or not attentive. This leads to communication breakdown.

CASE STUDY NO. 1: BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Throughout history, many great communicators have mused about how difficult it is for people to effectively communicate — even those who speak the same language! Some scholars cite how subtle differences in age and style can potentially create real challenges in successful communication. Case in point might be the stereotypical communication challenges faced between teenagers and parents, husbands and wives, conservatives and liberals. These same kinds of communication issues appear in the work world, as well.

I was asked to work with a director and one of her high level computer technicians. This technician was responsible for a major account significant to this director. This technician had the ability to accomplish his work successfully, but it seemed he was horrible at communication and customer support. These two areas of deficit were greatly jeopardizing this major account, not to mention putting the tech's continued employment in question.

The director, the technician and I sat down for a meeting to see what could be done to clarify the communication and customer service issues. The director spoke very clearly about what she expected of the technician when he met with the clients and when he interacted with others (both clients and colleagues). The technician nodded in agreement and said that he understood the gravity of the situation. He said he understood what he was doing wrong and assured his director that he would "improve." After they were finished discussing the communication and customer service issues, and the detailed procedures the director had clarified for him, I asked the technician what his next steps were going to be to improve his standing with the clients on this major account. He looked at me and said, "I have no idea." The director looked dumbfounded; her mouth was literally hanging open. She was without words. She believed she had been very clear. She believed the technician had nodded in agreement to all of the well-thought out plans she had presented, yet clearly now he didn't know what his next steps should be. This was an example of an unsuccessful communication event.

I further asked the technician a series of questions and led him through the necessary steps, in his mind, using his metaphors and word choices. We essentially created his game plan in a manner that he could comprehend. We clarified expectations, created measures of success, and established timeframes. With that now visually and firmly in his mind, he was able to summarize his next steps. The technician left the meeting relieved. Over a reasonable period of time, evidence indicated that this technician had indeed learned some new communication skills and his customer relations had improved accordingly.

At the conclusion of the meeting with the technician, the Director and I spent thirty minutes debriefing. We discussed different learning and management styles. She was amazed how her message which had been so clearly intended and what she thought was so clearly sent, was not the message received or understood. This realization was a profound one for her. She vowed to check for understanding more often and especially when she interacted with this technician. She wanted him to succeed and had never seen the role she had played in the breakdown of communication between them. She saw how, as the person delivering a message, she had the responsibility to be sure the message had been received and understood. In the case of the technician, she needed to reframe her message in terms that made sense to him, ask him to summarize it back to her, and then review his next steps, so both she and he would leave the communication event with the same understanding. Although she had believed herself to be a skilled communicator (and by many measures she was), she learned that in this isolated event, she had needed a new set of communication skills. She foresaw how she could also generalize these new skills with other people and different situations. She had added another strategy to her repertoire of positive communication skills, one that would help her to be a better leader in the future.

CASE STUDY NO.2 : “CASE STUDY ON COMMUNICATION CHALLENGES” – PROF. M.S. RAO

There are several challenges in communication that take place in daily life. If we identify the challenges we can eliminate and ensure better understanding among the individuals. We shall take a case study on communication that helps in averting any misunderstanding among the people.

Ken worked in a research department for a year as a researcher and he was laid off as the entire department was closed due to recession. He decided to meet the CEO for a possible outplacement as the organization had several other departments to accommodate him. However the secretary of the CEO, Diana did not permit Ken to meet by saying that CEO was busy. Ken returned without meeting the CEO. He got better employment opportunity elsewhere and joined.

Ken, being a researcher, wrote an article for an international journal while working in the research department. It was published after 9 months and received complimentary copies from the publisher. Therefore, Ken wanted to share the successful publication with his former CEO and went to meet him to gift the book as a complimentary copy. Below was the conversation Ken had with the secretary of the CEO.

Ken: I would appreciate if you could arrange an appointment with CEO. I want..... (Secretary interrupted)

Secretary: Why did you come? We had already handed over your resume to Jim for outplacement. You may go now.

Ken: I did not come for employment opportunity. Don't assume that people would come here for employment only. I have come to gift a complimentary copy where my article featured in international journal. The CEO would be glad to share the success.

Secretary: No, No, the CEO sees everything and knows everything as every article publication is known to him.

Ken: It is not departmental journal. It is a prestigious journal globally and I want to inform him and gift the book.

Secretary: -You will not get appointment. The CEO is busy| said firmly.

Ken: I anticipated that CEO would be busy and I have already written the details of my name over the complimentary copy.

Secretary: Okay, leave it and go. (She said impolitely and started looking here and there)

Ken handed over the complimentary copy to Secretary.

Ken: Fine, please hand over to CEO. I am leaving the place. However, I will send an email to CEO about my coming physically to gift the book. (Secretary probably worried as the Ken had already mentally prepared to send the email and

keep the CEO informed. If Secretary had any intention to skip handing over the complimentary copy, CEO will know as Ken would send mail.)

Ken handed over the complimentary copy to Secretary and departed the office. He sent an email to his ex-CEO about his coming and he could not meet as the latter was busy with his schedules.

After 5 hours, the Secretary telephoned Ken and said firmly, -CEO told to return the book to you. You come and take the book back. Ken replied, -It is the complimentary copy meant for the CEO only. Secretary insisted to take back the book immediately. Ken told Secretary to courier and he was about to give his address. Secretary interrupted Ken's conversation and replied, -No we don't send you through courier. You have to come and take. Ken responded politely, -Right now, I am far away from that place. When I come to that area I would take back the book.

The very next day, Ken received email from his ex-CEO congratulating Ken for the publication and thanked for coming all the way to gift the book. Ken felt excited that his ex-CEO was pleased with publication.

QUESTIONS:

- 1 What were the communication challenges in the above case study?
- 2 Was the Secretary right in avoiding the Ken who came all the way from long distance to gift the complimentary copy?
- 3 Was it right for Secretary in insisting to come and take the complimentary copy back physically instead of couriating?
- 4 Was Secretary a good listener?
- 5 Did Secretary empathize with Ken?
- 6 What were the other challenges prevented smooth communication between Ken and Secretary?

ACTION TO TAKE:

- It requires lot of clarity and persuasion in communicating in such situations.
- People need to break their pre-conceived notions and mindset.
- They should suspend their judgment that prevents from listening.
- They need to open up their minds and hearts for effective listening and better communication.
- In such situation the Ken should have waited for sometime till the secretary gets freed mentally to communicate.
- Inner dialogue or inner conversation that takes place among all human beings is often the culprit of communication. The Secretary had lot of inner conversation that prevented from listening.
- Sandwich feedback is essential to communicate and correct and exit smoothly from such a situation.
- The secretary had excessive ego that would have resulted into a conflict had Ken not exited smoothly after getting instructions to leave the place.

Takeaways:

At times, the people those who work with higher officials try to create rift because of their excessive egoism which may arise out of their accessibility to higher officials or miscommunication or the inability to empathize, understand and appreciate others.

Sometimes preconceived notions prevent communication. When the reality goes against their pre-conceived notions, people start defending and stop observing the cues of others' body language because of high ego. There are barriers and filters that prevent smooth communication. Barriers are physical in nature such as external disturbances and distractions that prevent listening. Similarly filters are psychological in nature that take place within the mind such as biased thinking, inner conversation which might become noise while listening, pre-conceived notions, being pre-occupied with other activities and excessive ego. In this context the Secretary had filters rather barriers that prevented effective communication.

At times, the metal kettle that stores and serves tea is hotter than the tea itself. A few secretaries think too much bigger than their bosses. They become too big for their shoes.

3.8 GLOSSARY

Oral communication implies communication through mouth. It includes individuals conversing with each other, be it direct conversation or telephonic conversation. Speeches, presentations, discussions are all forms of oral communication.

Downward Communication - Downward communication is the information that is exchanged between a manager and a subordinate in other words from top level to low level.

Upward Communication – It is non directive in nature. Effective upward communication is possible only when organizations empower their employees and allow them to participate freely in decision making. Through this type of communication employees can communicate information to their superiors freely and can voice their opinion.

Horizontal Communication – Horizontal communication is necessary to develop a collaborative and proactive culture in an organisation. People communicate with others at their own level, in their own departments or other departments, to solve problems and to share experiences.

Vertical Communication - Vertical communication occurs between various hierarchies.

It may be upward or downward. For example manager to employee, general manager to managers, foreman to machine operator, head of the department to cashiers, etc.

3.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Define Oral Communication
2. Define Written Communication
3. Explain the Flow or Direction of Communication.
4. Explain the various barriers in communication.

3.10 REFERENCES

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LISTENING: DEFINITION, TYPES AND LEVELS OF LISTENING; KEYS TO EFFECTIVE LISTENING

INTRODUCTION

Listening does not mean simply maintaining a polite silence nor does listening mean waiting alertly for the flaws in the other fellow's argument so that later you can mow him down.

Listening means trying to see the problem the way the speaker sees it-- which means not sympathy, which is a feeling for him, but empathy, which is experiencing with him. Listening requires entering actively and imaginatively into the other fellow's situation and trying to understand a frame of reference different from your own. This is not always an easy task.

Because people are not generally taught how to listen, they are simply told to listen, for most it develops into an unconscious skill. You may direct your ears to listen to the words, but effective listening is about far more than just hearing the words that echo in your ears. Listening is an integral part of the whole

communication cycle. Your listening habits come from many sources, starting from your childhood to any training you received in school or in the college and values developed through life experience. In addition, your natural strengths and deep-seated traits have an impact on how you listen now. When you are taught to listen, you learn such things as:

- don't interrupt
- make eye contact
- put your attention on the speaker
- give feedback in the form of acknowledgement
- ask questions to encourage the speaker to continue
- ask questions to clarify understanding

But effective listening is far more than just the technical, observable actions described above. Different situations require different types of listening. We may listen to obtain information, improve a relationship, gain appreciation for something, make discriminations, or engage in a critical evaluation. "There are four elements of good listening:

1. Attention--the focused perception of both visual and verbal stimuli
2. Hearing--the physiological act of 'opening the gates to your ears'
3. Understanding--assigning meaning to the messages received
4. Remembering--the storing of meaningful information

7.1.1 DEFINITION

According to Frank Tyger "Hearing is one of the body's five senses, but listening is an art."

-Listening is the process of making sense out of what we hear. Listening is an active process of receiving, processing, and interpreting the hearing stimuli. The International Listening Association defines -Listening as the process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken and/or nonverbal messages.¶

Listening can also be defined as -Receiving message in a thoughtful manner and understanding meaning in the message.¶

7.1.2 COMPARISON OF COMMUNICATION ACTIVITIES

Communication is a process by which information is transmitted between individuals and/or organization so that an understanding response results. It is an exchange of facts, ideas, opinions, attitudes, judgments or emotions.

-The most important thing in communication is to hear what isn't being said¶ - Peter F. Drucker.

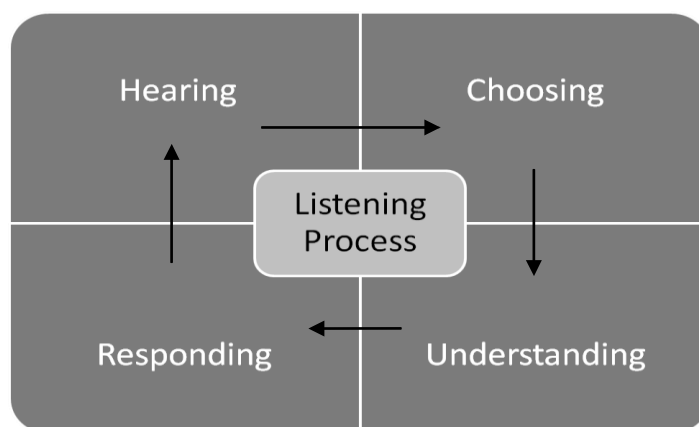
	LISTENING	SPEAKING	READING	WRITING
LEARNED	First	Second	Third	Fourth
USED	Most	Next to most	Next to least	Least
TAUGHT	Least	Next to least	Next to most	Most

Used Listening 45% Speaking 30% Reading 16% Writing 9%

7.1.3 WHAT KIND OF LISTENER ARE YOU?

- | Active listener – The listener participates fully in the communication process. You listen attentively, provide feedback, and strive to understand and remember messages.
- | Passive listener – The listener does not actively participate in interactions. They think they can absorb information even when they do not contribute to the interaction. They place the responsibility for successful communication on the speaker.
- | Impatient listener – Short bursts of active listening are interrupted by noise and other distractions. They intend to pay attention, but allow their minds to wander.

7.1.4 LISTENING PROCESS



Hearing - It refers to the response caused by sound waves stimulating the sensory receptors of the ear; it is physical response; hearing is perception of sound waves; you must hear to listen, but you need not listen to hear (perception necessary for listening depends on attention).

Choosing - Brain screens stimuli and permits only a select few to come into focus- these selective perception is known as attention, an important requirement for effective listening; strong stimuli like bright lights, sudden noise...are

attention getters; attention to more commonplace or less striking stimuli requires special effort.

Understanding- To understand symbols we have seen and heard, we must analyze the meaning of the stimuli we have perceived; symbolic stimuli are not only words but also sounds like applause... and sights like blue uniform...that have symbolic meanings as well; the meanings attached to these symbols are a function of our past associations and of the context in which the symbols occur; for successful interpersonal communication, the listener must understand the intended meaning and the context assumed by the sender.

Responding - This stage requires that the receiver complete the process through verbal and/or nonverbal feedback; because the speaker has no other way to determine if a message has been received, this stage becomes the only overt means by which the sender may determine the degree of success in transmitting the message.

LISTENING

HOW YOU SPEND YOUR DAY:
STUDENTS SPEND ...
9% OF THEIR TIME WRITING
16% OF THEIR TIME READING
30 % OF THEIR TIME SPEAKING AND
45% OF THEIR TIME LISTENING!!!





7.2 OBJECTIVES

In this unit you will learn and understand:

- What is listening
- Types of listening
- Levels of listening
- Key to effective listening
- Benefits of improved listening

7.3 TYPES OF LISTENING

Different situations require different types of listening. We may listen to obtain information, improve a relationship, gain appreciation for something, make discriminations, or engage in a critical evaluation. While certain skills are basic and necessary for all types of listening (receiving, attending, and understanding), each type requires some special skills.

7.3.1 INFORMATIVE LISTENING

Informative listening is a type of listening where the listener's primary concern is to understand the message. Listeners are successful insofar as the meaning they assign to messages is as close as possible to that which the sender intended.

Informative listening, or listening to understand, is found in all areas of our lives. Much of our learning comes from informative listening. For example, we listen to lectures or instructions from teachers—and what we learn depends on how well we listen. In the workplace, we listen to; understand new practices or procedures—and how well we perform depends on how well we listen. We listen to instructions, briefings, reports, and speeches; if we listen poorly, we aren't equipped with the information we need.

There are three **key variables** related to informative listening. Knowing these variables can help you begin to improve your informative listening skills; that is, you will become increasingly successful in understanding what the speaker means.

1. Vocabulary: The precise relationship between vocabulary and listening has never been determined, but it is clear that increasing your vocabulary will increase your potential for better understanding. And it's never too late to improve your vocabulary. Having a genuine interest in words and language, making a conscious effort to learn new words, breaking down unfamiliar words into their component parts—all these things will help you improve your vocabulary.

Another good way to improve your vocabulary is to be sensitive to the context in which words are used. Sometimes, unfamiliar words appear with synonyms: Her attractive, *winsome* personality won us over. At other times, a contrast is drawn: He is usually quite energetic, but today he seemed *lethargic*. Occasionally, an unfamiliar word is used to summarize a situation or quality: He passed for over 200 yards, ran for 50 more, and his three punts averaged over 45 yards; he turned in a *stellar* performance.

Look for these and other contextual clues to help you learn new words and improve your vocabulary.

2. Concentration: Concentration is difficult. You can remember times when another person was not concentrating on what you were saying—and you probably can remember times when you were not concentrating on something that someone was saying to you.

Some years ago my friend, Monica, interrupted my reading of the newspaper to ask, -Is it OK if I take your car over to my aunt's house to spend the night? I'll be home before you go to work in the morning. Without concentrating on what she was asking, I said, -Sure, go ahead. Several minutes later, I realized what she had said. She was not coming home that night, and I had to leave the house earlier than usual the next morning. I had to drive from North Campus to Gurgaon, where I was to give a speech—and all my notes and visual aids were in my automobile. Fortunately for me, Monica had left the telephone number of her aunt, and I was able to retrieve my automobile.

There are many reasons people don't concentrate when listening. Sometimes listeners try to divide their attention between two competing stimuli. At other times, listeners are preoccupied with something other than the speaker of the moment. Sometimes listeners are too ego-involved, or too concerned with their own needs to concentrate on the message being delivered. Or perhaps they lack curiosity, energy, or interest. Many people simply have not learned to concentrate while listening. Others just refuse to discipline themselves, lacking the motivation to accept responsibility for good listening. Concentration requires discipline, motivation, and acceptance of responsibility.

3. **Memory.** Memory is an especially crucial variable to informative listening; you cannot process information without bringing memory into play. More specifically, memory helps your informative listening in three ways.

- a. It allows you to recall experiences and information necessary to function in the world around you. In other words, without memory you would have no knowledge bank.
- b. It establishes expectations concerning what you will encounter. You would be unable to drive in heavy traffic, react to new situations, or make common decisions in life without memory of your past experiences.
- c. It allows you to understand what others say. Without simple memory of the meaning of words, you could not communicate with anyone else. Without memory of concepts and ideas, you could not understand the meaning of messages.

Activity: Sharing Experiences

Ask the students to think of a time when they felt that someone really listened to them in this (empathic) way. How did it make them feel? Discuss in pairs. Now ask them to think of a time when they felt that a person was not listening to them when they had something important or significant to tell.

7.3.2 RELATIONSHIP LISTENING

The purpose of relationship listening is either to help an individual or to improve the relationship between people. Counselors, medical personnel, or other professionals allow a troubled person to talk through a problem. But it can also be used when you listen to friends or acquaintances and allow them to -get things off their chests. Although relationship listening requires you to listen for information, the emphasis is on understanding the other person. Three behaviors are key to effective relationship listening: attending, supporting, and empathizing.

1. Attending. Much has been said about the importance of -paying attention, or -attending behavior. In relationship listening, attending behaviors indicate that the listener is focusing on the speaker. Nonverbal cues are crucial in relationship listening; that is, your nonverbal behavior indicates that you are attending to the speaker—or that you aren't!

Eye contact is one of the most important attending behaviors. Looking appropriately and comfortably at the speaker sends a message that is different from that sent by a frequent shift of gaze, staring, or looking around the room. Body positioning communicates acceptance or lack of it. Leaning forward, toward the speaker, demonstrates interest; leaning away communicates lack of interest. Head nods, smiles, frowns, and vocalized cues such as -uh huh, -I see, or -yes—all are positive attending behaviors. A pleasant tone of voice, gentle

touching, and concern for the other person's comfort are other attending behaviors.

2. Supporting. Many responses have a negative or no supportive effect; for example, interrupting the speaker, changing the subject, turning the conversation toward yourself, and demonstrating a lack of concern for the other person. Giving advice, attempting to manipulate the conversation, or indicating that you consider yourself superior are other behaviors that will have an adverse effect on the relationship.

Sometimes the best response is silence. The speaker may need a -sounding board, not a -resounding board. Wise relationship listeners know when to talk and when to just listen—and they generally listen more than they talk.

Three characteristics describe supportive listeners: (1) discretion—being careful about what they say and do; (2) belief—expressing confidence in the ability of the other person; and (3) patience—being willing to give others the time they need to express themselves adequately.

3. Empathizing. What is empathy? It is not sympathy, which is a feeling for or about another. Nor is it apathy, which is a lack of feeling. Empathy is feeling and thinking *with* another person. The caring, empathic listener is able to go into the world of another—to see as the other sees, hear as the other hears, and feel as the other feels. Obviously, the person who has had more experience and lived longer stands a better chance of being an effective empathic listener. The person who has never been divorced, lost a child to death, been bankrupt, or lost a job may have a more difficult time relating to people with these problems than one who has experienced such things.

Risk is involved with being an empathic relationship listener. You cannot be an effective empathic listener without becoming involved, which sometimes means learning more than you really want to know. But commanders can't command effectively, bosses can't supervise skillfully, and individuals can't relate interpersonally without empathy. Abraham Lincoln is reported to have said, -I feel sorry for the man who cannot feel the stripes upon the back of another. Truly, those who cannot feel *with* another person are at a disadvantage in understanding that person.

Empathic behavior can be learned. First, you must learn as much as you can about the other person. Second, you must accept the other person—even if you can't accept some aspects of that person's behavior. Third, you must have the desire to be an empathic listener. And you must remember that empathy is crucial to effective relationship listening.

7.3.3 APPRECIATIVE LISTENING

Appreciative listening includes listening to music for enjoyment, to speakers because you like their style, to your choices in theater, television, radio, or film. It is the response of the listener, not the source of the message that defines

appreciative listening. For example, hard rock music is not a source of appreciative listening for me. I would rather listen to gospel, country, jazz, or the -golden oldies. The quality of appreciative listening depends in large part on three factors: presentation, perception, and previous experience.

1. Presentation

Presentation encompasses many factors: the medium, the setting, the style and personality of the presenter, to name just a few. Sometimes it is our perception of the presentation, rather than the actual presentation, that most influences our listening pleasure or displeasure. Perception is an important factor in appreciative listening.

For Example - I enjoy hearing good speakers, speakers whom I admire, and speakers who have expertise like Barkha Datt for NDTV.

2. Perception

For years, I did not care to listen to jazz music. I had always believed that people like me wouldn't like jazz. Then I started to work for a new boss—a training manager who enjoyed jazz. I admired her very much. My mind was now open to listen to jazz. My perception was changing, and I began to enjoy jazz music.

Perceptions influence all areas of our lives. Certainly, they are crucial determinants as to whether or not we enjoy or appreciate the things we listen to. Obviously, perceptions also determine what we listen to in the first place. As we said earlier, listening is selective.

3. Previous experience.

The discussion of perception makes it clear that previous experience influences whether we enjoy listening to something. In some cases, we enjoy listening to things because we are experts in the area. Sometimes, however, expertise or previous experience prevents us from enjoying a presentation because we are too sensitive to imperfections. Previous experience plays a large role in appreciative listening.

Many people enjoy the sounds of large-city traffic. Perhaps their growing up in a large city was a happy experience for them. The blare of horns honking, the sound of roaring engines accelerating, even the shrill shriek of sirens piercing the air—all these things may remind them of pleasant times in their lives. They appreciate hearing these sounds.

Others, having grown up on a farm or in a small town, have learned to enjoy the sounds of nature. For them, a walk in the country produces sounds of enjoyment: the rustle of leaves in the breeze.

7.3.4 CRITICAL LISTENING

On the job, in the community, at service clubs, in places of worship, in the family—there is practically no place you can go where critical listening is unimportant. Politicians, the media, salesmen, advocates of policies and procedures, and our own financial, emotional, intellectual, physical, and spiritual

needs require us to place a premium on critical listening and the thinking that accompanies it.

But there are three things to keep in mind: *ethos*, or speaker credibility; *logos*, or logical arguments; and *pathos*, or psychological appeals.

1. Ethos.

When listening to a message that requires a critical judgment or response, ask yourself, -Is the speaker a credible source, one who is both an expert on the subject and one who can be trusted to be honest, unbiased, and straightforward? Remember that a person may have personality or charisma. But these do not take the place of credibility. A person may even be highly competent and an expert in one area and simply not be informed in another.

2. Logos.

Even speakers with high ethos often make errors in logic, not by intention, but by accident, carelessness, inattention to detail, or lack of analysis. When evaluating arguments, listeners should ask several questions about the proposition or statements made:

- a. Are the statements true?
- b. Are the data the best that can be obtained?
- c. Are the sources of the data known to the listeners? In other words do listeners know where the information came from?
- d. Is the data accurately portrayed?
- e. Is the data representative?

3. Pathos

The psychological or emotional element of communication is often misunderstood and misused. There are several questions critical listeners should ask themselves when assessing the pathos element:

- a. Is the speaker attempting to manipulate rather than persuade me?
- b. What is the speaker's intent?

7.3.5 Discriminative Listening

By being sensitive to changes in the speaker's rate, volume, force, pitch, and emphasis, the informative listener can detect even nuance of difference in meaning.

Critical Thinking

Monitor yourself over the next few hours. How much of your listening is *competitive listening* rather than *active listening*?

1. What are the four steps to effective interpersonal communications and how do you distinguish among them?
2. In what way is listening a critical communication skill?
3. What are three techniques for active listening?

7.4 LEVELS OF LISTENING

A number of writers talk about different levels of listening with differing numbers of levels defined and variously described. Here I have described 3 levels of listening which are useful to consider in the context of coaching.

7.4.1 LEVEL 1 OR „INTERNAL LISTENING“

Here as the listener your focus in on yourself and your own thoughts rather than the speaker. As the speaker is talking you interpret what you hear in terms of what it means to you. This is normal everyday conversation where it is natural as the listener to gather information to help you form opinions and make decisions.

Generally, as a good coach you will not be listening at this level, after all a coaching session isn't about you, it is about your client and their needs. However, there are times when it may be appropriate for example when you want to establish from your client a convenient time for their next coaching session. In this instance you need to take into account your own availability and make a judgment in order to agree a mutually convenient time.

7.4.2 LEVEL 2 OR „LISTENING TO UNDERSTAND“

As a listener operating at level 2 you are focusing totally on the speaker, listening to their words, tone of voice and body language and are not distracted by your own thoughts and feelings. As a good coach you will be using this level of listening in your coaching sessions where the purpose of gathering information is solely for the benefit of your client rather than you. By listening at level 2 you can get a real understanding of where the coachee is „coming from“, the client will feel understood and the coach's own thoughts will not influence the coaching session.

7.4.3 LEVEL 3 OR „GLOBAL LISTENING“

This involves the listener focusing on the speaker and picking up more than what is being said. When coaching, you will be listening to everything available using intuition, picking up emotion and sensing signals from your coacher's body language. You can gauge the energy of your coacher and their emotions as well as picking up what they are not saying. You will understand what they are thinking and feeling and trusting your own senses can be extremely responsive to the needs of your coacher, knowing what question to ask next

7.5 KEYS TO EFFECTIVE LISTENING

Listening is a much neglected communication skill. Many students feel that because they can hear, they are listening. Allowing words to pour into your ear is not listening. Yet, listening is the most used method of learning.

To help you become a better listener, you should consider a set of rules called LISAN. The letters of this mnemonic devise stand for the key words in five rules for effective listening:

- Lead, don't follow--anticipate what's going to be said
- Ideas--find them
- Signals--watch for them
- Active, not passive involvement

- Notes--take them, organize them

The first letter in LISAN reminds you to lead rather than follow. Leading involves two steps:

1. Read outside assignments before you come to class. If you read before you hear the lecture you will be more alert to important words, names, or ideas. You will anticipate them.
2. Set up questions to keep yourself in the lead. These are not questions that you ask your instructor, but ones around which you plan your listening.

The I in LISAN tells you to look for the important ideas. Most lecturers will introduce a few new ideas and provide explanation, examples, or other support for them. Your job is to identify the main ideas. The instructor may come back to the same few ideas again and again. Be alert to them.

The S in LISAN reminds you to listen for the signal words. A good speaker uses signals to telegraph what he is going to say. Common signals are:

- To introduce an example: "for example" "There are three reasons why ..."
- To signal support material: "For instance...." "Similarly...." "In contrast. .." "On the other hand. "
- To signal a conclusion or summary: "Therefore..." "In conclusion...." "Finally...." "As a result...."
- To signal importance: "Now this is very important...." "Remember that..."

The A in LISAN reminds you to be an active listener. Listening is not just soaking up sound. To be an effective listener, you must be active, not passive. This can be done in several ways:

1. Use the class situation for active listening. Sit close enough (front 1/3 of the room, near center) to see and hear the instructor and to be seen and heard by him. Remember, the further away you are from the instructor, the greater the chance of sound distortion. An empty room is easy to hear sounds in, but when that room is filled with bodies, sound tends to get "eaten up" and lost the further it travels from its source. Couple that with normal classroom noises, hall noises, overhead projector fans, heating blowers, etc., and the chances of hearing the entire lecture correctly diminishes.
2. Maintain eye contact. The eyes truly tell all. An instructor can tell whether you're "getting it" or not simply by looking at you, specifically, your eyes. Furthermore, it is almost impossible to fall asleep when looking someone directly in the eyes, so your ability to concentrate will improve!
3. Respond to the instructor. This can be anything from asking and answering questions to nodding in understanding or smiling appropriately at your instructor's attempts at humor.
4. Ask questions for active listening.
5. Resist distractions. Keep reminding yourself that you are listening to someone else. Keep your mind on what is being said and fill in what you think they mean.
6. Use thought speed. Your mind works many times faster than the speaker can talk; some studies report findings that the rate of the brain is almost 4 times that of normal speech, which often explains why daydreaming during a

lecture occurs so frequently. Anticipate and summarize what has been said. Try to see where the instructor is going with the lecture.

7. Resist distractions. If necessary, sit apart from friends or other classmates that may disturb you. Do not sit at the back of the room or near the door; hallway noises and noises from other classrooms are more prevalent at these points.

The N is LISAN reminds you to take notes. In ordinary conversation we mentally interpret, classify, and summarize what is said. In classroom learning, we do this more effectively by keeping written notes. Note taking helps us to listen by providing a logical organization to what we hear. It is very difficult to listen to and remember disorganized, unrelated bits of information.

1. If you heard someone spell out "nd, tckl, grd, cntr, hlf bk, fl bk, qrtr bk" you would find it difficult to listen and remember.

2. Organization is the key to effective listening and remembering. The above letters are the names of player positions on a football team, with the vowel omitted.

3. Note taking is the way you find the organization. Good note taking means finding the underlying structure of what is heard, discovering the skeleton of ideas on which the instructor has built his lecture.

4. Good note taking is 80% listening and 20% writing, so don't ever worry about writing getting in the way of listening.

Tips to Better Listening

- Ask Good Questions
- Paraphrase
- Empathize
- Stop Talking
- Eliminate Distractions
- Don't give advice until asked
- Show interest in the speaker and the conversation
- Prompt the speaker
- Attend to non-verbal cues
- Give Feedback

7.6 THE BENEFITS OF IMPROVED LISTENING

Here are some of the amazing things that others have experienced by improving their listening skills:

- People are more open to new ideas
- Sometimes as a manager all you have to do is listen and the employee does work through their own problems without the manager having to give a bit of advice.
- Fewer conflicts and less stress in the workplace
- Team members are more engaged and more willing to go the extra mile
- Sometimes a customer who has been resistant to being audited finally agrees, and then thanks the auditor for the valuable input. It takes an hour or so of

‘listening’ and rapport building in the initial phone call to gain a reluctant agreement to meet.

- Communication is successful more often, with less confusion and wasted time.

You’ll have your own reasons for wanting to improve your listening skills, with specific benefits you want to gain, and problems you want to leave behind.

7.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter you have learnt how listening can play a major role in your day to day life. The importance of listening is this. When you are not listening you are not learning. When you are not listening you are preventing opportunity. The fact that you do not listen reveals the reality that your mind is closed. When you are not listening you are preventing intelligence. When you are not listening there is nothing new, there are only your reactions.

Listening on the job is not only frequent, it is very important as well. In fact, most managers agree that ‘active listening’ is the most crucial skill for becoming a successful manager. Listening can improve work quality and boost productivity. Poor listening leads to innumerable mistakes because of which letters have to be retyped, meetings rescheduled. All this affects productivity and profits. Apart from the obvious benefits, good listening helps employees to update and revise their collection of facts, skills and attitudes. Good listening also helps them to improve their speaking. If you wish to live life to its fullest, then listening is vital.

7.8 GLOSSARY

Appreciative Listening - It is the response of the listener, not the source of the message that defines appreciative listening.

Global Listening - This involves the listener focusing on the speaker and picking up more than what is being said.

Informative Listening - Informative listening is a type of listening where the listener’s primary concern is to understand the message.

Internal Listening - Here as the listener your focus in on yourself and your own thoughts rather than the speaker.

Listening - It is the process of making sense out of what we hear. Listening is an active process of receiving, processing, and interpreting the hearing stimuli.

Relationship Listening - The purpose of relationship listening is either to help an individual or to improve the relationship between people.

7.9 TERMINAL AND MODEL QUESTIONS

- 1) Explain listening. Also give the definition.
- 2) What are the various types of listening? Explain in detail with relative examples.
- 3) Describe in detail the different levels of listening.
- 4) What are the benefits of improved listening?
- 5) As a manager why is listening important for you?
- 6) What are the several tips for improved listening?

EFFECTIVE SPEAKING: ESSENTIAL QUALITIES OF A GOOD SPEAKER, APPEARANCE AND BODILY ACTIONS, USE OF VOICE, USE OF VISUAL AIDS

Structure

- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Unit Objectives
- 8.3 Essential Qualities of a Good Speaker
- 8.4 Appearance and Bodily Actions
 - 8.4.1. Rid Yourself of Distracting Mannerisms
 - 8.4.2. Build Self-confidence by Being Yourself
 - 8.4.3. Let your Body Mirror Your Feelings
 - 8.4.4. Build Self-confidence through Preparation
 - 8.4.5. Use Your Everyday Speaking Situations
- 8.5 Use of Voice
 - 8.5.1 Be energetic when you speak
 - 8.5.2 Add color and excitement with pitch inflection
 - 8.5.3 Vary your rhythm and pace
 - 8.5.4 Use the power of silence
 - 8.5.5 Vocal quality creates a richer audience experience
- 8.6 Use of Visual Aids
 - 8.6.1 Using Visual Aids
 - 8.6.2 Types of Visual Aids
- 8.7 Summary
- 8.8 Answers to check your progress
- 8.9 References
- 8.10 Suggested Readings
- 8.11 Terminal and Model Questions

8.1 INTRODUCTION

We are all aware of the importance of public speaking in our professional as well as personal and social life. Often we mistakenly equate Public speaking with some kind of performance. But it is altogether a wrong orientation; public speaking is all about sharing your mind with a group of individuals. The success of a public speaker lies in his ability to communicate his point of view with the members of the audience. You often find instances where the speaker has finished his speech amidst a standing ovation and the audience being enthralled even long after the seminar is over. This is because; the speaker was able to extend his passion in the minds of the people who listened to his speech. And this is the

essence of public speaking: get the audience agree with what you have tried to accomplish and make them think about it over and over again.

However, not all of us are equally gifted so far as speaking in public is concerned. Some speakers are better than the other in getting across their messages, while the others are not that convincing in their oral communication. But according to experts we all can acquire the qualities of a good public speaker with learning and practice. But before that we have to know what essential qualities churn out an outstanding public speaker.

8.2 UNIT OBJECTIVES

After this unit you should be able to understand the essence of good and quality speaking through factors like:

- ☐ What are the qualities required for being a good speaker
- ☐ How should you have a control on your body actions when you are conversing with someone
- ☐ How should you use your voice and visual aids while communicating your message to the other person

8.3 ESSENTIAL QUALITIES OF A GOOD SPEAKER

Don't just say the words. Think of the meaning you want to share when you speak them. To do this you have to go through this cycle.

- A. Feel it in your heart
- B. Think it in your head
- C. See it in your mind's eye
- D. Then say it

You will go through the steps in a flash – but you must go through them. Add to this the fact that the English language is a language of stress. Not the 'stress' that makes you feel nervous. The stress you put on the word you emphasize. It changes the meaning or intent of what you are saying.

For example: (thoughts behind the word emphasized are in brackets)

HE was there. [Not the other people]

He **WAS** there. [Don't tell me he wasn't!]

He was **THERE**. [Not somewhere else.]

Even if you think you're not a good speaker, when you read the list below you'll find that you already exhibit one or more of these essential qualities when you speak to groups.

The 7 skills make the acronym C.R.I.S.P.E.R:

1. **Clear**
2. **Relevant**

3. Insightful

4. Succinct (To the point)

5. Practiced

6. Energetic

7. Respectful

Let's very briefly look at each one in turn:

Clear – If you're even slightly vague in your own mind about your core message, or you don't deliver your message in a logical order, with clear transitions from one point to the next – your audience will be confused. It does take time to work all this through, but it's really important. Content is usually the reason why you and your audience are in the same room and thinking it through well enough beforehand makes *all* the difference to your reception as a speaker.

Relevant – You need to know your audience, in as much detail as possible. Audiences are sophisticated, and don't appreciate generalities. Tailor what you're going to say by doing as much research you need to beforehand.

- You cannot motivate, inspire, inform, or expect your listeners to 'buy in' to your ideas:
 - A. Unless you talk their language.
 - B. If you don't speak at their level of understanding on the subject.
 - C. If you use jargon and words unfamiliar to them.

Insightful – dictionary.reference.com defines the word *'insightful'* as *'the ability to perceive clearly or deeply; penetration'*. And Scott Berkun in his great book *Confessions of a Public Speaker* (O'Reilly 2010) goes so far as to say this: *'The problem with most bad presentations I see is not the speaking, the slides, the visuals, or any of the things people obsess about. Instead, it's the lack of thinking.'*

Succinct – When you're listening to a speaker, no matter how interesting, isn't it true that when they say the magic words *'to sum up'* or *'finally'*, you wake up? It just seems to be human nature, and one of the best ways to respect your audience is to be as brief as possible!

Practice – This is absolutely crucial. And it must be done out loud, at least part of the time. Yes, this is tedious, and most people don't do it, which is why it's a characteristic of good speakers.

Energy - Your audience follows your cue: every group who doesn't know you will be cool to start with, we're all metaphorically taking a step back and

assessing, in the early moments of hearing a new speaker. But if you show some energy, some life-force, the audience will follow you. You need to set the tone. You can also gain energy from your audience (a topic for another day!).

Respect – Every member of your audience wants to feel respected by you as the speaker. And this applies even more as a speaker if an audience member is rude or difficult. No matter how much you want to retaliate, remember that an audience will feel -as one! to some extent, and if you get tetchy with one person, they will potentially all be offended. So even if someone hits your hottest button, continue to be pleasant. That way, you'll gain the respect of the group, and potentially avoid crashing in flames, too!

8.4 APPEARANCE AND BODILY ACTIONS

Dr. Ralph C. Smeadly, the founder of Toastmasters International, wrote, "The speaker who stands and talks at ease is the one who can be heard without tiredness. If his posture and gestures are so graceful and unobtrusive, that no one notices them, he may be counted as truly successful."

Below are 5 ways you can rid yourself of your distracting mannerisms.

8.4.1. RID YOURSELF OF DISTRACTING MANNERISMS

Some common faults of inexperienced or in-effective speakers are:

- Gripping or leaning on the table
- Finger tapping
- Lip biting or licking
- Playing with coins or jewelry
- Frowning
- Adjusting hair or clothing
- Head wagging

These have two things in common:

- They are physical symptoms of simple nervousness.
- They are performed unconsciously.

When you make a verbal mistake, you can easily correct it, because you can hear your own words, but you can't see yourself, so most distracting mannerisms go uncorrected. You can't eliminate them unless you know they exist. For this videotape yourself.

Check your: posture, gestures, body movements, facial expressions and eye contact.

Review your tape the first time without looking for mannerisms. Just listen to the presentation as if you were hearing it for the first time and evaluate the overall impact you experience from watching the tape.

Secondly review your tape a second time (with the volume turned down) and look for visual distractions. Take notes on what you observe.

During the third review, have the picture turned off and listen only to your voice. Many people have never even heard a taping of their own voice before. Become accustomed to listening to your voice. Get to know it as others hear it. Note what you like and what you don't like. Pay attention to the speed, the volume, and the tone of your voice.

Once you have completed these reviews, go over the list of all the distracting mannerisms you saw and heard. The next time you are having a conversation with someone you know well, try to notice whether you use any of these distracting mannerisms even in casual circumstances. Tackle each of your negative points one at a time.

8.4.2. BUILD SELF-CONFIDENCE BY BEING YOURSELF

The most important rule for making your body communicate effectively is to be yourself. The emphasis should be on the sharing of ideas, not on the performance. Strive to be as genuine and natural as you are when you speak to family members and friends.

Many people say, "I'm okay in a small group, but when I get in front of a larger group I freeze." The only difference between speaking to a small informal group and to a sizable audience is the number of listeners. To compensate for this, you need only to amplify your natural behavior. Be authentically yourself, but amplify your movements and expressions just enough so that the audience can see them.

8.4.3. LET YOUR BODY MIRROR YOUR FEELINGS

If you are interested in your subject, truly believe what you are saying, and want to share your message with others, your physical movements will come from within you and will be appropriate to what you are saying.

By involving yourself in your message, you'll be natural and spontaneous without having to consciously think about what you are doing or saying. For many of us, this isn't as easy as it sounds because it requires us to drop the mask that shields the "real self" in public.

To become an effective speaker, it is essential that you get rid of your mask and share your true feelings with your audience. Your audience wants to know how you feel about your subject. If you want to convince others, you must convey your convictions.

8.4.4. BUILD SELF-CONFIDENCE THROUGH PREPARATION

Nothing influences a speaker's mental attitude more than the knowledge that he or she is thoroughly prepared. This knowledge leads to self-confidence, which is a vital ingredient of effective public speaking.

How many of us have ever experienced a situation in which we had not prepared well for a presentation? How did we come across? On the other hand, think of

those presentations that did go well. These are the ones that we had properly prepared for.

8.4.5. USE YOUR EVERYDAY SPEAKING SITUATIONS

Whenever you speak to people, make an extra effort to notice how you speak. Observe, too, whether the facial expressions of your listeners indicate they do or do not understand what you are saying. Before calling to request something on the phone, plan and practice what you are going to say. Even this is essentially a short presentation. Another exercise is to prepare a 90-second presentation about you. Describe who you are and what you do. Record your presentation and review it using the four steps described above. Since you are talking about yourself, you don't need to research the topic; however, you do need to prepare what you are going to say and how you are going to say it. Plan everything including your gestures and walking patterns.

a) Facial Expressions

A speaker realizes that appropriate facial expressions are an important part of effective communication. In fact, facial expressions are often the key determinant of the meaning behind the message. People watch a speaker's face during a presentation. When you speak, your face-more clearly than any other part of your body-communicates to others your attitudes, feelings, and emotions.

Remove expressions that don't belong on your face.

Inappropriate expressions include distracting mannerisms or unconscious expressions not rooted in your feelings, attitudes and emotions. In much the same way that some speakers perform random, distracting gestures and body movements, nervous speakers often release excess energy and tension by unconsciously moving their facial muscles (e.g., licking lips, tightening the jaw).

One type of unconscious facial movement which is less apt to be read clearly by an audience is involuntary frowning. This type of frowning occurs when a speaker attempts to deliver a memorized speech.

b) Eye Contact

Eye contact is the cement that binds together speakers and their audiences. When you speak, your eyes involve your listeners in your presentation. There is no surer way to break a communication bond between you and the audience than by failing to look at your listeners. No matter how large your audience may be, each listener wants to feel that you are talking to him or her.

The adage, "The eyes are the mirror of the soul," underlines the need for you to convince people with your eyes, as well as your words. Only by looking at your listeners as individuals can you convince them that you are sincere and are interested in them, and that you care whether they accept your message. When

you speak, your eyes also function as a control device you can use to assure your listeners' attentiveness and concentration.

By looking at your audience, you can determine how they are reacting. When you develop the ability to gauge the audience's reactions and adjust your presentation accordingly, you will be a much more effective speaker.

How to Use Your Eyes Effectively:

1. Know your material. Know it so well that you don't have to devote your mental energy to the task of remembering the sequence of ideas and words. Even many experienced speakers use notes. Often, they take advantage of such natural pauses as audience laughter or the consequences of an important point to glance briefly at their notes. To make this technique work, keep your notes brief. (See Chapter 6 for more on this topic.)

2. Establish a personal bond with listeners. How do you do this? Begin by selecting one person and talking to him or her personally. Maintain eye contact with that person long enough to establish a visual bond (about 5 to 10 seconds). This is usually the equivalent of a sentence or a thought. Then shift your gaze to another person.

In a small group, this is relatively easy to do. But, if you're addressing hundreds or thousands of people, it's impossible. What you can do is pick out one or two individuals in each section of the room and establish personal bonds with them. Then each listener will get the impression you're talking directly to him or her.

3. Monitor visual feedback. While you are talking, your listeners are responding with their own non-verbal messages. Use your eyes to actively seek out this valuable feedback. If individuals aren't looking at you, they may not be listening either. Their reasons may include one or more of these factors:

They may not be able to hear you.

Solution: If you are not using a microphone, speak louder and note if that works.

They may be bored.

Solution: Use some humor, increase your vocal variety or add powerful gestures or body movements.

They may be puzzled.

Solution: Repeat and/or rephrase what you have just said.

They seem to be fidgeting nervously.

Solution: You may be using distracting mannerisms. Maybe you have food on your clothes (or worse, maybe your blouse is unbuttoned or your fly isn't closed).

Make sure you are aware of these embarrassing possibilities before and during your speech. If necessary, try to correct them without bringing more attention to them. On the other hand, if your listeners' faces indicate pleasure, interest and close attention, don't change a thing. You're doing a great job!

c) Your Appearance

If your listeners are wearing suits and dresses, wear your best suit or dress - the outfit that brings you the most compliments. Make sure that every item of clothing is clean and well tailored.

Don't wear jewelry that might glitter or jingle when you move or gesture. This might divert attention from your speech. For the same reason, empty your pockets of bulky items and anything that makes noise when you move.

Part of the first impression you give occurs even before you are introduced to deliver your speech. As the audience arrives, your preparation should be concluded. You shouldn't have to study your speech. Instead, mingle with the audience, and project that same friendly, confident attitude that will make your speech a success.

When you speak- especially if you aren't well known to the audience-the most crucial part of your presentation is the first few minutes. During that initial segment, the audience will be making critical judgments about you. Your listeners will decide whether you are confident, sincere, friendly, eager to address them and worthy of their attention. In large measure, they will base this decision on what they see.

After your introduction, walk purposefully and confidently to the speaking position.

Moving forces people to focus and follow you. The way you walk from your seat to the speaker's position is very important. When you are introduced, you should appear eager to speak.

Walk confidently from your seat to the dais. Pause there for a few seconds, and then move out from behind the lectern. As discussed before, it is wise to use the lectern as a point of departure, and not a barrier to hide behind.

Smile before you say your first words. Be careful not to stand too close to, nor move beyond, the people in the front row. Be careful not to walk too much. Doing so will work against you. Continuous pacing is distracting. Walking can be an effective way to stress an important idea. It is essential that your walk be purposeful and intentional, not just a random shift of position. Taking about three steps, moving at a shallow angle, usually works best.

When you practice your speaking, make sure you also practice your walking patterns. Try walking to and from your three positions. These positions should be planned just as your hand gestures are.

When standing still, remember to maintain good posture. Stand up straight.

Remember it's not what you say it's how you say it and your body does speak very loudly. Only when you marry your verbal message and your nonverbal message do you begin to command presence as a speaker.

8.5 USE OF VOICE

‘It is not enough to know what to say – one must also know how to say it’ - Aristotle, 2000 BC

Speech delivery is one of among the many factors that should be considered by a promising speaker. There are some important features of the voice that are considered as essential in an effective speech delivery. These are some features of voice quality that needs to be developed by aspiring speakers.

Effective public speaking begins with **Five Essential Vocal Tools**. These speaking techniques keep your audience attentive, engaged, and thoroughly informed and persuaded. The primary vocal tools for public speaking are:

- ☐ Energy and emphasis
- ☐ Pitch inflection
- ☐ Rhythm and pacing
- ☐ Pauses and silence
- ☐ Vocal quality

8.5.1 BE ENERGETIC WHEN YOU SPEAK

Emphasis is simply the force or stress you place on important ideas, concepts for feelings. It's the simplest of the tools for effective public speaking. Make sure you use enough energy to reach across space to your listeners, -bringing your voice to them. Nothing turns off audiences more than straining to hear, or being aware of the distance between them and the speaker.

8.5.2 ADD COLOR AND EXCITEMENT WITH PITCH INFLECTION

Another important technique when speaking to audiences is pitch inflection. A pitch that doesn't vary is a -mono-tone. And of course, from that word comes the term -monotonous. Pitch inflection, on the other hand--raising your pitch in terms of the musical scale--helps you avoid monotony and convey meaning. It also adds color, excitement, and emphasis to your speech. An easy speaking style that includes pitch inflection tells audiences that the speaker is relaxed and confident.

8.5.3 VARY YOUR RHYTHM AND PACE

Don't forget rhythm and pace when you speak. To keep audiences attentive, you need to vary your pace. Variations in rhythm and pace aren't to be added artificially, however. They should emerge naturally from changes in ideas, meaning, and the emotions embodied in what you are saying.

8.5.4 USE THE POWER OF SILENCE

Pauses and silence are two of the most neglected tools in public speaking. Pauses help you achieve impact; add emphasis; build suspense; bridge ideas; and create anticipation concerning what you're about to say. And of course it's necessary to pause after you say something important to allow your listeners to absorb the information.

8.5.5 VOCAL QUALITY CREATES A RICHER AUDIENCE EXPERIENCE

Vocal quality concerns the tone, richness, pleasantness, and emotional connection that you achieve when you speak. If the concept isn't clear to you, think about people you know who have soft voices that you love listening to, versus harsh and abrasive tones that you can hardly stand for more than a few minutes. Similarly, your audience wants a voice that reaches listeners effectively and enjoyably.

8.6 USE OF VISUAL AIDS

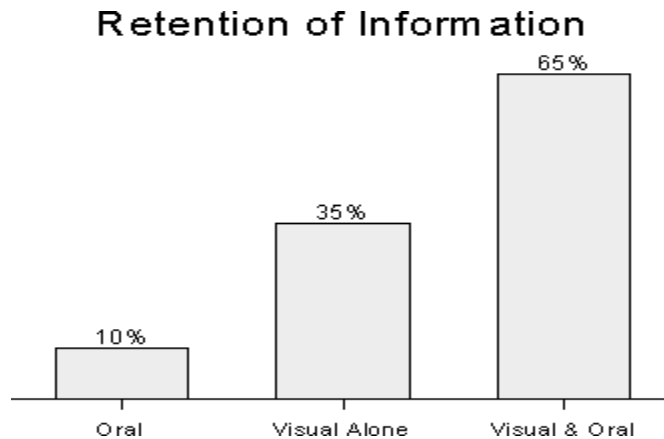
8.6.1 USING VISUAL AIDS

Visual aids help your presentation make things happen. Visual aids help you reach your objectives by providing emphasis to whatever is being said. Clear pictures multiply the audience's level of understanding of the material presented, and they should be used to reinforce your message, clarify points, and create excitement.

Visual aids involve your audience and require a change from one activity to another: from hearing to seeing. When you use visual aids, their use tends to encourage gestures and movement on your part. This extra movement reinforces the control that you, the speaker, need over the presentation. The uses of visual aids, then, are mutually beneficial to the audience and you.

Visual aids add impact and interest to a presentation. They enable you to appeal to more than one sense at the same time, thereby increasing the audience's understanding and retention level. With pictures, the concepts or ideas you

present are no longer simply words - but words plus images. The chart below cites the effectiveness of visual aids on audience retention.



In our image-rich world, people have become visual learners, so it's important to use effective visual aids in a speech or presentation. Whether you're giving a speech in your public speaking class (and therefore are worried about a grade) or for another occasion, you need to make sure you choose visual aids that truly enhance your presentation. Here are some tips to keep in mind when selecting a visual aid of any kind, including PowerPoint.

1. **Visual aids should be easy to see.** This may seem obvious, but it's so obvious that many speakers don't consider this when selecting a visual aid. Think about it from the perspective of the audience. Have you used colors and text in a way that will be easy to read? Is the visual aid large enough? Will everyone in the room be able to see the visual aid?
2. **Visual aids should be easy to understand.** People should be able to look quickly at your visual aid and get the point. They can't pay close attention to you and close attention to the visual aid, so make things easy for them. Each visual aid should only make one point. If you're using a graph or table of some sort, keep it as simple as you can. And if you're using a visual aid with text, use as little text as possible or you will distract the audience.
3. **Visual aids should look professional.** A sloppy visual aid will kill your credibility. Remember, professional doesn't necessarily mean fancy, but it does mean neat and organized. And always make sure everything is spelled correctly!
4. **Visual aids should demonstrate something.** A good visual aid doesn't just list information: it makes a point. Let's say you're giving a speech about the environmental damage done by cruise ships. You could list the different types of damage caused by cruise ships on a slide. But that doesn't demonstrate anything. A better visual aid would be a photograph of a shoreline that has been damaged because of pollution by cruise ships.

Or you could show a graph that shows the increase of a chemical in the water over a period of time when cruise travel has increased in that area.

5. **Visual aids should be explained clearly.** Make sure the audience understands what your visual aid is supposed to illustrate. Don't assume they'll figure it out. In your speech about cruise ship pollution, don't show the audience a bunch of dirty water and assume they'll know what it is. Instead, explain that this is a photograph of the ocean taken twenty minutes after a cruise ship came by.
6. **Visual aids should not be distracting.** Your visual aid should blend into your speech. As a rule of thumb, you should *not* pass a visual aid around the room for people to look at while you speak. They'll be looking at the visual aid instead of listening to you, and the audience will be distracted by having to pass something to other people.
7. **Choose visual aids that have relevance to your audience.** If you're giving a speech about hate crimes on campus, don't show them a photo of the aftermath of a hate crime on another campus. Use a photo from *your* campus-- or at least from a campus in your area.
8. **Visual aids should be appropriate.** Use common sense. If you're giving a speech about the importance of wearing a condom, there are ways to illustrate this that won't gross anybody out, and there are ways to illustrate this that will. Err on the side of being conservative here, especially if you don't know everyone in your audience.

8.6.2 TYPES OF VISUAL AIDS

There are many different types of visual aids you can use to enhance your presentation. Do not be afraid to use your creativity to come up with the best visual aid for your presentation. However, it is important to select visual aids that add to the message of your presentation. If you create a stunning visual aid with no visible connection to your topic, it will only detract from your overall message.

Many public speaking events involve presenting numerical data to the audience. If your speech includes many statistics, graphs can make these numbers easier to comprehend. Pie charts compare different parts of the same whole and are an effective way to display percentages. Line graphs comparing two variables are an excellent way to allow audience members to make predictions about the future of each variable. Bar graphs can be used to show trends in data. Scatter plots show the correlation between two variables.

If you are planning a presentation that includes no numerical data, it can be more difficult to determine which visual aids will capture your audience's attention. If your presentation involves the description of a place or person, a photo of your subject makes an effective visual aid. You may also want to consider adding a memorable quote from your introduction or an unusual fact to your visual aid.

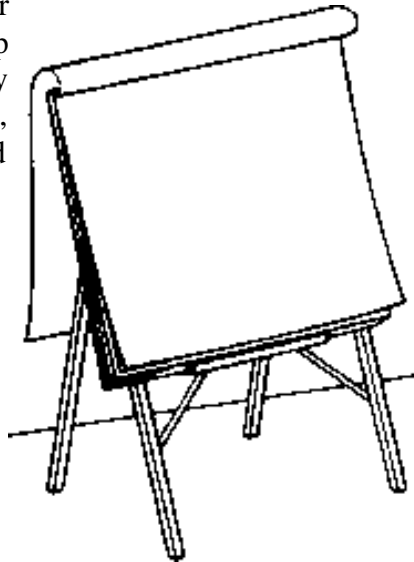
While posters, slides, flip charts, and overhead transparencies are the most popular types of visual aids for public speaking, props are an innovative way to capture your audience's attention. If you are using Aesop's fable of the tortoise and the hare to illustrate the power of perseverance, you can use small stuffed animals to add interest and humor to your presentation.

If your speech involves several different types of information, it may be appropriate to have different types of visual aids. However, it is a good idea to keep your number of visual aids to a minimum. You do not want to spend your entire presentation flipping through posters or slides. The purpose of visual aids is to simply reinforce the message of your presentation.

The question of what to use and how to choose is an excellent one. The next several pages will help you answer this question by identifying the advantages and limitations of each type of visual, as well as the development techniques required in preparing each. By looking at these pros and cons, you can more easily decide what will work best for your presentation.

FLIP CHARTS

Flip charts are quick, inexpensive visual aids for briefing small groups. The charts, felt-tip markers and graphic materials are readily available, and with a modest ability at lettering, the presenters can compose the desired visual aid in-house.



Flip Charts:

- Help the speaker proceed through the material
- Convey information
- Provide the audience with something to look at in addition to the speaker
- Can be prepared prior to, as well as during, the presentation
- Demonstrate that the speaker has given thought to his or her remarks
- Can be used to record audience questions and comments
- Can be converted to slides

Limitations:

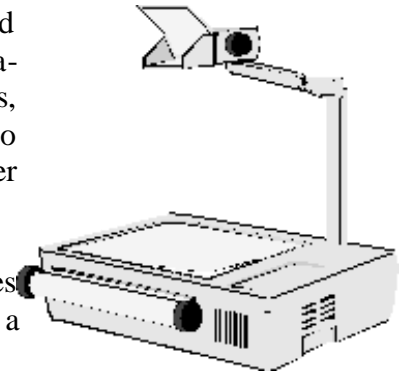
- May require the use of graphics talent
- Are not suitable for use in a large audience setting
- May be difficult to transport

OVERHEAD TRANSPARENCIES

Overhead transparencies are useful for audience settings of 20 to 50 people and can be produced quickly, easily, and inexpensively. Any camera-ready artwork, whether word charts, illustrations, or diagrams can be made into transparencies using standard office paper copiers.

Limitations:

- The projected image size is sometimes too small to be seen from the back of a large room.
- Often, the image does not sit square on the screen, as the head of the projector is tilted to increase the size of the image.
- It is difficult to write on the transparency while it is on the projector.
- Sometimes the projector head gets in the audience's way.
- Some speakers feel captive to the machine, because they must change each transparency by hand.



POSTERS

Posters are prepared graphic devices that can be made of a variety of materials and media - photographs, diagrams, graphs, word messages, or a combination of these. Posters work best in smaller audience sizes.

- Posters are permanent and portable.
- Posters can be simple or very elaborate.
- Posters can be used alone or in a series to tell a story.

Limitations:

- Posters tend to contain too much detail.
- Transporting them can be difficult.
- The more elaborate posters require extensive preparation and can be quite costly.

35 MILLIMETER SLIDES

35 mm slides make livelier a presentation for virtually any size audience. They can project a professional image, are relatively inexpensive to produce, and if necessary, can be produced quickly.

- Slides have high credibility with audiences because viewers looking at photographic slides taken in the field often feel that seeing is believing.
- The only hardware required is a slide projector and a screen. Slide programs are easy to package in slide trays.
- Changes in slides or in their sequencing can be done rapidly to meet changing conditions or audiences.

Limitations:

- Slides cannot be made using a photocopying machine. Therefore, they require more time and money to produce than overhead transparencies.
- The lights must be dimmed more for slides than for overhead transparencies.
- Slides require a great deal of preparation and rehearsal.

ELECTRONIC VISUAL AID

DVDs electronically carries both a picture and a sound track. Its features of sound, movement, vivid image, color, and variety hold an audience's attention the way film does. DVD can be used to program an entire presentation, or to support a speaker's remarks by highlighting certain topics.

**Limitations:**

- DVD productions can be expensive to create and require experienced production teams.
- In large meetings, the audience may not be able to see the monitor. (If resources permit, video projectors are available.)

8.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter you have studied about effective speaking and how it impacts you personal, social as well as professional life. There are plenty of benefits that come with standing in front of a crowd and sharing what you know. It's great for self-promotion. It adds credibility to your business. Good public speaking is simply the art of good conversation carried a step or two beyond the usual. It is largely through the spoken word that we communicate with each other, develop understanding, exchange knowledge and find mutually acceptable goals. Through effective public speaking we can encourage, teach, entertain and inspire others.

No one likes public speaking the first time. Just like everything else, it takes practice before it starts to feel comfortable. Seek out opportunities and when they come your way, find a way to make it happen. Build relationships with professors and organizations to allow yourself a platform outside of your typical client presentations and see where that takes you. And be sure to have fun with it.

More than half of your impact as a speaker depends upon your body language. You probably have control over the words you speak, but are you sure that you have control over what you are saying with your body language? Body language comprises gesture, stance, and facial expression. These are all the more important when all eyes of an audience are upon you. When you are presenting, strong, positive body language becomes an essential tool in helping you build credibility, express your emotions, and connect with your listeners. It also helps your listeners focus more intently on you and what you're saying.

8.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

a) **The qualities of a good speaker are:**

1. Clear
2. Relevant
3. Insightful
4. Succinct (To the point)
5. Practiced
6. Energetic
7. Respectful

b) **What are the points to be considered while talking to someone?**

1. Be energetic when you speak
2. Add color and excitement with pitch inflection
3. Vary your rhythm and pace
4. Use the power of silence
5. Vocal quality creates a richer audience experience

8.9 REFERENCES

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8.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

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- ☐ Sinha, K.K.: *Business Communication*, Galgotia Publishing Company, New Delhi

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8.11 TERMINAL AND MODEL QUESTIONS

- 1) What is the importance of effective public speaking?
- 2) What are the essential qualities required by a good speaker?
- 3) Explain in detail the importance of voice while addressing a crowd?

UNIT: 9

CLASSIFICATION OF NON VERBAL COMMUNICATION: KINESICS, PROXEMICS, TIME LANGUAGE, PARALANGUAGE, AND PHYSICAL CONTEXT

Structure

- 9.0 Introduction
 - 9.1 Unit Objectives
 - 9.2 What is Non Verbal Communication?
 - 9.2.1 Characteristics of Non Verbal Communication
 - 9.3 Types of Non Verbal Communication
 - 9.3.1 Kinesics
 - 9.3.2 Proxemics
 - 9.3.3 Time Language
 - 9.3.4 Paralanguage
 - 9.3.5 Physical Context
 - 9.4 Summary
 - 9.5 Key Terms
 - 9.6 Question and Exercises
 - 9.7 Further Reading
-

9.0 INTRODUCTION:

Non verbal communication has been defined as communication without words. It includes apparent behavior such as –Eye contact, body language or vocal cues. For Example

1. Expression of emotions-Expression is expressed mainly through the face, body and voice.
2. Communication of Interpersonal Attitudes-The Establishment and maintenance of relationships is often done through non verbal signals (tone of voice, gaze, touch etc.
3. Accompany and Support Speech-vocalization and non verbal behavior are synchronized with speech in conversation (nodding one's head or using phrases like -uh-huh when another is talking)
4. Self Presentation-presenting oneself to another through non-verbal attributes like appearance.
5. Rituals: the use of greetings, handshakes or other rituals like- facial expressions, eyes, touching and tone of voice.

9.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

Objective of this module is to introduce key features of Nonverbal Communication.

After the completion of this unit you should be able to:

1. Define Nonverbal Communication
2. Understand the importance of Nonverbal Communication.
3. Classify Nonverbal Communication
4. Describe the purpose Nonverbal communication serves in the communication process.

9.2 WHAT IS NON VERBAL COMMUNICATION?

Nonverbal communication can be defined as the process of communication in which we send and receive wordless (mostly visual) messages by the use of gestures, touch, body language or posture, facial expressions, eye contact, clothing, hairstyle, architecture, pitch and volume of voice etc.



9.2.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Non-Verbal Communication has the following characteristics:

1.Does not use words: Non-Verbal communication is a very prominent type of communication which is distinct from both verbal and written communication. It takes place extensively at various levels: individually, family, society and organization.

Non-Verbal communication is a most primitive form of communication which was developed much more before verbal and written communication. Gestures, postures, signals and facial expressions are some of the earliest means of communication used by man.

2. Universal in appeal: Another significant characteristic of Nonverbal communication is its universality. Unlike verbal communication, which has limitations in terms of reach, nonverbal communication is universal in appeal. It is

able to transcend all linguistic and cultural barriers. The language of love and compassion is widely recognized as a universal language.

3. Relies on observation and interpretation: Non-Verbal communication is closely associated with the power of observation. The receiver should be in a position to see, hear and even feel the communicator. He should be in a position to clearly see the face, gestures, dress and appearance of the communicator. He should be in a position to hear the voice and understand the tone of the communicator. Since it is through observation, nonverbal communication is both intended and unintended. It is intended when the communicator tries to convey certain messages to the target group through conscious gestures, postures, attire and other forms of body language. It is unintended when the body language, posture or appearance of the communicator gets interpreted by the receiver, even if it is not done intentionally. A sloppy posture or a casual attire may get interpreted as a lack of seriousness, even if the communicator is quite intent.

9.3 TYPES OF NON VERBAL COMMUNICATION

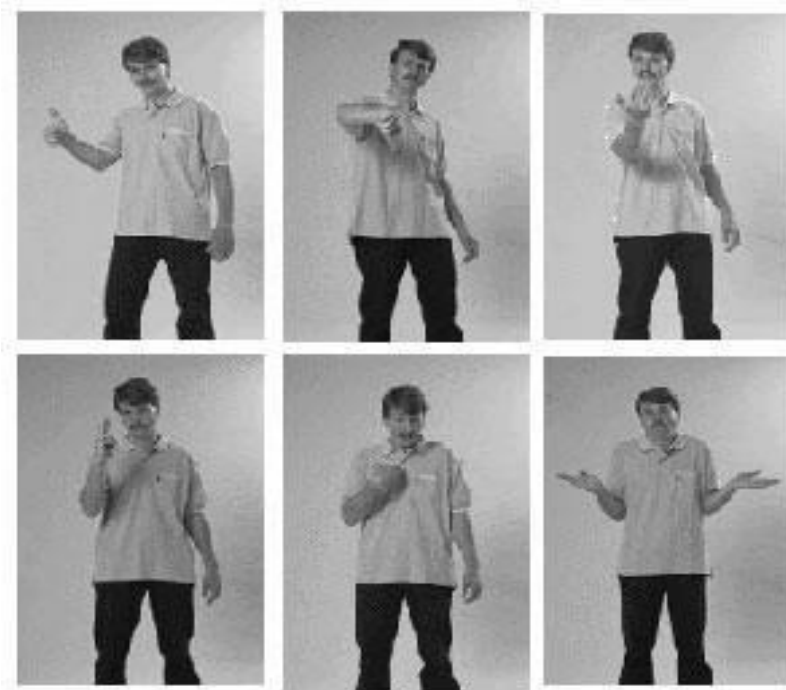
There are many ways in which body and its associated actions communicate messages, intended or unintended. Non verbal communication takes place at various levels, when parts of the body, actions, mannerisms, behavior, attire and demeanor tend to communicate.

Non verbal communication is of following types:

1. Kinesics or Body language
2. Proxemics
3. Time language
4. Para Language
5. Physical context

9.3.1 KINESICS OR BODY LANGUAGE:

Kinesics can be defined as the interpretation of body language such as facial expressions and gestures — or, more formally, non-verbal behavior related to movement, either of any part of the body or the body as a whole.



Researchers Ekman and Friesen established five basic purposes that this kind of movement serves- Emblems, Illustrators, Affect Displays, Regulators and Adaptors.

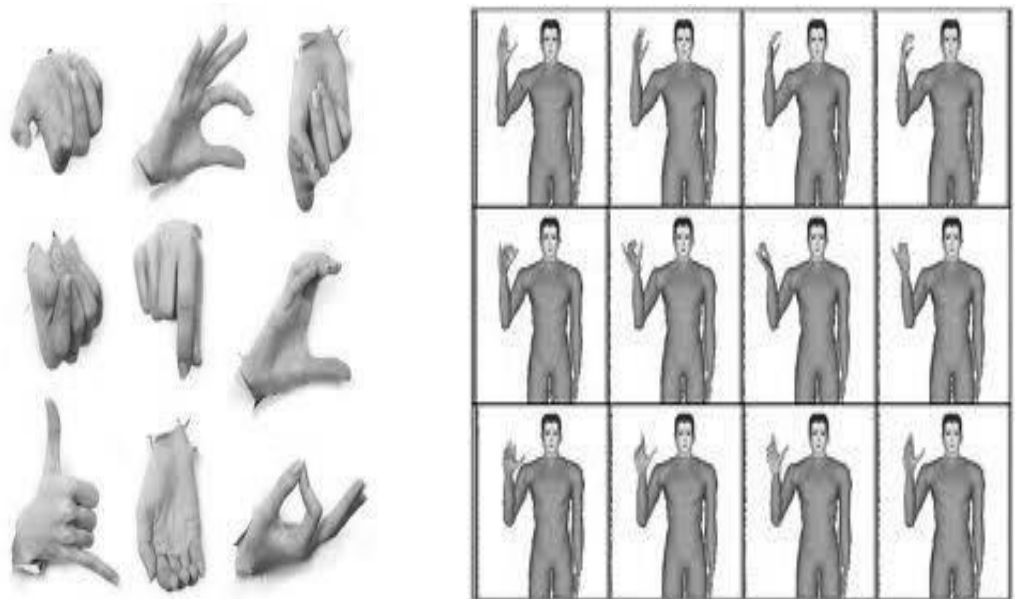
1. Emblem:



Emblems are nonverbal signals that can generally be translated directly into words. Most people within a culture or group agree on their meaning. A good example is the "A-OK" symbol made with the thumb and forefinger. Because these gestures can be directly translated into words, they are quick to use and unambiguous in their meaning. However, as we noted earlier, culture quickly

comes into play when you move outside of your "home" culture. For instance, in many parts of the world this gesture is directly translated as "OK", but in other places it might be translated as "Zero" or "None", and in others it is even understood to represent an obscene gesture representing a body orifice. Quite a different interpretation than being OK!

2. **Illustrators:** Illustrators are movements that complement verbal communication by describing or accenting or reinforcing what the speaker is saying. People use illustrators to indicate the size of an object or to draw a picture in the air or to emphasize a key word in what they are saying. These might include pointing to an object in the room or pounding on the table.



The frequency of use of illustrators may vary by culture, but they are used widely. Use of illustrators can help indicate interest, efforts to be clear or enthusiasm for the topic being discussed.

3. **Affect displays:** Affect displays are nonverbal displays of the body or face that carry an emotional meaning or display affective states. Our gait (bouncing, suggesting happiness for instance, or slouched and shuffling, suggesting depression), and our facial movements (breaking into a big grin, suggesting pleasure, or frowning suddenly indicating displeasure) send a message about our feelings.



Affect displays are often spontaneous and thus they may send signals that we would rather not convey based on social norms or our goals for communication.

4. **Regulators:** Regulators are nonverbal messages that accompany speech to control or regulate what the speaker is saying. These might include the nodding of the head to indicate you are listening or understanding something, for instance, and you are encouraging the speaker to continue.

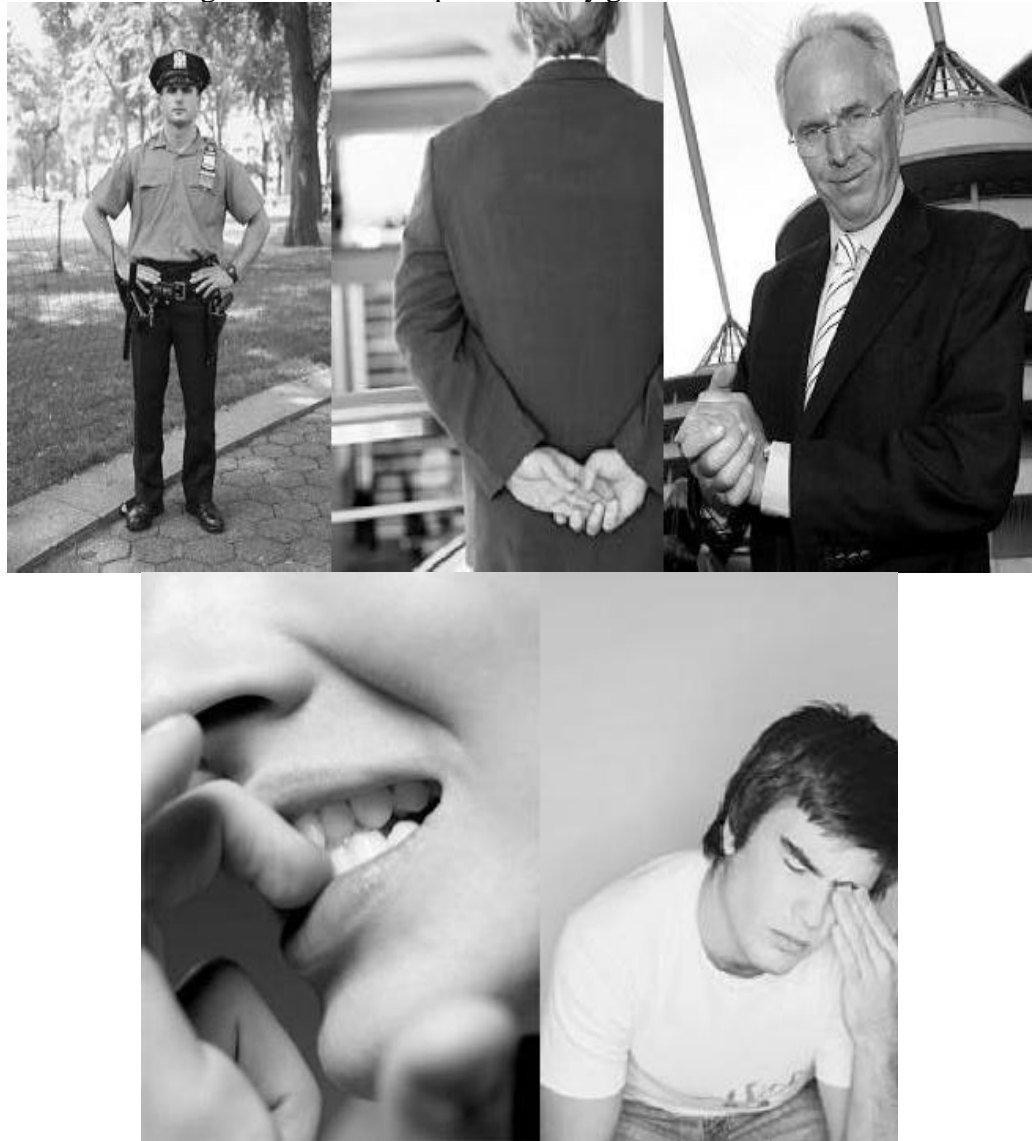


Regulars are often associated with turn-taking in conversation, influencing the flow and pace of discussion. For instance, we might start to move away, signaling that we want communication to stop, or we may raise a finger or lift our head to indicate we want to speak, or perhaps show our palm to indicate we don't want a turn at speaking.

2. **Adaptors:** Adaptors are forms of nonverbal communication that often occur at a low level of personal awareness. They can be thought of behaviors that are done to meet a personal need as one adapts to the specific communication situation. They include behaviors like twisting your hair, tapping your pen,

scratching, tugging on your ear, pushing your glasses up your nose, holding yourself, swinging your legs, etc. Given the low level of awareness of these behaviors by the person doing them, the observer is sometimes more aware of the behaviors than the doer of them. Adaptors may thus serve unintentionally as clues to how a person is feeling. Adaptors are not intended for use in communication, but rather may represent behaviors learned early in life that are somehow cued by the current situation and which may be increased when the level of anxiety goes up in the situation.

Picture paints a thousand words – and the same can certainly be said for gestures. We all subconsciously give away hints as to our true feelings, through our movements and gestures. Some important body gestures are as follows:



1. **Gesture:** Brisk, erect walk
Meaning: Confidence

2. **Gesture:** Standing with hands on hips
Meaning: Readiness, aggression
3. **Gesture:** Sitting with legs crossed, foot kicking slightly
Meaning: Boredom
4. **Gesture:** Sitting, legs apart
Meaning: Open, relaxed
5. **Gesture:** Arms crossed on chest
Meaning: Defensiveness
6. **Gesture:** Walking with hands in pockets, shoulders hunched
Meaning: Dejection
7. **Gesture:** Hand to cheek
Meaning: Evaluation or thinking
8. **Gesture:** Touching, slightly rubbing nose
Meaning: Rejection, doubt or lying
9. **Gesture:** Rubbing the eye
Meaning: Doubt or disbelief
10. **Gesture:** Hands clasped behind back
Meaning: Anger, frustration, apprehension
11. **Gesture:** Locked Ankles
Meaning: Apprehension
12. **Gesture:** Head resting in hand, eyes downcast
Meaning: Boredom
13. **Gesture: Rubbing Hands**
Meaning: Anticipation
14. **Gesture: Sitting with hands clasped behind head, legs crossed**
Meaning: Confidence, superiority
15. **Gesture: Open palms**
Meaning: Sincerity, openness, innocence
16. **Gesture: Pinching bridge of nose, eyes closed**
Meaning: Negative evaluation
17. **Gesture: Tapping or drumming fingers**
Meaning: Impatience
18. **Gesture: Stepling fingers**
Meaning: Authoritative
19. **Gesture:** Patting/fondling hair
Meaning: Lack of self confidence, insecurity
20. **Gesture: Quickly tilted head**
Meaning: Interest
21. **Gesture: Stroking Chin**
Meaning: Trying to make a decision
22. **Gesture: Looking down, face turned away**
Meaning: Disbelief
23. **Gesture: Biting nails**
Meaning: Insecurity, nervousness
24. **Gesture:** Pulling or tugging at ear

Meaning: Indecision

25. **Gesture: Prolonged tilted head**

Meaning: Boredom



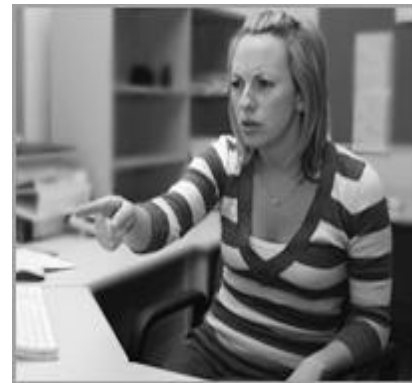
A Single Open Hand Gesture-Take a Seat



Clenched Fist and Frowning-Angry



Open Hand Gesture-Illustrate your point



Pointing-Aggressive and Confrontational

9.3.2 PROXEMIC

Proxemics can be defined as the perception of body spacing and postures.

Edward T. Hall has defined proxemics as the study of humankind's perception use of space.

Under the rules of proxemics, the physical distance between people is relative to the relationship they share. In order to avoid a social or professional faux pas, it is recommended that you do not share space outside of another person's comfort zone. The invasion of personal space evokes feelings of discomfort, agitation and even blatant anger.

Space or distance one should maintain while interacting with others depends upon the relationship you share. For Example:

1. **Intimate Relationship:** An intimate relationship is a particularly close interpersonal relationship that involves physical or emotional intimacy. Physical intimacy is characterized by romantic or passionate sex and attachment, or sexual activity. The term is

also sometimes used euphemistically for a sexual relationship. Intimate relationships play a central role in the overall human experience. Humans have a general desire to belong and to love which is usually satisfied within an intimate relationship. Intimate relationships involve the physical and sexual attraction by one person to another, liking and loving, romantic feelings and sexual relationships, as well as the seeking of a mate and emotional and personal support of each other. Intimate relationships provide a social network for people that provide strong emotional attachments, and fulfill our universal need of belonging and the need to be cared for.

Proxemics in Intimate relationship: The distance at close phase can be 0-18 inches and can include embracing, touching, or whispering. This proxemics is usually seen among people in an intimate relationship.



Strangers in this close distance, for instance on a subway, tends to experience discomfort. The senses of sight, body heat, odor and sound become overwhelmed. Hall's studies maintain that the average middle-class American will become agitated, tense and seek to withdraw when forced in close contact with strangers.

2. Personal relationship:

It is an association between two or more people that may range from fleeting to enduring. This association may be based on inference, love, solidarity, regular business interactions, or some other type of social commitment. Interpersonal relationships are formed in the context of social, cultural and other influences. The



The context can vary from family or kinship relations, friendship, marriage, relations with associates, work, clubs, neighborhoods, and places of worship. They may be regulated by law, custom, or mutual agreement, and are the basis of social groups and society as a whole.

Proxemics in Personal relationship: The distance at close phase can be 1.5 to 4 feet and is usually reserved for good friends. The personal zone allows a variety of both formal and non-formal contact between people. Although this zone is not as threatening as the intimate zone and allows people to maintain a reasonable amount of personal space, Hall indicates that this amount of space is close enough for a person to lay their hands on someone, causing social discomfort.

3. Social Relationship:

In social science, a social relation or social interaction refers to a relationship between two, three or more individuals (e.g. a social group). Social relations, derived from individual agency, form the basis of the social structure.



Proxemics in Social relationship: The distance at close phase is 4 to 12 feet and is usually used between formal acquaintances, colleagues, or business associates. Sensory details such as vision and smell are evident, although not overpowering. Beyond social distance, communication requires much more effort.

4. Public relations (PR):

It is the practice of managing the flow of information between an individual or an organization and the public. The aim of public relations by a company often is to persuade the public, investors, partners, employees, and other stakeholders to maintain a certain point of view about it, its leadership, products, or of political decisions. Common activities include speaking at conferences, winning industry awards, working with the press, and employee communication.



Proxemics in Public relationship: The distance at close phase is 12 to 25 feet and is used as a public speaker or when engaging with strangers. This zone has an adequate space to establish self-defense. Sensory communication must change to adapt, in order to communicate from these distances. This length of distance pertains to most public settings, rather than more intimate surroundings.

However Proxemic vary from one culture to another. For Example:

- A. In **Saudi Arabia** you might find yourself almost nose to nose with a business associate because their social space equates to our intimate space. You would probably find yourself backing away trying to regain your social space while your associate pursues you across the floor trying to maintain his. Finally, you would come away from the encounter thinking he was "pushy", and he thinking you was "standoff-ish."
- B. If, on the other hand, you were visiting a friend in **the Netherlands**, you would find the roles reversed, you would be doing the chasing because their personal space equates to our social space.
- C. While using a public transport you will see Americans tend to pull in their elbows and knees and try not to touch or even look at one another while riding the bus. In **Japan**, a country with a population half the size of the United States crammed into an area half the size of California, subway passengers are literally pushed into the cars until not even one more person will fit. You cannot help but be pressed against someone else's sweaty body.

9.3.3 TIME LANGUAGE:

Time is another mean by which non verbal communication takes place. Who comes first, who sits first, and gets up first, leaves first are all action of non verbal communication. Generally speaking, subordinates, invitees, students and participants arrive early and occupy their seats in advance. They are expected to do so.

On the other hand, teachers, speakers, superiors, special invitees and chief guests generally arrive a little later. They are not made to wait. Similarly, in any meeting, the senior most person or the chief sits first, speaks first, gets up first and leaves before the others. When it comes to public and other formal functions involving heads of state and others dignitaries, speakers are seated as per protocol. For example, the Governor of a state is the last to speak, after all other speakers. Looking at the watch is another aspect of time related communication. When a subordinate arrive late the superior looks at the watch to suggest his displeasure. The listener looks at the watch frequently to give the message to the speaker that his time is over.

Time Management: Time management has come to acquire a great significance in modern day business-management. Today business organizations aim to

achieve multifarious goals as per clearly laid out time schedules, time management holds the key to success.

In the organizational context, efficiency or lack of it is judged by the amount of importance people attach to the following:

- ❖ Punctuality; to be on time in meetings, function and appointments.
- ❖ Adherence to schedules for meetings and functions.
- ❖ Adherence to allotted time slots while speaking in conferences, meetings and functions.
- ❖ Prompt response to telephone calls.

A progressive organization ensures that the value of time is well appreciated.

Indifference to time schedules, on the other hand, suggests a sloppy work culture.

9.3.4 PARALANGUAGE:

Paralanguage refers to the vocal aspect of communication. Vocal elements of language differ from verbal elements in this way: vocal elements involve sound and its manipulation for certain desired or undesired effects. Verbal elements are the particular words we choose when speaking. Thus, in saying "hello," the verbal aspect is the actual word "hello." The vocal aspect, or paralinguistic element, is the sound of the word when uttered: the inflection of the voice, the pitch, loudness, pace, stress, and the like. In speaking, both language (verbal aspects or words) and paralanguage (vocal aspects or sounds) play significant roles in conveying our meaning.

Aspects of speech signals/paralanguage:

Speech signals that arrive at a listener's ears have acoustic properties that may allow listeners to localize the speaker

(distance, direction). Sound localization functions in a similar way also for non-speech sounds. The perspective aspects of lip reading are more obvious and have more drastic effects when head turning is involved.



1. Organic aspects:

The speech organs of different speakers differ in size. As children grow up, their organs of speech become larger and there are differences between male and female adults. The differences concern not only size, but also proportions. They

affect the pitch of the voice and to a substantial extent also the formant frequencies, which characterize the different speech sounds. The organic quality of speech has a communicative function in a restricted sense, since it is merely informative about the speaker. It will be expressed independently of the speaker's intention.

2. Expressive aspects:

Paralinguistic cues such as loudness, rate, pitch, pitch contour, and to some extent formant frequencies of an utterance, contribute to the emotive or attitudinal quality of an utterance. Typically, attitudes are expressed intentionally and emotions without intention, but attempts to fake or to hide emotions are not unusual.

Consequently, paralinguistic cues relating to expression have a moderate effect of semantic marking. That is, a message may be made more or less coherent by adjusting its expressive presentation. For instance, upon hearing an utterance such as "I drink a glass of wine every night before I go to sleep" is coherent when made by a speaker identified as an adult, but registers a small semantic anomaly when made by a speaker identified as a child.

3. Linguistic aspects

Ordinary phonetic transcriptions of utterances reflect only the linguistically informative quality. The problem of how listeners factor out the linguistically informative quality from speech signals is a topic of current research.

In text-only communication such as email, chatrooms and instant messaging, paralinguistic elements can be displayed by emoticons, font and color choices, capitalization and the use of non-alphabetic or abstract characters. Nonetheless, paralanguage in written communication is limited in comparison with face-to-face conversation, sometimes leading to misunderstandings.

9.3.5 PHYSICAL CONTEXT:

Physical context includes the material objects surrounding the communication event and any other feature of the natural world that influences communication. (E.g. furniture and how it is arranged, size of the room, colors, temperature, time of day, etc.)

The environment and social and cultural artifacts are vital for understanding nonverbal communication. The environment refers to the physical place in which communication takes place. Artifacts are the objects in the environment that can provide some form of stimulus to the communicators. It is these concepts that provide the context for nonverbal communication.

For both the environment and artifacts, there are a number of factors that can effect changes in how individuals communicate non-verbally. These factors are as follows:

1. **Appropriateness:** Appropriateness is a factor of both the environment and the artifacts present in the environment. The environment and artifacts give clues as to what nonverbal behaviors are in and out of context. For example, in a Jewish household observing Shiva, laughing is considered inappropriate, and thus individuals avoid exhibiting such behavior.

Artifacts need not be in a specific environment to influence behavior either. For example, a wedding ring on a woman's finger indicates that making romantic or sexual propositions to her are inappropriate actions and should be avoided.



2. **Climate:** Climate is an environmental factor that affects not only an individual's nonverbal behavior but the nonverbal behavior of the native residents in a specific climate type. For example, for countries in the northern hemisphere, those residents living in the southern areas with hotter climates tend to use more body language and stronger facial expressions. Groups that have similar forms of nonverbal behavior tend to migrate to areas of specific climates.



According to Peter Andersen, in his book "Nonverbal Communication: Forms and Functions," gays and lesbians tend to move to warmer climates, such as that of San Francisco, while certain musical groups tend to move to rainy and cold climates, such as the Pacific Northwest.

3. **Microenvironments:** The word "microenvironment" refers to a local environment constructed by humans, such as gardens, patios and office spaces. The local environment itself as well as the artifacts contained in it communicates

messages to people that influence the nonverbal communication of those present in the microenvironment.



The temperature, lighting, color and sound all impact human nonverbal behavior. One example of such an influence is the replacement of a square classroom table with a circular one. This action increases classroom interaction.

4. **Scent:** The smell of an environment is an important factor in predicting how people will behave in it. Artifacts, such as breath spray, cologne and aftershave, can influence a person's non-verbal behavior. Scents trigger memories of the past and can be meaningful in different ways to different individuals. An example of how scent affects behavior is the addition of rotting food to an environment. This changes people's willingness to eat as well as influences their physical position in the environment.

CASE STUDIES ON NON VERBAL COMMUNICATION

1. Case Study

At a project meeting Mary, the project team leader, presented her suggested project timetable to meet the project goals. During the presentation she noticed that two team members were showing non-verbal signs of disapproval. Simon was frowning and shaking his head and Justin had leant back in his chair and folded his arms.

Mary stopped what she was saying, turned to Simon and Justin and asked ‘I sense you are not supportive of what I’m saying. Can I clarify anything for you?’ Simon replied ‘You are right. I think the project timetable is unachievable.’ Mary responded by directing a question to the whole group ‘How do the rest of you feel about the timetable I’m suggesting?’

By observing these valuable non-verbal cues Mary was able to open up communication amongst the team and find an early resolution to this problem. Had she ignored or not been aware of the cues, she could well have encountered serious problems with meeting the project timetable and ultimate completion. Additionally, she might not have received the full support of two valuable team members.

2. Case Study

Reference:

http://highered.mcgrawhill.com/sites/0072959827/student_view0/chapter6/case_study.html

Tay and Cindy recently married. Cindy loved her in-laws, whom she has known for several years and who are genuinely supportive of her, Tay, and their marriage. But Cindy is sometimes uncomfortable around Tay's mother, Mara. She isn't comfortable calling her "mom" or "mother," even though Mara has asked her to do so. Her mother-in-law also hugs Cindy, and tries to hold her hand or put her arm around her whenever they see each other. Cindy's discomfort has become noticeable to Tay, who asks about her feelings for his mother. "I love your mom, but I don't even hug my own father," Cindy responds. "I just don't like hugging too many people. I tell her all the time how much I love her and your Dad." "We are a very nonverbal family," responds Tay. "Please try to find a way to express yourself nonverbally."

3. Case Study

(Source:http://highered.mcgrawhill.com/sites/0072959827/student_view0/chapter1/case_study.html)

When Shara and her family moved to their new home, they loved the rural atmosphere, privacy, and beauty of the location. However, the three-mile trek down a dirt road to their driveway was a significant disadvantage. The county road was poorly maintained, it attracted high-speed traffic from drivers of off-road vehicles, non-residents used it as a parking area to consume alcohol and other drugs, and the remote location enabled frequent illegal dumping.

Shara made a personal commitment to get the road paved. She contacted her local county supervisor and conducted fact-finding interviews to determine funding possibilities. After several phone calls, letters, and personal meetings with her county representatives, Shara was told that she would need to raise over \$100,000 for material costs from property owners along the road.

Based on mail and phone surveys of property owners, Shara decided that there was enough interest in her community to hold evening meetings of property owners. She enlisted the support of a neighboring engineer to help lead the effort. At one point in the fundraising, an angry resident wrote that he opposed the road paving and saw it as an infringement on his privacy. Shara's neighbor was furious and chose to ignore the letter. Shara, however, responded with a letter and a phone call, reassuring the neighbor that he would not be forced to contribute and that his concerns were important to her.

After months of work, all of the county's demands were met. Sufficient funds were raised without imposing new taxes or coercing those on limited income to pay. Some residents gave money on behalf of others with fixed incomes, and in

the end, the disgruntled neighbor decided to contribute. After all, he said, everyone else wanted the road paved, and he wanted to do his part for the community. As a new resident faced with reluctant neighbors, government bureaucracy, and a substantial amount of money to raise, Shara faced daunting obstacles. The success of her efforts depended not only on her mastery of communication in different contexts, but on her ability to make her communication goals match her personal ethics of respect for others, encouraging participation, and activism in civic life.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What is nonverbal communication?
2. What are the key features of nonverbal communication?
3. What are the different types of nonverbal communication?
4. What is kinesics? What does the various face expression indicates?
5. What is proxemic? Mention the space maintained in different types of relationship.
6. How does time helps in nonverbal communication?
7. Name at least ten body gestures and explain what does it indicates?

9.4 SUMMARY:

- ❖ Non verbal communication means communicating through gestures, touch, body, language, posture, facial expressions and eye contact.
- ❖ Non-verbal communication is the most primitive form of communication. It was developed much more before verbal and written communication.
- ❖ Non verbal communication is universal in appeal. It transcends all linguistic and cultural barriers.
- ❖ According to their usage, non verbal communication may complement or contradict verbal messages. Thus, a speaker must be careful about the same.
- ❖ Like individuals organizations also have their own body language. An organization expresses itself through its design, office arrangement, space management, location and colour usage.
- ❖ Paralanguage refers to those nonverbal elements of communication which are used to modify meaning and convey emotion. It includes the pitch, volume and in some cases, intonations of speech.
- ❖ Kinesics refers to the interpretation of non-verbal behavior related to movement, either of any part of the body or the body as a whole.
- ❖ Proximics refers to the study of set measurable distances between people as they interact.
- ❖ Physical context includes the material objects surrounding the communication event and any other features of the natural world that influence communication. (E.g. furniture and how it is arranged, size of the room, colors, temperature, time of day, etc.)

- ❖ An intimate relationship is a particularly close interpersonal relationship that involves physical or emotional intimacy.
- ❖ Personal relationship: It is an association between two or more people that may range from fleeting to enduring. This association may be based on inference, love, solidarity, regular business interactions, or some other type of social commitment.
- ❖ Emblems are nonverbal signals that can generally be translated directly into words
- ❖ Illustrators are movements that complement verbal communication by describing or accenting or reinforcing what the speaker is saying. People use illustrators to indicate the size of an object or to draw a picture in the air or to emphasize a key word in what they are saying.
- ❖ Affect displays are nonverbal displays of the body or face that carry an emotional meaning or display affective states.
- ❖ Regulators are nonverbal messages that accompany speech to control or regulate what the speaker is saying.
- ❖ Adaptors are forms of nonverbal communication that often occur at a low level of personal awareness.

9.5 GLOSSARY:

- **Kinesics or Body language:** Kinesics can be defined as the interpretation of body language such as facial expressions and gestures — or, more formally, non-verbal behavior related to movement, either of any part of the body or the body as a whole.
- **Non-verbal communication** can be defined as the process of communication in which we send and receive wordless (mostly visual) messages by the use of gestures, touch, body language or posture, facial expressions, eye contact, clothing, hairstyle, architecture, pitch and volume of voice etc.
- **Paralanguage** refers to the vocal aspect of communication like pitch of voice, volume of sound etc. Vocal elements of language differ from verbal elements in this way: vocal elements involve sound and its manipulation for certain desired or undesired effects.
- **Physical context** includes the material objects surrounding the communication event and any other features of the natural world that influence communication. (E.g. furniture and how it is arranged, size of the room, colors, temperature, time of day, etc.)
- **Proxemics** It can be defined as the perception of body spacing and postures.

- **Time language** means the importance of time. It is one of the important aspects in today's business world. Time speaks a lot about a particular human being through his/her ability to utilize the time, like-punctuality, time management etc.
- Under the rules of proxemics, the physical distance between people is relative to the relationship they share.

9.6 SHORT AND MID TERM QUESTIONS

Short-Answer Questions

1. Define various types of Non verbal communication.
2. How do facial expressions and voice effect non-verbal communication?
3. What is the significance of personal space in personal relation?
4. How does the layout of an organization affect its image?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain the various constituents of human body language.
2. Describe the various categories of Kinesics.
3. Explain how time is effective in non verbal communication.

9.7 FURTHER READING:

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- Pillai, R.S.N. and Bagavathi. *Commercial Correspondence and Office Management* New Delhi: Sultan Chand and Co. Ltd.
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- <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/proxemics>
- http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nonverbal_communication
- http://www.creducation.org/resources/nonverbal_communication/types_of_nonverbal_communication.html
- <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kinesics>

Verbal Communication

Verbal communication takes place directly between the superiors and juniors in organizations and between farmers and extension functionaries in the field and is often known as face to face communication. It takes the form of talks, a public address, verbal discussions, telephonic talks, telecommunications and other artificial media, such as audio-visual aids speeches and orders, holdings of meetings and conferences, lectures, social get-togethers, training sessions, public address systems, museums, exhibitions, counseling etc.

Verbal communication enjoys certain merits

- i. It is the least time consuming, is more direct, simple and the least expensive.
- ii. It is more communicative and effective and aids in avoiding delays, red-tape and formalities.
- iii. It generates a friendly and co-operative spirit.
- iv. It provides an immediate feedback, as questions can be put and answers obtained about the information transmitted
- v. Since every information cannot be put into writing, most of it is conveyed by means of oral instructions, mutual discussions and telephonic conversations.

However, verbal communication has certain demerits. These are:

- _ Lengthy, distant and important information cannot be effectively conveyed verbally
- _ Verbal talks may often be distorted if there is some cause of indifference between the receiver and the sender.
- _ It is inadequate where permanency and uniformity of form are required.
- _ Due to various communication gaps, as a result of status and other physical or personal barriers communication is incomplete.
- _ Spontaneous responses may not be carefully thought.
- _ The spoken words can be more easily misunderstood than the written words.
- _ It presupposes expertise in the art of effective speaking.

Assertive Communication

Positive Words and Phrases

Dictionary says – Positive = “expressing certainty or affirmation to emphasize what is good”

What I can do for you is.....

You can be confident that..

I can assure you ...

Immediately

I'll do that personally for you

I have a solution

I will...

I am positive..

I will investigate this now for you...

Thank you

I can confirm that...

I am delighted to...

The good news is

The product I would recommend for you is....

From my experience, I would suggest

That's not a problem

Any favourites of yours to add to the list

Assertiveness is all about

Being honest about yourself and others

Being confident

Trying to find solutions

Listening to and understanding the other point of view

Expressing what you want, need or feel but not at the expense of others

Showing genuine empathy

Being prepared

Quotes from assertive people

I'd like to tackle the task in this way. How does that affect you?

I know we're really stressed at the moment. However I've stayed late the last 3 evenings

so I want to go home on time tonight

I understand what you are saying, however I've got to go. Can we tackle the

problem in the morning

I appreciate that we normally go out to the pub on a Thursday night,

however I want to stop in tonight

Aggressiveness is all about

Getting your own way (at the expense of others)

Making sure you come out the winner

Not listening to others

Giving no consideration to others

Quotes from aggressive people

Just do it.

I don't agree with you

That's stupid

Surely you don't believe that

It's your turn to go to the coffee machine

It's a load of rubbish – typical of the finance department – they haven't got a clue

I'd like it done by 2.30

No, I don't want to go out for a drink tonight

Presentation skills

Presentation is a speech that is usually given in a formal setup - business, technical, professional or scientific environment. Something set forth to an audience for the attention of the mind. An effective presentation creates a change in the audience; they become more informed or gain a better understanding of a particular subject. A good presentation is a kind of communication between the speaker and the audience.

Presentations are an important way of communicating ideas and information to a group. Presentation carries the speaker's personality better and allows immediate interaction between all participants.

Why Presentation?

- To teach/train
- To gather opinions
- To publicize an idea
- To share findings of research
- To highlight a problem (and to seek a solution)
- To pass on information

To entertain

To motivate

Presentation Formats

Providing Information

Teaching a skill

Reporting Progress

Selling a product, Service or Strategy

Obtaining a Decision

Solving a Problem

In order to communicate with your audience, you need to consider the following points:

1. Content: It contains information that people need. The presenter should assess how much information the audience can absorb.
2. Structure: It has a logical beginning, middle and end. It must be sequenced and paced so that the audience can understand it. The presenter must be careful not to lose the audience when wandering from the main point of the presentation.

An Outline for Presentations:

Introduction

What? Overview of the presentation

Why? Purpose of the presentation (why the subject is important)

How? How will you deliver your presentation, what are the expectations of the audience from it?

Who? If more than one person is presenting, provide introductions and indicate roles (don't expect audience to memorize it)

Body

The following list suggests alternative formats for presenting information:

multiple formats can be used within the presentation:

Rhetorical – questions & answers

Logical progression – indicate steps e.g. A then B then C

Time series – order information from beginning to end, earlier to later etc.

Compare and contrast – use the same structure to compare different events
individuals or situations

Problems and solutions – don't present problems without working toward some
recommended solutions

Simple to complex – use successive building blocks to communicate complex
process or concepts

Deductive reasoning –moving from general principles or values to specific
applications or examples

Inductive reasoning – using specific applications/examples to reach general
principles or conclusions

3. Conclusion

Review, highlight and emphasize key points, benefits and recommendations.

Draw conclusions – What are we? What does all of this mean? What's the next step?

Packaging

It must be well prepared. Writing can be re-read and portions skipped over, but with
a presentation, the audience is at the mercy of the presenter.

Tell the audience what you are going to tell them;

Tell them; and

Tell them what you have told them.

A Checklist for Presentation

You owe your audience, so creating an effective presentation takes planning and
practice. Following are the tips to deliver an effective presentation:

1. Start preparing early: don't wait until the last few days to prepare

Don't wait for the last moment

Practice your entire presentation

Try to practice it before a group of colleagues or friends

2. Think about your audience

Who are they and why are they gathered?

What are their interests?

What do they know? What do they want to know? What is worth their time?

3. As an audience member, think about these questions:

Why should I pay attention to the presenter? And when can I think about more interesting things?

Why should I care about these issues?

I agree with the significance of the topic, but how is the presenter justifying his ideas?

Now that I am convinced, what does the presenter want from me?

4. Be clear about your purpose

Are you informing or persuading?

Tell them what you are going to do, tell them what you told them

What do you want the audience to know, feel or believe afterwards?

5. Use an effective introduction

Orient the audience, explain why it's important and set the tone

Establish a relationship between the speaker and the audience, establish credibility

Avoid weak introduction such as apologizes, jokes, rhetorical questions

6. Organize your presentation clearly and simply

Prioritize topics and allocate time accordingly

Stick to only 3 5 points

-

Have a well thought out pattern (examples are problem/solution, chronological, - causes and effect, topical); use transitions to move smoothly from one point to the next.

7. Use supporting materials to flesh out main points

Use examples, statistics, expert opinion etc.

8. Compose for the ears, not for the eyes

Use simple words, simple sentences, markers, repetition, images, personal, language etc.

9. Create an effective conclusion

Summarize, set final image, provide closure; don't trail off, don't use trite phrases

Don't just present data or summarized results and leave audience to draw its own conclusions

You have had much more time to work with your information than your audience; share your insight and understanding and tell them what you have concluded from your work

10. Sound spontaneous, conversational, and enthusiastic

Use key phrases in your notes, so you don't have to read, use the overhead instead of notes

Vary volume, don't be afraid of silence, and don't use fillers like "ummm....Aahmm"

Practice, practice and practice

11. Use body language effectively

Relaxed gestures, eye contact, don't play with a pen or pointer

Don't block visual aids

12. Use visual aids to enhance the message

Use visual aids to reinforce and clarify, not overwhelm

Keep visual aids uncluttered, use titles to guide the audience

13. Analyze the environment

Note the size of the room, placement of chairs, time of day, temperature, distractions

Check audio visual equipment ahead of time

Making the Presentation Delivery

Speak clearly. Don't shout or whisper - judge the acoustics of the room.

Don't rush, or talk deliberately slowly. Be natural - although not conversational.

Deliberately pause at key points - this has the effect of emphasizing the importance of a particular point you are making.

Avoid jokes - always disastrous unless you are a natural expert.

To make the presentation interesting, change your delivery, but not too obviously. e.g.: speed, pitch of voice.

Use your hands to emphasize points but don't indulge in too much hand waving.

People can, over a period of time, develop irritating habits. Ask colleagues occasionally what they think of your style.

Look at the audience as much as possible, but don't fix on one individual - it can be intimidating. Pitch our presentation towards the back of the audience, especially in larger rooms.

Don't face the display screen behind you and talk to it. Other annoying habits include: Standing in a position where you obscure the screen. In fact, positively check for anyone in the audience who may be disadvantaged and try to accommodate them.

Presentation Skills - Some Practice Tips:

Practicing these exercises will make presentation more natural.

Posture -- Practice standing in the correct posture [feet, knees, hips, shoulders all in a straight line with your arms at your sides] while standing on lifts, standing in queues, waiting at the cash machine, on a coffee break, etc.

Movement -- Practice movement on your feet at home. Cut faces out of magazines and tape or pin them to chairs and sofas. Speaking to one "person" at a time, look first, walk over and stand still for 3 or 4 sentences while speaking, then look at someone else, and repeat the process.

Gestures -- Start practicing the use of gestures for description and/or emphasis by first becoming more aware of your own natural gestures. Do you gesture while on telephone? Do you gesture while talking to a friend, colleague, or family member? By increasing your awareness of what you do with your arms and hands in every day conversations, you will be able to transfer these gestures into all speaking situations.

Facial Animation -- Appropriate facial expressions usually coincide with gestures.

Facial Animation -- Appropriate facial expressions usually coincide with gestures.

If you tend to look overly serious during presentations, using more gestures will help liven up things. Also practice making a variety of facial gestures while speaking in a mirror or driving in the car.

Voice - For Volume and Variety: For sufficient volume, become more aware of breathing deeply from your diaphragm. Lie on the floor with a book placed just above your belt or waist. Yawn several times. This is what breathing from the diaphragm should feel like. Breathe in slowly to the count of 10 watching your stomach expand and then exhale slowly expelling all the air.

For vocal variety practice, try reading children's books aloud. Your voice will naturally animate with the story. Record your voice and listen to it resonate in your

head for higher vocal tones, in your throat for the midrange and deep in your chest for lower vocal tones. Using more gestures will also help to naturally animate your voice.

Pause and Pace - To help eliminate clutter words and use the right, controlled pace, try playing back your voice mail messages before sending them to the recipient and evaluate yourself. Listen for short sentences that end without clutter and "over-connectors" such as: and, but, and so, and rate your pace.

Eye Contact -- Place three to four small Post-It Notes randomly around your workspace. These will be your "eye targets." Whenever you're on the phone, speak one short sentence while looking at the first Post-It Note. After finishing the sentence, pause. Then move on to the next Post-it Note and repeat. This will help you to maintain eye contact with one person at a time while completing a thought or sentence, and eliminate clutter words.

Dos and Don'ts of Presentation

Dos

Lots of background research. Even if the information is not used in the presentation, it is useful to have as much knowledge as possible for the discussion and audience questions. It will assist your confidence too.

Be organized - prepare in plenty of time.

Structure your presentation.

Focus on the question set.

Obtain material from a wide range of sources.

Practice your presentation.

Use note cards.

Speak clearly.

Don'ts

Leave research and preparation until the last minute.

Rely on one source of information.

Make it up.

Just hope that it will come together on the day without preparation and practice.

Have no notes to rely on if you get stuck.

Worry too much it's not as bad as it seems.

Mumble.

Read from script.

Rush the presentation by speaking too fast.

Make eye contact with your audience.

Research indicates that we tend to base our judgment of other people on three main characteristics:

Verbal content: 7%

Vocal Interests: 38%

Body Language: 55%

This shows that more than 90% of your public image depends on how you look and sound than the content that you deliver.

There is no mystery about making a good presentation

It is all about finding out how to do it right.

It is a skill, and like any other skill it can be learnt.

It is a skill, which can be mastered with little time and effort.

The most brilliant speech will ultimately depend for its success on presentation style of the speaker. And not on the contents of the speech itself.

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6.1 Principles of Interpersonal Communication

Learning Objectives

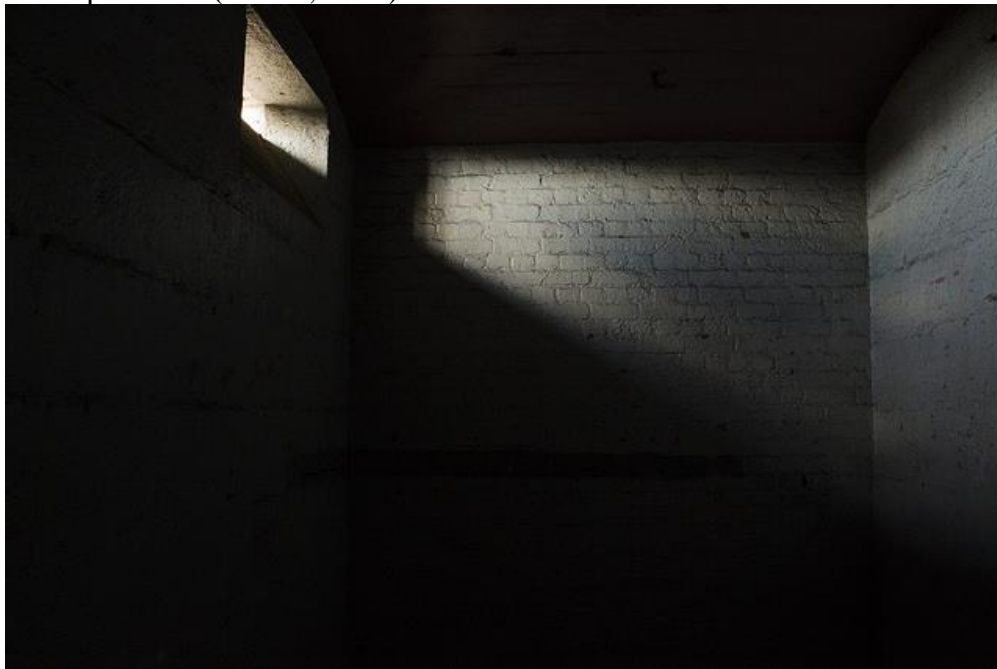
1. Define interpersonal communication.
2. Discuss the functional aspects of interpersonal communication.
3. Discuss the cultural aspects of interpersonal communication.

In order to understand interpersonal communication, we must understand how interpersonal communication functions to meet our needs and goals and how our interpersonal communication connects to larger social and

cultural systems. Interpersonal communication is the process of exchanging messages between people whose lives mutually influence one another in unique ways in relation to social and cultural norms. This definition highlights the fact that interpersonal communication involves two or more people who are interdependent to some degree and who build a unique bond based on the larger social and cultural contexts to which they belong. So a brief exchange with a grocery store clerk who you don't know wouldn't be considered interpersonal communication, because you and the clerk are not influencing each other in significant ways. Obviously, if the clerk were a friend, family member, coworker, or romantic partner, the communication would fall into the interpersonal category. In this section, we discuss the importance of studying interpersonal communication and explore its functional and cultural aspects.

Why Study Interpersonal Communication?

Interpersonal communication has many implications for us in the real world. Did you know that interpersonal communication played an important role in human evolution? Early humans who lived in groups, rather than alone, were more likely to survive, which meant that those with the capability to develop interpersonal bonds were more likely to pass these traits on to the next generation (Leary, 2001). Did you know that interpersonal skills have a measurable impact on psychological and physical health? People with higher levels of interpersonal communication skills are better able to adapt to stress, have greater satisfaction in relationships and more friends, and have less depression and anxiety (Hargie, 2011). In fact, prolonged isolation has been shown to severely damage a human (Williams & Zadro, 2001). Have you ever heard of the boy or girl who was raised by wolves? There have been documented cases of abandoned or neglected children, sometimes referred to as feral children, who survived using their animalistic instincts but suffered psychological and physical trauma as a result of their isolation (Candland, 1995). There are also examples of solitary confinement, which has become an ethical issue in many countries. In "supermax" prisons, which now operate in at least forty-four states, prisoners spend 22.5 to 24 hours a day in their cells and have no contact with the outside world or other prisoners (Shalev, 2011).



Aside from making your relationships and health better, interpersonal communication skills are highly sought after by potential employers, consistently ranking in the top ten in national surveys (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2010). Each of these examples illustrates how interpersonal communication meets our basic needs as humans for security in our social bonds, health, and careers. But we are not born with all the interpersonal communication skills we'll need in life. So in order to make the most out of our interpersonal relationships, we must learn some basic principles.

Think about a time when a short communication exchange affected a relationship almost immediately. Did you mean for it to happen? Many times we engage in interpersonal communication to fulfill certain goals we may have, but sometimes we are more successful than others. This is because interpersonal communication is strategic, meaning we intentionally create messages to achieve certain goals that help us function in society and our relationships. Goals vary based on the situation and the communicators, but ask yourself if you are generally successful at achieving the goals with which you enter a conversation or not. If so, you may already possess a high degree of interpersonal communication competence, or the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in personal relationships. This chapter will help you understand some key processes that can make us more effective and appropriate communicators. You may be asking, "Aren't effectiveness and appropriateness the same thing?" The answer is no. Imagine that you are the manager of a small department of employees at a marketing agency where you often have to work on deadlines. As a deadline approaches, you worry about your team's ability to work without your supervision to complete the tasks, so you interrupt everyone's work and assign them all individual tasks and give them a bulleted list of each subtask with a deadline to turn each part in to you. You meet the deadline and have effectively accomplished your goal. Over the next month, one of your employees puts in her two-weeks' notice, and you learn that she and a few others have been talking about how they struggle to work with you as a manager. Although your strategy was effective, many people do not respond well to strict hierarchy or micromanaging and may have deemed your communication inappropriate. A more competent communicator could have implemented the same detailed plan to accomplish the task in a manner that included feedback, making the employees feel more included and heard. In order to be competent interpersonal communicators, we must learn to balance being effective and appropriate.

Functional Aspects of Interpersonal Communication

We have different needs that are met through our various relationships. Whether we are aware of it or not, we often ask ourselves, "What can this relationship do for me?" In order to understand how relationships achieve strategic functions, we will look at instrumental goals, relationship-maintenance goals, and self-presentation goals.

What motivates you to communicate with someone? We frequently engage in communication designed to achieve instrumental goals such as gaining compliance (getting someone to do something for us), getting information we need, or asking for support (Burleson, Metts, & Kirch, 2000). In short, instrumental talk helps us "get things done" in our relationships. Our instrumental goals can be long term or day to day. The following are examples of communicating for instrumental goals:

- You ask your friend to help you move this weekend (gaining/resisting compliance).
- You ask your coworker to remind you how to balance your cash register till at the end of your shift (requesting or presenting information).
- You console your roommate after he loses his job (asking for or giving support).

When we communicate to achieve relational goals, we are striving to maintain a positive relationship. Engaging in relationship-maintenance communication is like taking your car to be serviced at the repair shop. To have a good relationship, just as to have a long-lasting car, we should engage in routine maintenance. For example, have you ever wanted to stay in and order a pizza and watch a movie, but your friend suggests that you go to a local restaurant and then to the theatre? Maybe you don't feel like being around a lot of people or spending money (or changing out of your pajamas), but you decide to go along with his or her suggestion. In that moment, you are putting your relational partner's needs above your own, which will likely make him or her feel valued. It is likely that your friend has made or will also make similar concessions to put your needs first, which indicates that there is a satisfactory and complimentary relationship. Obviously, if one partner always insists on having his or her way or always concedes, becoming the martyr, the individuals are not exhibiting interpersonal-communication competence. Other routine relational tasks include celebrating special occasions or honoring accomplishments, spending time together, and checking in regularly by phone, e-mail, text, social media, or face-to-face communication. The following are examples of communicating for relational goals:

- You organize an office party for a coworker who has just become a US citizen (celebrating/honoring accomplishments).
- You make breakfast with your mom while you are home visiting (spending time together).
- You post a message on your long-distance friend's Facebook wall saying you miss him (checking in).



Another form of relational talk that I have found very useful is what I call the DTR talk, which stands for “defining-the-relationship talk” and serves a relationship-maintenance function. In the early stages of a romantic relationship, you may have a DTR talk to reduce uncertainty about where you stand by deciding to use the term *boyfriend*, *girlfriend*, or *partner*. In a DTR talk, you may proactively define your relationship by saying, “I’m glad I’m with you and no one else.” Your romantic interest may respond favorably, echoing or rephrasing your statement, which gives you an indication that he or she agrees with you. The talk may continue on from there, and you may talk about what to call your relationship, set boundaries, or not. It is not unusual to have several DTR talks as a relationship progresses. At times, you may have to define the relationship when someone steps over a line by saying, “I think we should just be friends.” This more explicit and reactive (rather than proactive) communication can be especially useful in situations where a relationship may be unethical, inappropriate, or create a conflict of interest—for example, in a supervisor-supervisee, mentor-mentee, professional-client, or collegial relationship.

We also pursue self-presentation goals by adapting our communication in order to be perceived in particular ways. Just as many companies, celebrities, and politicians create a public image, we desire to present different faces in different contexts. The well-known scholar Erving Goffman compared self-presentation to a performance and suggested we all perform different roles in different contexts (Goffman, 1959). Indeed, competent communicators can successfully manage how others perceive them by adapting to situations and contexts. A parent may perform the role of stern head of household, supportive shoulder to cry on, or hip and culturally aware friend to his or her child. A newly hired employee may initially perform the role of serious and agreeable coworker. Sometimes people engage in communication that doesn’t necessarily present them in a positive way. For example, Haley, the oldest daughter in the television show *Modern Family*, often presents herself as incapable in order to get her parents to do her work. In one episode she pretended she didn’t know how to crack open an egg so her mom Claire would make the brownies for her school bake sale. Here are some other examples of communicating to meet self-presentation goals:

- As your boss complains about struggling to format the company newsletter, you tell her about your experience with Microsoft Word and editing and offer to look over the newsletter once she’s done to fix the formatting (presenting yourself as competent).
- You and your new college roommate stand in your dorm room full of boxes. You let him choose which side of the room he wants and then invite him to eat lunch with you (presenting yourself as friendly).
- You say, “I don’t know,” in response to a professor’s question even though you have an idea of the answer (presenting yourself as aloof, or “too cool for school”).

“Getting Real”

Image Consultants

The Association of Image Consultants International (AICI) states that appearance, behavior, and communication are the “ABC’s of image.” Many professional image consultants are licensed by this organization and provide a variety of services to politicians, actors, corporate trainers, public speakers, organizations, corporations, and television personalities such as news anchors.^{[14](#)} Visit the AICI’s website

(http://www.aici.org/About_Image_Consulting/Image_Consulting.htm) and read about image consulting, including the “How to Choose,” “How to Become,” and “FAQs” sections. Then consider the following questions:

- 1.If you were to hire an image consultant for yourself, what would you have them “work on” for you? Why?
- 2.What communication skills that you’ve learned about in the book so far would be most important for an image consultant to possess?
- 3.Many politicians use image consultants to help them connect to voters and win elections. Do you think this is ethical? Why or why not?

As if managing instrumental, relational, and self-presentation goals isn’t difficult enough when we consider them individually, we must also realize that the three goal types are always working together. In some situations we may privilege instrumental goals over relational or self-presentation goals. For example, if your partner is offered a great job in another state and you decided to go with him or her, which will move you away from your job and social circle, you would be focusing on relational goals over instrumental or self-presentation goals. When you’re facing a stressful situation and need your best friend’s help and call saying, “Hurry and bring me a gallon of gas or I’m going to be late to work!” you are privileging instrumental goals over relational goals. Of course, if the person really is your best friend, you can try to smooth things over or make up for your shortness later. However, you probably wouldn’t call your boss and bark a request to bring you a gallon of gas so you can get to work, because you likely want your boss to see you as dependable and likable, meaning you have focused on self-presentation goals.

The functional perspective of interpersonal communication indicates that we communicate to achieve certain goals in our relationships. We get things done in our relationships by communicating for instrumental goals. We maintain positive relationships through relational goals. We also strategically present ourselves in order to be perceived in particular ways. As our goals are met and our relationships build, they become little worlds we inhabit with our relational partners, complete with their own relationship cultures.

Cultural Aspects of Interpersonal Communication

Aside from functional aspects of interpersonal communication, communicating in relationships also helps establish relationship cultures. Just as large groups of people create cultures through shared symbols (language), values, and rituals, people in relationships also create cultures at a smaller level. Relationship cultures are the climates established through interpersonal communication that are unique to the relational partners but based on larger cultural and social norms. We also enter into new relationships with expectations based on the schemata we have developed in previous relationships and learned from our larger society and culture. Think of relationship schemata as blueprints or plans that show the inner workings of a relationship. Just like a schematic or diagram for assembling a new computer desk helps you put it together, relationship schemata guide us in how we believe our interpersonal relationships should work and how to create them. So from our life experiences in our larger cultures, we bring building blocks, or expectations, into our relationships, which fundamentally connect our relationships to the outside world (Burleson, Metts, & Kirch, 2000). Even though we experience our relationships as unique, they are at least partially built on preexisting cultural norms.

Some additional communicative acts that create our relational cultures include relational storytelling, personal idioms, routines and rituals, and rules and norms. Storytelling is an important part of how we create culture in larger contexts and how we create a uniting and meaningful storyline for our relationships. In fact, an anthropologist coined the term *homo narrans* to describe the unique storytelling capability of modern humans (Fisher, 1985). We often rely on relationship storytelling to create a sense of stability in the face of change, test the compatibility of potential new relational partners, or create or maintain solidarity in established relationships. Think of how you use storytelling among your friends, family, coworkers, and other relational partners. If you recently moved to a new place for college, you probably experienced some big changes. One of the first things you started to do was reestablish a social network—remember, human beings are fundamentally social creatures. As you began to encounter new people in your classes, at your new job, or in your new housing, you most likely told some stories of your life before—about your friends, job, or teachers back home. One of the functions of this type of storytelling, early in forming interpersonal bonds, is a test to see if the people you are meeting have similar stories or can relate to your previous relationship cultures. In short, you are testing the compatibility of your schemata with the new people you encounter. Although storytelling will continue to play a part in your relational development with these new people, you may be surprised at how quickly you start telling stories with your new friends about things that have happened since you met. You may recount stories about your first trip to the dance club together, the weird geology professor you had together, or the time you all got sick from eating the cafeteria food. In short, your old stories will start to give way to new stories that you've created. Storytelling within relationships helps create solidarity, or a sense of belonging and closeness. This type of storytelling can be especially meaningful for relationships that don't fall into the dominant culture. For example, research on a gay male friendship circle found that the gay men retold certain dramatic stories frequently to create a sense of belonging and to also bring in new members to the group (Jones Jr., 2007).

We also create personal idioms in our relationships (Bell & Healey, 1992). If you've ever studied foreign languages, you know that idiomatic expressions like "I'm under the weather today" are basically nonsense when translated. For example, the equivalent of this expression in French translates to "I'm not in my plate today." When you think about it, it doesn't make sense to use either expression to communicate that you're sick, but the meaning would not be lost on English or French speakers, because they can decode their respective idiom. This is also true of idioms we create in our interpersonal relationships. Just as idioms are unique to individual cultures and languages, personal idioms are unique to certain relationships, and they create a sense of belonging due to the inside meaning shared by the relational partners. In romantic relationships, for example, it is common for individuals to create nicknames for each other that may not directly translate for someone who overhears them. You and your partner may find that calling each other "booger" is sweet, while others may think it's gross. Researchers have found that personal idioms are commonly used in the following categories: activities, labels for others, requests, and sexual references (Bell & Healey, 1992). The recent cultural phenomenon *Jersey Shore* on MTV has given us plenty of examples of personal idioms created by the friends on the show. *GTL* is an activity idiom that stands for "gym, tan, laundry"—a common routine for the cast of the show. There are many examples of idioms labeling others, including *grenade* for an unattractive female, *gorilla juice head* for a very muscular man, and *backpack* for a clingy boyfriend/girlfriend or a clingy person at a club. There are also many idioms for sexual references, such as *smush*, meaning to hook up / have sex, and *smush room*, which is the room set aside for these activities (Benigno, 2010). Idioms help create cohesiveness, or solidarity in relationships, because they are shared cues between cultural insiders. They also communicate the uniqueness of the relationship and create boundaries, since meaning is only shared within the relationship.

Routines and rituals help form relational cultures through their natural development in repeated or habitual interaction (Burlinson, Metts, & Kirch, 2000). While “routine” may connote boring in some situations, relationship routines are communicative acts that create a sense of predictability in a relationship that is comforting. Some communicative routines may develop around occasions or conversational topics.

For example, it is common for long-distance friends or relatives to schedule a recurring phone conversation or for couples to review the day’s events over dinner. When I studied abroad in Sweden, my parents and I talked on the phone at the same time every Sunday, which established a comfortable routine for us. Other routines develop around entire conversational episodes. For example, two best friends recounting their favorite spring-break story may seamlessly switch from one speaker to the other, finish each other’s sentences, speak in unison, or gesture simultaneously because they have told the story so many times. Relationship rituals take on more symbolic meaning than do relationship routines and may be variations on widely recognized events—such as birthdays, anniversaries, Passover, Christmas, or Thanksgiving—or highly individualized and original. Relational partners may personalize their traditions by eating mussels and playing Yahtzee on Christmas Eve or going hiking on their anniversary. Other rituals may be more unique to the relationship, such as celebrating a dog’s birthday or going to opening day at the amusement park. The following highly idiosyncratic ritual was reported by a participant in a research study:

I would check my husband’s belly button for fuzz on a daily basis at bedtime. It originated when I noticed some blanket fuzz in his belly button one day and thought it was funny... We both found it funny and teased often about the fuzz. If there wasn’t any fuzz for a few days my husband would put some in his belly button for me to find. It’s been happening for about 10 years now (Bruess & Pearson, 1997).



A couple may share a relationship routine of making dinner together every Saturday night.
Free Stock Photos – [Cooking](#) – public domain.

Whether the routines and rituals involve phone calls, eating certain foods, or digging for belly button fuzz, they all serve important roles in building relational cultures. However, as with storytelling, rituals and routines can be negative. For example, verbal and nonverbal patterns to berate or belittle your relational partner will not have healthy effects on a relational culture. Additionally, visiting your in-laws during the holidays loses its symbolic value when you dislike them and comply with the ritual because you feel like you have to. In this case, the ritual doesn't enrich the relational culture, but it may reinforce norms or rules that have been created in the relationship.

Relationship rules and norms help with the daily function of the relationship. They help create structure and provide boundaries for interacting in the relationship and for interacting with larger social networks (Burleson, Metts, & Kirch, 2000). Relationship rules are explicitly communicated guidelines for what should and should not be done in certain contexts. A couple could create a rule to always confer with each other before letting their child spend the night somewhere else. If a mother lets her son sleep over at a friend's house without consulting her partner, a more serious conflict could result. Relationship norms are similar to routines and rituals in that they develop naturally in a relationship and generally conform to or are adapted from what is expected and acceptable in the larger culture or society. For example, it may be a norm that you and your coworkers do not "talk shop" at your Friday happy-hour gathering. So when someone brings up work at the gathering, his coworkers may remind him that there's no shop talk, and the consequences may not be that

serious. In regards to topic of conversation, norms often guide expectations of what subjects are appropriate within various relationships. Do you talk to your boss about your personal finances? Do you talk to your father about your sexual activity? Do you tell your classmates about your medical history? In general, there are no rules that say you can't discuss any of these topics with anyone you choose, but relational norms usually lead people to answer "no" to the questions above. Violating relationship norms and rules can negatively affect a relationship, but in general, rule violations can lead to more direct conflict, while norm violations can lead to awkward social interactions. Developing your interpersonal communication competence will help you assess your communication in relation to the many rules and norms you will encounter.

Key Takeaways

- Getting integrated: Interpersonal communication occurs between two or more people whose lives are interdependent and mutually influence one another. These relationships occur in academic, professional, personal, and civic contexts, and improving our interpersonal communication competence can also improve our physical and psychological health, enhance our relationships, and make us more successful in our careers.
 - There are functional aspects of interpersonal communication.
 - We "get things done" in our relationships by communicating for instrumental goals such as getting someone to do something for us, requesting or presenting information, and asking for or giving support.
 - We maintain our relationships by communicating for relational goals such as putting your relational partner's needs before your own, celebrating accomplishments, spending time together, and checking in.
 - We strategically project ourselves to be perceived in particular ways by communicating for self-presentation goals such as appearing competent or friendly.
 - There are cultural aspects of interpersonal communication.
 - We create relationship cultures based on the relationship schemata we develop through our interactions with our larger society and culture.
 - We engage in relationship storytelling to create a sense of stability in the face of change, to test our compatibility with potential relational partners, and to create a sense of solidarity and belonging in established relationships.
 - We create personal idioms such as nicknames that are unique to our particular relationship and are unfamiliar to outsiders to create cohesiveness and solidarity.
 - We establish relationship routines and rituals to help establish our relational culture and bring a sense of comfort and predictability to our relationships.

Exercises

1. Getting integrated: In what ways might interpersonal communication competence vary among academic, professional, and civic contexts? What competence skills might be more or less important in one context than in another?
2. Recount a time when you had a DTR talk. At what stage in the relationship was the talk? What motivated you or the other person to initiate the talk? What was the result of the talk?
3. Pick an important relationship and describe its relationship culture. When the relationship started, what relationship schemata guided your expectations? Describe a relationship story that you tell with this person or

about this person. What personal idioms do you use? What routines and rituals do you observe? What norms and rules do you follow?

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Listening

In our sender-oriented society, listening is often overlooked as an important part of the communication process. Yet research shows that adults spend about 45 percent of their time listening, which is more than any other communicative activity. In some contexts, we spend even more time listening than that. On average, workers spend 55 percent of their workday listening, and managers spend about 63 percent of their day listening. Owen Hargie, *Skilled Interpersonal Interaction: Research, Theory, and Practice* (London: Routledge, 2011), 177.

Listening is a primary means through which we learn new information, which can help us meet instrumental needs as we learn things that helps us complete certain tasks at work or school and get things done in general. The act of listening to our relational partners provides support, which is an important part of relational maintenance and helps us meet our relational needs. Listening to what others say about us helps us develop an accurate self-concept, which can help us more strategically communicate for identity needs in order to project to others our desired self. Overall, improving our listening skills can help us be better students, better relational partners, and more successful professionals.

5.1 Understanding How and Why We Listen

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

1. Describe the stages of the listening process.
2. Discuss the four main types of listening.
3. Compare and contrast the four main listening styles.

Listening is the learned process of receiving, interpreting, recalling, evaluating, and responding to verbal and nonverbal messages. We begin to engage with the listening process long before we engage in any recognizable verbal or nonverbal communication. It is only after listening for months as infants that we begin to consciously practice our own forms of expression. In this section we will learn more about each stage of the listening process, the main types of listening, and the main listening styles.

The Listening Process

Listening is a process and as such doesn't have a defined start and finish. Like the communication process, listening has cognitive, behavioral, and relational elements and doesn't unfold in a linear, step-by-step fashion. Models of processes are informative in that they help us visualize specific components, but keep in mind that

they do not capture the speed, overlapping nature, or overall complexity of the actual process in action. The stages of the listening process are receiving, interpreting, recalling, evaluating, and responding.

Receiving

Before we can engage other steps in the listening process, we must take in stimuli through our senses. In any given communication encounter, it is likely that we will return to the receiving stage many times as we process incoming feedback and new messages. This part of the listening process is more physiological than other parts, which include cognitive and relational elements. We primarily take in information needed for listening through auditory and visual channels. Although we don't often think about visual cues as a part of listening, they influence how we interpret messages. For example, seeing a person's face when we hear their voice allows us to take in nonverbal cues from facial expressions and eye contact. The fact that these visual cues are missing in e-mail, text, and phone interactions

presents some difficulties for reading contextual clues into meaning received through only auditory channels.

Our chapter on perception discusses some of the ways in which incoming stimuli are filtered. These perceptual filters also play a role in listening. Some stimuli never make it in, some are filtered into subconsciousness, and others are filtered into various levels of consciousness based on their salience. Recall that salience is the degree to which something attracts our attention in a particular context and that we tend to find salient things that are visually or audibly stimulating and things that meet our needs or interests. Think about how it's much easier to listen to a lecture on a subject that you find very interesting.

It is important to consider noise as a factor that influences how we receive messages. Some noise interferes primarily with hearing, which is the physical process of receiving stimuli through internal and external components of the ears and eyes, and some interferes with listening, which is the cognitive process of processing the stimuli taken in during hearing. While hearing leads to listening, they are not the same thing. Environmental noise such as other people talking, the sounds of traffic, and music interfere with the physiological aspects of hearing. Psychological noise like stress and anger interfere primarily with the cognitive processes of listening. We can enhance our ability to receive, and in turn listen, by trying to minimize noise.

Interpreting

During the interpreting stage of listening, we combine the visual and auditory information we receive and try to make meaning out of that information using schemata. The interpreting stage engages cognitive and relational processing as we take in informational, contextual, and relational cues and try to connect them in meaningful ways to previous experiences. It is through the interpreting stage

that we may begin to understand the stimuli we have received. When we understand something, we are able to attach meaning by connecting information to previous experiences. Through the process of comparing new information with old information, we may also update or revise particular schemata if we find the new information relevant and credible. If we have difficulty interpreting information, meaning we don't have previous experience or information in our existing schemata to make sense of it, then it is difficult to transfer the information into our long-term memory for later recall. In situations where understanding the information we receive isn't important or isn't a goal, this stage may be fairly short or even skipped. After all, we can

move something to our long-term memory by repetition and then later recall it without ever having understood it. I remember earning perfect scores on exams in my anatomy class in college because I was able to memorize and recall, for example, all the organs in the digestive system. In fact, I might still be able to do that now over a decade later. But neither then nor now could I tell you the significance or function of most of those organs, meaning I didn't really get to a level of understanding but simply stored the information for later recall.

Recalling

Our ability to recall information is dependent on some of the physiological limits of how memory works. Overall, our memories are known to be fallible. We forget about half of what we hear immediately after hearing it, recall 35 percent after eight hours, and recall 20 percent after a day. Owen Hargie, *Skilled Interpersonal Interaction: Research, Theory, and Practice* (London: Routledge, 2011), 189–99. Our memory consists of multiple “storage units,” including sensory storage, short-term memory, working memory, and long-term memory. Owen

Hargie, *Skilled Interpersonal Interaction: Research, Theory, and Practice* (London: Routledge, 2011), 184.

Our sensory storage is very large in terms of capacity but limited in terms of length of storage. We can hold large amounts of unsorted visual information but only for about a tenth of a second. By comparison, we can hold large amounts of unsorted auditory information for longer—up to four seconds. This initial memory storage unit doesn't provide much use for our study of communication, as these large but quickly expiring chunks of sensory data are primarily used in reactionary and instinctual ways.

As stimuli are organized and interpreted, they make their way to short-term memory where they either expire and are forgotten or are transferred to long-term memory. Short-term memory is a mental storage capability that can retain stimuli for twenty seconds to one minute. Long-term memory is a mental storage capability to which stimuli in short-term memory can be transferred if they are connected to existing schema and in which information can be stored indefinitely. Owen Hargie, *Skilled Interpersonal Interaction: Research, Theory, and Practice* (London: Routledge, 2011), 184. Working memory is a temporarily accessed memory storage space that is activated during times of high cognitive demand. When using working memory, we can temporarily store information and process and use it at the same time. This is different from our typical memory function in that information usually has to make it to long-term memory before we can call it back up to apply to a current situation. People with good working memories are able to keep recent information in mind and process it and apply it to other incoming information. This can be very useful during high-stress situations. A person in control of a command center like the White House Situation Room should have a good working memory in order to take in, organize, evaluate, and then immediately use new information instead of having to wait for that information to make it to long-term memory and then be retrieved and used.

Although recall is an important part of the listening process, there isn't a direct correlation between being good at recalling information and being a good listener. Some people have excellent memories and recall abilities and can tell you a very accurate story from many years earlier during a situation in which they should actually be listening and not showing off their recall abilities. Recall is an important part of the listening process because it is most often used to assess listening abilities and effectiveness. Many quizzes and tests in school are based on recall and are often used to assess how well students comprehended information presented in class, which is seen as an indication of how well they listened. When recall is our only goal, we excel at it. Experiments have found that people can memorize and later recall a set of faces and names with near 100

percent recall when sitting in a quiet lab and asked to do so. But throw in external noise, more visual stimuli, and multiple contextual influences, and we can't remember the name of the person we were just introduced to one minute earlier. Even in interpersonal encounters, we rely on recall to test whether or not someone was listening. Imagine that Azam is talking to his friend Belle, who is sitting across from him in a restaurant booth. Azam, annoyed that Belle keeps checking her phone, stops and asks, "Are you listening?" Belle inevitably replies, "Yes," since we rarely fess up to our poor listening habits, and Azam replies, "Well, what did I just say?"

Evaluating

When we evaluate something, we make judgments about its credibility, completeness, and worth. In terms of credibility, we try to determine the degree to which we believe a speaker's statements are correct and/or true. In terms of completeness, we try to "read between the lines" and evaluate the message in relation to what we know about the topic or situation being discussed. We evaluate the worth of a message by making a value judgment about whether we think the message or idea is good/bad, right/wrong, or desirable/undesirable. All

these aspects of evaluating require critical thinking skills, which we aren't born with but must develop over time through our own personal and intellectual development.

Studying communication is a great way to build your critical thinking skills, because you learn much more about the taken-for-granted aspects of how communication works, which gives you tools to analyze and critique messages, senders, and contexts. Critical thinking and listening skills also help you take a more proactive role in the communication process rather than being a passive receiver of messages that may not be credible, complete, or worthwhile. One danger within the evaluation stage of listening is to focus your evaluative lenses more on the speaker than the message. This can quickly become a barrier to effective listening if we begin to prejudge a speaker based on his or her identity or characteristics rather than on the content of his or her message. We will learn more about how to avoid slipping into a person-centered rather than message-centered evaluative stance later in the chapter.

Responding

Responding entails sending verbal and nonverbal messages that indicate attentiveness and understanding or a lack thereof. From our earlier discussion of the communication model, you may be able to connect this part of the listening process to feedback. Later, we will learn more specifics about how to encode and decode the verbal and nonverbal cues sent during the responding stage, but we all know from experience some signs that indicate whether a person is paying attention and understanding a message or not.

We send verbal and nonverbal feedback while another person is talking and after they are done. Back-channel cues are the verbal and nonverbal signals we send while someone is talking and can consist of verbal cues like "uh-huh," "oh," and

"right," and/or nonverbal cues like direct eye contact, head nods, and leaning forward. Back-channel cues are generally a form of positive feedback that indicates others are actively listening. People also send cues intentionally and unintentionally that indicate they aren't listening. If another person is looking away, fidgeting, texting, or turned away, we will likely interpret those responses negatively.

Paraphrasing is a responding behavior that can also show that you understand what was communicated. When you paraphrase information, you rephrase the message into your own words. For example, you might say the following to start off a paraphrased response: “What I heard you say was...” or “It seems like you’re saying...” You can also ask clarifying questions to get more information. It is often a good idea to pair a paraphrase with a question to keep a conversation flowing. For example, you might pose the following paraphrase and question pair: “It seems like you believe you were treated unfairly. Is that right?” Or you might ask a standalone question like “What did your boss do that made you think he was ‘playing favorites?’” Make sure to paraphrase and/or ask questions once a person’s turn is over, because interrupting can also be interpreted as a sign of not listening. Paraphrasing is also a good tool to use in computer-mediated communication, especially since miscommunication can occur due to a lack of nonverbal and other contextual cues.

The Importance of Listening

Understanding how listening works provides the foundation we need to explore why we listen, including various types and styles of listening. In general, listening helps us achieve all the communication goals (physical, instrumental, relational, and identity) that we learned about in Chapter 1 “Introduction to Communication Studies”. Listening is also important in academic, professional, and personal contexts.

In terms of academics, poor listening skills were shown to contribute significantly to failure in a person’s first year of college. Wendy S. Zabava and Andrew D. Wolvin, “The Differential Impact of a Basic Communication Course on Perceived Communication Competencies in Class, Work, and Social

Contexts,” *Communication Education* 42 (1993): 215–17. In general, students with high scores for listening ability have greater academic achievement. Interpersonal communication skills including listening are also highly sought after by potential employers, consistently ranking in the top ten in national surveys. National Association of Colleges and Employers, *Job Outlook*

2011 (2010): 25.

Poor listening skills, lack of conciseness, and inability to give constructive feedback have been identified as potential communication challenges in professional contexts. Even though listening education is lacking in our society, research has shown that introductory communication courses provide important skills necessary for functioning in entry-level jobs, including listening, writing, motivating/persuading, interpersonal skills, informational interviewing, and small-group problem solving. Vincent S. DiSalvo, “A Summary of Current Research Identifying Communication Skills in Various Organizational Contexts,” *Communication Education* 29 (1980), 283–90. Training and improvements in listening will continue to pay off, as employers desire employees with good communication skills, and employees who have good listening skills are more likely to get promoted.

Listening also has implications for our personal lives and relationships. We shouldn’t underestimate the power of listening to make someone else feel better and to open our perceptual field to new sources of information. Empathetic listening can help us expand our self and social awareness by learning from other people’s experiences and by helping us take on different perspectives. Emotional support in the form of empathetic listening and validation during times of

conflict can help relational partners manage common stressors of relationships that may otherwise lead a partnership to deteriorate. Robert M. Milardo and Heather Helms-Erikson, "Network Overlap and Third-Party Influence in Close Relationships," in *Close Relationships: A Sourcebook*, eds. Clyde Hendrick and Susan S. Hendrick (Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 2000), 37. The following list reviews some of the main functions of listening that are relevant in multiple contexts.

The main purposes of listening are Owen Hargie, *Skilled Interpersonal Interaction: Research, Theory, and Practice* (London: Routledge, 2011), 182.

- to focus on messages sent by other people or noises coming from our surroundings;
- to better our understanding of other people's communication;
- to critically evaluate other people's messages;
- to monitor nonverbal signals;
- to indicate that we are interested or paying attention;
- to empathize with others and show we care for them (relational maintenance); and
- to engage in negotiation, dialogue, or other exchanges that result in shared understanding of or agreement on an issue.

Listening serves many purposes, and different situations require different types of listening. The type of listening we engage in affects our communication and how others respond to us. For example, when we listen to empathize with others, our communication will likely be supportive and open, which will then lead the other person to feel "heard" and supported and hopefully view the interaction positively. Graham D. Bodie and William A. Villaume, "Aspects of Receiving

Information: The Relationships between Listening Preferences, Communication Apprehension, Receiver Apprehension, and Communicator Style," *International Journal of Listening* 17, no. 1 (2003): 48. The main types of listening we will discuss are discriminative, informational, critical, and empathetic. Kittie W. Watson, Larry L. Barker, and James B. Weaver III, "The Listening Styles Profile (LS-16): Development and Validation of an Instrument to Assess Four Listening Styles," *International Journal of Listening* 9 (1995): 1–13.

Group Structure

LEARNING OUTCOMES

- Determine successful group structure

Work groups are not like a mob of people, storming through the streets setting couches on fire over a team win. Work groups are organized and have structural elements that help the members understand who is responsible for what tasks, what kind of behaviors are expected of group members, and more. These structural elements include roles, norms, and status. Groups are also influenced by size and the degree of group cohesiveness.

Let's take a look at how each of those elements creates a structure that helps the members understand the purpose of and function within the group.

Roles

Bill Gates is perhaps best known as the principal founder of Microsoft. He was the CEO, then the chairman, a board member and now, a technical advisor to the current CEO. He's also husband of Melinda Gates, father of their three children, the head of their foundation and a media influencer. These are all roles that Bill Gates has to manage in his everyday life.

A role is a set of expected behavior patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a social unit. Within a role there is

- **Role identity:** the certain actions and attitudes that are consistent with a particular role.
- **Role perception:** our own view of how we ourselves are supposed to act in a given situation. We engage in certain types of performance based on how we feel we're supposed to act.
- **Role expectations:** how others believe one should act in a given situation
- **Role conflict:** conflict arises when the duties of one role conflict with the duties of another role.

BILL GATES

Let's look at this through the lens of a day in the life of Bill Gates. First, let's look at him in the role of fundraiser. When he's looking for corporate donations to the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, he may visit the CEOs of other successful corporations. He may shake hands, have some lunches, get some commitments for money from these CEOs. That's role identity. The actions and attitudes that are consistent with a fundraiser.

Bill Gates may choose to wear a suit and tie when he visits these CEOs looking for donations. He may use "corporate speak" that's familiar to them. He may purchase the lunch. That might be Bill Gates' role perception. It's the way he thinks he should behave in the fundraiser role.

Later, he and Melinda may hold a press conference where he announces to the world that they've funded textbooks for 250 schools across the nation. Responses include headlines of "Yay, Bill and Melinda!" People talk on Facebook about how Bill and Melinda are really helping communities. They are meeting our role expectations for them.

Finally, Bill and Melinda race out of the press conference, fight traffic to the airport, and try to get home to the violin recital of their oldest child. This is role conflict. The duties of one of Bill's and Melinda's roles is in conflict with another—demands arise from both and need to be managed.

Norms

Norms are the acceptable standards of behavior within a group that are shared by the members.

When we learned about motivation, we talked a little about the Hawthorne Studies. To jog your memory, Hawthorne Electric hired researchers to do a study to determine if higher levels of light increased the production of a work group.

A full-scale appreciation of group behavior and its influence on work groups was uncovered by the Hawthorne Studies in the 1930s. What was discovered was that groups established a set of behaviors. Some of these behaviors were spurred on simply because they were being observed. In other situations, the group collectively established a group norm of production—and those individuals that violated the norm by overachieving were ridiculed for not following the established, albeit unspoken, norms.

There are common classes of norms:

- **Performance norms:** the group will determine what is an acceptable level of effort, product and outcome should exist in the workplace.
- **Appearance norms:** the group will determine how members should dress, when they should be busily working and when they can take a break, and what kind of loyalty is shown to the leader and company.
- **Social arrangement norms:** the group regulates interaction between its members.
- **Allocation of resources norms:** the group or the organization originates the standards by which pay, new equipment, and even difficult tasks are assigned.

If you wish to be accepted by a particular group, you may conform to that group's norms even before you've become a part of it. Conformity is adjusting one's behavior to align with the norms of a particular group. By watching and observing that group to better understand its expectations, you are using the group as a reference group. A reference group is an important group to which individuals belong or hope to belong and with whose norms individuals are likely to conform.

When people act outside a group's norms—perhaps a manager makes sexual advances to his assistant, or one co-worker spreads vicious rumors about another—this is referred to as deviant workplace behavior.

Status

The socially defined position or rank given to groups or group members by others is called status. Status seems to be something we cannot escape. No matter what the economic approach, we always seem to have classes of people. Even the smallest of groups will be judged by other small groups, opinions will be made, reputations will be earned, and status will be assigned.

Status characteristics theory suggests that difference in status characteristics create status hierarchies within groups. People who lead the group, control its resources, or make enormous contributions to its success tend to have high status. People who are attractive or talented may also have high status.

High status members are often given more leeway when it comes to the group's norms, too, and it makes them more at ease about resisting conformity. If you ever watched television's medical drama *House*, the very talented, intelligent and curmudgeonly main character is allowed to act unconventionally and often inappropriately, largely because the diagnostic talents he brings to the group are so rare and valued. He is often assertive and outspoken with the other group members. He's addicted to pain medications, he hates people and lets everyone know it, and yet his behaviors are tolerated. He's a high status contributor to the group and they need his talents badly, so they overlook his failure to conform to their norms.

In spite of the high status members taking advantage of the norms and dominating group interactions, equity is an important part of status. We talked a bit about how perceived equity is a motivator for people. If status is observed when rewards and resources are distributed among the group members, then usually all is well.

Size

Does the size of a group affect its dynamics? You bet! But how size affects the group depends on where you're looking.

As a rule, smaller groups are faster than their larger counterparts. But when it comes to decision making, larger groups end up scoring higher marks. So, if there's a decision to be made, it's wise to poll a larger group . . . and then give the input to a smaller group so they can act on it.

A side note about size: groups with odd numbers of people tend to operate better than those that have an even number, as it eliminates the issue of a tie when votes are taken. Groups of five or seven tend to be an ideal size, because they're still nimble like a smaller group, but they make solid decisions like a larger group does.

PRACTICE QUESTION

Cohesiveness

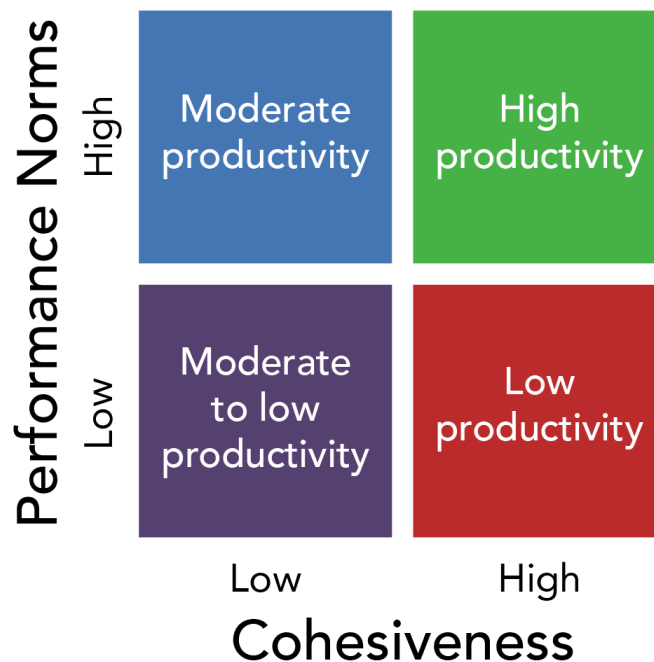


Figure 1.

Cohesiveness is the degree to which group members enjoy collaborating with the other members of the group and are motivated to stay in the group.

Cohesiveness is related to a group's productivity. In fact, the higher the cohesiveness, the more there's a chance of low productivity, if norms are not established well. If the group established solid, productive performance norms and their cohesiveness is high, then their productivity will ultimately be high. If the group did not establish those performance norms and their cohesiveness is high, then their productivity is doomed to be low. Think about a group of high school friends getting together after school to work on a project. If they

have a good set of rules and tasks divided amongst them, they'll get the project done and enjoy the work. And, without those norms, they will end up eating Hot Pockets and playing video games until it's time to go home for dinner.

Figure 1 shows the relationship between performance norms and cohesiveness. In the workplace, there are ways to increase cohesiveness within a group.

A group leader can:

- shrink the size of the group to encourage its members get to know each other and can interact with each other.
- increase the time the group spends together, and even increase the status of the group by making it seem difficult to gain entry to it.
- help the group come to agreement around its goals.
- reward the entire group when those goals are achieved, rather than the individuals who made the biggest contributions to it.
- stimulate competition with other groups.
- isolate the group physically.

All of these actions can build the all-important cohesiveness that impacts productivity.

Now that we fully understand what a group is and what its dynamics are, shall we go build one to work on a project? Or . . . wait. Are we better off letting one individual person tackle that particular task? We'll next talk about making the choice between assigning an individual to work on a project, versus assigning a group.