Chapter 1

Types of Business Communication

1.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter you will be able to -

*   Describe the classification of Business Communication

*   Explain the functions of Business Communication

*   Explain the scope of Business Communication

1.1 INTRODUCTION

If you are like most of us, you spend more time communicating than doing anything else. Probably you spend a large part of each day talking and listening. When you are not talking or listening, you are likely communicating in other ways — reading, writing, gesturing, drawing. Or perhaps you are just taking in information by seeing, feeling, or smelling. All of these activities are forms of communication and certainly you do them throughout most of your conscious moments.

Something we do so much must be important. Probably it is the most important of all our activities. It is easy to see that communication is what has enabled us to develop the civilized society we know today. It is one activity that we human beings clearly do better than the other forms of life on earth, and it largely explains our dominant role. Communication has enabled us to organize-to work in groups; and through organization, we have been able to overcome barriers to our existence that we could not have conquered individually. But we need not discuss further how communication has contributed to our development as human beings. Its role is obvious to us all. We need only conclude that communication is vital to our success and well being in civilized society.

1.2 BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

Though business communication is a specialized branch of general communication, there is no basic difference between the two. The process is the same and so are the principles that regulate them. The difference lies in their application to situations. Whereas general communication plays many roles in the world at large, business communication is specifically concerned with business activities, which are well-defined.

Business activities are of two types, internal and external. Among the internal activities are: maintaining and improving the morale of employees, giving orders to workers, prescribing methods and procedures, announcing policies and organizational

changes, and keeping the management informed. The external activities relate to selling and obtaining goods and services, reporting to the government and the shareholders on the financial condition and business operations, and creating a favorable climate for conducting business. Every activity, internal or external, leads to some result. Therefore the main purpose of every communication in business is to obtain some result that is, to secure an action by the receiver. The sender expects him to do something on receiving the message-write a cherub, place an order, approve an action, send some information, etc. To achieve this purpose, the language used is direct, plain, concise and to the point, and the style concentrates on drawing attention, arousing interest or creating desire, developing conviction, and inducing action. The main features that lend business communication a distinct identity are as follows:

1. It deals with various commercial and industrial subjects.

2. It is characterized by certain formal elements such as commercial and technical vocabulary, the use of graphic and audio-visual aids and conventional formats.

3. It is impartial and objective as extreme care is taken to convey information accurately and concisely. .

4. It has comparatively a high concentration of certain complex writing techniques and procedures.

To sum up, we may define business communication as the use of effective language for conveying a commercial or industrial message to achieve a predetermined purpose.

1.3 CLASSIFICATION, FUNCTION AND SCOPE OF BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

The importance of communication in business becomes even more apparent when we consider an organization's communication activities from an overall perspective. These activities of communication are classified under different classes of communication which are explained in detail below:

Verbal Communication

It is the ability to communicate by using words that separates human beings from the rest of the animal kingdom. Our verbal ability also enables us to learn from the past - to benefit from the experience of others.

Oral Communication

Oral communication is one of the most common functions in business. Consider, for example, how limiting it would be if a manager could not attend meetings, ask questions to colleagues, make presentations, appraise performance, handle customer complaints, or give instructions.

Oral communication is different from written communication in that it allows more ways to get a message across to others. You can clear up any questions immediately; use nonverbal clues; provide additional information; and use pauses, emphasis, and voice tone to stress certain points.

For oral communication to be effective, a second communication skill - listening - is also required. No matter how well crafted the content and delivery of an oral presentation; it cannot achieve its goal if the intended audiences do not have effective listening skills. Some research has found that nearly 60% of all communication problems in business are caused by poor listening.

Written Communication

Writing is more difficult than speaking because you have to get your message correct the first time; you do not have the advantage of immediate feedback and non-verbal clues, such as facial expression to help you achieve your objective. Examples of typical written communication, in industry include the following:

• *Memo:* A **memo** is a written message sent to someone working in the same organization.

• *Letters:* A **letter** is a written message sent to someone outside the organization; it also can be sent by computer via commercial electronic mail networks, such

as MCI or CompuServe.

- *E-mail (electronic* mail): **E-mail** is a message transmitted electronically over a computer network most often connected by cable, telephone lines, or satellites. The recipient's computer receives and stores the message almost instantaneously after it is sent. The recipient may read, respond to, file, or discard the message - all without the use of paper.

- *Reports:* A **report** is an orderly and objective presentation of information that assists in decision-making and problem solving. Examples of common business reports include policies and procedures, status reports, minutes of meetings, financial reports, personnel evaluations, press releases, and computer printouts.

- *Miscellaneous:* Other examples of written communication include contracts, sales literature, newsletters, and bulletin - board notices.

Writing is crucial in the modern organization because it serves as the major source of documentation. A speech may make a striking impression, but a memorandum leaves a permanent record for others to refer to in the future in case memory fails or a dispute arises.

For written messages to achieve their goals, they must be read. The skill of efficient reading is becoming more important in today's technological world. The abundance of widespread computing and word processing capabilities, along with the proliferation of convenient and economical photocopying and faxing has created more paperwork rather than less. Thus, information overload is one of the unfortunate by-products of our times. These are other implications of technology on business communication are discussed throughout this text.

Function of Communication

A very significant role is played by communication in the management of modern large organizations. Such organizations are being designed on the basis of specialisation and division of labour and have large number of people working together. Since they are functionally related to each other, there is high need of coordination among them. This coordination requires mutual understanding of the organizational goals, the mode of their achievement and the relationship between the works being performed by various individuals. All this can be achieved by effective communication. Communication, thus, becomes an essential ingredient for effective management. Often it is said that management and communication are so closely related that they are almost synonymous. The role of communication in management can be identified by identifying the various functions that are performed by communication. Such functions are information function, command and instructive function, influence and persuasive function, and integrative function. Let us see how these functions are important and are performed by communication.

Information Function

Information is vital for the functioning of any living system—people or organization. Living systems can achieve some viability in their environments only to the extent that they have some appropriate means of acquiring and processing information about themselves and their environments. This information is used as the basis for orientation to those environments and for determining their behaviour. The technology of communication has greatly enhanced man's information-generating capacities. It is our ability to affect each other communicatively which has so greatly increased the importance of the information giving and receiving aspect of our existence. As a consequence, we can create purposive organizations of people variously committed to some common endeavor. It is particularly the existence of such purposive organizations which give rise to the importance of information-giving and receiving. No organization can fulfill its purpose except to the extent that its communication process furthers its movement towards its specific goals in some way.

Command and Instructive Function

Communication performs command and instructive function. Those who are hierarchically superior—whether in family, business, civil, or military—often initiate communication not only for the purpose of informing their subordinates but often for the purpose of telling them what to do, directing them,, or commanding their behaviour in some way. The command and instructive function of communication is more observable in formal organizations than it is in informal organizations. Individuals who are hierarchically superior within an organization structure are both privileged and obligated to command and control certain task-related behaviours of their

subordinates. Those same subordinates have a similar obligation and privilege *vis-à-vis* their own subordinates, and so on from the top to the bottom of the organizational hierarchy. Orders, directives, requests, procedures, even performance appraisals all function as command messages.

Influence and Persuasive Function

Of all that has been written about communication over the years, perhaps more has been written about the persuasive function of communication than about any other aspect. There are those who take the position that all communication is persuasive in character. However, in management, influence and persuasion taken together represent one of the several functions as other functions are equally important. Managers can influence others either coercively or communicatively. Since influence through coercion has its limitations in organizational setting, managers can do well to influence others through effective communication. In fact, leadership is more effective than exercise of authority in getting the maximum from the employees. Leadership, to a very great extent, depends upon how the manager communicates with his employees and others who may be related with the organization in one way or the other.

Integrative Function

Communication performs the integrative function by relating various components of the organization and maintaining equilibrium among them. In the broadest sense, the integrational aspect includes all behavioural operations which *(i)* serve to keep the system in operation, *(it)* serve to regulate the interactional process, and *(iii)* relate the particular context to the larger context of which the particular interaction is but a special situation. The communication that occurs has the consequence of energising, organizing and channelising the behaviour of living systems. However, if the messages we create in order to comprehend our environment are not cumulative and self-organizing in some way, it would be impossible to gain or to maintain the necessary degree of equilibrium or stable state relations with various aspects of environment. For example, at the larger than face-to-face human groups, some formalisation takes place and integrative functions are provided in part by bureaucratisation, proceduralisation, institutionalisation, etc. In fact, when a social system exceeds the integrative limits of face-to-face interactions, the necessary integrative mechanisms become embedded in the social system's literature, art folklore, mythology, beliefs, mores, institutional practices, etc.

Scope and Importance of Communication in Organizations

When one walks through the halls of a contemporary organization he sees managers and other employees reading reports, drafting electronic mail on their computers, attending meetings, conducting interviews, talking on the telephone, conferring with subordinates, holding business lunches, reading mail, dictating correspondence, and making presentations. In short, he sees people *communicating.*

In an organization, we spend more time communicating than doing anything else. An organization can be defined as a group of people working together to achieve a common goal. Communication is an important tool towards achieving the goal. How does one know that there is a common goal? Therefore, communication must have occurred before a common goal could even be established. And a group of people working together must interact; that is, they must *communicate* their needs, thoughts, plans, expertise, and so on. Communication is the means by which information is shared, activities are coordinated, and decision-making is enhanced. Understanding the working of communication and the process of communicating competently within an organization helps people participate more effectively in every aspect of business.

Therefore, good communication skills are crucial for the success of any organization. From an individual's point of view proficiency in writing and speaking skills helps the individual to acquire a job, perform well, and earn promotions. If one decides to go into business, writing and speaking skills will helps him promote his product, manage his employees among other things. The same skills also help him achieve his personal and social goals.

The Formal Communication Network

Within the organization, information may be transmitted from superiors to subordinates (downward communication), from subordinates to superiors (upward

communication), among people at the same level on the organizational chart (horizontal communication), and among people in different departments within the organization (cross-channel communication). These four types of communication make up the organization's formal communication network.

Downward Communication: In most organizations the largest numbers of vertical communications move downward - from someone of higher authority to someone of lower authority. For example, at Anuro's Systems, Rohit Mishra sends *a* memo to Neelima Shrikhande about a computer report; she, in turn, confers with Eric Fox. Through written and oral channels, information regarding job performance, policies and procedures, day-today operations, and other organizational information is communicated.

Higher - level management communicates with lower-level employees through such means as memos, conferences, telephone conversations, company newsletters, policy manuals, bulletin- board announcements, and videotapes. One of the problems with written downward communication is that management may assume that what is sent downward is received and understood. Unfortunately, that is not always the case.

Upward Communication: Upward communication is the flow of information from lower-level employees to upper-level employees. For example, Jean Tate sends a monthly status report to the president regarding human resources actions for the month, and Neelima responds to Rohit's memo regarding the computer report. Upward communication can take the form of memos, conferences, reports, suggestion systems, employee surveys, or union publications, among others.

Upward communication is important because it provides higher management with the information needed for decision-making. It also cultivates employee loyalty by giving employees an opportunity to be heard, to air their grievances, and to offer suggestions. Finally, upward communication provides the feedback necessary to let supervisors know whether subordinates received and understood messages that were sent downward.

Horizontal Communication: Horizontal communication is the flow of information among peers within the same work unit. For example, the administration division holds a weekly staff meeting at which the three managers (jean, Larry, and Eric) exchange information about the status of their operations.

Horizontal communication is important to help coordinate work assignments, share information on plans and activities, negotiate differences, and develop interpersonal support, thereby creating a more cohesive work unit. More the Individuals or departments within an organization interact with each other to accomplish their objectives; the more frequent and intense will be the horizontal communication.

The most common form of horizontal communication is the committee meeting, where most coordination, sharing of information, and problem solving take place. Intense competition for scarce resources, lack of trust among coworkers, or concerns about job security or promotions can sometimes create barriers to the free flow of horizontal information.

Cross-Channel Communication: Cross-channel communication is the exchange of information among employees in different work units who are neither subordinate nor superior to each other. For example, each year a payroll clerk in Jean Tate's department sends out a request to all company employees for updated information about the number of exemptions they claim on their tax forms.

Staff specialists use cross-channel communications frequently because their responsibilities typically involve many departments within the organizations. Because they lack line authority to direct those with whom they communicate, they must often rely on their persuasive skills, as, for instance, when the human resources department encourages employees to complete a job -satisfaction questionnaire.

1.3   Check your progress

1)   Mention various functions of communication

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2)   Explain integrative function in detail

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3)   Define downward communication

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4)   Define upward communication

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The Informal Communication Network

The informal communication network (grapevine) transmits information through nonofficial channels within the organization.

The informal communication network (or the grapevine, as it is called) is the transmission of information through nonofficial channels within the organization. Carpooling to work, waiting to use the photocopies, jogging at noon, in the cafeteria during lunch, or chatting at a local PTA meeting - wherever workers come together, they are likely to hear and pass on information about possible happenings in the organization. Employees often say that the grapevine is their most frequent source of information on company plans and performance. In one recent survey of 451 executives, 91% reported that employees typically use the grapevine for information on company "bad news" such as layoffs and takeovers. Office politics was cited as a grapevine topic by 73%, whereas only 41% said their employees turned to the grapevine for "good news."

• Most of the information passed along the grapevine (about 80%) is business related, and most of it (75% to 95%) is accurate.

• The grapevine is pervasive. It exists at all levels in the organization - from corporate boardroom to the assembly line.

• Information moves rapidly along the grapevine.

• The grapevine is most active when change is taking place and when one's need to know or level of fear is highest -during layoffs, plant closings, acquisitions, mergers, and the like.

• The grapevine is a normal, often vital, part of every organization.

Rather than trying to eliminate the grapevine (a futile effort), competent managers accept its existence and pay attention to it. They act promptly to counteract false rumors. Most of all, they use the formal communication network (including meetings, memos, newsletters, and bulletin boards) to ensure that all news - positive and negative - gets out to employees as quickly and as completely as possible. The free flow of information within the organization not only stops rumors; it's simply good business.

1.4 INTERNAL COMMUNICATION

Internal-operational communication consists of the structured communication within the organization that directly relates to achieving the organization's work goals. By *structured* we mean that such communication is built into the organization's plan of operation. By *organization's work goals* we mean the organization's primary reason for being—to sell insurance, to manufacture nuts and bolts, to construct buildings, and the like.

The Typical Company, to use a familiar example, has as its major work goals the making and selling of what sits. To achieve these work goals, it has an established plan of operation, in which communication plays a major role. More specifically, each typical employee has an assignment within the plan. In order for the plan to work, some communicating must be done. Some of the assignments require certain working information. In order for all assignments to be performed as a harmonious and unified effort, certain coordinating information must be communicated. All of this information flow is internal-operational communication.

Specifically, internal-operational communication is carried out through any number of structured activities. In the Typical Company, for example, much of the internal-operational information is entered into the company computer from executive workstations to become part of Typical's database. From the database, programmed reports are developed to give each operations department the information it needs. Then the reports are communicated back to specific workstations; for example, sales reports and inventory records combine to communicate production needs to the production planning department. Finally, the production planning department communicates these-needs to the various production departments through a strategically planned work schedule.

Within each production unit and among production units, of course, additional communicating must go on. Superiors make decisions and transmit them to subordinates. Departments exchange information, and workers communicate working information with one another. Memorandums are written, reports are prepared, and conversations are held—all in the process of coordinating efforts and supplying the information needed for achieving the organization's goals. In every company division and in every activity, similar internal-operational communication occurs.

1.5 EXTERNAL COMMUNICATION

External-operational communication is that part of an organization's structured communication concerned with achieving the organization's work goals that is conducted with people and groups outside the organization. It is the organization's communication with its publics — suppliers, service companies, customers, and the general public.

Into this category fall all of the organization's efforts at direct selling— sales representatives, sales spiels, descriptive brochures, telephone call backs, follow-up service calls, and the like. Also included are all of the organization's advertising efforts — for what is advertising but a deliberate, structured communication with an organization's public. Radio and television messages, newspaper and magazine space advertising, and point-of-purchase display material obviously play a role in the organization's plan for achieving its work objective. Also in this category is everything the organization does to enhance its public relations. These activities include the organization's planned publicity, the civic-mindedness of its management, the courtesy of its employees, and the condition of its physical plant. All these and many more communication efforts combine to make up the organization's external-operational communication.

The extreme importance of an organization's external communication hardly requires supporting comment. Certainly it is obvious that any business organization depends on outside people and groups for its success. It is an elementary principle of business because a business organization's success depends on its ability to satisfy customers' needs, the organization must communicate effectively with these customers. It is equally elementary that in today's complex business society, organizations depend on one another in the manufacture and distribution of goods as well as the sale of services. This interdependence necessarily creates needs for communication. Like internal communications, these outside communications are vital to an organization's operation.

1.6 CONCLUSION

Thus by studying various types of business communication and their role in an industry, we come to know how important it is to have effective business communication which acts as a tool to make progress in any business endeavour.

Communication is the lifeline of day to day living as well as business. Any successful organisation creates a formal communication structure to enable smooth functioning. New employees are indoctrinated on the various aspects of organisational communication.

1.7 SUMMARY

Business Communication is one of the important kinds of communication which is a backbone of any industry. There are certain kinds of Business Communication like Internal, External, upward, Vertical, horizontal communication which play an important role in any organization.

There are certain functions like informational, integrative, persuasive function etc. that play an important role in carrying out day to day business activities.

Source : *http://vijagopalk.tripod.com (Link)*

1.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS – ANSWERS

1) Various functions of communication are Information function command and instructive function, influence and persuasive function, integrative function

2) In the broad sense, integrative function includes a behavioral operations which serve to keep the system in operation, serve to regulate the international process relate the particular context to the larger context of which the particular interaction is but a special situation.

3) Downward communication is the type of communication which moves from someone of higher authority to someone of lower authority.

4) Upward communication is the flow of information from lower level employees to upper level employees.

1.9 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1) What are the types of business communication?
2) Define upward communication
3) Define downward communication
4) Define vertical communication
5) What is meant by internal communication?
6) What is meant by external communication?

1.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Rao & Dr. Das, *Himalaya Publishing House*

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Urmila Rai & S.M. Rai, *Himalaya Publishing House*

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Chapter 2

Communication Process

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter you will be able to -

*   Describe the various elements of communication.

*   Explain the communication cycle.

*   Discuss various barriers to communication.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Communication is one of the vital parts of the organizational structure. It is the two way process, it is important to understand the various elements of communication, the communication cycle, and the barriers that hinder communication.

2.2 ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION

Since communication is one of the most important parts of the organizational structure, we start our study of communication with an analysis of the communication process. Communication is the process of sending and receiving messages - sometimes through written words and sometimes through such nonverbal means as facial expressions, gestures, and voice qualities. As illustrated in the figure 1.1, the communication model consists of five parts: the stimulus, filter, message, medium, and destination. Ideally, the process ends with feedback to the sender, although feedback is not necessary in order for communication to have taken place.
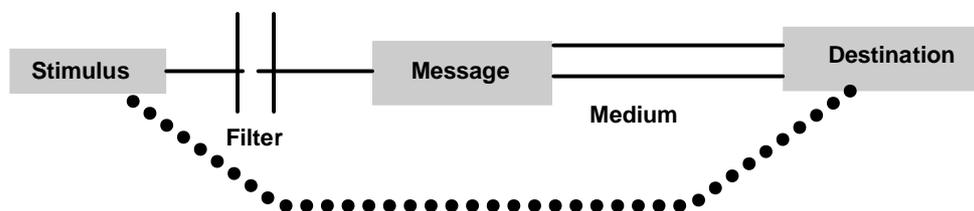

Fig.2.1 the Communication Process

To illustrate the model, let us follow the case of Rohit Mishra, an engineer at Ultrascent Chemicals (UC). Last year, while in the process of working on another project, Rohit developed Ultra Light, a flat, electro luminescent sheet of material that serves as a light source. Rohit developed Ultra Light, which was bendable and could be produced in a variety of shapes and sizes.

The market for lighting is vast, and Rohit, even though an engineer and not a businessman, felt the sting of inventing a device that had great potential but that belonged to somebody else (Ultrascent Chemicals). He was disappointed in Ultrascent

Chemicals' eventual decision not to manufacture and market this product. Let us examine the communication process, to understand what happened to Rohit Mishra after Ultrascent Chemicals' decision.

Incident Component	Communication
Rohit receives a memo from the head of R&D	Rohit receives a stimulus
He interprets the memo to mean that UC has no interest in his invention	He filters the stimulus
He decides to relay this information to his brother	He forms a message
He telephones Anurag	He selects a medium
His brother receives the call	the message reaches its destination
Anurag listens and gives Rohit his reaction	Anurag provides feedback

The Stimulus

In order for communication to take place, there first must be a **stimulus,** an event that creates within an individual the need to communicate. This stimulus can be internal or external. An internal stimulus is simply an idea that forms within your mind. External stimuli come to you through your sensory organs - your eyes, ears, nose, mouth, and skin. A stimulus for communicating in business might be an e-mail message you just read, a presentation you heard at a staff meeting, a bit of gossip you heard over lunch, your perception that the general manager has been acting preoccupied lately, or even the hot air generated by an overworked heating system (or colleague!).

You respond to the stimulus by formulating a message, a **verbal message** (written or spoken words), a **nonverbal message** (non-written and non-spoken signals), or some combination of the two. For Rohit Mishra, the stimulus for communication was memorandum he received from the head of the research and development (R & D) department informing him that UC was not interested in developing Ultra Light but would, instead, sell the patent to some company that was interested.

The Filter

If everyone had the same perception of events, your job of communicating would be much easier; you could assume that your perception of reality was accurate and that others would understand your motives and intent. Unfortunately, each person has a unique perception of reality, based on his or her individual experiences, culture, and emotions at the moment, personality, knowledge, socioeconomic status, and a host of other variables. These variables act as a **filter** in shaping everyone's unique impressions of reality.

Once your brain receives a message, it begins to interpret the stimulus to derive meaning from it so that you will know how to respond or whether any response is even necessary. Stimuli that reinforce existing beliefs are likely to create a more lasting impression and to generate a stronger response than those that call into question your existing beliefs.

Likewise, stimuli are affected by your current emotional or physical frame of reference. An event that might normally cause you to react strongly might not even register if you're suffering from a bad cold or from lack of sleep. Or a remark made innocently might cause a strong negative reaction if you're angry or upset about some earlier event.

The memo Rohit received from R & D simply reinforced what he had come to expect at his company, which had become successful by focusing on its own

predetermined long-range objectives and which showed little interest in exploiting unexpected discoveries such as Ultra Light. Rohit's long involvement in the research that had led to this product caused him to assume a protective, almost paternalistic, interest in its future. Besides, after so many years in the lab, Rohit was ready for a new challenge. These factors, then, acted as a filter through which Rohit interpreted the memo and formulated his response - a phone call to his brother in Pune.

At the time of Rohit's call, Anurag Mishra was sitting alone in his office at Pune sampling four different brands of cheese pizza. As a marketing manager in charge of a new pizza account, he was preoccupied with finding a competitive edge for his client's product, and his perception of Rohit's message was filtered by his current situation.

To hear his scientist brother, the IIT graduate who all his life had preferred to pursue solitary scholarly research, suddenly erupting over the phone with the idea of starting a business contradicted Anurag's lifelong preconceptions about Rohit and acted as a strong filter resisting Rohit's urgent message. Furthermore, Anurag's emotional and physical frame of reference-hunkered down as he was over several cheese pizzas - did not put him in a receptive mood for a grand scheme that would take crores of rupees and many years of hard work. But Anurag's background - his economic status, his education, and his current job-added another point of view, in this case a highly favorable filter for taking in Rohit's message.

If Rohit is good enough at communicating his message, he might be able to persuade Anurag to join him in buying the Ultra Light patent from UC and starting a business.

The Message

Rohit's message to Anurag was, "Let's form our own company." The extent to which any communication effort achieves its desired goal depends very directly on how well the **message** (the information to be communicated) is constructed. Success at communicating depends not only on the purpose and content of the message but also, just as important, on how skillful you are at communicating, how well you know your **audience** (the person or persons with whom you're communicating), and how much you hold in common with your audience.

As a scientist, Rohit did not have an extensive business vocabulary. Nor did he have much practice at oral business presentations and the careful pacing and selective reinforcement required in such circumstance. In effect, Rohit was attempting to make an oral business proposal, unfortunately without much technique or skill.

"You're crazy, Rohit. You don't know what you're talking about." This initial response from Anurag made it clear to Rohit that this message wasn't getting through. But what Rohit lacked in skill, he made up for in knowing his audience (his kid brother) backward and forward.

"You're chicken, Anurag" had always gotten Anurag's attention and interest in the past, and it worked again. Rohit kept challenging Anurag, something he knew Anurag couldn't resist, and kept reminding him of their common ground: all the happy adventures they had shared as kids and adults.

The Medium

Once the sender has encoded a message, the next step in the process is to transmit that message to the receiver. At this point, the sender must choose the form of message to send, or the medium. Oral messages might be transmitted through a staff meeting, personal conference, telephone conversation, press conference, voice mail, or even such informal means as the company grapevine. Written messages might be transmitted through a memorandum, a report, a letter, a contract, a brochure, a bulletin-board notice, electronic mail, a company news letter, a press release, or an addition to the policies and procedures manual. And nonverbal messages might be transmitted through facial expressions, gestures, or body movement.

Because Rohit is in the process of talking with Anurag over the phone, his medium is a telephonic conversation.

The Destination

The message is transmitted and then enters the sensory environment of the receiver, at which point control passes from the sender to the receiver. Once the message reaches its destination, there is no guarantee that communication will actually occur. We are constantly bombarded with stimuli and our sensory organs pick up only a part of them. Even assuming your receiver does perceive your message, you have no assurance that it will be interpreted (filtered) as you intended. Your transmitted message becomes the source, or stimulus, for the next communication episode, and the process begins anew.

2.3 THE COMMUNICATION CYCLE
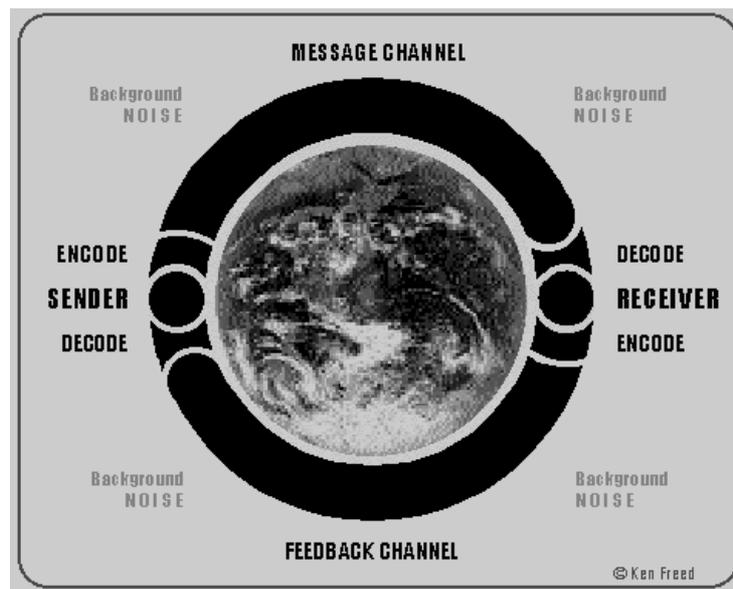
After Rohit's enthusiastic, one-hour phone call, Anurag promised to consider the venture seriously. Anurag's response provided feedback (reaction to a message) to Rohit on how accurately his own message had been received. In time, it led to many more versions of the communication process, both written and oral, before the two brothers founded Anuro's Systems, a small "start-up" company whose primary product is Ultra Light and which employs 204 people at its corporate headquarters in Pune, and at a completely automated manufacturing plant in Nashik, Maharashtra.

The communication cycle is fairly easy to understand.

Within any noisy universe, a sender encodes a verbal or nonverbal message, sends it through any message channel to a receiver, who decodes the message. The receiver then encodes a reply, which is returned through a feedback channel to the sender, who decodes it, deals with it somehow, and perhaps sends another message. Without a full loop, communication is incomplete.

Our individual acts of communication are how each of us makes sense of reality. Our "sense-making" communication habits form all our relations.

The way individuals interact in families is reproduced within the formal and informal organizations in their lives. These groups construct the institutions comprising the communities composing the diverse cultures and societies constituting our nations and our world. As the dominant species on earth, our habitual ways of interacting are imprinted on the planetary systems, reflecting our choices. Witness global warming amidst global whining.

Communication spins the web of life. All life is interactive.

How we communicate with ourselves and with others produce the nature of the society and environment where we live and breathe and have our being. "Senders" and "receivers" interacting (like yin and yang) generate life itself. Our interactions

create our realities.

Conflicts can stem from encoding and decoding errors or assumptions. A filtering system has evolved to help us humans deal with sensory overload. Every outgoing and incoming message gets filtered through the cultural and genetic biases implanted in our minds for pattern recognition. Unconscious barriers to intrapersonal and interpersonal communication tend to fragment our awareness. We filter out data incongruent with our mindset. Divisions persist between our perceptions and reality (if "reality" may be known).

We tend to evolve what I call *split perceptions* to hide from ourselves the truths about reality that we wish to avoid. Our split perceptions enable us to believe that we live separate and apart from others in our world that we can get away with any outrage to ourselves or to others. We suffer from the delusion that we may escape the consequences of global interactivity. We see what we want to see and hear what we want to hear. We pretend we are not pretending. We are blind by choice. Ignorance is bondage.

Understanding interactivity is the key to healthy communication. We can transform ourselves and our world by changing the way we communicate with others and ourselves. Every thought, word and deed sends out ripples altering life for everyone. That's the nature of communication. That's the nature of life in an interactive universe. Why not accept it? A global sense of our deep interactivity inspires responsible and mindful self rule.

2.4 THE BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

Considering the complex nature of the communication process your messages may not always be received exactly as you intended. As a matter of fact, sometimes your messages will not be received at all; at other times, they will be received incompletely or inaccurately. Some of the obstacles to effective and efficient communication are verbal; others are nonverbal. These barriers can create an impenetrable "brick wall" that makes effective communication impossible.

Verbal Barriers

Verbal barriers are related to what you write or say. They include inadequate knowledge or vocabulary, differences in interpretation, language differences, inappropriate use of expressions, over abstraction and ambiguity, and polarization.

Yahoo confounders Jerry Yang and David Filo help Internet users overcome information anxiety by locating and organizing the mass of data available on the Web. You must know enough about both your topic and your audience to express yourself precisely and appropriately.

Inadequate knowledge or Vocabulary: Before you can even begin to think about how you will communicate an idea, you must, first of all, have the idea; that is, you must have sufficient knowledge about the topic to know what you want to say. Regardless of your level of technical expertise, this may not be as simple as it sounds. Assume, for example, that you are Larry Haas, manager of the finance department at Anuro's Systems. Rohit Mishra, president of the company, has asked you to evaluate an investment opportunity. You've completed all the necessary research and are now ready to write your report. Or are you?

Have you analyzed your audience? Do you know how much the president knows about the investment so that you'll know how much background information to include? Do you know how familiar Rohit is with investment terminology? Can you safely use abbreviations like NPV and RRR, or will you have to spell out and perhaps define net present value and required rate of return? Do you know whether the president would prefer to have your conclusions at the beginning of the report, followed by your analysis, or at the end? What tone should the report take? The answers to such questions will be important if you are to achieve your objective in writing the report.

Differences in Interpretation: Sometimes senders and receivers attribute different meanings to the same word or attribute the same meaning to different words. When this happens, miscommunication can occur.

A word's denotation defines its meaning; its connotation indicates our associations with the word.

Every word has both a denotative and a connotative meaning. **Denotation** refers to the literal, dictionary meaning of a word. **Connotation** refers to the subjective,

emotional meaning that you attach to a word. For example, the denotative meaning of the word plastic is "a synthetic material that can be easily molded into different forms." For some people, the word also has a negative connotative meaning - "cheap or artificial substitute."

Most of the interpretation problems occur because of the personal reactions engendered by the connotative meaning of a word. Do you have a positive, neutral, or negative reaction to the terms broad, bad, aggressive, hard-hitting, workoholic, corporate raider, head-hunter, gay, golden parachute, or wasted? Are your reactions likely to be the same as everyone else's? The problem with some terms is not only that people assign different meanings to the term but also that the term itself might cause such an emotional reaction that the receiver is "turned off to any further communication with the sender.

Language differences In an ideal world, all managers would know the language of each culture with which they deal. International business people often say that you can buy in your native language anywhere in the world, but you can sell only in the language of the local community.

Most of the correspondence between American or Canadian firms and foreign firms is in English; in other cases, the services of a qualified interpreter (for oral communication) or translator (for written communication) may be available. But even with such services, problems can occur. Consider, for example, the following blunders:

- In China, Kentucky Fried Chicken's slogan "Finger - lickin' well" was translated "So good you suck you fingers."

- In Puerto Rico, General Motors had difficulties advertising Chevrolet's Nova model because the name sounds like the Spanish phrase Nova, which means, "It doesn't go."

- In Thailand, the slogan "Come alive with Pepsi" was translated "Bring your ancestors back from the dead with Pepsi."

- When the ICA used a machine translation system to translate Russian, the Bible verse "The spirit is willing, but the flesh is weak" became "The vodka is good, but the beef is rotten."

To ensure that the intended meaning is not lost during translation, legal, technical, and all other important documents should first be translated into the second language and them retranslated into English. Beware, however, that communication difficulties can arise even among native English speakers. For example, a British advertisement for Electrolux vacuum cleaners displayed the headline "Nothing Sucks like an Electrolux." Copywriters in the United States and Canada would never use this wording!

Inappropriate Use of Expressions : Expressions are groups of words whose intended meanings are different from their literal interpretations. **Examples include slang, jargon, and euphemisms.**

The use of slang, jargon, and euphemisms is sometimes appropriate and sometimes inappropriate.

Slang is an expression, often short-lived, that is identified with a specific group of people. Here, for example, are some slang terms (and their meanings) currently popular on college campuses:

Barbie - A painstakingly dressed and groomed female

Brain burp - A random thought

Circle of death - A lousy pizza

Zoo a course - To fail

McPaper - A quickly or poorly written paper

Phat - Very cool

Posse - Group of friends

Rocks for Jocks - Easy introductory Geology course

Teenagers, construction workers, immigrants, computer technology

professionals, and just about every other subgroup you can imagine all have their own sets of slang. Using appropriate slang in everyday speech presents no problem; it conveys precise information and may indicate group membership. Problems arise, however, when the sender uses slang that the receiver doesn't understand. Slang that sends a negative nonverbal message about the sender can also be a source of problems.

- **Jargon** is the technical terminology sued within specialized groups; it has sometimes been called "the pros' prose." As with slang, the problem is not in using jargon – jargon provides a very precise and efficient way of communicating with those familiar with it. The problem comes in suing jargon either with someone who doesn't understand it or in using jargon in an effort to impress others.

- **Euphemisms** are inoffensive expressions used in place of words that may offend or suggest something unpleasant. Sensitive writers and speakers use euphemisms occasionally, especially to describe bodily functions. How many ways, for example, can you think of to say that someone had died?

Slang, jargon, and euphemisms all have important role to play in business communication - as long as they're used with appropriate people and in appropriate contexts. They can, however, prove to be barriers to effective communication when used to impress, when used too often, or when used in inappropriate settings.

The word transportation is abstract; the word automobile is concrete.

Over abstraction and Ambiguity: An abstract word identifies an idea or feeling instead of a concrete object. For example, communication is an abstract word, whereas memorandum is a concrete word, a word that identifies something that can be perceived by the senses. Abstract words are necessary in order to communicate about things you cannot see or touch. However, communication problems result when you use too many abstract words or when you sue too high a level of abstraction. The higher the level of abstraction, the more difficult it is for the receiver to visualize exactly what the sender has in mind. For example, which sentence communicates more information: "I acquired an asset at the store" or "I purchased a laser printer at Computer Land"?

Similar communication problems result from the overuse of ambiguous terms such as a few, some, several, and far away, which have too broad a meaning for use in much business communication. For example, a report contained the following sentence: "The shipping department received a lot of complaints last month." Isn't it important to know exactly how many complaints they received?

Polarization: At times, some people as though every situation is divided into two opposite and distinct poles, with no allowance for a middle ground. Of course, there are some true dichotomies. You are either male or female, and your company either will or will not make a profit this year. But most aspects of life involve more than two alternatives.

For example, you might assume that a speaker either is telling the truth or is lying. In fact, what the speaker actually says may be true, but by selectively omitting some important information, he or she may be giving accurate information. Is the speaker telling the truth or not? Most likely, the answer lies somewhere in between. Likewise, you are not necessarily tall or short, rich or poor, smart or dumb. Competent communicators avoid inappropriate either/or logic and instead make the effort to search for middle-ground words when such language best describes a situation.

Nonverbal Barriers

Not all communication problems are related to what you write or say. Some are related to how you act. Nonverbal barriers to communication include inappropriate or conflicting signals, differences in perception, inappropriate emotions, and distractions.

Inappropriate or conflicting Signals Suppose a well-qualified applicant for a secretarial position submits a resume with a typographical error or an accountant's personal office is in such disorder that she could not find the papers she needed for a meeting with the president. When verbal and nonverbal signals conflict, the receiver tends to put more faith in the nonverbal signals because nonverbal messages are more difficult to manipulate than verbal messages.

Many nonverbal signals vary from culture to culture. Remember also that the United States itself is a multicultural country: a banker from Boston, an art shop owner from San Francisco, and a farmer from North Dakota are likely to both use and

interpret nonverbal signals in quite different ways. What is appropriate in one context might not be appropriate in another.

Communication competence requires that you communicate nonverbal messages that are consistent with your verbal messages and that are appropriate for the context.

Differences in Perception: Even when they hear the same speech or read the same document, people of different ages, socioeconomic backgrounds, cultures, and so forth often form very difficult perceptions. We discussed earlier the mental filter by which each communication source is interpreted. Because each person is unique, with unique experiences, knowledge, and viewpoints, each person forms a different opinion about what he or she reads and hears.

Some people tend automatically to believe certain people and to distrust other people. For example, while reading a memo from the company president, one employee may be so intimidated by the president that he or she accepts everything the president says, whereas another employee may have such negative feelings about the president that he or she believes nothing the president says.

It is generally more effective to depend on logic instead of emotions while communicating

Inappropriate Emotions: In most cases a moderate level of emotional involvement intensifies the communication and makes it more personal. However, too much emotional involvement can be an obstacle to communication. For example, excessive anger can create such an emotionally charged environment that reasonable discussion is not possible. Likewise, prejudice (automatically rejecting certain people or ideas), stereotyping (placing individuals into categories), and boredom all hinder effective communication. Such emotions tend to create a blocked mind that is closed to ideas, rejecting or ignoring information that is contrary to one's prevailing belief.

Distractions: Any environmental or competing element that restricts one's ability to concentrate on the communication task hinders effective communication. Such distractions are called noise. Examples of environmental noise are poor acoustics, extreme temperature, uncomfortable seating, body odour, poor telephone connections, and illegible photocopies. Examples of competing noise are other important business to attend to, too many meetings, and too many reports to read.

Competent communicators make the effort to write and speak clearly and consistently and try to avoid or minimize any verbal or nonverbal barriers that might cause misunderstandings.

2.4 Check your progress

1) What are the parts of communication?

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2) Mention verbal barriers

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3) Mention non-verbal barriers

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4) Define Slang

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5) Define Jargon

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2.5 CONCLUSION

Thus, in order to be able to communicate well we need to know the basic elements of communication, working of the communication cycle, various barriers which may occur during communicating with each other.

2.6 SUMMARY

In short, the communication model consists of five parts, the stimulus, filter, message, medium and destination. The communication cycle consists of sender, receiver, message, medium or channel through which message is encoded as well as decoded and finally the feedback on the basis of which an organization decides its further policies and strategies. In order to understand the process of communication learners should also understand the kinds of barriers which may occur during the communication process.

Source : *http://books.google.co.in (Google book)*

2.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS – ANSWERS

2.3

1) The parts of communication model are the stimulas, filter, message, medium & destination.

2) Verbal barriers are related to what you write or say. They include inadequate knowledge or vocabulary differences in interpretation, language differences inappropriate use of expressions, over abstraction, ambiguity & polarization.

3) Nonverbal barriers include inappropriate or conflicting signals differences in perception, inappropriate emotions & distractions.

4) Slang is an expression often short-lived that is identified with a specific group of people.

5) Jargon is the technical terminology sued within specialized groups.

2.8 QUESTIONS FOR SELF-STUDY

1) Which are the Elements of Communication?

2) Explain the Communication cycle in brief.

3) Which are the barriers of communication? Explain them in brief.

2.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Rao & Dr. Das, *Himalaya Publishing House*

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Urmila Rai & S.M. Rai, *Himalaya Publishing House*

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NOTES

Chapter 3

Principles of Communication

3.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter you will be able to -

* Describe the medium of communication
* Explain the Principles of Communication

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Communication is effective when it is accurate, brief and clear. Its effectiveness can then be enhanced by using the relevant media to transmit it to the receiver. In this chapter we would discuss about the various principles of communication and the media used for the same.

3.2 THE MEDIUM OF COMMUNICATION

Newspapers, magazines, television, radio, telephones, billboards, personal computers, the Internet, the World Wide Web, and e-mail all are *vehicles* for conveying information within a *medium* or *media.* They aren't the media or a medium in which they operate.

To understand the difference between a communication's vehicle and a communication's medium, you merely need to understand how the terms *medium, media,* and *vehicles* are correctly used while discussing transportation.

The First Communications Media Was Interpersonal

OK. So, how does all this relate to an understanding of the communications medium popularly misnamed New Media?

Just as only three transportation media exist, only three communications media exist.

As with transportation media, two of those communication media are ancient and arose independent of technology. But the third medium is relatively new and its use is totally dependent upon technology:

Oddly, the first and earliest of these three communications media is only one not to have a commonly accepted name. So, we'll call this first medium the Interpersonal Medium.

This aboriginal medium arose in basic animal communications, predating both humans and technology. Human technology later extended its speed and reach.

Interpersonal conversation is the basic form of this medium. The vehicles that human technology later built for it include the postal letter, telephone call, and electronic mail.

Just as the transportation media of land or water have some unique characteristics, so does this Interpersonal Medium of communications. It notably has two hallmarks:

- Each participant has *equal and reciprocal control* of the content conveyed.

- And the content can be *individualized* to each participant's unique needs and interests.

However, those hallmark advantages come with equal disadvantages:

- The equal control and also the individualization of content *degrade into cacophony as the number of participants increases beyond two* (for example, try simultaneously holding different conversations with more than one person).

For those reasons, this Interpersonal Medium characteristically is used for communications between only two people. And why many academics who study communications media term it the *'one-to-one'* medium.

Mass Medium is the Second of Three Communications Media Extant

The **Mass Medium** is the second communications medium.

Most people mistake the Mass Medium as a product of technology and don't realize how old it really is.

Like the Interpersonal Medium, the Mass Medium predates technology. It originated with the utterances and speeches of tribal leaders, kings, and priests. Technology has merely extended its speed and its reach to global dimensions.

Some vehicles in the Mass Medium are edicts, oratory, sermons, scriptures, plays, books, newspapers, billboards, magazines, cinema, radio, television, bulletin boards, and webcasting.

Communications in the Mass Medium generally go from a *one* person (for examples, a leader, a king, a priest, a publisher, or a broadcaster) to *many* people (the audience, readership, listenership and viewership). This also is why many academics who study communications media term it the *'one-to-many'* medium.

The hallmark characteristics of the Mass Medium are:

- That *the same content goes to all recipients.*

- And that the one who sends it has absolute control over that content.

The corresponding disadvantages of the Mass Medium are:
- That its content *cannot be individualized* to each recipient's unique needs and interests and that the *recipients have no real control* over that content.

Like the Interpersonal Medium, the Mass Medium isn't necessarily dependent upon technology. For example, an actor or speaker can perform without any technology.

Two Mutually Exclusive Media of Communications with Mutually Exclusive Vehicles

Before we list the third communications medium, let's note some contrasting characteristics of these two earlier communications media. Just as the transportation media of land and water have mutually exclusive characteristics, so do the Interpersonal Medium and the Mass Medium for communications:

- The **Interpersonal Medium** can deliver an individualized message but only to one person at a time.

- The **Mass Medium** can simultaneously deliver messages to an infinite number of people but its messages cannot be individualized for each recipient.

- The **Interpersonal Medium** allows each participant equal control over the content.

- The **Mass Medium** allows control over the content by only one person.

Those mutually exclusive characteristics of the Interpersonal and Mass media have been important because anyone who wants to individually communicate a unique message to each recipient has had to use the vehicles of Interpersonal Medium. And anyone who wants at once to communicate message to a mass of people has had to use the vehicles of the Mass Medium.

Development of a New Communication Medium

Just like using the sky as transportation medium, for most of human history the possibility of any third communication medium existing had been inconceivable. Anyone needing to communicate had to choose between the mutually incompatible characteristics of the Interpersonal and the Mass media.

But, Just like how several technologies converged nearly a century ago to make the sky a transportation medium, the evolution of several ostensibly unrelated technologies converged during the past century to create a third and entirely new communications medium.

Among those convergent technologies were:

- The invention of digital communications during the late 1940s;

- The invention of the Transport Control/Internet Protocol ((TCP/IP) in the late 1960s;

- ARPANET's creation of the Internet during the early 1970s;

- The invention of the personal computer in the late 1970s

And to lesser degrees of the importance:

- The invention of the HyperText Transport Protocol (HTTP) in the late 1980s;

- The opening of the Internet to the public in 1992;

- The invention of the Mosaic browser software in that same year.

These and other technological innovations converged to create a new communications medium that has characteristics inconceivable even a decade ago.

The New Medium

The hallmark characteristics of this **New Medium** are:
- That *individualized messages can simultaneously be delivered to an infinite number of people.*
- And that *each of the person involved shares reciprocal control over that content.*

In other words, the New Medium has the advantages of *both* the Interpersonal and the Mass media, but *without* their complementary disadvantages.

- No longer must anyone who wants to individually communicate a unique message to each recipient have to be restricted to communicating with only one person at a time.

- No longer must anyone who wants at once to communicate message to a mass of people be unable to individualize totally the content of that message for each recipient.

Note that the New Medium for communications, like the transportation medium of the sky, is entirely *dependent* upon technology, unlike the two preceding communications media. Like humans flying with technology, this form of communications can't be done with technology.

Misnomers & Mistaken Impressions

Because the New Medium simultaneously encompasses both the characteristics and the reach of the two previous communication media and therefore can easily perform each of those media's individual tasks, many people mistake the

New Medium as merely an electronic extension of the Interpersonal or Mass media.

Most people mistake it as a paperless or antenna-less form of the Mass Medium (a mistake somewhat like seeing aviation only from the perspective of the ground.)

Moreover, many marketing consultants often mistakenly refer to it as a 'one-to-one' medium.

But the academic and the consultants who truly understand this New Medium and its possibilities to simultaneously deliver an infinite number of individualized messages while providing equal control over that content refer to the New Medium as the *'many -to-many'* medium to distinguish it from the 'one-to-one' (Interpersonal) or 'one-to-many' (Mass) media.

Mistakes, misnomers, and misperceptions of the New Medium are easy to make because the vehicles of this New Medium are only starting to appear, as are the true capabilities of this New Medium.

Its Capabilities

What are this New Medium's capabilities?

Just consider the converged technologies that make this New Medium possible.

For instance, the millions of computers interconnected through the Internet can acquire, sort, package, and transmit information in as many ways as there are individual people. They can establish those communications simultaneously. And they allow each participant (senders and receivers) to share equal simultaneous control.

This can result in unprecedented forms of communications.

Imagine that when a person visits a newspaper Web site, he sees not just the bulletins and major stories that he wouldn't have known to request information about but sees the rest of that edition customized to his own unique needs and interests. Rather than every reader seeing the same edition, each reader sees an edition that has simultaneously been individualized to his interest and generalized to his needs.

Or imagine that each viewer who is simultaneously watching a broadcast can stop, rewind, or fast forward the program at will, or even change the denouement of the program's plot.

Realize that these New Medium forms of content inherently are forms of mass customization, something impossible with either the Interpersonal Medium or the Mass Medium.

The existence of this New Medium will catalyze, economize, and popularize entirely new vehicles for production and distribution, just as the invention of the medium of air did for transportation.

And it will create entirely new concepts in and forms of content.

Its Early Vehicles

What are some of this New Medium's early vehicles?

- The personalized web site is one (*personalized* actually is another misnomer; *individualized* is a more accurate term).

- Some computer games, such as *Myst,* are New Medium vehicles.

- Napster is a New Medium vehicle.

- (But note that the *Internet is not by itself a New Medium vehicle no more so than a road can be a land vehicle.*) ss

Other New Medium vehicles are only now being developed as entrepreneurs and companies realize this medium's possibilities.

But It's All Part of a Superset of Change Underway

The New Medium itself is merely a manifestation of *a larger, revolutionary historical change underway* that transcends just issues of communications.

Analysts and pundits talk about this larger change as an **Informational Revolution** that is superceding the world of the Industrial Revolution in much in the same way that the *Industrial Revolution* itself superceded the *Agrarian Revolution*.

But the terms Informational, Industrial, and Agrarian merely refer to characteristic products of these phases in the evolution of human society. Not to the natures of these revolutions themselves.

During the *Agrarian* world, which began about 5,000 to 10,000 years ago, a person who needed clothing had to make his clothing himself. Or another person made his clothing individually for him. Only one piece of clothing would be made at a time and each piece of clothing would be individualized to individual size and needs.

Then some 200 years ago, mechanical technology evolved to the point where factories could be created, and the *Industrial Revolution* began. In the Industrial world, millions of pieces of clothing could be produced, but none could be individualized to the exact measurements of its ultimate consumer.

Note how these complementary advantages and disadvantages of products from the Agrarian and Industrial ages are similar to the complementary advantages and disadvantages of the Interpersonal Medium and the Mass Medium.

This is because most of what we nowadays perceive to be the Interpersonal Medium dates from the Agrarian Revolution and most of what we nowadays perceive to be the Mass Medium dates from the Industrial Revolution.

Now, new advancements have created technologies that unite the advantages of both Agrarian individualized production and Industrial mass production, with none of the complementary disadvantages.

For example, companies using these new technologies, such as Levis Strauss & Co., have begun to *mass-produce* jeans that are *individualized* to each user's exact specifications.

This is similar to how the New Medium can send instantly individualized messages to mass of recipients. Both the New Medium and Levis Strauss & Co.'s abilities to mass produce of individualized jeans are manifestations of the Informational Revolution.

The Informational Revolution's effects upon society are being compared to those from the invention and promulgation of printing presses.

However, the actual significance of the Informational Revolution is greater: The invention of the printing press was merely a technological amplification of the Mass Medium.

By contrast, this New Medium indeed is an entirely new medium; a quantum leap beyond mere innovations such as the printing press.

Returning to our analogy between transportation and communications media, the development of the air as transportation medium didn't entirely replace land or sea transportation. Neither will the development of this new communication medium entirely replace the Interpersonal or the Mass media.

However, it will certainly and markedly reduce and limit those previous media, much as the invention of aviation did to land and sea transportation.

3.3 ACCURACY

The second step to communicate effectively is to ensure that one's communication is absolutely accurate. 'Accuracy' here not only means that the facts that are included are correct, but that all the facts are included. If a piece of communication is incomplete in any respect, it may be as bad as a piece of communication that contains incorrect facts because:

i. It makes it difficult for the communicated to understand all the implications of the communication.

ii. This misunderstanding may result in a feedback which would not have occurred if the communicated had understood the communication and all its subtleties completely.

A checklist to ensure that the communication is accurate

In order to ensure that one's communication is accurate. One must check whether the answers to all the questions in the following checklist are in the affirmative.

1 Are all the facts correct?

2. Have all the relevant facts been included?

3 Has the purpose of the communication been mentioned?

4 Has the expected feedback, if required, been indicated?

5. Is the communicated left with no doubts about the matter(s) discussed in the communication?

6. Have all the figures/tables I graphs been double-checked?

7. Have all the typographical errors been corrected?

In short, an accurate piece of communication conveys to the communicated the '5 Ws' about the subject of the communication along with any other necessary information. The '5 Ws' are: Why? When? Who? What? and Where? Other essential information that should also be included is things like the answer to the question, 'How?'

.Once all this information has been mentioned without any errors, the communication is considered to be accurate.

3.4 BREVITY

It is important to keep any sort of business communication as short and as simple as is possible, since long pieces of communication take a great deal of time to go through, and often leave the communicated feeling irritated.

In order to ensure that communication is concise, it must:

1. be relevant

2. not have many repetitions

3. not contain long expressions that are not required

These four points have been discussed in following 4 sections

Structure

The structure of any communication should be such that it contains an opening, a body, an indication of the expected feedback and a closing. This is known as the four-point plan.

The opening should state the purpose of the letter. Also, if the communicated and communicator are acquainted, it may convey a brief greeting.

For example,

i.   In response to your advertisement.

ii.   This is to inform you that

iii.   With reference to your letter dated...

The body should contain all the information that is relevant to the subject spoken about in the communication. After that, the communicator should indicate:

i.   the response he expects from the communicated
ii.   The action which will be taken either by the communicator or a third party as a result of the information conveyed in the body.

And finally, a logical and relevant closing is made. Such closings could include a number of statements, a few examples of which are:

i.   I look forward to meeting you soon.

ii.   I would be grateful if you could reply promptly.

Following the four-point plan thus makes its possible to the communicator all the essential information to the communicated in a logical sequence.

Relevance

This basically means that all the information included in the communication should pertain directly to the subject being discussed. The communicator should:

i.   come straight to the point

ii.   not cloud the issue by including unnecessary details, and thus create confusion

iii.   not beat about the bush in any manner

Repetition

Although repetition is sometimes used to stress a point, if it is used too often, it simply irritates the communicated.

Tautology, for example, is one form of repetition that states the obvious, and is completely unnecessary in most cases.

In the phrase, 'All alone by myself, which is an illustration of tautology, the 'by myself is not required. To be 'all alone' one must be solitary.

Also, phrases like 'return back', apart from being incorrect, are also redundant since to return anywhere, one must go back.

Another form of repetition is where the same information is repeated time and time again, with nothing new being added to it. Even though this does emphasize it to the communicated, it is usually not required and should be avoided.

Conciseness

Many people believe that all forms of official communication should include old fashioned, long-winded phrases. This belief is completely incorrect, and if it is possible, these long phrases should be substituted using short and simple ones instead.

Here is a table showing how some of these long-winded phrases can be made concise.

No.	Avoid this	Use this
1.	With the exception of	Except for
2.	At the present time	Presently/currently
3.	Enclosed herewith please find	Enclosed is
4.	Due to the fact that	Because
5,	In the event that	If/when
6.	We are in a position to	We can
7.	Taking into consideration	Considering
8.	I would like to advise you that	Please note that
9.	In the vicinity	Nearby
10.	Under a separate cover	Separately

3.5 CLARITY

Clarity is one of the most important features of business communication. It manifests itself in two forms:

i.   Clarity of thought

ii.   Clarity of expression

Clarity of thought

To ensure that one can communicate effectively, one has to clarify one's thoughts so that they can be conveyed to the communicated precisely. This can be

done by making sure that one is absolutely certain of what the purpose, content and the expected feedback of the communication.

It is also necessary to familiarize oneself with all the details of the subject under discussion so that information can be conveyed to the communicated in a brief and logical sequence, instead of in a haphazard fashion.

Clarity of expression

It is absolutely essential for the communication to be clear to the communicated so that the communication process can flow smoothly. To ensure that the communication does not produce any sort of confusion in the mind of the communicated, the communicator should try to use language which the communicated is familiar with.

There are a number of factors that affect the clarity of any piece of communication such as:

1. The use of jargon
2. The use of idioms
3. Words which are often confused
4. The use of foreign words
5. Punctuation
6. The use of abbreviations
7. The use of acronyms
8. Words with multiple meanings.

Jargon

Jargon, as has been mentioned earlier, are words, acronyms or abbreviations, which are peculiar to a particular field or profession. They are usually technical words, and should be avoided if it is possible to substitute them with words that are in common usage since lay people find it difficult to decipher them.

Idioms

Idioms are phrases that have a particular meaning that is completely different from their literal meaning. Although these phrases often make what is in the communicator's mind absolutely clear, they are capable of leaving a person who does not know the language well completely confused.

For example, the idiom 'birds of a feather' has nothing to do with either birds or feathers but simply means 'people of the same type'.

Other examples of idioms are:

1.	all along	from the beginning
	all but	almost
	An in	exhausted
	All in all	taking all the facts into consideration
	Back bite	speak disparagingly about someone
	Back handed	vague
	Back out	withdraw
	Back up	support
	Barge in	interrupt
	Black and blue	badly bruised

3.6 COURTESY

Courtesy and consideration towards the communicated are probably the most important principles of business communication. This is because in order to develop a rapport with the communicated, the communicator must be courteous.

It also determines whether the two people/parties can develop and/or continue to enjoy a mutually beneficial relationship.

Modern terminology

Being courteous does not mean using trite and old-fashioned expressions such as, 'I have the pleasure of informing you that. Such phrases can easily: be substituted by more modem expressions like, I am pleased to let you know that.

Sincerity

Convey any communication with integrity and sincerity. Do not try to disguise problems. Apologize for any mistakes or omissions, and assure the communicated that steps are being taken to rectify the problem. Be fair, and express gratitude for any favour which has been received.

Gender-bias

Avoid any sort of gender bias while communicating. For example, use chairperson instead of chairman and firefighter instead of fireman. And in sentences, the gender bias can often be avoided by putting the sentence in the plural form.

For example, use, 'All employees should punch in their time of arrival at the office', instead of, 'Each employee should punch in the time of his arrival at the office'.

Positive and Negative facts

The general rule about positive and negative facts is that the positive ones should be highlighted and the negative ones should not be emphasized. This is done by:

Avoiding negative terms or expressions like:

a.   ignorant / unaware

b.   irresponsible / careless

c.   failure

Using as many: positive terms as possible without overdoing it trying to substitute words or phrases like Complaints

Department' with words which have a positive impact like 'Customer Service Department'

The time taken to reply

Any communication should receive a prompt reply. If by chance this cannot be done, an explanation and an apology should be sent to the communicated along with the reply.

The tone

Go over the communication before it is actually conveyed to the communicated and ensure that its tone is not aggressive, sarcastic or in any way offensive to the communicated. Even though the temptation to reply to a rude letter in the same tone is great, it is important to remain cordial.

In upward communication, the tone should not be sycophantic. In horizontal communication, it should be open and sincere. And in downward communication, it is essential to ensure that the communication is in no way patronizing or dictatorial.

To sum up, the best way to ensure that the communication is courteous is by putting oneself (i. e. the communicator) into the shoes of the communicated, and avoiding any I phrase or expression that may be found offensive by the communicated.

3.7 CONCLUSION

Thus by following these principles, it is possible to communicate effectively. Any communication that follows these principles makes it easy for the communicated to understand what the communicator has in mind. And it therefore also makes it far more likely that the communicator will receive the appropriate feedback.

3.7   Check your progress

1)   Define Accuracy

    ……………………………………………………………………………………..

    ……………………………………………………………………………………..

2)   Define Brevity

    ……………………………………………………………………………………..

    ……………………………………………………………………………………..

3)   Define Relevance

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4)   What are idioms?

    ……………………………………………………………………………………..

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3.8 SUMMARY

In a nutshell, Newspapers, magazine, television, radio, telephone etc. are vehicles for conveying information within a medium or media. In order to be able to communicate effectively one has to make use of certain principles like Accuracy, Brevity, Conciseness, courtesy etc. In addition to this one has to make use of proper intonation to express that needs to be expressed in its appropriate sense.

Source : *http://books.google.co.in (Google book)*

3.9 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS- ANSWERS

1)   Accuracy doesn't only mean that the facts that are included are correct but all the facts are included.

2)   Brevity is keeping any sort of business communication as short and as simple as is possible

3)   This basically means that the information included in the communication should pertain directly to the subject being discussed.

4)   Idioms are phrases that have a particular meaning that is completely different from their literal meaning.

3.10 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1)   What is Accuracy?

2)   Define courtesy

3)   Explain the term 'Conciseness'

4)   Which are the mediums of communication?

3.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Rao & Dr. Das, *Himalaya Publishing House*

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Urmila Rai & S.M. Rai, *Himalaya Publishing House*

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Chapter 4

Forms of Communication

4.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter you will be able to -

*   Describe the types of Communication
*   Discuss various forms of Communication
*   Explain various functions of non-verbal Communication
*   Discuss the merits and demerits of non-verbal Communication

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Not all the communication that goes on in an organization is operational, however; in fact, much of it is without purpose as far as the organization is concerned. Such communication may be classified as personal.

Personal communication is all the incidental exchange of information and feelings in which human beings engage whenever they come together. Human beings are social animals. They have a need to communicate, and they will communicate even when they have little or nothing to say.

Much of the time friends spend with one another is devoted to communication, for it is simply the thing to do when people get together. Even total strangers are likely to communicate when they are placed together, such as on a plane trip, in a waiting room, or at a ball game. Such personal communication also takes place in the work situation, and it is part of the communication activity of any business organization. Although not a component of an organization's plan of operation, personal communica-tion can have a significant effect on its success. This effect stems from the influence personal communication can have on the viewpoints (opinions, attitudes, and beliefs) of the organization's members.

Workers' viewpoints toward the organization, their fellow employees, and their assignments directly affect their willingness to do assigned tasks. And the nature of conversation in a work situation affects viewpoints. In a work situation in which heated words and flaring tempers are frequent, the participants are unlikely to make their usual productive effort. A rollicking, jovial work situation is likely to have an equally adverse effect on productivity. No doubt, somewhere between these extremes lie the ideal productive viewpoints.

Also affecting organization members' work viewpoints is the extent of personal communication permitted to them. Outright denial of the communication privilege can lead to emotional upset, for people hold dear their right to communicate. On the other hand, excessive personal communication can interfere directly with their work effort. Probably somewhere in the middle ground lies the optimal policy towards personal communication.

Personal communication can also help form viewpoints (opinions, attitudes, beliefs). As illustrated in the account of Dan's workday at Typical, Dan and his car-pool friends spent some of their conversation time discussing a proposed new promotion policy; and in so doing, each helped crystallize the others' viewpoints. It is this process that determines much of what organization members think about their organization, co-workers, and work situation in general. What they think can affect their relationships with the organization—and have a direct influence on their productivity.

4.2 TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

Often it is commented that "management is a two-way traffic; it is based on an effective machinery of communication.' Two-way communication, made possible by feedback, has a back-and-forth pattern. In two-way communication, the sender sends the message and the receiver's response comes back to the sender. The result is a developing play-by-play situation in which the sender can adjust the next message to fit the previous response of the receiver. The role of feedback is often underestimated because of the perception of the sender that once he has sent the message, his act of communication is over. However, this perception may be misleading because feedback plays important role in communication. For example, Signband has view that:

"It (feedback) permits expressive action on the part of one and/or more persons and the conscious and unconscious perception of such action. Perhaps one of the most important factors in this network is feedback which is vital if the originator and receiver wants to secure some level of effectiveness in the communication process".

Two-way communication is better than one-way communication in the following respects:

1. Two-way communication is more accurate than one-way communication. The feedback allows the sender to refine his communication so that it becomes precise and accurate.

2. Receiver's self-confidence is higher in two-way communication as he is permitted to seek clarification from the sender.

However, it does not mean that two-way communication is always preferable. It is more relevant in the context of interpersonal communication. For example, giving an instruction to a subordinate by the superior and receiving feedback for its clarity and understanding is a case where two-way communication is almost a must. As against this, when the communication is for providing information of a general nature to the employees, such as information about holiday on a specific day, two-way communication is hardly required.

Effective feedback	Ineffective feedback
1. Intended to help the employee	1. Intended to belittle the employee
2. Specific	2. General
3. Descriptive	3. Evaluative
4. Useful	4. Inappropriate
5. Timely	5. Untimely
6. Employee readiness for feedback	6. Makes the employee defensive
7. Clear	7. Not understandable
8. Valid	8. Inaccurate

There are three types of communication

a. Oral

b. Written

c. Non Verbal

4.3 ORAL COMMUNICATION

In oral communication, both the parties to the process, i.e., sender and receiver, exchange their ideas through oral words either in face-to-face communication or through any mechanical or electrical device, such as telephone, etc. Oral communication is very helpful in face-to-face two-way communication where persons can exchange their feelings fully and clarity regarding any doubt or ambiguity may be sought. It has, as such, very high degree of potentiality for speedy and complete interchange of information. Possibility of gestural communication being used along with oral one increases the effectiveness of this type of communication since actions speak louder than words. Important points may be emphasised through actions. Rank and file employees as well as supervisors and even managers often prefer oral communication. They enjoy the opportunity to ask questions and to participate. Face-to-face oral communication is sometimes supplemented by public address systems that permit managers to speak directly to workers in the workshop. Oral communication suffers from the disadvantages of absence of any permanent record of communication. Sometimes, it becomes time-consuming especially in meetings and conferences when after various deliberations, nothing concrete comes out. Sometimes, oral communication is not taken seriously by the receiver and basic objective of communication in this case is not achieved. There is also a possibility that the spoken words are not clearly heard or understood.

4.4 WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

Communication in writing—written words, graphs, diagrams, pictures, etc. may take the form of letters, circulars, notes, manuals, etc. Written communication possesses the capacity of being stored for future reference. The communication efforts may be minimized by simultaneous communication to various points such as through circulars, etc. It also enables the communication to take place between distantly placed parties without much cost. Written communication is more orderly and binding on subordinates and superiors to take suitable actions in the organization. Written communication, however, suffers from major drawbacks. It is very time-consuming both in terms of preparing the message and in terms of understanding the message. There is a greater chance of communication being misunderstood. Sometimes it is more costly in comparison to oral communication.

Oral and Written Communication: A Comparison. Each of the different media of communication has its strengths and weaknesses which determine its uses and suitability for communication in any particular context. Thus, in some cases, oral communication might be useful while in others, written communication may be necessary, as both of these have their own relative merits and demerits, as discussed above. As such, one cannot depend upon a particular medium of communication and both of these media are complementary to each other. That is why, in practice, both these media are used. Oral communication, however, is more useful where the subject-matter is complex and a final decision requires deliberations from the persons concerned. Moreover, in day-to-day business and in routine types of activities, oral communication may be relied upon. Where the messages are to be kept for future reference, written communication is the only one possibility.

4.5 NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION

As we have seen, the field of nonverbal communication is quite inclusive. To make its study meaningful to us, therefore, we must break it down by category. Thus, we will explore the various subparts of nonverbal communication: kinesics, proxemics, time language, paralanguage, and physical context.

4.6 VISUAL SIGNS IN NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION

Kinesics

The most often studied sub area of nonverbal communication is *kinesics,* or *body movements.* Some, in fact, believe that kinesics and nonverbal communication are the same. Because kinesics is so widely known, we will examine it. First, we will define kinesics. Then we will look at the various types of body movements to see how we can use them for better business communication.

Definition : We can define kinesics as the study of the body's physical movements. In other words, it is the way the body communicates without words, that is, through various movements of its parts. When we study kinesics, we specifically look for inner states of emotion as expressed through different parts of the body and their physical movements. As Watzlawick and his associates indicate, "You can't communicate-" Thus, you communicate just by being. By nodding your head, blinking your eyes, shrugging your shoulders, waving your hands, and making other such physical movements, you send messages to others. Watzlawick's statement applies especially to kinesics as we have defined it.

When we study body language, we are looking at symbols of meaning that the body's physical movements are communicating. We are searching for attitudes, perceived status relationships, moods, deception, warmth, needs for interaction, and the like as body symbols and activities express them of course we must infer these meanings from symbols because we do not see exactly what they stand for. But outward body movements reflect true inner conditions of meaning. We look for expressions of these inner body states in the face and eyes, gestures, posture, and physical appearance. We will examine each of these body parts for more specific symbols of body language.

Face and Eyes : By far, the face is where we look for most expressions of what is going on inside us. Within the facial area, the eyes tell us much more than other facial features. Thus, we look to the face and eyes when we want to determine much of the meaning behind body language and nonverbal communication.

For example, consider the facial expressions you associate with happiness, surprise, fear, anger, and sadness. Do you look to the mouth, jaw, eyes, nose, cheeks, or forehead for your decision? Is the mouth open wide or closed, the eyelids raised or lowered, the nose wrinkled or relaxed, the cheeks drawn up or back, the forehead lowered or raised? All of the facial parts combined tell you something about what is happening to create the expressions you see.

For evidence of these ideas, you might look at a magazine advertisement containing people to determine the extent to which each part of their faces fits together to "depict" various emotional states. Of you might study the faces of fellow students. Better still, look in a mirror and see how your own face reflects what is going on within you at the moment. Express to yourself different emotions and see how your jaw, mouth, nose, eyes, cheeks, and forehead respond to each. If you can record your expressions on videotape, you can study them in even more detail. The automatic ways in which the facial parts react may surprise you.

As we noted, the facial feature to which we look most for meaning is the eyes. The eyes, along with the eyebrows, upper and lower eyelids, and size of pupils, convey certain inner body states. Eyebrows with upper and lower eyelids raised combined with dilated pupils—a wide-eyed effect—tells us that the person is excited, surprised, or frightened. The opposite effect, eyebrows with upper and lower eyelids closed (less white space exposed) combined with constricted pupils—a beady-eyed look—tell us that the person is angry, intense, or in pain. When these eye features are put together with other facial parts, we infer about the person's inner goings on.

While eye patterns communicate to us, eye contact (gazing) and movements are also meaningful. If we look at someone or something for a long period of time, we show our intensity of interest. Brief eye contact generally reveals embarrassment, timidity, or nervousness. Of course, eye contact and movement must be placed within the context of other facial expressions and body movements to get a total meaning. Yet eye contact and eye movements indeed help significantly in the filtering process.

Gestures : In addition to the face and eyes, other body parts move and convey meaning. We refer to these movements as *gestures*—the physical movements of arms, legs, hands, torso, and head. Because we have just examined the face and eyes, we will exclude the head for the moment and concentrate on other body movements.

Researchers who study gestures generally believe that gestures are made relationally; that is, they are used not individually but in relation to another person. Thus, certain gestures have meaning at particular times in an interpersonal situation—at the beginning, middle, and end of the interchange. To get the true meaning of the gestures used in an interpersonal relationship, we must look at the specific situation of the relationship.

Also, speaking and gesturing appear to be linked, although the nature of the linkage is not exactly known. Generally, intensity of speech appears to be directly associated with the size of a gesture: the greater the gesture, the louder the speech, and vice versa. We appear to continually attempt to coordinate our speaking with our gestures. Because speech and gestures are both learned, we also learn how to coordinate them. When the two are uncoordinated, we experience discomfort and confusion.

If you still doubt that gestures have meaning, you might consider the old game of charades. The purpose is to convey a song title, book title, or saying to others in a group without using words. To win, players must use gestures — physical movements of the hands, arms, legs, and torso— to convey intended meanings. If you have not played the game before, try it. You will find that all of the ideas we have mentioned about gestures are true—truer than words can ever tell!

Body Shape and Posture : A third area of kinesics involves body shape and posture. Because body shape and posture affect how we think about ourselves, how we relate to others, and how others relate to us, this part of kinesics deserves our analysis. We need to analyze the effects of body shape and posture to understand their role in nonverbal communication, even though body shape is mostly hereditary and largely uncontrollable.

Holding your head straight, maintaining your upper body erect, standing on both feet, and sitting intently listening, you are more aware of your posture in the more formal setting. But posture is a part of any relationship, regardless of your degree of awareness. Whether you lean forward or backward, stand or sit erectly, or slouch haphazardly, you tell another person something; and the other's mental filter gives meaning to your posture.

Also, the physical shapes of our bodies communicate to others. Behaviorists have studied the shapes of our bodies and have identified three types. The *ectomorph* is thin, youthful, and tall; the *mesomorph* is strong, athletic, muscular, and bony; and the *endomorph* is fat, round, and soft. Indeed, our physical structures communicate something about us, and we would do well to be aware of it. Perhaps these body types lead to false stereotypes, but the point remains that our physical structures do communicate.

Probably all of us would like to be mesomorphs, but that might be genetically or physically impossible. What do we do? We need to use the best features of each body shape in relation to other body movements. The endomorph with bad posture, superficial gestures, and an unfriendly face will project an unfavorable image. Such a person will likely communicate a negative message. So too can we associate negative features with the ectomorph and the mesomorph. Thus, we want to avoid such negative combinations and associations.

Appearance : The final area of kinesics is appearance. By *appearance,* we mean clothing, hair, and adornments such as jewelry, cosmetics, and the like. At first glance, it may seem that appearance is unrelated to body movements. Closer inspection, however, reveals that appearance relates to how the face, eyes, gestures, posture, and shapes—all those aspects of body language we have discussed—are perceived. Thus, we will present some basic ideas about appearance, although our coverage will not include etiquette or good grooming techniques.

If you are like most people, you are not aware of the role appearance plays in your perceptions. Most people indicate they are not influenced by another's physical appearance, but apparently they are. Our own and others' appearances tell us much about how we (and they) want to be seen by other people. They also reveal how we practice the "rules of the game" in an organization.

By now you surely see that appearance affects the way we are seen and want to be seen by others. Indeed, books on successful dressing and "image" consultants attest to the importance of appearance. Although there are many aspects to appearance, the basic idea is this: You should adapt your appearance specifically to the one occasion.

You should consider how others would view you in relation to how you want to be seen. Just like other body features (face, eyes, hands, legs, arms, posture, and shape), appearance is an inevitable part of the meaning derived from our bodies' movements. You should expect appearance to be a part of the messages you communicate, and you should plan your appearance so that it will effectively communicate to others.

Proxemics :

Another type of nonverbal communication is *proxemics*—the study of how we communicate with the space around us. If you think about it carefully, you will conclude that the space around you and its contents communicate. They create meaning in your mind and in others' minds. We can define proxemics", then, as the study of the space around us— how we arrange it and what we arrange in it. In other words, proxemics is "personal space language" just as kinesics is "body language." To understand this concept, we will first look at an example; then we will examine the example based on what scholars of this subject have found.

To illustrate the idea of space meaning, consider the area that surrounds you at this moment—the space from your body outward that forms a complete circle around you for about 1 1/2 feet. Remember that in this space you originate all of the body movements we discussed previously. Also, note that you move this space with you wherever you go. Whom do you allow to enter into this close proximity to you? Family? Close friends? Select others? Under what circumstances do others come into such closeness with you? More than likely, you permit only special people to enter this space; in general, no words or at most whispered words are used here. Others may enter this space occasionally but only under special circumstances. A handshake or a quick pat on the back is what you probably allow casual acquaintances to do in this space. But they enter this space infrequently and briefly.

Next, consider the space that extends from 11/2 to 4 feet beyond the first space zone just identified. In this second, concentric space circle, you permit other and different things to happen. Conversations with close friends, colleagues, peers, and the like occur. Normal talking is permitted in this area as opposed to whispered words or complete silence in the more intimate space immediately surrounding you. Although personal in nature, it is a relaxed and casual place for you most of the time and permits spontaneous, unprogrammed communications.

Extending beyond the second area is a third identifiable space zone. It begins at the 4-foot mark and continues for 8 more feet. Think about this personal space and what happens in it for a moment. More than likely, you use this space formally, meaning that the relationships in it are more official. No doubt most of your "business" is done in this zone. It is conducted with less emotion and more planning.

The last area to consider ranges from 12 feet around you to the farthest distance you can see. Things that occur here are even more formal. Perhaps you might view happenings in this area as an impartial observer. Such a perception indicates the degree of detachment you can maintain about activities in this area. You might have to raise your voice to communicate to others. This last area represents the most remote and formal space for you. In some cases, it might be where you place the things that are least significant to you.

These four spaces are what Hall refers to as our *informal space.* Specifically, Hall names four types of informal space:

1. *Intimate*—physical contact to 18 inches.

2. *Personal*—18 inches to 4 feet.

3. *Social*—4 to 12 feet.

4. *Public*—12 feet to range of eyesight and hearing.

Without question, the types and quality of our communication activities differ in each of these four zones, as we have illustrated. But remember that we determine these areas individually, and can change them by changing our physical location. Thus, they are specific to us personally.

For another person these personal areas might be changed even more, particularly if he or she has been conditioned by another culture. For instance, activities in the first zone may differ dramatically between a person in North America and another in the Middle East. More subtle differences may exist, however, among people raised in the same culture.

In addition to informal space, researchers have identified two other spaces: (I) fixed space and (2) semi fixed space. As their names imply, they are less flexible and more formal for us than our informal spaces. But the two fixed spaces do relate to our uses of space language as we have defined it, and they help shape our communication activities.

In *fixed space,* the surroundings' physical features are permanent— walls, room sizes, total building capacity, and the like. Such permanent structures affect who interrelates with whom and for how long. They also determine how you may perceive and structure your informal space.

In *semi fixed space,* the environment's physical features are partially changeable. For example, furnishings can be rearranged for different effects. Such semi permanent arrangements permit a variety of spaces in which to conduct communication activities. Combined, the fixed, semi fixed, and informal spaces create a total space structure for each of us that communicate to us and determine the types of communication activities in which we engage.

Most scholars in the field of proxemics also study how groups use space. The way people in groups allocate their assigned spaces determines the group leader, favorite members, types of interaction patterns, and such. For example, contrast five people seated in a straight row at a table with the same five seated at a round table. You will definitely find a different pattern of interaction between the two. Also, you will find different immediate leaders and conversation topics.

People who begin conversations and people who are seated at the ends are usually considered leaders, at least at first. Obviously, space patterns, can be rearranged to achieve different results. If possible, you should use space to accomplish a particular purpose. This usage is especially important if you are a manager and thus the one responsible for the outcome.

Physical Context

Rounding out our coverage of nonverbal communication is a look at the physical environment of our communication efforts—the *context of our surroundings.* Looked at in one way, this context is the most general and abstract of the nonverbal types. Thus, we could select many of its parts for discussion. But such a task would be a mammoth undertaking and likely overlap other coverage's in this chapter. Thus, we will select two parts of the physical context of our communication environment—color and layout/design—to complete our analysis of nonverbal communication. We will study the physical environment as a part of nonverbal communication because we get meaning from our surroundings. The surroundings provide cues in our sensory environment. We get messages from these cues through the meaning we give to color and to the layout/design of the parts of our physical environment.

Color : Most people who study the effects of colors conclude that different colors are associated with different moods and behaviors. Artists, interior decorators, and "image" consultants all contend that the right color combinations can project appropriate feelings. It would appear, then, that we have a "color language" in addition to the other types of languages we have mentioned. Technically, of course, we do not see color; rather, we see light waves, which create color associations within us that we have learned. Nevertheless, we will consider some basic ideas about color as part of our physical context.

What colors do you equate with negative feelings? Black/Gray? What colors do you associate with more pleasant circumstances? Blue? Yellow? That you can equate a feeling and a color demonstrates that colors can create meanings in our minds. One problem, however, is that we have learned to associate colors with specific objects. For example, **what association does "green milk" convey to you?**

Research on the effects of colors is far from complete. Yet we can confirm that the colors of our clothing, office interiors, and the like do make an impression. Moreover, we receive meanings from colors we perceive. Rather than giving any color selection casual attention, we should devote more thought to color coordination, particularly when doing so will help us achieve a desired effect. In addition, we should consider lighting, sound, and other contextual features with equal diligence.

Layout and Design: Another meaningful part of our physical context is the layout and design of our surroundings. The space arrangements of an office, the presence or absence of carpeting, the layout of the desk and chairs, and office size all tell someone something about us. To test the reality of this component of context, try taking a part of the layout/design away and see another person's reaction. Or rearrange parts of the environment without telling another person and look for the negative reaction you will likely get.

The importance of layout and design is evident from the volumes written by architects, industrial engineers, and production researchers on the subject. Obviously,

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we cannot present all of their findings here. The point is that the layout and design of our surroundings communicate things about us to others. Perhaps they convey our status in a group or perhaps our needs for formality. In whatever nonverbal ways layout and design communicate, we should be aware of them so that we can use this part of our surroundings to contribute effectively to the success of our communication efforts.

4.7 AUDIO SIGNALS IN NON VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Paralanguage

Still another type of nonverbal communication is known as *paralanguage,* or *paralinguistic.* Of all the nonverbal types, it is the closest to actual verbal communication. By *paralanguage,* we mean how a person says something. Paralanguage involves the "how" of a speaker's voice rather than the "what" of the words. *Para* means "like"; thus, paralanguage literally means "like language." It involves those hints and signals in a person's voices that give us meaning.

In paralanguage, we examine the sound of someone's speech. Is it fast or slow? Is it high pitched or deep? Is it loud and forceful or barely audible? Is it smooth or disjointed? These are the types of signals with which paralanguage is concerned. The signals (as symbols) become a part of the total meaning one receives.

For example, read the following series of statements, emphasizing the *italicized* word in each:

I practice good business communication. I *practice* good business communication. I practice *good* business communication. I practice good *business* communication. I practice good business *communication.*

By concentrating on the *italicized* word, you give a different meaning to each statement even though the same words are used. As still another example, try counting from 1 to 10 to express various emotional states— say, nervousness, happiness, and anger. The way in which you express each sequence will tell the receiver what you intend quite accurately. For any remaining nonbelievers, you can try the same experiment with letters of the alphabet.

The preceding examples are designed to illustrate that the way in which one delivers a message communicates. A person's voice tone and quality may or may not be consistent with the meaning attached to the actual words. What you need for effective communication is consistency. Also, you should realize that there are various things you can do to change the meaning of your oral message. Many of the techniques mentioned are meant to bring what you say consistently in line with the way you say it—in formal speaking, in informal speaking, and in listening. Moreover, paralanguage includes pauses and insertions, such as "oh," "uh," "you know," and the like, since these signal our meanings too.

Scholars in the area of paralanguage note that as senders and receivers we have certain expectancies about how things should sound. Such stereotypes, whether real or imagined, affect the type of meaning sent and received through voice patterns. More specifically, people infer back ground factors (race, occupation, etc.), physical appearance (e.g., age, height, gender), and personality (introversion, social orientation, etc.), when they evaluate voice patterns. As a sender, you should consider strongly the implicit expectancies of your receiver as you construct your message.

As a sender, you should particularly avoid sending "mixed signals"— saying one thing in one way and using words that intend the opposite. As far as possible, you should make what and the *how* of your message blends. As a receiver, you should concentrate on both how the message is sent and the meaning of the words. Look for consistencies and inconsistencies. Indeed, the spoken words can tell you much about the entire message's intended meaning if you listen carefully between the lines.

Music

Music is synomymous with communication especially in the context of business communication. Ad jingles identify certain brands instantly. Music also associates us with various events like National Anthem for any event of national importance.

Alarms

Alarms are used from time immemorial. For example siren of an ambulance, alarm of a clock, ringtone of a telephone all communicate certain things to us.

4.8 SILENCE

Silence is often used to communicate feelings such as disapproval; indifference or anger. The English language itself has a number of idioms relating to silence which show how expressive it can be viz. " a stony silence" and " a loaded silence".

Orators often also pause before and/or after making an important point so as to emphasize it. Such a pause before the point is made to convey a sense of anticipation. And a pause later on gives the communicated time to reflect and think over what has just been said. Thus silence itself can be used as an instrument in communication. However one drawback is that silence can be misinterpreted very easily.

4.9 TIME

Another type of nonverbal communication, *time language* involves the meaning we give to time, that is, how we communicate to others what time means to us. In order to give meaning to time, we must perceive it, filter it, and symbolize about it. But out final symbolizing about time is not always done with words.

Probably few of us would disagree that we have meanings for time. Time is particularly important for people in North America. The history of the North American business society reveals a time emphasis. Scientific managers of the late 1800s equated the worth of time with money. As these managers studied work, they systematically analyzed job activities and the time required for doing them. They also derived techniques to help others manage in a scientific way. These time-and-motion techniques are part of today's business heritage. In addition, we see current topics such as "time management" covered in popular magazines and offered by business consultants. Through such courses, we attempt to control time, trying to become much more efficient in our use of it. If you think about it further, you will recognize other examples of how time pervades our thinking.

Most of us look to our cultures to get meaning for time, For example, our North American culture teaches that being on time is a virtue. Also, we are taught that the future is important, particularly in light of insurance and pension planning. Thus, how we use our time in our personal and professional schedules reflects how our culture has taught us to perceive time. Try being late for an appointment and see how others respond. Generally, when someone is late, we react negatively; when someone arrives early, we see him or her as eager or aggressive. Agendas used at meetings are designed to keep us on time. Businesses generally pay employees more for working overtime, weekends, and holidays. You can conclude from these examples that we communicate our ideas about time with our nonverbal behaviors, both personally and professionally.

As still another example of the meaning of time, compare our time orientations with those of another culture, say, natives of Europe, South America, or the Far East. Note how .people from other cultures communicate their time orientations and how these differ from ours. You may be surprised at how time is communicated subtly as well as explicitly. Within each person, then, there appears to be a time language just as there is a body language and a space language.

As a communicator, you should recognize the receiver's time language. You must remember that not all time perspectives are the same. You should also be aware that you have a time language uniquely your own. It projects your own meanings for time. Finally, you can and should adapt time meanings to fit the receiver's mind just as you do your words in written or spoken messages.

4.10 TOUCH

Touch or tactile methods are very effective modes of communication. No one can mistake the meaning of a friendly pat on the back or of a warm, welcoming handshake. Such examples of tactile communication are self-explanatory and are useful tools of communication as they cannot be misinterpreted very easily.

Another important example of tactile communication is Braille. It is a system of writing and printing using raised points on paper. It is interpreted entirely by touching the raised points and deciphering which letter has been printed on the basis of the pattern of the raised points. This system was devised by Louis Braille for the benefit of the blind.

4.11 THE FUNCTIONS OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Non-verbal communication is usually used in, tandem with verbal communication. In most cases it is complementary to what is being said verbally. This is done using non-verbal communication as a tool to:

1. restate the verbal communication

2. accentuate the verbal communication

3. Substitute verbal communication (using a clenched fist, V sign, thumbs-up, etc.)

4. Regulate the flow of the communication process (by a nod or a shake of the

   person's head. Etc.)

However, in some cases, non-verbal communication may also be used to contradict the verbal communication. For example, an offer to help made with a smile means exactly the opposite of one made with a grimace or frown. In the first case, the communicator conveys his willingness to help, whereas in the second case, the frown conveys that the communicator does not really want to help.

According to Bridwhistell, in face-to-face communication, the spoken words account for less than 35% of the message decoded by the communicated, while the non-verbal cues transmitted by the communicated account for the remaining 65% or more. Due to this, it is essential to keep track of the information being transmitted by one via non-verbal channels.

4.12 THE MERITS AND DEMERITS OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

The primary merit of non-verbal communication is that it helps convey the true meaning of the communication. In most cases, it reinforces verbal communication although this is not always the case as we have seen in 4.11. Non-verbal communication is also easily visible and improves the atmosphere by lending a personal touch to the communication.

The main demerit of non-verbal communication is that it can be easily misunderstood particularly when people belonging to different cultures communicate. It is therefore important not to place an inordinate amount of importance on non-verbal communication, as it is not always entirely reliable.

4.13 CONCLUSION

Thus, we have seen that a great deal of the communication which we transmit has to do with not only spoken or written words but also with a number of visual non-verbal cues which we (often subconsciously) transmit. Thus, to communicate effectively we must keep an eye on both the verbal and nonverbal cues that we transmit.

Check your progress

1) What is oral Communication?

………………………………………………………………………………………..

………………………………………………………………………………………..

2) What is written Communication?

………………………………………………………………………………………..

………………………………………………………………………………………..

3) What are the functions of Non-Verbal Communication?

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4) What are the merits and demerits of Non-Verbal Communication?

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4.14 SUMMARY

There are many forms of communication which are equally important viz. oral, written, verbal, non-verbal form of communication by performing various functions like restating the verbal communication, regulate the flow of the communication process.

4.15 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - ANSWERS

1) In oral communication both the parties that is sender and receiver exchange their ideas through oral words either in face to face communication on through any mechanical or electrical device etc.

2) Communication in writing is known as written communication

3) Functions of non-verbal communication are as follows

   1) To restate the verbal communication

   2) To accentuate the verbal communication

   3) To substitute verbal communication

   4) To regulate the flow of communication process

4) The primary merit of non-verbal communication is that it helps convey the true meaning of the communication. It is easily visible and improves the atmosphere by lending a personal touch to the communication. The main dement of non-verbal communication is that it can be easily misunderstood particularly when people belonging to different cultures communicate.

4.16 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1) Define Kinesics

2) Define Proxemics

3) What is Paralanguage?

4) What are the functions of non-verbal communication?

4.17 SUGGESTED READINGS

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Rao & Dr. Das, *Himalaya Publishing House*

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Urmila Rai & S.M. Rai, *Himalaya Publishing House*

- *Developing Communication Skills* Mohan, Banerjee, *Macmillan, India*

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NOTES

Chapter 5

Verbal Skills

5.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter you will be able to -

*   Discuss the language used in oral communication.

*   Describe the techniques of Delivery.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Effective and powerful speech is what is most important to carry out any sort of oral communication. The spoken word comprises three parts:

1. The language used in the communication

2. The verbal and linguistic modifiers and regulators: voice culture

3. The technique used to deliver or transmit the communication

All of these aspects of the spoken word in oral communication have been discussed in this chapter.

5.2 THE LANGUAGE USED IN ORAL COMMUNICATION

The principles of accuracy, brevity and clarity are, as have been mentioned earlier, the hallmarks of any good piece of communication. However, in addition to this, there are a few basic guidelines which every communicator must use in order to convey the communication accurately to the communicated. The most important of these principles is that the communication is audience oriented.

Audience oriented communication

An audience oriented oral communication is a communication, which is delivered keeping the specific requirements and expectations of the communicated, which is delivered keeping the specific requirements and expectations of the communicated in mind.

For example, talking to a fifty-year-old person-using slang that was coined a few years ago would not be suitable in most cases. For one thing, the person may simply not understand the communication. And in some cases, the communicated may even interpret the communication as being disrespectful, particularly if the communicator is much younger.

Thus, tailoring the communication to suit the communicated is one of the

essentials of oral communication. Doing this also displays the courtesy of the communicator towards the communicated.

The seven C's of oral communication

As we have seen making one's communication audience-oriented, and thereby making it courteous, is the most important principle of oral communication.

However, according to Bergin, the secret of good oral communication comprises not just one V (that of courtesy) but seven C's. These seven principles are that the communication should be:

1. Complete   contain all the relevant information
2. Clear   convey the communication directly
3. Concrete   be solid in nature and not vague
4. Correct   be accurate
5. Concise   be brief and precise
6. Courteous   be polite
7. Candid   be honest

Following these guidelines while transmitting the information or communication makes it possible for the communicated to easily grasp what the communicator is trying to convey. The principle of being complete in all respects is self-explanatory. The remaining principles have been discussed in following sections

Clarity of thought

As we have seen earlier, clarity is one of the cardinal principles of communication. Due to the nature of oral communication, it is important that the communicator organizes his/her/their thoughts and mentally goes over the communication before actually transmitting it. The despatch (by the communicator) and the reception (by the communicated) of the communication itself are almost simultaneous in oral communication. And it is difficult to change what has already been said. This makes it essential to ensure that undesirable communication is transmitted.

Clarity of expression

Clarity in the expression or encoding of a communication can be achieved by:

1. using simple words and sentences avoiding the use of vague words such as perhaps, maybe, possibly etc, trying to use the most precise and suitable words with which one can convey the information avoiding the use of long words, or words which the audience is not likely to be familiar with e. g. the word fortuitous should be avoided since it is rarely used today. Instead the words happening by chance' or their equivalent should be used

   (It is far more important to use simple words and convey the communication in language that the communicated will understand than it is to use supposedly 'impressive' words. In any case, the 'impressiveness' of such words is completely lost, since they may not even be understood by the communicated.)

2. avoiding jargon unless the communicated is in a position to understand it

3. avoiding foreign words and/or classical quotations (particularly in Latin) unless the communicated can appreciate them

4. avoiding the use of slang in a formal setting and avoiding the use of excessively formal words in an informal atmosphere

For example, consider the following:

a   Is in a state of dispair

b   Has broken / is not working.

c   Has bust.

Here,

- a Is excessively formal and would in fact, sound rather pompous and stuffy in most settings.

- b Is neither too formal nor too informal and, would be suitable in most situations.

- c Is extremely informal and casual, and is suited only to such places as high schools and discos

Thus, the language must be suited to the setting and the occasion.

5. Avoiding an excessive use of cliches, as they tend to draw away from the personal element of oral communication and make it impersonal.

6. Avoiding the repetition of the same phrase a number of times.

For. Example, a number of people use phrases like, I mean.....' repeatedly while communicating. After a point, this tends to irritate the communicated and should therefore be avoided. Another phrase often used is, 'I guess that.....' This, if used all the time, can leave the communicated wondering exactly what (if anything), the communicator knows as a definite fact. The phrase should therefore be avoided as much as possible.

Concreteness

Concreteness simply means that while communicating, it is preferable not to use indecisive terms which do not give the communicated a clear picture. The use of the most precise words available to convey the information helps to communicate the information in such a way that the communicated is left with no doubts about either the intent/objective of the communication or of its contents.

Also, since repitition and/or tautology are often used to highlight certain parts of a communication, it is essential for the communicator to have a feel for the language as well as a basic knowledge of equivalent words or synonyms. This enables the communicator to make such repetitions for emphasis without boring or irritating the communicated beyond a point.

Correctness

All oral communication should be correct and accurate. In order to ensure this:

All the concerned information should be included .All the included information should be free from any errors or mistakes in pronunciation (pronunciation has been discussed further).

Conciseness

The communication should be to the point and direct. The communicator must respect the fact that other peoples' time is precious and should not be wasted by using irrelevant or unnecessary information which can be avoided spending a lot of time beating around the bush.

Also, in oral communication excessively long sentences are often rather difficult to follow. They should therefore be shortened and/or divided into a number of smaller sentences.

Courtesy

As we have discussed the best and most important way in which the communicator can display courtesy towards the communicated is by adjusting, altering and modifying the communication, to suit the needs of the communicated. In addition to this, it is also important to reply promptly to any communication or feedback and not leave the other party/person hanging in mid air.

Another aspect of courtesy is to respect the feelings and sentiments of the other person/party involved in the communication. This does not mean that one should agree with everything (or even anything) said by the other person/party. It simply means that one needs to realize and accept the fact that other people may hold opinions, which are completely different from one's own ideas.

For those who are familiar with American TV. Serials, one example of people who disagree about virtually everything are the couple 'Dharma and Greg'. In this serial, Greg comes from a business family where as Dharma comes from one that is into spiritualism. Their attitudes are very different. However, as they respect each others opinions, they have a good relationship. They simply 'agree to disagree'.

Finally, one of the cardinal rules of courtesy is to follow the old English saying, 'Mind your Ps and Qs. ' Originally, the phrase was used in pubs to remind customers to check their consumption of hard drinks by minding their 'pints and quarts'.

Nowadays, however, it is used to remind people to mind their 'pleases' and 'thank-you'. 'Please' and 'thank-you' are, in fact, thought of as two of the three 'magic words. The third is 'sorry".

The general rule to follow here is

Use the word "please while asking for anything

Say 'thank you' to convey gratitude for any help or favours, which are received

Apologize by saying 'sorry' and, if possible, by also taking remedial action after any error.

Candour

It is important to be as candid as possible while making any communication. Most people know when they are being lied to or when a communicator is not being completely honest with them. As Abraham Lincoln once said, '.... you cannot fool all the people all the time'.

And when people realize that the other person/party is not being honest, they tend to lose faith and confidence in that person/party. Once this happens, it is very difficult to regain the trust, which has been lost, especially since trust is never an easy thing to earn.

In order to avoid such a scenario which would definitely put virtual stop to the communication process, it is sensible to be as frank as possible right from the outset.

And if at all one finds oneself in a position where one is asked for information which one is not at liberty to share, one can always fall back on the old phrase: 'Ask me no questions and I'll tell you no lies'. It would, however, be wise to use language, which is more tactful than that and doesn't sound quite as clinched.

5.3 VERBAL & LINGUISTIC MODIFIERS & REGULATORS & VOICE CULTURES

What is a modifier?
Definition

A modifier is a constituent, in an endocentric construction, that imparts information relating to the head of the construction.

Examples (English)

☐ in the endocentric construction *the very hot soup,* the constituents *the* and *very*

hot are modifiers of *soup,* the head of the construction.

Verbal Modifiers

Introductory verbal modifiers are introductory phrases that naturally adhere to the subject of the main clause. When the subject of the main clause is not the performer of the action in the phrase, a dangling modifier is the result.

Wrong

Patting her curls, the afternoon stretched long and hot before her. (She, not the afternoon, was patting her curls)

Correct

Patting her curls, she watched the afternoon stretch long and hot before her.

As she was patting her curls, the afternoon stretched long and hot before her.

Wrong

While dreaming of dancing sugar plums, the children's nap continued through the dreary afternoon. (Who is dreaming, the nap or the children?)

Correct

While dreaming of dancing sugar plums, the children napped continuously through the dreary afternoon.

Wrong

Snuggled up near the crackling fire, the winter storm raged while the children read a book. (The children, not the storm, are snuggled up near the fire.)

Correct

Snuggled up near the crackling fire, the children read a book while the winter storm raged.

Linguistic Modifiers

Properties of a situation typically taken to be less central, such as manner, time (point in time, duration, frequency), place (location, origin, destination), reason (cause, purpose), and so on, can be expressed by **modifiers.**

Arguments and modifiers both introduce restrictions on the denotation of a predicate, and the relationships of argument hood and modification do not differ semantically in this respect. For instance, the situations denoted by *invite Dave* are a subset of those denoted by *invite,* just as the situations denoted by *laugh uproariously* are a subset of those denoted by *laugh.*

Modifiers of verb phrases are typically adverbial phrases or prepositional phrases, but noun phrases can serve as modifiers as well. In the following examples, the modifier is in italics, and the verb phrase that it modifies is underlined.

a.   Manner: He read the letter *carefully.*

b.   Point in time: They discussed the proposal *in the afternoon.*

c.   Duration: You should keep your tax records *for several years.*

d.   Frequency: I read the Times *quite often.*

e.   Location: We met *in my office.*

f.   Origin: We set out *for Bangalore.*

g.   Destination: We arrived *in Benares.*

h.   Cause: He threw it away *out of spite.*

i.   Purpose: I sent the message *to warn everyone.*

Because of their semantically peripheral character, modifiers are syntactically optional. The converse is emphatically not true, however. Not all syntactically optional constituents are modifiers; recall from (8b) that semantic arguments aren't always expressed.

Verbs are not the only category that can be modified. For instance, nouns are often modified by adjective phrases, prepositional phrases, or relative clauses.

a.   a *very important* period

b.   a period *of great import*

c.   the car *that just turned the corner*

Moreover, adjective phrases and prepositional phrases, the quintessential modifier phrases, can themselves be modified.

a.   *very* proud of her progress

b.   *surprisingly* good to eat

c.   *almost* in the dark

d.   *right* behind the shed

Voice Culture

The process of bringing the voice under control is known as voice culture, which includes traditional and scientific methods to improve the quality of voice.

The four basic steps of voice training include:

1. Hearing.

2. Control of Breath.

3. Practice

4. Physical and Mental Fitness.

Hearing

Imitation is the first step towards learning. This statement applies to voice training, too. Concentrated listening is the basic requirement. By listening more and more, the brain creates and stores a mental image of the sound. The notes, the tunes, the rhythm, the speed, the words, the volume, the tonal quality of the voice etc. are stored in the brain.

When we try to speak, this mental image co-ordinate with the laryngeal muscles to produce the sound required. Thus, it can be easily understood that, the more we hear, the more we listen, there will be a better ability of voice production.

Control of Breath:

This is also a very important step towards voice culture. If we can master our breath, we can easily master our voice. Breath Control gives fineness, clarity, steadiness and confident phonation to the voice. There are four types of breathing: Clavicular (shoulder), Costal (chest), Diaphragmatic and Abdominal. Clavicular breathing is useful for very shrill notes. Costal breathing is used for high-pitched notes. Diaphragmatic breathing is useful for everybody. When somebody cultivates this type of breathing, unnecessary and unwanted wobbling or shaking of voice can be controlled. Abdominal breathing helps to pronounce the lower notes effectively.

Practice

Everyone knows - 'Practice makes a man perfect'. Practice should be divided into two types:

1. Trying that which we cannot pronounce but want to.

2. Repeating that which we already know and bring it closer to perfection.

Physical and Mental Fitness

Regular exercise, healthy and balanced diet and regular meditation or any tension releasing exercises are a necessity for our fitness and thereby quality of voice.

5.4 THE TECHNIQUES OF DELIVERY

The most difficult kind of oral communication for most people is a formal speech. Most of us feel uncomfortable speaking before others and generally do a poor job of it. But it need not be this way. With effort, we can improve our speaking. We can do this by first learning good speaking techniques. Then we put these techniques into practice.

Selection of the Topic

Your first step in formal speech making is to determine the topic of your presentation. In some cases, you will be assigned a topic, usually one within your area of specialization. In fact, when you are asked to make a speech on a specified topic, it is likely to be because of your knowledge of it.

If you are not assigned a topic, you must find one on your own. In your search for a suitable topic, you will do well to be guided by three basic factors. The first is your own background and knowledge. Any topic you select should be one with which you are comfortable—one within your areas of proficiency. The second is the interest of your audience. Selecting something your audience can appreciate and understand is vital to the success of your speech. The third is the occasion of the speech. Is the occasion a commemoration of an historic event. A monthly meeting of an executive club, an annual meeting of an association of beauticians. Whatever you select should fit the occasion. A speech about Japanese management practices might be quite appropriate for the executive club members but not for the beauticians. Your selection should be justified by all three factors.

After you have determined what to talk about, you should gather the information that will form the basis of your speech. In some cases, this involves

searching through your mind for supporting experience or perhaps for idea development. Sometimes you will need to conduct primary research in a library or in company files. With some topics, you may need to consult colleagues or people from other companies. In short, you do whatever is necessary to get the information that will form the basis of your presentation.

When you have all the information you need, you are ready to begin organizing your speech/although variations are sometimes appropriate, usually you should follow the time-honored order of a speech: *introduction, body,* and *conclusion*—the same indirect order used in some reports. It is described in following paragraphs.

Although not really a part of the speech, the first words usually spoken are the greeting. Your greeting of course should fit the audience. "Ladies and Gentlemen" is appropriate for a mixed audience; "Gentlemen" fits all-male audience; and "My Fellow Rotarians" fits an audience of Rotary Club members. Some speakers eliminate the greeting and begin directly with the speech, especially in more informal and technical presentations.

The introduction of a speech has much the same goal as the introduction of a written report: to prepare the listener (or reader) to receive the message. But the introduction of a speech usually has the additional requirement of arousing interest. Unless you can arouse interest at the beginning, your presentation is likely to fail. The situation is somewhat like that of the sales letter. At least some of the people with whom you want to communicate are unlikely to be interested in receiving your message. As you will see when you review the material on listening, it is very easy to lose the listener's attention in a speech situation. To prove the point, ask yourself how many times your mind has drifted from a speaker's words. There is no question about it; you, the speaker, must work to gain and hold your audience's interest.

The techniques of attracting interest are limited only by the imagination. In some cases, beginning with a human-interest story may be successful, for story telling has strong appeal. Humor is another possibility and is probably the most widely used technique. Yet another technique is the startling statement—presenting facts and ideas that awaken the mind. Whatever you choose should meet one additional requirement: It should lead to, or set up, the theme of the speech. In other words, there should be a close tie-in between the opening interest-gaining remarks and the subject of the speech.

Following the interest-gaining opening, it is appropriate to state the subject (theme) of your speech. In fact, when your audience already is interested in what you have to say, you can begin here and skip the attention-gaining opening. Presentations of technical topics to technical audiences typically begin this way. Whether you lead to a statement of your topic or begin with it, your statement should be clear and complete.

Sometimes you may find it undesirable to reveal a position early because of the nature of your subject. In these cases, you may prefer to move into your subject indirectly—to build up your case before revealing your position. You should use this inductive pattern especially when your goal is to persuade—when you need to move your audience's views from one position to another. But in most business-related presentations, a direct statement of your theme early in the speech is desirable

Organizing the body of your speech is much like organizing the body of a report. You take the whole and divide it into comparable parts. Then you take these parts and divide them. You continue to divide as far as it is practical to do so. In speeches, however, you are more likely to use factors as the basis of division than time, place, or quantity. The reason is that in most speeches your presentation is likely to build" around issues and questions that are subtopics of the subject,

These issues and questions, of course are factors. Even so, time, place, and quantity subdivisions are possibilities.

Like most reports, the speech usually ends with a conclusion. Here you bring all that you have presented to a head. You achieve the speech's goal. In doing this, you should consider including these three elements in your close: (1) a restatement of your subject, (2) a summary of the key points developed in the presentation, and (3) a statement of the conclusion (or main message). Usually it is effective to bring the speech to a climactic close—that is, make it the high point of the speech. You can do this by presenting the concluding message in strong language, in words that will gain attention and be remembered. The following close of a speech, comparing Japanese and American management techniques illustrate this point:

These facts make my conclusion crystal clear. We are not Japanese. We do not have the Japanese culture. Japanese management methods have not worked- -cannot work—will not work in our society.

Determination of Presentation Method

With your speech organized, you are ready to begin preparation for presenting it. At this time, you will need to decide on your method of presentation—whether to present it extemporaneously, by reading it, or by memorizing it.

Extemporaneous presentation is by far the most popular and effective method. Using this method, you first thoroughly prepare your speech, as outlined above. Then you prepare notes and present the speech from them. Usually you rehearse, making sure that all parts are clear in mind, but you make no attempt to memorize. The extemporaneous method usually sounds natural to the listeners, even though it is (or should be) the product of careful planning and practice.

Memorized presentation is the most difficult method, at least for most of us. Probably few speakers actually memorize an entire speech. Instead, they memorize key parts and use notes to help them through the presentation. Such deliveries actually are a cross between extemporaneous and memorized presentation.

A third method of presentation is by reading. Unfortunately, most of us do not read aloud well. We tend to read in a dull monotone, producing a most uninteresting effect. We fumble over words, lose our place, miss punctuation marks, and such. Of course, many speakers overcome this problem and, with effort, you can too. But you would be wise not to attempt to read a speech until you have become a proficient reader.

Consideration of Personal Aspects

A preliminary step to make your speech good is to analyze yourself as a speaker. In oral presentations you, the speaker, are essentially a part of the message. Your audience takes in not only the words you communicate but what they see in you. And what they see in you can significantly affect the meanings that develop in their minds. Thus, you should carefully evaluate your personal effect on the message you present'. You should do whatever you can to detect and overcome shortcomings and to sharpen any strength.

Although the following summary of such characteristics may prove useful, you probably know them from experience. The chances are you can easily recognize the good and bad qualities. To some extent, the problem is recognizing these characteristics, or lack of them, in yourself. To a greater extent, it is doing something about improving your bad characteristics when you recognize them. The following review should help you pinpoint these problem areas and give you some practical suggestions on how to overcome them.

Confidence A primary characteristic of effective oral reporting is *confidence.* This includes your confidence in yourself and your audience's confidence in you. Actually, the two are complementary, for your confidence in yourself tends to produce an image that gives your audience confidence in you. Similarly, your audience's confidence in you can give you a sense of security, thereby making you more confident of your ability. Typically, you earn your audience's confidence over periods of association. But there are things you can do to project an image that invites confidence. For example, you can prepare your presentation diligently and practice it thoroughly. Such careful preliminary work will give you confidence in yourself. Having confidence leads to more effective communication, which in turn builds confidence in your listener's mind. An other thing you can do to gain confidence is check your physical appearance carefully. Unfair and illogical as it may be, certain styles of dress and hair create strong images in people's minds. Thus, if you want to communicate effectively, you should analyze the audience you seek to reach. You should work to develop the physical appearance that will project an image in which your audience can have confidence. Yet another suggestion is simply to talk in strong, clear tones. Such tones do much to project an image of confidence. Although most people can do little to change their natural voices, they can try to add sufficient volume.

Sincerity Your listeners will be quick to detect insincerity in you. When they do, they are likely to give little weight to what you say. On the other hand, *sincerity* is a valuable aid to conviction, especially if the audience has confidence in your ability. What you can do to project an image of sincerity is clear: You must *be* sincere. Pretense of sincerity rarely succeeds.

Thoroughness : *Thoroughness* in your presentation generally will make your message better received than scanty or hurried coverage. Thorough coverage gives the impression that you have taken time and care, and such an impression tends to make the message believable. But you can overdo thoroughness. If you present the information in too much detail, your listeners may become lost in a sea of information. The secret is to select the important information and leave out the unimportant. Selecting the important information, of course, requires that you use good judgment. You must place yourself in your listeners' shoes and ask yourself just what they do and do not need to know.

Friendliness

A speaker who projects an image *of friendliness* has a significant advantage in communicating. People simply like people who are friendly and are more receptive to what they say. Like sincerity, friendliness is difficult to pretend. It must be honest if it is to be effective. But with most people friendliness is honest, for most people they want to be friendly. Some just are unable to project the desired friendly image. With a little self-analysis and some mirror watching or videotaping as you practice speaking, you can find ways to improve the friendliness of your image. These are but some of the characteristics that should aid you as a speaker. There are others, such as *interest, enthusiasm, originality,* and *flexibility.* But those mentioned here are the most significant and the ones most speakers need to work on. Through self-analysis and dedicated effort to improve, you can enhance your speaking image.

Audience Analysis

One requirement of good speech making is to know your audience. You should study your audience before and during the presentation.

Preliminary Analysis : In analyzing your audience before the speech, you should search for any audience characteristics that will affect your presentation. For example, size of audience is likely to influence how formal or informal you make your speech. (As a rule, large audiences require more formality.). The audience's personal characteristics also can affect how you make your speech. Characteristics such as age, sex, education, experience, and knowledge of subject matter can determine how you present your message—choice of words, need for illustration, and level of detail required. Just as in writing, you should adapt your speeches to your audiences; and knowing your audience is a first step in adaptation

Analysis during Presentation: Your audience analysis should continue as you make the speech. Called *feedback,* this phase of audience analysis gives you information about how your listeners are receiving your words. With this information, you can adjust your presentation to improve the communication result.

Your eyes and ears will give feedback information. For example, facial expressions will tell you how your listeners are reacting to your message.

From smiles, blank stares, and movements, you will get an indication of whether they understand or agree with your message. You can detect from their sounds (or silence) whether they are listening. If questions are in order, you can learn directly how your message is coming across. In general, by being alert you can learn much from your audience. And what you learn can help you make a better speech.

Appearance and Bodily Actions

As your listeners hear your words, they are looking at you. What they see is part of the message, and it can have a very real effect on the success of your speech. What your audience sees, of course, are you. They also see what surrounds you. Thus, in your efforts to improve the effects of your oral presentations, you should thoroughly understand the communication effects of what your listeners see.

The Communication Environment : Much of what your audience sees is all that surrounds you as you speak—everything that tends to add to a general impression. This includes the physical things—the stage, lighting, background, and such. Although not visual, a related influence here would be outside noises. For the best communication results, the factors in your communication environment should not detract from your message; rather, they should contribute to good communication. Your own experience as a listener will tell you what is important.

Personal Appearance : Your personal appearance is part of the message your audience receives. Of course, you must accept your physical attributes, but few of us need be at a disadvantage with respect to appearance. All that is necessary is that

you use what you have appropriately. Specifically, you should dress appropriately for the audience and the occasion. You should be clean and well groomed. You should use facial expressions and bodily movements to your advantage, as described in following paragraphs.

Posture : Posture is likely to be the most obvious thing your audience sees in you. Even if listeners cannot be close enough to detect facial expressions and eye movements, they can see the general form the body takes.

You probably think no one need to tell you what good posture is. You know it when you see it. The trouble is that you are unlikely to see it in yourself. One solution is to have others tell you whether your posture needs improvement. Another is to practice speaking before a mirror or with videotape equipment. In your efforts; to improve your posture, keep in mind what must go on within your body in order to form good posture. Your body weight must be distributed in a comfortable and poised way consistent with the impression you want to make. You should keep your body erect without appearing stiff and comfortable without seeming limp. Your bearing should be poised, alert, and communicative. You should do all this naturally. The great danger with posture is appearing artificial.

Walking : The way you walk before your audience also makes an impression on your listeners. A strong, sure walk to the speaker's position gives an impression of confidence. Hesitant, awkward steps give the opposite impression. Walking about during the presentation can be good or bad, depending on how you do it. Some speakers use steps forward and to the side as a form of bodily gesture, especially to emphasize points. Too much walking, however, attracts attention to your self and detracts from the message. You should hold you walking to a minimum, using it only when you are reasonably sure of its effect.

Facial Expressions : Probably the most apparent and communicative bodily movements are facial expressions. The problem is that you may unconsciously use facial expressions that convey unintended meanings. For example, a frightened speaker may tighten the jaw unconsciously and begin to grin. The effect may be an ambiguous image that detracts from the entire communication effort. A smile, grimace, or puzzled frown conveys a clear message. Without question, they are effective communication devices, and you should use them.

Equally important is eye contact. The eyes have long been considered "mirrors of the soul" and inform most observers about your sincerity, goodwill, and flexibility. Some listeners tend to shun speakers who refuse to look at them. On the other hand, moderate eye contact tends to show that you have a genuine interest in your audience.

Gestures : Like posture, gestures add to the message you communicate. Just what they add, however, is hard to say. They have no definite or clear-cut meanings. A clenched fist, for example, certainly adds emphasis to a strong point. But it can also show defiance, make a threat, or signify support for a cause. And so it is with other gestures. They register vague meanings.

Although they have vague meanings, gestures are strong. They are natural aids to speaking. It appears natural, for example, to emphasize a plea with palms up and to show disagreement with palms down. Raising first one hand and then the other reinforces a division of points. Slicing the air with the hand shows several divisions. Although such gestures generally are clear, we do not all use them in the same manner.

In summary, it should be clear that you can use bodily movements to help your speaking. Which movements you should use, however, is hard to say. They are related to personality, physical makeup, and the size and nature of the audience. A speaker appearing before a formal group generally should use relatively few bodily actions. A speaker appearing before an informal audience should use more. What you should use on a given occasion is a matter for your best judgment.

Use of Voice

Good voice is an obvious requirement of good speaking. Like bodily movements, the voice should not hinder the listener's concentration on the message. More specifically, the voice should not detract attention from the message. Voices that cause such difficulties generally fall into four areas of fault: (1) lack of pitch variation, (2) lack of variety in speaking speed, (3) lack of emphasis by variation in volume, and (4) unpleasant voice quality.

Lack of Pitch Variation : Speakers who talk in monotones are unlikely to hold their listeners' interest for long. Because most voices are capable of wide variations and pitches, the problem usually can be corrected. Most often the failure to vary pitch is a matter of habit—of voice patterns developed over years of talking without being aware of effect.

Lack of Variation in Speaking Speed : Determining how fast to talk is a major problem. As a general rule, you should present the easy parts of the message at a fairly brisk rate and hard-to-understand information at a slower pace. The reason for varying the speed of presentation should be apparent: Easy information presented slowly is irritating; hard information presented rapidly may be difficult to understand.

A problem related to speaking pace is the incorrect use of pauses. Of course, pauses used at the appropriate time and place are effective. When properly used, they emphasize the upcoming subject matter and are effective in gaining attention. But frequent, arbitrary pauses are irritating and break the listener's concentration. The error is compounded when the speaker fills in the pauses with uh's and meaningless you know's and OK's.

Lack of Vocal Emphasis : A secret of good speaking is to give words their due emphasis by varying the manner of speaking. You can do this by (1) varying the pitch of your voice, (2) varying the pace of your presentation, and (3) varying the volume of your voice. Because the first two techniques have been discussed, only the last requires comment.

You must talk loudly enough for all of your audience to hear, but not too loudly. (Thus, the loudness—voice force—for a large group should be greater than that for a small group.) Regardless of group size, however, variety in force is good for interest and emphasis. It produces contrast, which is one way to emphasize the subject matter. Some speakers incorrectly believe that the only way to gain emphasis is to get louder and louder. But you can also show emphasis by going from loud to soft; the contrast provides the emphasis. Again, variety is the key to making your voice more effective.

Unpleasant Voice Quality : It is a hard fact of communication that some voices are more pleasing than others. Fortunately, most voices are reasonably pleasant. But some are raspy, nasal, or in some other way unpleasant. Although therapy often can improve such voices, some speakers must live with what they have. But by concentrating on variations in pitch, speed of delivery, and volume, one can make even the most unpleasant voice effective.

Improvement through Self-Analysis : You can overcome most of the foregoing voice problems through self-analysis. With today's recording technology, it is easy to hear yourself talk. Since you know good speaking when you hear it, you should be able to improve your own presentation.

Use of Visual Aids

The spoken word is severely limited in communicating. Sound exists for a brief moment and is gone. If the listener misses the message, there may be no chance to hear it again. Because of this limitation, speeches often need strong visual support—charts, tables, chalkboards, film, and such. Visual aids may be as vital to a speech's success as the words.

Proper Use of Design : Effective visual aids draw from the message. They should fit the one speech and the one audience .In selecting visual aids, you should search through the presentation for topics that appear vague or confusing. Whenever a picture or other form of visual aid will help clear up vagueness, you should use one. Visual aids are truly a part of your message, and you should look upon them as such.

After you have decided that a topic deserves visual help, you determine the form the help should take—that is, should it be a chart, a diagram, a picture, or what? You should base your decision primarily on the question of which form communicates best. As simple and obvious as this point may appear, people violate it all too often. They select visual aids more for appearance and drama than for communication effect.

Forms to Consider : Because no one form is best for all occasions, you should have a flexible attitude toward visual aids. You should know the good and bad qualities of each and how to use each effectively.

In selecting visual aids, you should keep in mind the types available. Primarily, you will consider the various forms of photographed or drawn illustrations—charts, graphs, tables, diagrams, and pictures. Each of these forms has its special strengths

and weaknesses, as described in each may be displayed in various ways—by slide, overhead, or opaque projector; by flip chart; by display; on a chalkboard; on a flanel board; and so on- Each of these display forms has it strengths and weaknesses. Visual aids may also take the form of motion pictures, models, samples, demonstrations, and the like.

Techniques for Using Visual Aids : Visual aids usually carry key parts of the message. Thus, they are points of emphasis in your presentation. You blend them in with your words to communicate the message. How you do this is to some extent an individual matter, for techniques vary— so much, in fact, that it would be hard to present them meaningfully. However, here is a list of do's and don't's:

1. Make certain everyone in the audience can see the visual aid. Too many or too-light lines on a chart, for example, can be hard to see. Too small an illustration will be meaningless to those in the back of the audience.

2. Explain the visual aid if there is any likelihood that it will be misunderstood.

3. Organize the visual aids as a part of the presentation. Fit them into the plan.

4. Emphasize the visual aids. Point to them with bodily action and with words.

5. Talk to the audience, not to the visual aids. Look at the visual aids only when the audience should look at them.

6. Avoid blocking the listeners' view of the visual aids. Make certain that lecterns, pillars, charts, and such do not block anyone's view. Take care not to stand in anyone's line of vision.

5.5 CONCLUSION

- Speaking takes many different forms, ranging from the formal - addresses, discourses, orations, lectures, homilies, sermons, presentations - to the less formal. The six principles apply to them all: govern the art or power of communicating or expressing thought through the spoken word. Apply them and you will become an effective speaker.

BE CLEAR makes your communication unclouded or transparent. A clear sky is one free of clouds, mists and haze. With reference to speech it means free from any confusion and hence easy to understand. Being clear is not primarily a matter of sentences and words. The value of clarity is an inner one: it should act as a principle, purifying thought at its source, in the mind.

- BE PREPARED means active, conscious deliberation and effort before action. To be unprepared, by contrast, means that you have not thought or made any attempt at preparing yourself for what you know you mayor will have to face. You are like' a soccer team that never trains or plans before its matches.

- BE SIMPLE, so that your hearers are not put off by the unnecessarily complicated or intricate. But don't oversimplify or talk down to your audience - even if they are children.

- BE VIVID - make it come alive! This graphic or colour quality springs from the interest and enthusiasm in the mind and heart of the communicator. But it has to. Become visible in your language.

- BE NATURAL or, if you prefer it, be yourself. What you say and how you say it should reflect your own innate character. For good communication is truth through personality.

- Last but not least, BE CONCISE. Confine what you have to say in a relatively short space, cutting out all unnecessary wordiness. Use words sparingly like bullets, for one accurate shot is worth a hundred misses.

Speak properly, and in as few words as you can, but always plainly; for the end of speech is not ostentation, but to be understood –

….**William Penn**

Check your Progress

1) What is Audience oriented communication?

   ....
   ....

2) Mention seven C's of oral communication.

   ....
   ....

3) Define Modifier

   ....
   ....

4) Define voice Culture

   ....
   ....

5.6 SUMMARY

This chapters deals with verbal skills, the language used in oral communication, verbal and linguistic modifiers, the techniques of delivery which help in order to make communication effective.

5.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - ANSWERS

1) An audience oriented oral communication is a communication which is delivered keeping the specific requirements and expectations of the communicated which is delivered keeping the specific requirements and expectations of the communicated in mind.

2) Seven C's of oral communication are

   1) Complete 2) Clear 3) concrete 4) Correct 5) Concise 6) Courteous 7) Candid

3) A modifier is constituent in an endocentric construction that imparts information relating to the head of the construction.

4) The process of bringing the voice under control is known as voice culture which includes traditional & scientific methods to improve the quality of voice.

5.8 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1) What are the techniques of Delivery of Speech?
2) Write a note on audience oriented communication.
3) Write a note on Gestures.

5.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Rao & Dr. Das, *Himalaya Publishing House*

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Urmila Rai & S.M. Rai, *Himalaya Publishing House*

- *Communication* C.S. Rayudu, *Himalaya Publishing House*

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NOTES

Chapter 6

The Art of Listening

6.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter you will be able to -

*   Distinguish the difference between Hearing and Listening

*   Explain the value of listening, pitfalls involved in listening.

*   Discuss the function of listening, the process of listening.

*   Explain the barriers to efficient listening.

*   Describe the types of listening.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Listening plays a significant role in the interactive process of business transactions. And yet, any suggestion to improve listening skill through conscious efforts is sometimes viewed with surprise or even amusement.

Consider for a moment the amount of time you spend on listening to others in person or on phone or to recorded and broadcasted material. You would find that the time spent on listening is substantial. In fact, listening is an important every day means of gathering information and acquiring knowledge. As a student, you have to listen to lectures, seminar, presentations, instructions and views expressed in discussions and conversations. And as a professional, you would have to listen to outside contacts and your boss, colleagues, and subordinates within the organisation. Whatever be the circumstances, if you do not listen effectively, you are likely to land yourself in trouble or in an embarrassing situation. Remember that all successful executives and managers are usually good listeners. The cultivation of listening skill, therefore, deserves as much attention as the other three ways of communication, namely, speaking, writing, and reading.

6.2 LISTENING AND HEARING

All hearing is not listening. The former is merely a physiological process in which the sound waves emanating from animate or inanimate objects strike the eardrums. You sometimes have to hear what you do not want to hear. And certainly

you do not try to interpret the meaning of everything that you hear. Listening, on the other hand, is a four-stage self-generated activity. The first stage is the reception of the sound waves through the ears. The second is the interpretation of the sound received and the third, an evaluation of the interpreted meaning in the context of the needs and expectations of the listener. The fourth stage is the reaction to the message. Listening thus is purposeful hearing. In our day to day life we hear so many things but we do not listen all that we hear.

Purpose of Listening

There are various purposes of listening. We listen for socialisation, for relaxation, for inspiration, for elevation and sometimes even for whiling away our leisure time, But in the context of performance of our duties there are two specific purposes of listening. One, we listen to gain new information and ideas transmitted through both formal and informal channels. Apart from what is communicated officially, we can gather a lot of useful information by listening to friends and colleagues. Effective listening in informal transactions is no less important than formal situations. Two, listening enables us to participate effectively in discussions and other interactions. Unless we listen to the points made or views expressed by the other participants in a speech situation, we would not be able to react rightly and to put forward cogently arguments in support of our views.

6.3 VALUE OF LISTENING

What desirable good does this comparatively rare ability to listen give you? How does it promote your well-being? As the key to your motivation to improve may lie in giving you reasons for so doing, let me underline some of the advantages.

Listening is a principal way of learning

As inventor and entrepreneur Sir Clive Sinclair says, there are bucketfuls of ideas lying around. 'What is lacking is listening ears and, it must be added, the entrepreneurial skills needed to bring these ideas to market. Listen for ideas and new information! We take in information and ideas mainly through two organs: our eyes and our "ears. In reading these words at the moment you are exercising the first of these two faculties.

Books, papers and screens which you can read or scan seem at first to be a far superior method to receiving information or ideas than listening:

A listener is often one among others, but when you read a book you do so on your own.

You can turn back a page or two and re-read; it is often inconvenient or impossible to ask speakers to repeat themselves.

But there are advantages that go with receiving information or ideas through listening as opposed to reading. Knowledgeable talkers, for example, will often select facts in order to condense and consolidate their information as they speak, in an effort to give you the essence of it. Writers of books, alas, are not always so economical.

Most people, as they talk, learn from the feedback of their listeners' reactions and modify their spoken words accordingly. A talker, for example, may repeat or rephrase what he or she is saying if you as the listener or the audience look puzzled. That kind of flexibility is- not so easily established between a writer and a reader.

Despite what I said above about the practical difficulties of asking speakers, lecturers or broadcasters to repeat a point, in one-to-one conversations or meetings of small groups you usually do have the opportunity for on-the-spot questions of clarification. Readers seldom have opportunities to question writers.

Lastly, through listening we can often obtain information that is not written down. There may have been no time to do so, or the person concerned may lack the motivation and skill to commit what they know on paper.

'Every person is my superior in some way, wrote Emerson, 'in that I learn from him or her. 'Each person you meet is a potential teacher, if only you can find out what they have to teach. Nor will they charge you a fee. Even a bore can teach you something - patience.

Always keep a pocketbook or some paper at hand so that you can take some notes of any new ideas or information. The master thinker knows that ideas are elusive and often quickly forgotten, so he pins them down with pencil and paper. Heed the

Chinese proverb: 'The strongest memory is weaker than the palest ink.

Listening is a way of helping people

Listening to others for ideas and information is self interested. Almost everyone has some sort of information that can be useful or relevant to you, perhaps at some later time if not now. As for ideas - especially new ideas or seminal thoughts - several hundred oysters may yield only one small lustrous white pearl, but if you don't open the shells will you ever find that pearl?

There is, however, a more disinterested dimension to listening, which is to see it as a means of helping others. Professional helpers - counselors, doctors, psychiatrists and consultants - are well aware of the human need for someone to listen, especially in those times of stress, anxiety, transition or perplexity which comes upon us all as life unfolds.

In such situations we may want information or advice, but more basically we need someone who will simply listen and understand as we talk about things. In today's world there is an increasing tendency to call in the professionals, but such non-directive listening is the office of a friend, colleague or neighbour. Without too much effort on your pan, you can do more good in this way.

But, you may say, such listening is very time-consuming. Yes, it is. I am not recommending that you write blank cheques on your time for every passer-by who hi jacks your attention with their problems. You may or may not be their Good Samaritan. Remember, however, that here as in so many other areas it is quality of listening that matters more than quantity. Some research suggests that if you half-listen to someone's problems they will keep coming back for more. Therefore improving your capability as a listener may actually save time for both you and the other person.

Never underestimate the good you can do by simply listening. As Elton Mayo wrote: 'One friend, one person who is really understanding, who takes the trouble to listen to us as we consider our problems, can change our whole outlook on the world:

By listening you create a listener

There is a strong tendency to reciprocity or equivalence of exchange among people. You tend to receive what you give, and to give what you receive. If you give listening you may receive listening. If you talk you get talk back.

Now, one knows that this principle seems to contradict the complementary nature of human intercourse. If a man treats you as a man should, the proper response is to treat him as a woman should. The natural response to a good speaker is to listen. It's more like a patty game where you take turns. If you take the part of listening while the other speaks they are much more likely to take a turn of listening while you speak with the same thoughtful attention that you have demonstrated.

'I will teach your ears to listen to me with more heed; says one of Shakespeare's characters. In planning this book I did consider putting this chapter before the preceding one on speaking. That may seem like putting the cart before the horse. Oral communication - the ability to speak well - tops the lists of essential or desirable management competencies, and listening skills are seldom mentioned. But, if you think about it, the first requirement in a speaker is that they should create a listener. There is an analogy here with a business: if you cannot create and keep customers you will soon have no business. Therefore learning about listening ought logically to precede speaking.

The importance of creating a listener or an audience- not assuming them - can hardly be overstated. Musicians will tell you, for example, that the quality of listening can vary from evening to evening, and that an audience who listens well can draw from the orchestra an exceptional performance. As one who earns some of his living by public speaking, I can vouch for that fact from' experience. One of our greatest parliamentary orators, William Pitt the younger, once said that 'Eloquence is in the assembly, not in the speaker.

6.4 THE PITFALL INVOLVED IN LISTENING

Listening is the weakest link in oral communication. Experts say that an average person only remembers one fourth of what he listens after two days.

Negotiators tend to run into three pitfalls that hinder effective listening. First, many think that negotiating is primarily a job of persuasion, and to them persuasion means talking. These people see talking as an active role and listening as a passive role. They tend to forget that it is difficult to persuade other people when you don't know what motivates these people.

Second, people tend to over-prepare for what they are going to say and to use their listening time waiting for their next turn to speak. While anticipating their next change, they may miss vital information they could use later in the negotiation.

Third, we all have emotional filters or blinders that prevent us from hearing what we do not want to hear. In my early sales career, I seemed to always waste time with clients who I thought would buy printing from me but never did. Now I very seldom have that problem. What experience has shown me is that the people who used to waste my time had no intention of using my services. If I had been a better listener, I would have been able to pick up their true feelings.

6.5 THE FUNCTIONS OF LISTENING

The functions of listening are

- Improve your intellectual ability to understand and evaluate the views and opinions expressed by others.

- Enable you to gather proper and accurate information, facilitating appropriate decision making.

- Assist you to establish rapport with co-workers quickly.

- Help the speaker give his best both in dyadic and group communication situations.

6.6 PROCESS OF LISTENING

- The first stage is hearing, the reception of sounds.

- The second stage is selecting or choosing the stimuli to which we attend.

- Stage three, attending, is enacted when we concentrate on specific stimuli.

- Understanding is the stage where listening *really* begins because we assign meaning to messages.

- Evaluating is the stage where we analyze messages in order to make and test conclusions. (This is where listening and thinking becomes closely connected.)

- Remembering, the sixth stage is when we recall messages previously heard.

- Responding is the final stage and involves sending feedback to speakers or sources.

6.7 HOW TO LISTEN EFFICIENTLY

We would like to suggest a few ways of improving this ability.

i   Prepare yourself to listen by gathering information about the setting, the topic and the speaker.

ii   Have a positive attitude towards both the speaker and the topic.

iii   Keep an open mind. First, try to understand what is being said and then evaluate it with reference to the context.

iv   Concentrate on the matter being spoken, carefully identifying the main points.

v   Observe the non-verbal clues such as twinkle in the eye, flourish of hands, shrugging of shoulders, facial expression, etc., that is, Listen with your eyes and not merely with ears. The visual clues would assist you in understanding not only what the speaker says but also indicate his attitude towards the audience and the points he is making.

vi   Ignore distractions such as the gaudy dress, odd body movements, or speech mannerisms of the speaker.

vii Refrain from interruptions, premature comments, direct advice, especially in seminars and meetings. Wait till your turn comes or till you are invited to comment and ask questions.

viii Have patience while listening. The speed of thinking is much more than that of speaking. The time lag between the two may lead to boredom or even day-dreaming. To avoid these, you may use the time gap for summarising mentally what was spoken earlier, examining the strategies being employed by the speaker for things such as manipulation of language, management of transitions from one point to another, use of embellishments such as anecdotes, jokes, quotations, etc. to influence, cajole or persuade you.

ix Take notes systematically. Jot down not only the main points but also the list of supporting evidence or arguments. Invent your personal abbreviations to record the key words and phrases. It is advisable to do so because we tend to forget tomorrow what we hear today.

6.8 THE BARRIERS TO EFFICIENT LISTENING

Nearly every aspect of human life could be improved by better listening -- from family matters to corporate business affairs to international relations.

Most of us are terrible listeners. We're such poor listeners, in fact, that we don't know how much we're missing.

The following are eight common barriers to good listening, with suggestions for overcoming each.

1.   Knowing the answer

"Knowing the answer" means that you think you already know what the speaker wants to say, before she actually finishes saying it. You might then impatiently cut her off or try to complete the sentence for her.

Even more disruptive is interrupting her by saying that you disagree with her, but without letting her finish saying what it is that you think you disagree with. That's a common problem when a discussion gets heated, and which causes the discussion to degrade quickly.

By interrupting the speaker before letting her finish, you're essentially saying that you don't value what she's saying. Showing respect to the speaker is a crucial element of good listening.

The "knowing the answer" barrier also causes the listener to pre-judge what the speaker is saying -- a kind of closed-mindedness.

A good listener tries to keep an open, receptive mind. He looks for opportunities to stretch his mind when listening, and to acquire new ideas or insights, rather than reinforcing existing points of view.

Strategy for overcoming this barrier

A simple strategy for overcoming the "knowing the answer" barrier is to wait for three seconds after the speaker finishes before beginning your reply.

Three seconds can seem like a very long time during a heated discussion, and following this rule also means that you might have to listen for a long time before the other person finally stops speaking. That's usually a good thing, because it gives the speaker a chance to fully vent his or her feelings.

Another strategy is to schedule a structured session during which only one person speaks while the other listens. You then switch roles in the next session.

Most attention is paid to making people better speakers or writers (the "supply side" of the communication chain) rather than on making them better listeners or readers (the "demand side").

During the session when you play the role of listener, you are only allowed to ask supportive questions or seek clarification of the speaker's points. You may not make any points of your own during this session. That can be tricky, because some people's "questions" tend to be more like statements.

Keeping the mind open during conversation requires discipline and practice. One strategy is to make a commitment to learn at least one unexpected, worthwhile

thing during every conversation. The decision to look for something new and interesting helps make your mind more open and receptive while listening.

Using this strategy, most people will probably discover at least one gem -- and often more than one -- no matter whom the conversation is with.

2. Trying to be helpful

Another significant barrier to good listening is "trying to be helpful". Although trying to be helpful may seem beneficial, it interferes with listening because the listener is thinking about how to solve what he perceives to be the speaker's problem. Consequently, he misses what the speaker is actually saying.

An old Zen proverb says, "When walking, walk. When eating, eat." In other words, give your whole attention to whatever you're doing. It's worth emphasizing that the goal of good listening is simply to listen -- nothing more and nothing less. Interrupting the speaker in order to offer advice disrupts the flow of conversation, and impairs the listener's ability to understand the speaker's experience.

Many people have a "messiah complex" and try to fix or rescue other people as a way of feeling fulfilled. Such people usually get a kick out of being problem-solvers, perhaps because it gives them a sense of importance. However, that behavior can be a huge hurdle to good listening.

Trying to be helpful while listening also implies that you've made certain judgments about the speaker. That can raise emotional barriers to communication, as judgments can sometimes mean that the listener doesn't have complete respect for the speaker.

In a sense, giving a person your undivided attention while listening is the purest act of love you can offer. Because human beings are such social animals, simply knowing that another person has listened and understood is empowering. Often that's all a person needs in order to solve the problems on his or her own.

If you as a listener step in and heroically offer your solution, you're implying that you're more capable of seeing the solution than the speaker is.

If the speaker is describing a difficult or long-term problem, and you offer a facile, off-the-cuff solution, you're probably forgetting that he or she may have already considered your instant solution long before.

Strategy for overcoming this barrier

Schedule a separate session for giving advice. Many people forget that it's rude to offer advice when the speaker isn't asking for it. Even if the advice is good.

In any case, a person can give better advice if he first listens carefully and understands the speaker's complete situation before trying to offer advice.

If you believe you have valuable advice that the speaker isn't likely to know, and then first politely ask if you may offer what you see as a possible solution. Wait for the speaker to clearly invite you to go ahead before you offer your advice.

3. Treating discussion as competition

Some people feel that agreeing with the speaker during a heated discussion is a sign of weakness. They feel compelled to challenge every point the speaker makes, even if they inwardly agree. Discussion then becomes a contest, with a score being kept for who wins the most points by arguing.

Treating discussion as competition is one of the most serious barriers to good listening. It greatly inhibits the listener from stretching and seeing a different point of view. It can also be frustrating for the speaker.

Strategy for overcoming this barrier

Although competitive debate serves many useful purposes, and can be great fun, debating should be scheduled for a separate session of its own, where it won't interfere with good listening.

Except in a very rare case where you truly disagree with absolutely everything the speaker is saying, you should avoid dismissing his or her statements completely. Instead, affirm the points of agreement.

Try to voice active agreement whenever you do agree, and be very specific about what you disagree with.

A good overall listening principle is to be generous with the speaker. Offer affirmative feedback as often as you feel comfortable doing so. Generosity also entails clearly voicing exactly where you disagree, as well as where you agree.

4.   Trying to influence or impress

Because good listening depends on listening just for the sake of listening, any ulterior motive will diminish the effectiveness of the listener. Examples of ulterior motives are trying to impress or to influence the speaker.

A person who has an agenda other than simply to understand what the speaker is thinking and feeling will not be able to pay complete attention while listening.

Psychologists have pointed out that people can understand language about two or three times faster than they can speak. That implies that a listener has a lot of extra mental "bandwidth" for thinking about other things while listening. A good listener knows how to use that spare capacity to think about what the speaker is talking about.

A listener with an ulterior motive, such as to influence or impress the speaker, will probably use the spare capacity to think about his "next move" in the conversation -- his rebuttal or what he will say next when the speaker is finished -- instead of focusing on understanding the speaker.

Strategy for overcoming this barrier

"Trying to influence or impress" is a difficult barrier to overcome, because motives usually can't just be willed away. Deciding not to have a motive usually only drives it beneath your awareness so that it becomes a hidden motive.

One strategy is to make note of your internal motives while you're listening. Simply by noticing your motives, any ulterior motives will eventually unravel, allowing you to let go and to listen just for the sake of listening.

That strategy comes from Vipassana meditation, where Buddhists try to free themselves of inner motives without seeking explicitly to do so.

5.   Reacting to red flag words

Words can provoke a reaction in the listener that wasn't necessarily what the speaker intended. When that happens the listener won't be able to hear or pay full attention to what the speaker is saying.

Red flag words or expressions trigger an unexpectedly strong association in the listener's mind, often because of the listener's private beliefs or experiences.

Technology is often seen as the driver of improved communications, but technology, in itself, creates noise and discord as much as it melds minds.

Good listeners have learned how to minimize the distraction caused by red flag words, but a red flag word will make almost any listener momentarily unable to hear with full attention.

An important point is that the speaker may not have actually meant the word in the way that the listener understood. However, the listener will be so distracted by the red flag that she will not notice what the speaker actually did mean to say.

Red flag words don't always provoke emotional reactions. Sometimes they just cause slight disagreements or misunderstandings. Whenever a listener finds himself disagreeing or reacting, he should be on the lookout for red flag words or expressions.

Strategy for overcoming this barrier

When a speaker uses a word or expression that triggers a reflexive association, you as a good listener can ask the speaker to confirm whether she meant to say what you think she said.

When you hear a word or expression that raises a red flag, try to stop the conversation, if possible, so that you don't miss anything that the speaker says. Then ask the speaker to clarify and explain the point in a different way.

6.   Believing in language

One of the trickiest barriers is "believing in language" -- a misplaced trust in the precision of words.

Language is a guessing game. Speaker and listener use language to predict what each other is thinking. Meaning must always be actively negotiated.

It's a fallacy to think that a word's dictionary definition can be transmitted directly through using the word. An example of that fallacy is revealed in the statement, "I said it perfectly clearly, so why didn't you understand?" Of course, the naive assumption here is that words that are clear to one person are clear to another, as if the words themselves contained absolute meaning.

Words have a unique effect in the mind of each person, because each person's experience is unique. Those differences can be small, but the overall effect of the differences can become large enough to cause misunderstanding.

A worse problem is that words work by pointing at experiences shared by speaker and listener.

If the listener hasn't had the experience that the speaker is using the word to point at, then the word points at nothing. Worse still, the listener may quietly substitute a different experience to match the word.

Strategy for overcoming this barrier

You as a good listener ought to practice mistrusting the meaning of words. Ask the speaker supporting questions to cross-verify what the words mean to him.

Don't assume that words or expressions mean exactly the same to you as they do to the speaker. You can stop the speaker and question the meaning of a word. Doing that too often also becomes an impediment, of course, but if you suspect that the speaker's usage of the word might be slightly different, you ought to take time to explore that, before the difference leads to misunderstanding.

7.   Mixing up the forest and the trees

A common saying refers to an inability "to see the forest for the trees". Sometimes people pay such close attention to detail, that they miss the overall meaning or context of a situation.

Some speakers are what we will call "trees" people. They prefer concrete, detailed explanations. They might explain a complex situation just by naming or describing its characteristics in no particular order.

Other speakers are "forest" people. When they have to explain complex situations, they prefer to begin by giving a sweeping, abstract bird's-eye view.

Good explanations usually involve both types, with the big-picture "forest" view providing context and overall meaning, and the specific "trees" view providing illuminating examples.

When trying to communicate complex information, the speaker needs to accurately shift between forest and trees in order to show how the details fit into the big picture. However, speakers often forget to use "turn indicators" to signal that they are shifting from one to another, which can cause confusion or misunderstanding for the listener.

Each style is prone to weaknesses in communication. For example, "trees" people often have trouble telling their listener which of the details are more important and how those details fit into the overall context. They can also fail to tell their listener that they are making a transition from one thought to another -- a problem that quickly shows up in their writing, as well.

"Forest" people, on the other hand, often baffle their listeners with obscure abstractions. They tend to prefer using concepts, but sometimes those concepts are so removed from the world of the senses that their listeners get lost.

"Trees" people commonly accuse "forest" people of going off on tangents or speaking in unwarranted generalities. "Forest" people commonly feel that "trees" people are too narrow and literal.

Strategy for overcoming this barrier

You as a good listener can explicitly ask the speaker for overall context or for specific exemplary details, as needed. You should cross-verify by asking the speaker how the trees fit together to form the forest. Having an accurate picture of how the details fit together is crucial to understanding the speaker's thoughts.

An important point to remember is that a "trees" speaker may become confused or irritated if you as the listener try to supply missing context, and a "forest" speaker may become impatient or annoyed if you try to supply missing examples.

A more effective approach is to encourage the speaker to supply missing context or examples by asking him open-ended questions.

Asking open-ended questions while listening is generally more effective than asking closed-ended ones.

For example, an open-ended question such as "Can you give me a concrete example of that?" is less likely to cause confusion or disagreement than a more closed-ended one such as "Would such-and-such be an example of what you're talking about?"

Some speakers may even fail to notice that a closed-ended question is actually a question. They may then disagree with what they thought was a statement of opinion, and that will cause distracting friction or confusion.

The strategy of asking open-ended questions, instead of closed-ended or leading questions is an important overall component of good listening.

8.   Over-splitting or over-lumping

People have different styles of organizing thoughts while explaining complex situations. Some people, "splitters", tend to pay more attention to how things are different. Other people, "lumpers", tend to look for how things are alike. Perhaps this is a matter of temperament.

If the speaker and listener are on opposite sides of the splitter-lumper spectrum, the different mental styles can cause confusion or lack of understanding.

A listener who is an over-splitter can inadvertently signal that he disagrees with the speaker over everything, even if he actually agrees with most of what the speaker says and only disagrees with a nuance or point of emphasis.

That can cause "noise" and interfere with the flow of conversation. Likewise, a listener who is an over-lumper can let crucial differences of opinion go unchallenged, which can lead to a serious misunderstanding later. The speaker will mistakenly assume that the listener has understood and agreed.
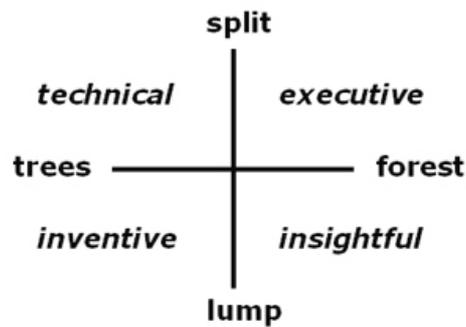
It's important to achieve a good balance between splitting (critical thinking) and lumping (metaphorical thinking). Even more important is for the listener to recognize when the speaker is splitting and when she is lumping.

Strategy for overcoming this barrier

An approach to overcoming this barrier when listening is to ask questions to determine more precisely where you agree or disagree with what the speaker is saying, and then to explicitly point that out, when appropriate.

For example, you might say, "I think we have differing views on several points here, but do we at least agree that ...?" or "We agree with each other on most of this, but I think we have different views in the area of ...."

By actively voicing the points of convergence and divergence, the listener can create a more accurate mental model of the speaker's mind. That reduces the conversational noise that can arise when speaker and listener fail to realize how their minds are aligned or unaligned.

```
                           split
                             |
          technical          |       executive
                             |
   trees ————————————————————|———————————————— forest
                             |
          inventive          |       insightful
                             |
                           lump
```

Quadrant of cognitive/explanation styles

Often more than one barrier can be present at once. For example, a speaker might be an over-splitter who has trouble seeing the forest, while the listener is an over-lumper who can see only the forest and never the trees. Those two will have even more trouble communicating if one or both has the habit of "knowing the answer" or "treating discussion as competition".

Good listening is arguably one of the most important skills to have in today's complex world. Families need good listening to face complicated stresses together. Corporate employees need it to solve complex problems quickly and stay competitive. Students need it to understand complex issues in their fields. Much can be gained by improving listening skills.

When the question of how to improve communication comes up, most attention is paid to making people better speakers or writers (the "supply side" of the communication chain) rather than on making them better listeners or readers (the "demand side").

To a certain extent, listening is more crucial than speaking. An especially skillful listener will know how to overcome many of the deficiencies of a vague or disorganized speaker. On the other hand, it won't matter how eloquent or cogent a speaker is if the listener isn't paying attention.

The listener arguably bears more responsibility than the speaker does for the quality of communication.

Technology is often seen as the driver of improved communications. In terms of message transfer, technology certainly does play an essential role. However, communication is much more than just transferring messages. To truly communicate means to learn something about the interior of another person's mind.

Much has been said about the emergence of a "global mind" through technology. Of course, we've noticed that technology, in itself, creates noise and discord as much as it melds minds.

A deeper commitment to better listening is essential in order for technology to fulfill its promise of bringing the world together in real terms.

We can make a difference in the world by learning to listen better and by telling others about better listening. But only if they listen.

6.9 THE TYPES OF LISTENING

Here are six types of listening, starting with basic discrimination of sounds and ending in deep communication.

Discriminative listening

Discriminative listening is the most basic type of listening, whereby the difference between different sounds is identified. If you cannot hear differences, then you cannot make sense of the meaning that is expressed by such differences.

We learn to discriminate between sounds within our own language early, and later are unable to discriminate between the phonemes of other languages. This is one reason why a person from one country finds it difficult to speak another language perfectly, as they are unable to distinguish the subtle sounds that are required in that language.

Likewise, a person who cannot hear the subtleties of emotional variation in another person's voice will be less likely to be able to discern the emotions the other person is experiencing.

Listening is a visual as well as auditory act, as we communicate much through body language. We thus also need to be able to discriminate between muscle and skeletal movements that signify different meanings.

Comprehension listening

The next step beyond discriminating between different sound and sights is to make sense of them. To comprehend the meaning requires first having a lexicon of words at our fingertips and also all rules of grammar and syntax by which we can understand what others are saying.

The same is true, of course, for the visual components of communication, and an understanding of body language helps us understand what the other person is really meaning.

In communication, some words are more important and some less so, and comprehension often benefits from extraction of key facts and items from a long spiel.

Evaluative listening

In evaluative listening, or *critical listening*, we make judgments about what the other person is saying. We seek to assess the truth of what is being said. We also judge what they say against our values, assessing them as good or bad, worthy or unworthy.

Evaluative listening is particularly pertinent when the other person is trying to persuade us, perhaps to change our behavior and maybe even to change our beliefs. Within this, we also discriminate between subtleties of language and comprehend the inner meaning of what is said. Typically also we weigh up the pros and cons of an argument, determining whether it makes sense logically as well as whether it is helpful to us.

Appreciative listening

In appreciative listening, we seek certain information which will appreciate, for example that which helps meet our needs and goals. We use appreciative listening when we are listening to good music, poetry or maybe even the stirring words of a great leader.

Empathetic listening

When we listen empathetically, we seek to understand the beliefs, models, emotions and goals of other people. This requires excellent discrimination and close attention to the nuances of emotional signals.

In order to get others to expose these deep parts of them to us, we also need to demonstrate our empathy in our demeanor towards them, asking sensitively and in a way that encourages self-disclosure.

Therapeutic listening

In therapeutic listening, the listener has a purpose of not only empathizing with the speaker but also to use this deep connection in order to help the speaker understand, change or develop in some way.

This not only happens when you go to see a therapist but also in many social situations, where friends and family seek to both diagnose problems from listening and also to help the speaker cure themselves, perhaps by some cathartic process. This also happens in work situations, where managers, HR people, trainers and coaches seek to help employees learn and develop.

Dialogic listening

The word 'dialogue' stems from the Greek words 'dia', meaning 'through' and 'logos' meaning 'words'. Thus dialogic listening means learning through conversation and an engaged interchange of ideas and information in which we actively seek to learn more about the person and how they think.

Dialogic listening is sometimes known as 'relational listening'.

6.10 CONCLUSION

Listening is an important component in the process of communication. It is an instrument which we keep on using throughout life for gathering information and acquiring knowledge. There is a need therefore to improve the skill of listening through conscious efforts.

6.9 Check your Progress

1)   What is the difference between Hearing and Listening?

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……………………………………………………………………………………………

2)   State the functions of Listening.

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

3)   State the types of Listening.

……………………………………………………………………………………………

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6.11 SUMMARY

This chapter helps us to understand the difference between hearing and listening, the value of listening, pitfalls involved in listening. It tries to explain the barriers to efficient listening. We come to know the various types of listening.

6.12 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - ANSWERS

1)   Hearing is merely a physiological process in which the sound waves emanating from animate or inanimate objects strike the eardrums, Listening on the other hand, is a four state self generated activity. The first state is the reception of the sound waves through the ears. The second is the interpretation of the sound received and the third, an evaluation of the interpreted meaning in the context of the needs and expectations of the listener. The fourth state is the reaction to the message.

Listening thus is a purposeful hearing

2)   Functions of Listening are as follows

1) Improves your intellectual ability to understand and evaluate the views and opinions expressed by others.

2) It enables you to gather proper and accurate information, facilitating appropriate decision making.

3) It assists you to establish rapport with co-workers quickly.

4) It helps the speaker give his best both in dyadic and group communication situations.

3)   Types of Listening are as follows

1) Discriminative Listening   2) Comprehensive Listening

3) Evaluative Listening   4) Appreciative Listening

5) Empathetic Listening   6) Therapeutic Listening

7) Dialogic Listening

6.13 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1) What are the types of Listening?

2) Write a note on any one type of Listening.

3) State the purpose of Listening.

6.14 SUGGESTED READINGS

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Rao & Dr. Das, *Himalaya Publishing House*

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Urmila Rai & S.M. Rai, *Himalaya Publishing House*

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NOTES

Chapter 7

Body Language

7.0 OBJECTIVES

To learn Body Language and its role in effective communication.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Body language can be defined as that element of communication in the absence of any channel or medium which is (often subconsciously) transmitted by the communicated through the use of facial expressions, gestures and posture.

Body language helps each person/party involved in the communication process to determine the feelings and the frame of mind of the other. In most cases, body language does not directly impact what is being said by the communicator. It does, however, determine what the final outcome of the communication will be, to a large extent.

It is therefore important to understand body language, to learn how to interpret it, and even more importantly, to learn how to use it to one's own advantage during face-to-face oral communication. This chapter takes a look at the various elements of oral communication in order to be able to do this.

7.2 THE TYPES OF BODY LANGUAGE

Body language can be broadly classified into three main types. They are:

1. Facial expressions

2. Kinesics related to the body

3. Touch

Facial expressions with regard to body language are those parts of the communication such as feelings like happiness, boredom, etc. which is conveyed by the communicator through the use of smiles, yawns, etc. This sort of communication is, however, complex and has been discussed in detail in further section.

The term 'kinesics' related to the body with regard to body language refers to communication that is transmitted by the movements. of the body themselves, as well as by posture. This sort of communication is rarely too difficult to understand.

The final type of body language is communication that the communicator transmits via the tactile mode i.e. touch. It is extremely hard for the communicated to be able to make a mistake while interpreting or decoding such a communication. For example, who can misinterpret the encouragement communicated by a friendly pat on the back? Touch has been discussed in detail in further section.

Introduction

Facial expressions are one of the most important parts of body language. However, they are also one of the most difficult things to interpret. The chart below shows a broad classification of facial expressions.
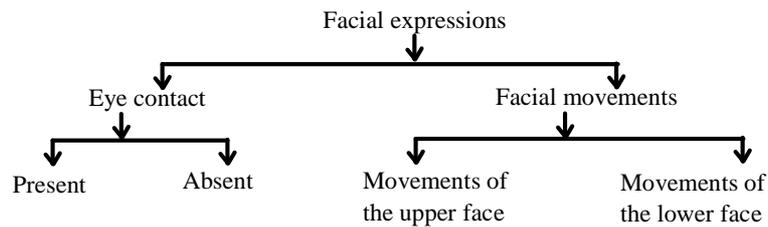
```
                         Facial expressions
                                |
          ┌─────────────────────┴─────────────────────┐
          ↓                                            ↓
     Eye contact                                 Facial movements
          |                                            |
    ┌─────┴─────┐                         ┌─────────────┴─────────────┐
    ↓           ↓                         ↓                           ↓
 Present      Absent                Movements of                Movements of
                                    the upper face              the lower face
```

Figure: 7.1 Facial Expressions

As the chart shows, facial expressions can be broadly classified into eye contact which may be present or absent, and facial movements which comprise -both movements of the upper face and the lower face. Eye contact and facial movements have been discussed in further sections.

Eye contact

The merits of eye contact

Eye contact is one of the most important elements of nonverbal communication although it is not always used. Its importance stems from the fact that it has a number of merits when it is used efficiently and effectively as a tool to aid oral communication. Some of these diverse merits have been listed here:

1. Eye contact enables the communicator to sustain the interest of the communicated in the communication which is being transmitted.

2. Eye contact can be used by the communicator to gauge the feelings and the reactions of the communicated towards both the communicator and the communication itself.

3. Eye contact gives the communicator a greater allowance and more room to make adjustments in the communication as well as to alter it.

4. Eye contact helps the communicated determine the level of integrity and conviction of the communicator.

The classification of eye contact

The primary criterion used in the classification of eye contact is the length of time for which the contact is maintained, if at ail it is used. The chart in figure below gives a representation of the various types of eye contact.
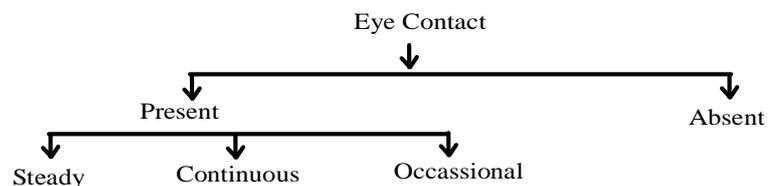
```
                           Eye Contact
                                |
          ┌─────────────────────┴──────────────────────────┐
          ↓                                                 ↓
       Present                                           Absent
          |
    ┌─────┼─────────┐
    ↓     ↓         ↓
 Steady Continuous Occassional
```

Figure: 7.2 Eye Contact

Steady eye contact

A communicator is said to use steady eye contact by staring at the communicated without moving, without flinching, and without even blinking. The communicated usually becomes very uncomfortable if a communicator maintains steady eye contact. And so, due to this, the communicator should refrain from maintaining such eye contact as it hinders the flow of smooth communication. It is almost as bad as maintaining no eye contact at all.

It is interesting to note that such steady eye contact is sometimes used to establish 'dominance'. Two people engage in maintaining steady eye contact, and the first one to look away and break the eye contact is popularly considered to be the weaker one.

Continuous eye contact

The communicator and the communicated are said to maintain continuous eye contact with each other if they look each other in the eye throughout the communication process.

This is the best type of eye contact that can be used to enhance the communication process. One can enjoy all the merits of eye contact only by maintaining continuous eye contact.

Usually, the communicator and the communicated automatically maintain continuous eye contact with each other without any prodding from a third party. It is the most common type of eye contact.

Occasional eye contact

The communicator is said to maintain occasional eye contact with the communicated if he/she looks the communicated in the eye only periodically during the communication.

This sort of eye contact is most commonly seen during the textual delivery of an oral communication where it becomes impossible for the communicator to read and maintain continuous eye contact at the same time. Due to this, the best option available to the communicator during a textual delivery is to maintain occasional eye contact.

Even though occasional eye contact does not have all the merits of continuous eye contact to the same degree, it does serve to keep the communicated from feeling ignored.

The absence of eye contact

Some communicators do not look the communicator in the eye at all while transmitting face-to-face oral communication. Instead, the communicator looks at the floor, the ceiling, the walls or anything else that can be used as a focus of attention.

Not maintaining eye contact with the communicated should be avoided since it suggests that the communicator harbours feelings of indifference towards the communicated. It consequently makes the communicated feel ignored and it then alienates him/her/them.

Very often, the absence of eye contact is viewed as a mark of insincerity. It is popularly believed that if a communicator is guilty of some wrong doing against the communicated, then the communicator will be unable to look into the eyes of communicated directly.

However, it should be remembered that some communicators may fail to maintain eye contact with the communicated simply because of feeling nervous, developing stage-fright, etc.

The drawbacks of eye contact

The only significant drawback in maintaining eye contact is that if the communicator and the communicated come from different cultures, they may have very different ideas about the usage of eye contact in the communication process.

This pitfall which is involved in the use of eye contact during face-to-face oral communication has been discussed in more detail in previous section.

Facial movements Introduction,

Facial movements with reference to body language refer to those movements of facial features which convey information about the communicator such as the feeling fatigue or liveliness and/or the frame of mind of the communicator.

Facial expressions can be broadly divided into:

1. movements made by the upper face
2. movements made by the lower face

Usually movements of the upper face are made along with movements of the lower face. This has been discussed in more detail in following section

Movements of the upper face

Movements of the upper face refer mainly to movements of the eyes and the

forehead. The table below enlists some of these movements along with the most plausible interpretations of those movements.

No.	Movement of the upper face	Plausiable Interpretation
1.	Raising of the eyebrows	A feeling of disbelief, surprise
2.	Narrowing of the eyes	A feeling of suspicion
3.	Blinking several times at the sight of something.	A feeling of astonishment or even shock; an attempt to absorb and grasp the reality of the communication.
4.	Winking	Playfulness
5.	Furrowing of the forehead	Signifies concentration of the communication sometimes due to a sense of confusion or lack of comprehension.

Table 7.1: Movements of the upper face

It is believed that these movements of the upper face reveal the true feelings of the communicator.

Movements of the lower face

Movements of the lower face comprise movements of the lips, mouth, teeth, jaw, etc. A few common illustrations of these movements have been enlisted in the following table along with then most plausible interpretations.

No.	Movement of the lower face	Plausiable Interpretation
1.	Yawns	A feeling of indifference or boredom
2.	Pursing of the lips	Severity
3.	Frowns	An indication of displeasure

Table 7.2: Movements of the lower face

The smile is one of the most common movements of the lower face. It is also one of the most difficult movements to interpret. There are many different types of smiles: a knowing smile, a sarcastic smile, a jovial smile, a serene smile, etc. At times it can be difficult to differentiate one from the other.

When we try to interpret a person's feelings from his/her facial expressions we look at the person's entire visage or face and not just the upper or lower part of the face independently.

However, at times, the expressions or the movements of the upper and the lower face may be conflicting. For example, a person may smile through his/her tears. This may make it difficult for the communicated to accurately pin-point the feelings of the communicator.

Studies have, however, indicated- the truth of the old age: The eyes are the window of the soul'. These studies have shown that the movements of the upper face (i. e. the eyes, forehead, etc.) are generally not controlled and are subconscious. The movements of the lower face are more learned and consequently, more prone to being controlled by the communicator.

It is therefore advisable to place more faith in the movements of the upper face than those of the lower face. Fortunately, however, in most cases, the movements of the lower and upper face project the same feeling and are compatible with each other.

For example, if a person is happy, he or she not only smiles, but also has a twinkle in the eye. And if a person is preoccupied, indifferent, or hasn't understood the communication, he or she not only has an absence of any significant facial movement but also a dullness of the eyes. In other words, the person develops a blank stare.

This sort of feedback or communication helps the other party/person involved in the communication process to adjust or alter his/her/their approach to make it more suitable for the audience at whom it is targeted.

Introduction

Kinesics related to the body with reference to the use of body language (in oral communication) refers to the study of those parts of the communication that are transmitted through the posture, the gestures and the movements of the body of the communicator.

Each of these three elements of body language (i. e. posture, gestures, and movements) has been discussed in this section. Although, it is not too difficult to interpret these elements of the communication, they often contain subtleties that are not readily apparent to the communicated.

Posture Introduction

The attitude and various positions of the different parts of the body in relation to each other are together described as the posture of a person's body.

In simpler words, the way in which a person holds himself or herself is called the posture of the person.

There are many different ways in which a person can carry himself or herself. In doing so, they usually reveal information about themselves to others. The main functions of posture are:

1. to ascertain the state of mind of the communicator and/ or the communicated

2. to evaluate the reactions of the communicated to the communication

3. to project a particular image of oneself to others

The State of mind

The states of mind of the communicator and the communicated can be ascertained by studying their respective postures. In order to do this, postures can be divided into two main types. They are:

1. a drooping posture

2. an upright posture

A drooping posture is a posture which is stooping. The shoulders sag, the chest is held in and the head is held low. It is generally the type of posture that is maintained by a person who is dejected and/or sad. A drooping posture suggests that the person who adopts it is affected by feelings of depression and despondency.

An upright posture, on the other hand, is a posture in which the head is held up, the back is straight, and chest is out and the stomach is pulled in. Contrary to a drooping posture an upright posture usually exudes energy as well as feelings of satisfaction and happiness.

The evaluation of reactions

All the people involved in the communication process can evaluate the emotional reactions which the communication produces in others to an extent by studying their respective postures.

The table here enlists some postures along with the feelings that are associated with them.

No.	Posture	The associated feelings
1.	Leaning forward (while listening) towards the communicator	Enthusiasm and/or interest
2.	A stiff posture Leaning backwards or even lolling at times	Discomfort and tension
3.		Relaxation and ease
4.	Sitting upright attentively	Alertness

Table 7.3: Posture

Usually, the feelings associated with particular postures cannot be easily confused with one another. However, it is important to try to corroborate the

communication received through a person's posture using other cues of communication. This is because, as we shall see in the next section, it is not difficult to learn how to use posture to project a particular image.

Projecting an image

As we have just mentioned in the previous section, posture can be used by any person to project the image which he or she wants others to form of him or herself. Particular postures are associated with definite feelings and states of mind. And it is very easy for people to mimic these postures.

For example, a posture where the head is held so high that the nose sticks out into the air is associated with pride and arrogance. At times, it is also 'put on' by people to:

1. help them remain aloof

2. keep other people away from them

3. enable them to protect their privacy

In this way, a number of different postures can be used by people to project their associated feelings and thereby use those postures to their own advantage.

Gestures

Introduction

Gestures with reference to body language in oral communication refer to significant movements of the limbs or the body that convey information and accompany speech. The use of gestures while speaking is known as gesticulation.

It is not entirely clear exactly what effect gestures have on the communication process. It is very hard to determine very much accurate information from gestures in them. However, they are usually used by communicators to reinforce the spoken word and enhance the transmission of the communication.

It should be noted though that gestures may at times be used in isolation without the spoken word.

The next section gives examples of some common gestures along with their interpretations.

The interpretation of gestures

No two people have gestures which are absolutely identical in all respects. Due to this, one often has no choice but to make generalizations while interpreting gestures. But even so, it is rarely very difficult to interpret a gesture correctly.

The table here enlists some common gestures and the interpretations that are attributed to them.

No.	Gesture	The Interpretation of the gesture
1.	Cracking of the knuckles	Usually nervousness and/or anxiety
2. 3.	Scratching the head Drumming fingers on any easily available surface (such as a table top)	Confusion and being puzzled Impatience
4.	Biting fingernails	Nervousness, the person may - be under-confident and/or
		stressed out
5.	Stroking the chin	Reflecting and thinking over what has been said
6.	Jabbing finger into the chest of the communicated	Inconsideration towards the communicated

7.	Twiddling thumbs by rotating them around each other	Mental excitement, indicates that the person is thinking

Table 7.4: Gestures

This table shows the most probable interpretation of the gestures enlisted in it. However, it may not always be correct. For example, people often clench their fists when they are angry. However, a few people also clench their fists when they come across something they are uncomfortable with such as having to undergo a painful medical procedure or seeing a horrific picture/ sight.

The use of gestures

The art of gesticulation should be used carefully and in moderation. Using large, sweeping gestures is usually counterproductive to the communication process and as such the gestures are often more comical than anything else. People from certain professions such as those who work as newsreaders have to keep a strict control over their gesticulation. However, people such as talk-show hosts have to use far more gestures to get their message across to the communicated.

One also tends to use far more gestures than usual when one is excited. But in most cases, gestures are used naturally and spontaneously.

Body positions

The positions of the various parts of the body can convey a lot of information about the person concerned.

For example, people who place their hands lightly on their hips are likely to be relaxed and open to new ideas. On the other hand, those people who fold their arms across their chest are likely to resist being persuaded to accept new ideas.

People who cross their legs over each other while communicating are usually adopting some, sort of a defensive position although this may not always be the case. And on the contrary, those people who place, their hands deep into their pockets are usually self-assured and confident.

In this way, people reveal information* about themselves through the different positions in which they place various parts of their bodies.

7.5 TOUCH

The tactile mode of non-verbal communication refers to those communications that are transmitted from the communicator to the communicated through touch.

Touch is easy to understand and it encompasses such things as encouraging pats on the back, warm embraces, etc. It is usually very easy to interpret.

One of the most common forms of tactile communication is through a handshake. There are a few types of handshakes. Some of them have been enlisted in the table here along with their interpretations.

No	The type of Handshake	Its Interpretation
1.	A responsive Handshake	This is the most common type of handshake. It signifies cordiality, sincerity, enthusiasm and confidence.
2	A limp handshake	One comes across such handshakes every once in a while. They come from people who usually have a happy-go lucky nature, and the accuracy of what they say should be verified, as they themselves may not always check their facts carefully.

3.	Painful handshakes	Handshakes that, are so hard that they are painful usually come from people who do a lot of manual work. They are often determined and strong- willed, and also have a great deal of physical energy.
4,	The reluctant handshakes	Reluctant handshakes are among the most difficult to interpret. They may be due to a variety of reasons such as mistrust, fear, cautiousness, contempt, pride, or even a completely different, unrelated reason. In order to be able to interpret a handshake that is reluctant correctly, it is necessary to, know something about both persons involved and their relationship with each other.

Table 7.5: Handshakes

7.6 CONCLUSION

Thus, as we have seen in this chapter, the body language of a person reveals a great deal of information about him or her to others. However, some people use far too much body language while communicating while others use much too little. It is important to achieve a balance between these two extremes so that body language can be used to its maximum capacity as a tool with which to enhance communication.

If too much body language is used, the communicated may feel as though a pantomime is being staged. And if too little is used, the communicator gives the appearance of playing out the role of an android.

It is imperative to strike a balance between using too much or too little body language and to avoid both of these situations, if body language is 'to make the communication process more effective.

7.6 Check you Progress

1) State the types of body language

……

……

2) Define kinesics related to the body.

……

……

3) Define Gestures.

……

……

7.7 SUMMARY

This chapter thus deals with the body language, the types of body language and its role in effective communication.

7.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS – ANSWERS

1) The types of body language are

a) Facial Expressions b) Kinesics related to the body c) Touch

2) Kinesics related to the body with reference to the use of body language (in oral communication) refers to the study of those parts of the communication that are transmitted through the posture, the gestures and the movements of the body of the communicator.

3) Gestures with reference to body language in oral communication refer to significant movements of the limbs or the body that convey information and accompany speech.

7.9 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1) Define Kinesics.

2) State the importance of body language for effective communication.

3) Write a note on 'Posture'.

7.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Rao & Dr. Das, *Himalaya Publishing House*

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Urmila Rai & S.M. Rai, *Himalaya Publishing House*

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NOTES

Chapter 8

How to Conduct Oral Communication

8.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter you will be able to -

*   Describe the classification of oral communication.

*   Discuss more about Interview techniques.

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Oral communication is one of the important forms of communication. It plays a vital role in various, fields like education, marketing, business world.

8.2 CLASSIFICATION OF ORAL COMMUNICATION

Oral communication describes any type of interaction that makes use of spoken words, and it is a vital, integral part of the modern business world. "The ability to communicate effectively through speaking as well as in writing is highly valued, and demanded, in business, " Herta A. Murphy and Herbert W. Hildebrandt wrote in their book *Effective Business Communications.* "Knowing the content of the functional areas of business is important, but to give life to those ideas—in meetings or in solo presentations—demands an effective oral presentation." The types of oral communication commonly used within an organization include

- Staff meetings

- Personal discussions

- Presentations

- Telephone discourse

- Informal conversation.

Oral communication with those outside of the organization might take the form of face-to-face meetings, telephone calls, speeches, teleconferences, or videoconferences.

8.3 DYADIC COMMUNICATION

Dyadic communication involves communication between two people, hence the term dyad.

Work in groups of two is common in a variety of organizational contexts. Sixty percent of all managerial meetings consist of only two people meeting and 20-30% of managerial meetings are handled through one-time contacts (Panko & Kinney, 1995). Dyads have a more comprehensive prospective and offer a greater multiplicity of skills than individuals working alone.

Each of us is a radar machine constantly scoping out our environment. Human beings are sensitive to body language, facial expression, posture, movement, tone of voice and more. To effectively communicate, these interpersonal communication dynamics must match your words. Words are distantly useful for people who are scoping out the meaning of a communication.

Without awareness of the whole person, who is doing the communicating, including the factors in interpersonal communication dynamics, you miss much of what is being communicated. At the same time, if you communicate without understanding all of the interpersonal communication dynamics your listener sees and hears, you fail to use powerful aspects of communication.

Your body language, facial expression, posture, movement, and tone of voice can help you emphasize the truth, sincerity, and reliability of your communication.

They can also undermine your communication if the words you use are incongruent with the message sent via the interpersonal communication dynamics.

Since communication is shared meaning, your words must send the same message as the other interpersonal communication dynamics. The consistent message ensures effective communication.

8.4 GROUP COMMUNICATIONS

In this section we move from interpersonal communication to organizational communication. Our focus here will be on formal networks, the grapevine, and computer-aided mechanisms used by organizations to facilitate communication.

Formal Small - Group Networks

Formal organizational networks can be very complicated. They can, for instance, include hundreds of people and a half-dozen or more hierarchical levels. To simplify our discussion, we've condensed these networks into three common small groups of five people each (see Figure 8.3). These three networks are the chain, wheel, and all-channel. Although these three networks have been extremely simplified, they do allow us to describe the unique. Chain rigidly follows the formal chain of command. This network approximates the communication channels you might find in a rigid three-level organization. The wheel relies on a central figure to act as the conduit for the entire group's communication. It simulates the communication network you would find on a team with a strong leader. The all-channel network permits all group members to actively communicate with each other. The all-channel network is most often characterized in practice by self-managed teams, in which all group members are free to contribute and no one person takes on a leadership role.

As Figure 8.4 demonstrates, the effectiveness of each network depends on the dependent variable you're concerned about. For instance, the structure of the wheel facilitates the emergence of a leader, the all-channel network is best if you are concerned with having high member satisfaction, and the chain is best if accuracy is most important. Figure 8.4 leads us to the conclusion that no single network will be best for all occasions.
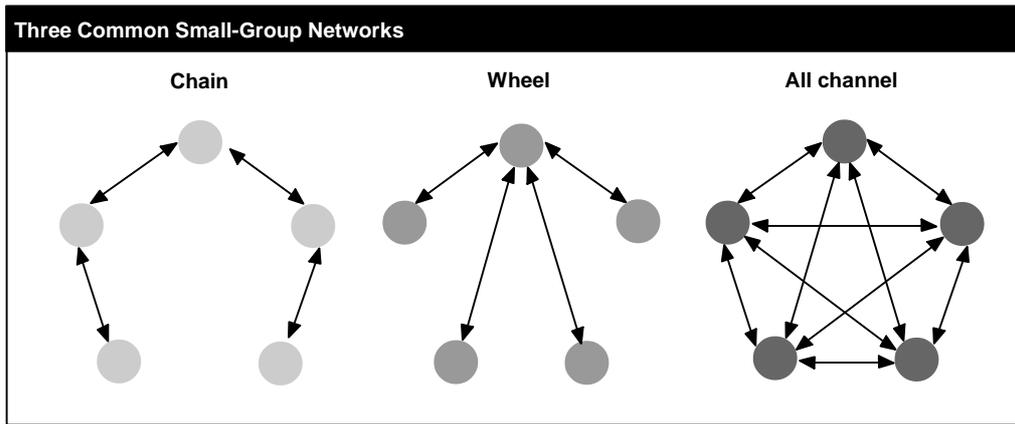
Figure 8.3

Figure 8.4

Small-Group Networks and Effectiveness Criteria			
		Networks	
Criteria	**Chain**	**Wheel**	**All Channel**
Speed Accuracy	Moderate	Fast	Fast
Emergence of a leader	High	High	Moderate
Member satisfaction	Moderate	High	None
	Moderate	Low	High

The Grapevine

The formal system is not the only communication network in a group or organization. There is also an informal one, which is called the grapevine. And although the grapevine may be informal, this doesn't mean it's not an important source of information. For instance, a survey found that 75 percent of employees hear about matters first through rumors on the grapevine.

The grapevine has three main characteristics. First, it is not controlled by management. Second, it is perceived by most employees as being more believable and reliable than formal communiques issued by top management. And third, it is largely used to serve the self-interests of the people within it.

One of the most famous studies of the grapevine investigated the communication pattern among 67 managerial personnel in a small manufacturing firm. The basic approach used was to learn from each communication recipient how he or she first received a given piece of information and then trace it back to its source. It was found that, while the grapevine was an important source of information, only 10 percent of the executives acted as liaison individuals, that is, passed the information on to more than one other person. For example, when one executive decided to resign to enter the insurance business, 81 percent of the executives knew about it, but only 11 percent transmitted this information to others.

Two other conclusions from this study are also worth noting. Information on events of general interest tended to flow between the major functional groups (production, sales) rather than within them. Also, no evidence surfaced to suggest that any one group consistently acted as liaisons; rather, different types of information passed through different liaison persons.

An attempt to replicate this study among employees in a small state government office also found that only 10 percent act as liaison individuals. This finding is interesting, because the replication contained a wider spectrum of employees, including operative as well as managerial personnel. But the flow of information in the government office took place within, rather than between, functional

groups. It was proposed that this discrepancy might be due to comparing an executive-only sample against one that also included operative workers. Managers, for example, might feel greater pressure to stay informed and thus cultivate others outside their immediate functional group. Also, in contrast to the findings of the original study, the replication found that a consistent group of individuals acted as liaisons by transmitting information in the government office.

Is the information that flows along the grapevine accurate? The evidence indicates that about 75 percent of what is carried is accurate. But what conditions foster an active grapevine? What gets the rumor mill rolling?

It is frequently assumed that rumors start because they make titillating gossip. This is rarely the case. Rumors emerge as a response to situations that are important to us, when there is ambiguity, and under conditions that arouse anxiety. The fact that work situations frequently contain these three elements explains why rumors flourish in organizations. The secrecy and competition that typically prevail in large organizations—around issues such as the appointment of new bosses, the relocation of offices, downsizing decisions, and the realignment of work assignments—create conditions that encourage and sustain rumors on the grapevine. A rumor will persist either until the wants and expectations creating the uncertainty underlying the rumor are fulfilled or until the anxiety is reduced.

What can we conclude from the preceding discussion? Certainly the grapevine is an important part of any group or organization's communication network and is well worth understanding. It identifies for managers the confusing issues that employees consider important and that create anxiety. It acts, therefore, as both a filter and a feedback mechanism, picking up the issues that employees consider relevant. For employees, the grapevine is particularly valuable for translating formal communications into their group's own jargon. Maybe more important, again from a managerial perspective, it seems possible to analyze grapevine information and to predict its flow, given that only a small set of individuals (approximately 10 percent) actively pass on information to more than one person. By assessing which liaison individuals will consider a given piece of information to be relevant, we can improve our ability to explain and predict the pattern of the grapevine.

Can management entirely eliminate rumors? No. What management should do, however, is to minimize the negative consequences of rumors by limiting their range and impact.

Computer-Aided Communication

Communication in today's organizations is enhanced and enriched by computer-aided technologies. These include electronic mail, intranet and extranet links, and videoconferencing. Electronic mail, for instance, has dramatically reduced the number of memos, letters, and phone calls that employees historically used to communicate among themselves and with suppliers, customers, or other outside stakeholders.

E-Mail Electronic mail (or e-mail) uses the Internet to transmit and receive computer-generated text and documents. Its growth has been spectacular. Most white-collar employees now regularly use e-mail. In fact, a recent study found that the average U.S. employee receives 31 e-mail messages a day. And organizations are recognizing the value of e-mail for all workers. Ford Motor Co., for instance, recently made a computer, modem, printer, and e-mail account available for $5 a month to all of its more than 300000 employees worldwide.

As a communication tool, e-mail has a long list of benefits. E-mail messages can be quickly written, edited, and stored. They can be distributed to one person or thousands with a click of a mouse. They can be read, in their entirety, at the convenience of the recipient. And the cost of sending formal e-mail messages to employees is a fraction of what it would cost to print, duplicate, and distribute a comparable letter or brochure.

E-mail, of course, is not without its drawbacks. At the top of the list is information overload. It's not unusual for employees to get a hundred or more e-mails a day. Reading, absorbing, and responding to such an inflow can literally consume an employee's entire day. In essence, e-mail's ease of use has become its biggest negative. Employees are finding it increasingly difficult to distinguish important e-mails from junk mail and irrelevant messages. Another drawback of e-mails is that they lack emotional content. The nonverbal cues in a face-to-face message or the tone of voice from a phone call convey important information that doesn't come across in e-mail,

although efforts have been made to create emotional icons. Finally, e-mail tends to be cold and impersonal. As such, it's not the ideal means to convey information like layoffs, plant closings, or other messages that might evoke emotional responses and require empathy or social support.

Intranet and Extranet Links Intranets are private, organization-wide information networks that look and act like a Web site but to which only people in an organization have access. Intranets are rapidly becoming the preferred means for employees within companies to communicate with each other. IBM, as a case in point, recently brought together 52,000 of its employees online for what it called Worldjam. Using the company's intranet, IBMers everywhere swapped ideas on everything from how to retain employees to how to work faster without undermining quality.

In addition, organizations are creating extranet links that connect internal employees with selected suppliers, customers, and strategic partners. For instance, an extranet allows GM employees to send electronic messages and documents to its steel and rubber suppliers as well as to communicate with its dealers. Similarly, all Wal-Mart vendors are linked into its extranet system, allowing Wal-Mart buyers to easily communicate with its suppliers and for suppliers to monitor the inventory status of its products at Wal-Mart stores.

Videoconferencing Video conferencing is an extension of intranet or extranet systems. It permits employees in an organization to have meetings with people at different locations. Live audio and video images of members allow them to see, hear, and talk with each other. Videoconferencing technology, in effect, allows employees to conduct interactive meetings without the necessity of all physically being in the same location.

In the late 1990s, videoconferencing was basically conducted from special rooms equipped with television cameras, located at company facilities. More recently, cameras and microphones are being attached to individual computers, allowing people to participate in videoconferences without leaving their desks. As the cost of this technology drops in price, videoconferencing is likely to be increasingly seen as an alternative to expensive and time-consuming travel.

Requests, Complaints and Inquiries

There is little that frustrates a customer or prospect more than not being able to reach a business when they need to. It doesn't matter if they're calling to get an update on a shipment, lodge a complaint, give a compliment, request support, or request information in support of an eventual purchase - if they can't reach someone in your company, easily, then you might as well not be in business.

Realities of many small businesses are that someone can't be right next to a phone or computer 24/7. Some days, having someone in the office 8-5 is a challenge. But if you don't respond quickly, you run the risk of directing a customer elsewhere...to a competitor.

More important than answering a call on the first ring or immediately reply to an email is setting expectations when you can. If people know you're out of the office or away for the afternoon, it makes it easier to wait a bit for a reply. It doesn't make it acceptable in all cases, but it makes it easier.

Here are 8 ideas to handle inquiries when it's impossible to answer the phone or immediately reply:

1. Have voicemail. As part of your answer message, let the caller know your current day's availability.

2. Have a plan. If you're out of the office, leave a message on your voicemail stating so, say when you'll return, and redirect them to others in your business for an immediate need.

3. Use web forms. Direct some inquiries and requests to your web, it's a low cost 24/7 way to accept input. Have a web form send the input to a distribution list, this way someone in your office is sure to get the message in a timely manner and reply. Establish a system to update everyone on the distribution list when one of you takes action on the request.

4. Place your hours of operation and complete contact information on your website. Let people know how to contact you and when you expect to be in the office.

5. Indoctrinate new customers. As part of bringing a new customer aboard, educate them on how to contact and interact with your business. Make sure every customer and qualified prospect has more than one telephone number, extension, and email address to reach you or someone in your company.

6. Forward your calls to your mobile phone. Dependant upon your business, using some kind of find-me follow-me service is appropriate.

7. Broadcast important telephone calls. Related to the tip above, have a special number just for service requests, then use a find-me follow-me service to relay an incoming call to a number of people in your office at the same time, or in a hunt group where one person is called after another. The first person that answers takes the call.

8. Establish separate email address to direct requests. Have an email address attached to distribution lists for sales, support, updates, etc.

There are 8 ideas to handle incoming calls or electronic messages to your business when you just can't be there to take the request as it happens. What things have you done to take requests 24/7?

8.5 INTRODUCTIONS

Introductions are an important part of business. Handled appropriately and with ease, they are the mark of a polished business professional.

The most important thing to remember about introductions is making them. A person would rather have you tell him or her that you forgot their name and ask for it than to stand in a group of people and not be introduced.

The following are a few dos and don'ts of making introductions:

1. Always show deference to clients, senior executives, distinguished guests and high-ranking dignitaries by stating their names first. For example, "Mr. Davis (senior executive), I would like to introduce Ms. Eliot (junior executive)."

2. While introducing members of the opposite sex, use age and rank or degree of distinction as a guide. If the two people are approximately the same age, rank and prominence, the woman's name should be mentioned first. Otherwise, you should adhere to the preceding guideline.

3. If someone has forgotten to introduce you, take the initiative and introduce yourself. Smile, extend your hand and say, "My name is so-and-so. I don't believe we've met."

4. Never refer to *yourself* as Mr., Mrs., and Dr. and so on. Other people give you an honorific. You don't give one to yourself.

5. In general, call a person by his or her first name only after he or she has given you permission to do so, for example, "Please call me Shirley." There are, of course, certain informal settings where first names would be appropriate. Let your common sense and knowledge of business protocol be your guide.

6. If someone forgets your name, be quick to supply it in order to lessen their embarrassment.

7. If you are unsure about how to pronounce someone's name, simply say, "I'd really like to pronounce your name correctly." In Louisiana, with all of our, sometimes difficult to pronounce names, you will be a sure-fire hit if you learn to pronounce them correctly.

8. When possible, always add a little information to go with a name. That will give people a springboard for conversation. For example, "Ms. Smith, this is Dr. Williams, vice president of marketing." "Ms. Smith is president of XYZ Company."

9. Avoid commanding people in the introduction. In other words, don't say, "Mr. Johnson meet Ms. Logan."

10. Stand when being introduced. This shows consideration and respect. If standing would be awkward, however, it is permissible to remain seated. Always shake hands and exchange greetings, such as "How do you do?" or "I'm glad to see you."

11. The handshake is important. It has become the usual greeting for both men and women. Handshakes are your first way of connecting with a person. Remember,

however, that a limp, moist handshake or on the other hand, a bone-crusher, can slam the door on an enthusiastic response.

12. When you shake hands, people make an immediate judgment about your character and level of confidence. So, give them a firm, quick grasp, and shake. Grasp the other person's hand completely so that the thumbs are interlocked and the hands are completely within each other. Shake hands from the elbow, not from the shoulder. You're not pumping water.

    Special Note: When a man and woman are being introduced, their hands should come together simultaneously. Gentlemen--times have changed. You do not need to wait for the woman to offer her hand first. Ladies--some men are unaware of this change in etiquette, so be ready to offer your hand.

13. To help you remember someone's name, repeat it as soon as you are introduced, saying, for example, "How do you do, Mr. Davis?" and practice saying the name several times during the conversation.

8.6 DICTATIONS

One of the major responsibilities in an executive position is to use dictation as a major activity in daily communication. The odds are that you will dictate most of your letters and even reports that are shorter.

A.   Preparation for Dictation

1. Review the operating instructions for the dictation equipment, and see that it is working properly.

2. Gather notes, files, and reference materials that you may need to use during the dictation session.

3. Plan the message.

    a. Determine your purpose.

    b. Think about the audience's needs and interests.

    c. Organize your thoughts into logical groups, and decide on the sequence of points.

B.   Dictation Procedures

1. Start with messages that have the greatest priority.

2. Speak clearly and distinctly, in a natural tone of voice.

3. Avoid eating, gum chewing, smoking, and other audible distractions while you are dictating.

4. Provide full instructions for the transcriber.

    a. Identify yourself and your department, indicating where you can be reached if the transcriber has any questions.

    b. Identify the form of the message—letter, memo, report, slide presentation, or whatever—and specify whether you want a draft or a final copy.

    c. Request any special stationary you want to use, and specify any special format instructions, such as margin widths, single or double spacing, and block format or indented paragraphs.

    d. Indicate how many copies are required, who should receive them, and how copies should be filed.

    e. Identify enclosures, and if necessary, tell the transcriber where they can be found.

    f. Describe special mailing and transmission requirements.

    g. Specify the necessary turnaround time for each message.

    h. Spell out clearly the name and address of each person who has to receive the message.

5. Use the pause or stop button on the dictation machine if you need to think through a statement or locate additional material.

6. Clarify ambiguous grammar, spelling, and punctuation.

   a. Clearly enunciate plurals, past-tense endings, and any sounds that might be confused (such as *b* and *p).*

   b. Spell out personal and company names, homophones (words that sound alike but are spelled differently), and trade or technical terms.

   c. Specify punctuation where a question may arise: periods, commas, colons and semicolons, question marks, exclamation points, hyphens, dashes, parentheses and quotation marks.

   d. Specify capitalization: "all caps" for entire words, "initial cap" for the first letter of a word.

   e. Identify the use of underlining, indention and columns.

   f. Dictate long or unusual numbers digit by digit.

   g. Indicate paragraph endings by saying, "paragraph."

7. Make corrections as soon as you notice that you have made a mistake or that revision is needed.

8. Conclude the dictation by saying "end of dictation" and thanking the transcriber.

C. Dictation Follow-Up

1. Proofread the typed document carefully; then double-check to be certain that required changes were made.

2. Sign or initial the final version.

3. Ask the transcriber for feedback on how to improve your dictation technique.

The various techniques of dictation are

- Gather all the information you need to avoid interruptions later.

- Plan the message.

- Give preliminary information and instructions.

- Make the words flow.

- Speak in a strong clear voice so that the stenographer understands each word.

- Give as much instruction on paragraphing, punctuation and mechanics as is needed.

- Avoid using side comments.

- Read back intelligently.

8.7 THE TELEPHONE

In today's world the phone dominates business communications. You can buy, sell, research new markets, provide quality customer service and make impressions that last using the telephone.

The way you handle the telephone reflects on you and your company, firm, or department.

These guidelines will help you project individual professionalism in your job and an overall image of professionalism for your company. The most successful approach to telephone usage is to place importance on the caller, not on ourselves. Always be courteous and helpful so the caller will feel good about calling. You and your voice can make the difference. Answering Your Own Telephone

State your first and last name in a friendly tone to answer your own telephone: "Stephanie Smith"

Do away with wordy expressions: Avoid: "This is Stephanie Smith" "Stephanie Smith speaking"

Adding this is or speaking takes more time and tells the caller no more than simply stating your first and last name. Identifying yourself properly saves time and tells the caller you are a responsible person ready to help. The key to the success of

this lies in the tone of your voice. Your voice is your personality. Make sure it has a welcome, warm tone.

Answering Someone Else's Telephone Identify the person for whom you are answering and identify yourself: "Ms. Saunders' office, John Miller"

Always give a title to the person for whom you are answering: "Ms. Saunders' office, John Miller"

Not "Laurie Saunders' office, John Miller"

And after giving the person, for whom you are answering a title, use the word "office": "Ms. Saunders' office, John Miller" Not "Laurie's desk" Or "Laurie's line"

Never give yourself a title: Avoid "Ms. Saunders' office, Mr. Miller"

Answer your co-worker's telephone the same way you'd answer your supervisor's telephone.

Answering a Departmental Telephone

Answer with the department name and your name: "Bookkeeping, Leslie Henson"

Always identify yourself: Not simply "Bookkeeping"

Again, avoid wordiness: Avoid "This is Bookkeeping, Leslie Henson speaking"

Also: Identify your department when you answer your own phone if you find yourself frequently answering the same question, "Is this Bookkeeping?" or "Is this Customer Relations?"

Placing Calls identify yourself when you place a call. It is courteous and saves time. If you are calling internally, you may say, "This is Debbie." If you have a phone system that shows the name and number calling, the caller does not need to identify internally.

Screening Calls to ask "May I ask who is calling" is the most awkward way to screen a telephone call. Remember, the most successful approach is to place the importance on the caller.

But sometimes calls must be screened. The person for whom you are answering does not always have time to talk to every caller, especially if the caller could be helped by you or someone else. Our objective is to successfully screen calls without putting down the caller. So when you screen calls, never ask who is calling before you tell the caller whether or not the person being called is available. The key word is available. If the person being called is in the office, but does not have time to talk, he/she is not available. If the person cannot be interrupted, he/she is not available.

And if there are certain callers he/she does not want to talk to, the person is not available to those callers.

Ask the caller for name and telephone number only after you have said whether the person being called is not available.

Example:

Receiver: "Mr. Romero's office, Alvie Marshall."

Caller: "Hello, may I speak to Mr. Romero please?" (You have no idea who is calling.)

Receiver: I'm sorry, Mr. Romero is not available. May I help you?"

Caller: "No, you can't. I have to speak to Mr. Romero."

Receiver: "I'll be glad to ask him to return your call if you will leave your name and

number."

Handling the call in this manner saves Mr. Romero's time without making the caller feel unimportant.

But what if the caller is an important person who simply fails to identify himself?

Receiver: "I'm sorry, Mr. Romero is not available. May I help you?"

Caller: "No, I have to talk to Oscar; This is Felix Sanchez; tell him I called and ask him to call me back."

(You know Mr. Romero would want to talk to Mr. Sanchez.)

Receiver: "Mr. Sanchez, Mr. Romero has asked me to interrupt him if you call. I'll get him for you."

There are some people you want to talk with no matter what. It is a good idea to give a list to whoever answers your phone.

By telling a caller "I have been asked to interrupt him if you call," or "I know Mr. Romero would want to talk to you," you are placing even more importance on the caller. By asking the caller for his/her name after saying whether or not the person is available, you avoid making the caller feel unimportant; by putting a call through after you have told the caller the person is not available, you make the caller feel even more important.

Placing the Caller on Hold

Always ask the caller if he/she would like to hold. Avoid the abrupt phrase "hold please." Let the caller know how long it will take and ask whether he/she prefers to hold or be called back.

Update the caller periodically (possibly every 30 seconds). Be as specific as you can be.

Example:
"Ms. O'Brien is out at the moment, but she should be back soon. Would you like to hold or may I ask her to return your call?"

Or
"Ms. O'Brien is on another line; would you like to hold?"

If the caller agrees to hold, remember to return to the line and ask him/her if he/she would like to continue to hold.

Transferring Calls

The same courtesy applies to transferring a caller as does to placing a caller on hold. Ask the caller if he/she would like to be transferred.

If the caller wants to be transferred, give him/her the number to which the call is being transferred in case the call is disconnected or in case he/she would like to dial the number later.

Whenever possible, stay on the line to make sure the connection is completed.

And in the case of a frustrated caller who has been transferred all over the company and you too need to transfer him/her, do this only when you are sure the person to whom you are transferring the call can help. Otherwise, take the caller's name and number and ask the appropriate person to return the call.

Taking Messages: A complete message includes the following: Name of the caller and his/her company Date and time of the call .Complete telephone number- even if the person being called already has the number any other information the caller gives you

Repeat the message to the caller to make sure you have taken the message correctly and to give him/her the opportunity to check what has been told to you.

If someone is covering your telephone for you, be sure to pick up your messages. Do not expect the person covering your phone to bring them to you. If everyone is on voice mail, this is unnecessary; however, some company executives still prefer live coverage.

Use Good Manners. Be pleasant on the telephone. Your treatment of the caller may determine his/her impression of your department or company. Be professional. Offer to help the caller, but not when you answer the call. End calls with a pleasant "goodbye" or "thank you," not with a "bye-bye" or an "okie-dokie.". And let the caller hang up first.

8.8 INTERVIEW: AN OVERVIEW

In this interview overview, you'll see that not all interviews follow the same format. Here are some of the types you may well come up against.

Screening interview overview

This aims to do an initial sift of candidates. They are often carried out by recruitment consultants or sometimes personnel or HR staff. Often they are done over the phone. They usually focus on your relevant experience and skills so that the candidates they put forward for second interview are qualified to do the job.

One-to-one interview overview

These are the most common types of interview you'll come across in the private sector. As there is usually only one person involved, it's important to try and develop a relationship. Work on rapport building as 'compatibility' scores higher than 'competence'.

Sometimes a series of one-to-one interviews with different interviewers might take place, and this is known as sequential interviewing. The interviewers may cover similar ground, so remember what you tell them! Sometimes, two people may interview you together.

Panel interview overview

These interviews are most common in the public sector and in education and when you apply to work in some charities.

The panel usually consists of people who have a common interest in making a successful appointment. To ensure fairness and consistency, the panel asks all candidates the same set of questions in the same order. The panel's chairperson will normally introduce and direct the proceedings.

The thing most candidates seem to worry about with panel interviews is who to look at.

The answer is simple.

Look at the person who asked you the question and glance occasionally at other members of the panel as well to show that you are including them in your response. On the positive side, panel interviews can be much fairer to candidates in that there is less room for personal bias from the interviewer.

Competency based interview overview

These are becoming increasingly common. Instead of being assessed by comparing you with the other candidates, using whatever standards the interviewer chooses, you are assessed against the competencies required in a job.

Competencies are the skills, qualities, knowledge and characteristics needed to succeed in a particular job.

Competency based interviews don't just look at what you did but how you went about it. They will want to collect examples of your past behaviour which are relevant to the requirements of the new job.

So you might face questions such as:

*   Describe the toughest problem you have faced in the last six months. What would you have done differently if you tackled it again?

*   Tell me about how you have improved production quality. What did you do?

Try to keep your answers concise and structured around the competencies that you used — so that the interviewer can pick them up easily from what you say.

The interviewers will probably write down most of what you tell them.

Telephone interview overview

Formal:

These are often used as part of the selection process for jobs in the customer service or telesales area. The company will tell you when the interview will take place. You will usually be asked a series of structured questions and perhaps asked to take part in a role-play situation on the telephone.

You might also come across automated telephone assessments. Candidates are asked to respond to questions using their telephone keypad to indicate their answer. If telephone manner is important in a job, employers might also carry out a telephone performance test.

Informal:

This is when a company rings you up unannounced to 'have a chat' or to ask you to clarify something on your application form. Get them to call you back in a couple of minutes when you have had time to sort yourself out and do some quick preparation.

If a job advert invites you to 'ring for further details or for an informal chat', do take up the offer, you might learn something, but be prepared to make a good first impression. Have a copy of your CV at your side, a notepad and a copy of the job advert.

In every case be ready to explain why the job interests you and what you can offer in relation to what they are looking for.

8.9 AT THE INTERVIEW VENUE

To ensure successful interview preparation the following checklist will prove useful:

- Prior to the interview itself get directions to the interview venue and check out the parking that is adjacent. Give yourself plenty of time to get to the venue, park and be on time for your interview.

- Get a contact number for your interviewer or the company itself so in the event that you are unavoidably detained you can make them aware to avoid added inconvenience.

- Bring a copy of your Resume, a notepad and a ballpoint pen. This will give you a look of organisation and efficiency and give you something to do with your hands during the interview itself.

- Do not arrive too early for your interview as it indicates anxiousness on your part.

- Do not arrive late even momentarily as this indicates disinterest and is inconsiderate. In the event of an unavoidable delay as stated above call ahead to explain the situation.

- Collect your references from your employers prior to the interview. If they are requested the fact that you have them available will indicate your attention to detail.

- Be confident that you are able to answer the questions, which will be put to you.

- Relax and breathe deeply before you enter the interview itself. This will help calm your nerves and reduce your tension.

- Be open and friendly to the receptionist of the staff member sent to greet you, this is part of the process itself and will be considered part of your interview.

- Be formal and polite, mirror your interviewer. Call them by their title, Mr, Mrs, Ms etc and not their first name. To do so without being invited can be a sign of disrespect.

- Remember a firm handshake is a good starting point.

- Do not look at your watch or look around the room as your interviewer begins the process.

- Do not offer personal opinions on sex, race, culture, age or equal rights.

- Do not ask about company benefits, salary or holiday entitlements.

- Respect your interviewer and treat them with the deference they are entitled to.

- Be aware of your body language throughout the interview.

8.9 Check your progress

1) Define dyadic communication.

   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

2) Define Grapevine.

   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

3) What is computer aided communication?

   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

4) Define Intranet networks

   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

5) Define Video conferencing.

   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………………

8.10 CONCLUSION

In short, this chapter deals with the oral communication, its classification. It deals with Interview Techniques which are very useful from the practical point of view.

8.11 SUMMARY

This chapter explains how to conduct an oral communication. It explains the types of communication like Dyadic, Group communication. It also deals with "Interview Techniques" which help when one entre into a particular profession.

8.12 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - ANSWERS

1) Dyadic communication involves communication between two people

2) Informal System of communication is known as Grapevine.

3) Computer Aided Communication included electronic mail, intranet and extranet links and video-conferencing.

4) Intranet networks are private, organization wide information networks that look and act like a web site but to which only people in an organization have access.

5) Video Conferencing is an extension of intranet ore extranet systems. It allows employees to conduct interactive meetings without the necessity of a physically being in the same location.

8.13 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1)   Write a note on Intranet and Extranet links.

2)   Write a note on Videoconferencing.

3)   What a note formal Small-Group Networks?

4)   Write a note on Dyadic Communication.

8.14 SUGGESTED READINGS

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Rao & Dr. Das, *Himalaya Publishing House*

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Urmila Rai & S.M. Rai, *Himalaya Publishing House*

- *Communication Skills for Effective Management* Dr. Anjali Ghanekar, *Everest Publishing House, New Delhi*

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NOTES

NOTES

Chapter 9
Essentials of Written Communication

9.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter you will be able to –

- Use the correct writing style.

- Describe the essentials of written communication.

- *Memo:* A **memo** is a written message sent to someone working in the same organization.

- *Letters:* A **letter** is a written message sent to someone outside the organization; it also can be sent by computer via commercial electronic mail networks, such as MCI or CompuServe.

- *E-mail (electronic* mail): **E-mail** is a message transmitted electronically over a computer network most often connected by cable, telephone lines, or satellites. The recipient's computer receives and stores the message almost instantaneously after it is sent. The recipient may read, respond to, file, or discard the message - all without the use of paper.

- *Reports:* A **report** is an orderly and objective presentation of information that assists in decision-making and problem solving. Examples of common business reports include policies and procedures, status reports, minutes of meetings, financial reports, personnel evaluations, press releases, and computer printouts.

- *Miscellaneous:* Other examples of written communication include contracts, sales literature, newsletters, and bulletin - board notices.

9.1 INTRODUCTION

Writing is crucial to the modern organization because it serves as the major source of documentation. A speech may make a striking impression, but a memo leaves a permanent record for others to refer to in the future in case memory fails or a dispute arises.

Writing is more difficult than speaking because you have to get your message correct the first time; you do not have the advantage of immediate feedback and non-verbal clues, such as facial expression to help you achieve your objective. Examples of typical written communication, in industry include the following:

9.2 ALIGNMENTS

One of the fundamental typographic specifications for laying out paragraphs is

determining how they will appear in relation to the left and right margins. Word refers to this specification as *alignment.* There are four types of paragraph alignment you can set within Word:

- ***Left-aligned.*** All lines in the paragraph butt up against the left text margin. No extra spaces are added to the line. The text of each line does not line up with the right margin, so traditional typesetting terminology often refers to left-aligned text as *ragged right.*

- ***Center-aligned.*** All lines in a paragraph are centered between the left and right text margins. No extra spaces are added to the line. The text lines up with neither the left or right margins.

- ***Right-aligned.*** All lines in a paragraph butt up against the right text margin. No extra spaces are added to the line. The text of each line does not line up with the left margin, so traditional typesetting terminology often refers to right-aligned text as *ragged left.*

- ***Justified.*** All lines in a paragraph are expanded so they butt up against both the left and right text margins. Space is added, between words and characters, as necessary to fill out the line. In some typesetting references justified text is also referred to as "full justified."

9.3 FONT STYLE

A font is a set of all the letters in the alphabet, designed with similar characteristics. This is also known as a typeface.

Fonts are usually designed to include several style variations. This can include styles like light, regular, bold, semi-bold, ultra bold, and italic. Some fonts also include "Expert" versions, which are fonts that include fractions and mathematical symbols.

Font families are typically packages of fonts that include all of the different versions of a font. Using fonts with large families will give you a wide range of fonts to use in your materials, for variety and emphasis.

There are many basic classifications of fonts. Four of the most common classes of fonts are:

1. Serif fonts, which have little "feet," called serifs, at the ends of the lines that make up the letters. Some examples of serif fonts include Times, Palatino, and Garamond. These fonts are more traditional, elegant, and old-fashioned.

2. Sans-serif fonts don't have those feet. "Sans serif" means "without serifs." Arial, Verdana, Tahoma, and Helvetica are some of the most common sans-serif fonts. These fonts are more clean and modern.

3. Script fonts are calligraphic or cursive fonts. Brush Script and Nuptial Script are two common script fonts.

4. Display fonts are decorative and often used for logos or headlines.

There are other types of fonts as well, including handwriting fonts and all-caps fonts. However, the four listed above are the most common and useful in business communications.

Creative Font Usage Guidelines

Each type of font has certain characteristics that translate into that font's personality. A font might be serious or light-hearted, traditional or modern, legible or decorative, or any number of other personality traits. The traits of the font that you use in your marketing materials and business communications should reflect and enhance your company's brand.

Your company should have designated fonts to use in the following situations:

1. A logo font, which is typically not one of the fonts that come installed on Windows machines: it should be more unique and interesting. Some logos will have two or three different fonts in them. If this is the case, then consider using one of those fonts as the secondary font as well.

2. A secondary font, used for headlines, sub-headlines, taglines, special text such as graphics and captions, and decorative text such as pull quotes, which are the large

quotes that are used decoratively in articles and documents. This can be the same font as is used in your logo. This is typically an interesting and unique font as well. This may also be used as the font for your contact information in your stationery, depending on its legibility.

3. A tertiary font is optional and may be used when the secondary font is not always legible, for mid-length texts such as pull quotes and contact information.

4. A serif text font, for lengthy printed documents. Printed materials are more easily read if they are in serif font rather than sans-serif font.

5. A sans-serif font, for shorter printed documents and on-screen use. Text on a computer monitor is easier to read in a sans-serif font than in a serif font.

6. A website font, which may be the same font as is used as the main sans-serif text font, depending on how that font translates for online viewing.

All of these fonts should have similar or contrasting characteristics. Choosing fonts with similar characteristics will make your fonts match and create consistency throughout your documents. Choosing fonts with contrasting characteristics will build visual texture and interest into your materials. For example, you could pick all thin, sans-serif fonts such as Arial and Frutiger to create a harmonious, matching suite of fonts. Or you could pick fonts with contrasting characteristics to create greater interest, such as using a serif font like Palatino for the headlines and then using a sans-serif font like Verdana for the text.

Each piece of marketing material or document created should have a maximum of three or four families of fonts on them. (A font family includes all of the bold and italic variations of a particular font, so using bold or italic effects does not count as additional fonts.) Using more than three or four fonts is confusing, and it looks unprofessional.

Practical Font Usage Guidelines

Fonts can require special consideration when you send materials to a professional printer for reproduction, use them on your website, or send Word documents to others. Here are some basics on using fonts and preserving their appearance in these cases.

1. In printed materials, it's easier to read long blocks of copy that is set in a serif font. Sans-serif fonts are usually used in print for short blocks of information, like headlines, pull quotes, or bulleted lists.

When sending your materials to be professionally printed, make sure to address your desires regarding the use of fonts. You can either include the fonts with the files you send to the printer (which might be considered a copyright license infringement), rasterize your artwork (convert it to pixels, so the font data is no longer needed), or outline your fonts (creating shapes out of the fonts, an option that's available in most vector art programs such as Adobe Illustrator and Macromedia Freehand), so that they can be printed accurately. Outlining the fonts is the best way to guarantee that your fonts will remain accurate and sharp.

2. Online, in websites, emails, and HTML newsletters, sans-serif fonts look the best: they are clean, clear, and easy to read. There is one other trick to online font use: you have to make sure that you use fonts that will be installed on the computers of people reading your site. Otherwise, your text will appear in the default font selected by their browser, which is often Courier, a very plain font. That limitation does leave you with several fonts to choose from, though, including Verdana, Arial, Tahoma, and Trebuchet MS.

Serif fonts could also be used on websites; however, it's best to use them in limited quantities, such as for headlines and subheads. Some fonts that are available to use on the web include Times, Times New Roman, and Georgia.

Another issue that commonly arises with online fonts is the difficulty in controlling the size and appearance of those fonts. Standard font tags in HTML don't offer precise sizing control and need to be used several times throughout each HTML document, so making changes can be time-consuming. You can use Cascading Style Sheets, or CSS, to precisely control the exact size of your fonts and to make site-wide font, size, or color changes with one simple alteration.

3. In Word Documents, you also want to make sure that the fonts that you use for the text will be available on the recipient's computer. Good fonts to use are the standard fonts that come installed on PCs, which include Arial, Verdana, Tahoma, Times New Roman, Georgia, Palatino, Courier, and Trebuchet MS.

In order to insert a small amount of customized text—such as your logo, tagline, or address information—create an image of that information and to place it in the header and footer of the page.

Another way to preserve the appearance of text is to export your document as a PDF file and send it to the recipient; PDF files embed the fonts into each document so that they can be viewed on any computer and still look right.

9.4 BOLD, ITALIC AND NORMAL

Bold

One way to grab attention in a sea of words is to set some text in bold type. It is heavier, darker than regular type. Many type families include bold versions of the basic typeface. They may also have Heavy or Ultra Bold weights and Bold Italic.

Designing with Bold Type

- Use for emphasis, to highlight important points.
- Use restraint. Don't overdo it.

  Avoid setting entire paragraphs in bold type (like this) because it is generally harder to read. The bold type creates emphasis. It slows down the reader and forces their eye to really take in the words more carefully. But if you slow them down too much they may just skip over what you have to say.

- Create contrast for headlines and subheadings. There are many ways to create contrast between body copy and headlines. Use font size (larger) with bold type (darker) to set apart headlines from the rest of the text.

  Break Up 'Gray' Areas, Bold headlines and subheadings. Also break up large blocks of text. This subheading is of the same size as the body copy but the bold type makes it stand out, look larger. It keeps the blocks of text from all running together. Make it bigger and you have got more contrast.

- Highlight titles or proper names within a block of copy. People like to see their name in print. In a club newsletter or similar publication this is one way to put the spotlight on members who are not part of a featured article. Not everyone agrees though.

"Avoid the temptation to use boldface text to emphasize words within a passage of text. Bold text is like a magnet to our eyes, and if used incorrectly, ruins the continuity of your text." — The Rules of Typography at the Font site.

Italics

The italics version of a normal roman (upright) typeface has characters designed specifically to slant to the right. Use italics to create subtle emphasis and to set apart certain names and titles. Italic fonts can also be used to add creative contrast, such as for pull-quotes or initial caps.

Here's How:

1. Emphasize with italics. Use italics to emphasize small amounts of text within a block of text. Avoid long passages in italics. It is harder to read than normal roman faces.

2. Put titles of print publications in italics. Italicize the titles of books, magazines, and newspapers such as *The Great Gatsby*, *Home Office Computing*, or the *Austin American-Statesman*.

3. Put visual art titles in italics. Use italics for movie titles (*The Sixth Sense* or *Gone with the Wind*) and the titles of works of art such as the *Mona Lisa*.

4. Italicize proper names of ships and trains. Use italics for the names of ships or trains such as the *Titanic* or the *Orient Express*.

5. Set apart foreign phrases with italics. When they are not a common part of your language, italicize foreign words and phrases.

6. Use true italics, not fake italics. Avoid using the italics formatting code in your software. It often produces fake italics by simply slanting the roman version of the font. Typefaces designed specifically as italics are better-looking and easier to read.

9.5 FONT SIZE

The typical font size for business communication should vary from 10 to 12. Larger font size can be used for headings. To prepare presentations higher font sizes can be used to make it readable in a larger auditorium.

9.6 INDENTATION & BLOCK STYLE

While writing business letters, you must pay special attention to the format and font used. The most common layout of a business letter is known as block format. Using this format, the entire letter is left justified and single spaced except for a double space between paragraphs. Another widely utilized format is known as modified block format. In this type, the body of the letter is left justified and single-spaced. However, the date and closing are in alignment in the center of the page. The final, and least used, style is semi-block. It is much like the modified block style except that each paragraph is indented instead of left justified.

The following table shows examples of the different formats.

March 16, 2001	March 16, 2001	March 16, 2001
Ernie English 1234 Writing Lab Lane Write City, IN 12345	Ernie English 1234 Writing Lab Lane Write City, IN 12345	Ernie English 1234 Writing Lab Lane Write City, IN 12345
Dear Mr. English:	Dear Mr. English:	Dear Mr. English:
The first paragraph of a typical business letter is used to state the main point of the letter. Begin with a friendly opening; then quickly transition into the purpose of your letter. Use a couple of sentences to explain the purpose, but do not go in to detail until the next paragraph.	The first paragraph of a typical business letter is used to state the main point of the letter. Begin with a friendly opening; then quickly transition into the purpose of your letter. Use a couple of sentences to explain the purpose, but do not go in to detail until the next paragraph.	The first paragraph of a typical business letter is used to state the main point of the letter. Begin with a friendly opening; then quickly transition into the purpose of your letter. Use a couple of sentences to explain the purpose, but do not go in to detail until the next paragraph.
Beginning with the second paragraph, state the supporting details to justify your purpose. These may take the form of background information, statistics or first-hand accounts. A few short paragraphs within the body of the letter should be enough to support your reasoning.	Beginning with the second paragraph, state the supporting details to justify your purpose. These may take the form of background information, statistics or first-hand accounts. A few short paragraphs within the body of the letter should be enough to support your reasoning.	Beginning with the second paragraph, state the supporting details to justify your purpose. These may take the form of background information, statistics or first-hand accounts. A few short paragraphs within the body of the letter should be enough to support your reasoning.
Finally, in the closing paragraph, briefly restate your purpose and why it is important. If the purpose of your letter is employment related, consider ending your letter with your contact information. However, if the purpose is informational, think about closing with gratitude for	Finally, in the closing paragraph, briefly restate your purpose and why it is important. If the purpose of your letter is employment related, consider ending your letter with your contact information. However, if the purpose is informational, think about closing with	Finally, in the closing paragraph, briefly

the reader's time. Sincerely, Lucy Letter 123 Winner's Road New Employee Town, PA 12345	gratitude for the reader's time. Sincerely, Lucy Letter	restate your purpose and why it is important. If the purpose of your letter is employment related, consider ending your letter with your contact information. However, if the purpose is informational, think about closing with gratitude for the reader's time. Sincerely, Lucy Letter
Block Format	**Modified Block Format**	**Semi-block format**

9.7 ITEMS

Items which require special emphasis may be denoted by bullets or numbers.

For many of us, knowing when to use, and when not to use, bullet, numbered or outline lists can prove difficult.

Before Word Processing came along, most publications displayed lists as either outline or numbered lists, but with Microsoft Word, you suddenly had bullet lists!

When to use number lists

Use numbered lists when you are explaining instructions that need to be performed in sequence.

Numbered and unnumbered lists are most frequently used in academic and government publications. If numbers aren't essential, use bullets, especially in business related documents.

When to capitalize the first letter in a bulleted item

In most cases, you can start each bulleted item with a capital letter. As we are taught in school to capitalize only proper nouns and the first word of a complete sentence, it may feel wrong to capitalize these single words and phrases.

Today it is generally accepted that you can capitalize the first word in bullet lists.

When to use periods and have bulleted items end without punctuation

1. Use periods after independent clauses, dependent clauses, or long phrases that are displayed on separate lines in a list. For example:

   The software has the following features:

   · Content Management features.

   · Dynamic Binding capabilities.

   · Autonomic programming add-ins.

2. Use periods after short phrases that are essential for the completeness of the statement introducing the list. For example:

   Microsoft Word has a number of features, including:

   · Indexing.

   · Master Pages.

   · HTML generation.

3. You don't have to use periods after short phrases or single words in a list if the introductory statement is grammatically complete. For example:

    The houses in this price range have attractive features, such as:

    ·   Large gardens

    ·   Spacious rooms

    ·   Central heating

    ·   Garages

4. When one item contains a complete sentence, punctuate all bulleted items. Capitalize the first words and put a period at the end of each item. For example:

    The US Army does not accept recruits who have engaged in:

    ·   Criminal Activities.

    ·   Anti-Government demonstrations.

    ·   Violent history. Please list all occasions when you were arrested or detained.

    Note: if you're creating a long document full of bulleted items, be consistent and decide at the start to end each item with, or without, a period. Within a grouping, always use all periods or no periods.

    Avoid alternating throughout the document.

WARNING - How NOT to do it: The managements suggests that you

    ·   Arrive on Friday;

    ·   Cook all the dishes, clean up, change your clothes; and

    ·   Go back home once you've feed us all.

    If you want to use the semicolons (;), delete the bullets and create a sentence.

9.8 EMPHASIS

Points can be emphasized by

- Creating a separate paragraph.

- Use of bold font.

- Use of italics.

- Use of capital letters.

- Underline items.

- Bullets and numbering.

- Background colours

- Font colours.

- Creating a distinct block.

- Indenting paragraph or points.

9.9 LETTER HEADS

Many corporations often neglect the importance of having a good business card and letterhead design. If you're unaware of the effectiveness of having a professionally designed business card and letterhead, do note that you can literally turn these two materials into an excellent, low-cost form of marketing and advertising tool.

In the highly competitive business world today, it is crucial that you show people how you value your business by handling the slightest thing professionally.

Choose The Right Design. It is best if you choose a design that reflects your nature of business. Make sure to keep your business card and letterhead design as simple as possible. Exaggerated graphics and fonts should be kept away as much as possible for easy referencing and readability.

Create A Logo. Whether you are running a big corporation or simply a small entrepreneur, it is always important that you create a custom logo to represent your business. All you need to do is to hire a professional creative designer to do the job for you or if you don't have the budget to do so, you can always create a simple design yourself.

Design Consistency. For a more professional approach, it is recommended that you keep all your business materials such as business cards, letterheads and envelopes in a consistent design. Colors, graphics and logos should be in a standard form and compliment each other.

Business Attributes. Unnecessary business attributes should be kept away. Important business details such as phone number, address, email and company's website address should be arranged and highlighted in the most suitable order so that people can easily get in touch with you.

Double Check Your Design Before sending your business card and letterhead for print-jobs, make sure to double-check your design for accuracy. You do not want to distribute a business card or a quotation to your client with inaccurate or outdated business details.

9.10 CONTINUATION SHEETS

Continuation sheets are basically continuation of a letterhead where the business communication spills into the next page. Instead of using two letterheads many companies use continuation sheets. Continuation sheets in most cases have only the logo of the company printed on it unlike the letterhead that typically has logo, name of the company, address, telephone numbers, fax numbers, email, website etc.

9.11 STATIONARY

The importance of good stationary cannot be denied. Stationary plays a very important part in our daily lives even in this modern technological age of computers, blackberries and laptops. We use stationary everyday for business as well as personal purposes. Business stationary in particular is very vital, as it acts as part of an informal advertising and marketing campaign for a business organization. It represents a company and speaks volumes about a business' professionalism and competence. It helps a business to portray itself in a positive light and helps to attract prospective customers as well. Business stationary facilitates a strong business identity no matter its size, and helps in building name recognition also.

In today's fast paced world making an impact is very imperative to running a successful business. In fact one can go as far as to say that if your business fails to make an impact quickly it is bound to be unsuccessful. This is where business stationary comes in. Business stationary helps your business to make an impact on your customers and prospective client's minds by showing them the style, the quality, and the mission of your organization. Good corporate stationary will not only help you to impress clients with well crafted presentations, but will show potential customers your expertise and attention to detail as much as your creativity and vision. A well designed corporate stationary package includes letterheads, business cards, envelopes, announcements and invitations that will help you make create a positive influence on your business.

9.12 PRESENTATION

There are several styles which are used for writing business letters. Choosing a particular style is a matter of individual taste and preference. If your firm has already chosen a style, use that. But in case you get an opportunity to select the style of your choice, choose one that suits you best. The styles used by business organizations include the following:

i   The Indented Style

ii   The Block Style

iii   The Complete-block Style

iv   The Semi-block Style

v   The Hanging-indented Style

Bhartdari Trading Company Limited

43 A, Mathura Road, New Delhi-110001

11 September, 2001

The United Commercial Bank Limited, 1133, Mahatma Gandhi Road, New Delhi-11004

Dear Sir,

Please refer to your letter No. C-BC/43 of 4 September, 2001.

We are grateful that you have agreed to advance a sum of Rs 20000/- (Rupees Twenty Thousand only). The terms and conditions you mention are acceptable to us. We shall send our Accounts Officer to sign the agreement at 11 a.m. on Monday, 16 September, 2001 as you suggest.

Yours faithfully,

A.S. Bhowmick

Secretary

ASB/lg

Exhibit 9.12

(i) *Indented Style* This is perhaps the oldest form of a business letter. In it each new element is indented two to four spaces. Generally, closed punctuation is used in this style. It requires more time to type, but those who advocate this style say that it presents the pleasant form than compensating for the extra time and energy spent. A specimen of this style is given in Exhibit 9.12

(ii) **Block Style** In this style the date line, the complimentary close, and the signature are aligned with the right margin; all other parts except the letterhead are set flush left. Divisions between the parts and between the paragraphs of the body of the letter are indicated by double spacing whereas; there is single spacing within each part and paragraph.

This style saves stenographic time in as much as most of the parts and all the paragraphs are aligned with the left margin and so not much time is lost in indentation. In it, generally the mixed punctuation style is used as in Exhibit 9.13.

(iii) Complete-block Style All parts of the letter, except the printed letter head, are aligned with the left margin. A letter in this form saves more time because indentation is not required for any part but some correspondents do not like it because it appears imbalanced and heavy on the left side. Generally, open punctuation is followed in this form as shown in Exhibit 9.13.

(iv) Semi-block Style This is like the block style except that the paragraphs of the letter are indented. Those who use it say that it is easier to read paragraphs which begin with an indented. Those who use it say that it is easier to read paragraphs which begin with an indented line because one is used to see this style in print. In this style, mixed punctuation is used (Exhibit 9.14)

BHARAT ALUMINIUM CORPORATION

303, *Jahangir Road*

Ahmedabad-380003

10 September, 2001
Your Reference: Letter No. 43-PA of 4 September
Our Reference: POC-30 U

The General Manager
Shahi Cements Company Limited
Sarangpura
Ghaziabad-201001.

Dear Sir,

I regret to inform you that out of 500 bags of cement you supplied, 25 have arrived in damaged condition. They cannot be used at all in construction work. It appears the damage was caused due to inadequate protection against rains. Our storekeeper pointed this out to the truck driver immediately after unloading and he has given a signed note, accepting this position. I am enclosing this note for your information.

I shall be grateful if you will kindly make necessary adjustments in the bill. If, however, you are making supplies to someone else in this city in the near future, you may send us the replacement.

<div align="right">

Yours faithfully,

A.N. Kamath

Purchase Officer

ANK/lg

</div>

End; 1

Exhibit 9.13

KALRA ENGINEERING WORKS

5/44, Bhagat Singh Marg, Ludhiana-141001

14 September, 2001

The Financial Manager
National Development Corporation
22 Mahatma Gandhi Road, Mumbai-400055

Dear Sir

Thank you for your letter No. TR-43/30008 of 5 September, 2001. Your cheque No. P4387 of 4 September, 2001 is for Rs 1959.00 whereas our Bill No. KLW10057 of 20 August, 2001 was for Rs 1995.00 It appears to be a copying mistake; the writer of the cheques has reversed the last two digits,

I am sorry to bother you for a small amount but you will appreciate that we have to account for the goods supplied. I, therefore, hope you will not mind sending another cheque for the correct amount, I am returning your cheque No. P4387.

Yours faithfully

B.C. Tandon

Materials Manager

BCT/lg

End: I

A P Johnson And Company

Lushai Hills, Silchar-78800

11 September, 2001

The Personnel Manager

Fit Milkfood Manufacturers Limited

Bhasker Road, New Delhi-110003.

Dear Sir,

Please refer to your letter No. P-483/7 of 6 September, 2001

SriT.N. Parulkarwas in our employment as an Assistant Accountant from 13 May, 1999 to 30 June, 2001. He resigned the post as the climate of this town did not suit him.

He was sincere, hardworking and efficient and we found him loyal in all circumstances. In fact, we were considering promoting him when he left. We, therefore, think him suitable for the post of an Accountant for which you are considering him.

Yours faithfully,

AP Johnson and Company

P.K. Tuli

Managing DirectorPKT: Ig

(v) Hanging-Indented Style This style is like the block style except that the first line of each paragraph is aligned with the left margin whereas, all other lines in each paragraph are indented four or five spaces. Its appearance is unusual and may perhaps catch attention quickly but this fact could be a disadvantage as well. It may distract the reader by focusing his attention on the form rather than the message of the letter.

Since this form involves many indentations, the typing consumes a lot more time.

Therefore, this style was never popular in the world of business. In it the mixed punctuation is used (Exhibit 6.15)

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                    Daljeet Industries Limited
                                            Bombay Road Gurdaspur-143521

12 September, 2001


The Purchase Officer
Sally Exporters Limited

20A, Feroze Shah Marg

New De!hi-110030


Dear Sir,


We hope by now you have gone through the catalogue of toys we sent you on 28
August, 2001. As you will have seen, there are a number of new toys in this year's
catalogue. These are meant not only to delight but also to instruct children by
demanding the use of a high degree of intelligence even while they play.

We specially draw your attention to the asterisked items on pages 4 and 7. These
are likely to become popular in the countries to which you have been exporting.

Kindly let us know your requirements so that we may set aside toys of your choice.
On receipt of your order we shall send them to you on last year's terms and
conditions. A copy of the statement showing these is enclosed for your ready
reference.


                                            Yours faithfully,

                                            Kulwant Singh

                                            Manager (Marketing)

KS:lg
Encl: I
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Exhibit 9.16

Use of Illustrations in Reports

Before you prepare the rough draft of your report it is advisable to consider
what illustrations you will use and the places where you will insert them in the text. The
decisions you arrive at will, of course, be tentative. When you are writing the draft, you
may discard some material which you originally planned to include or you may decide
to add something which earlier you did not think of using. In some cases, you may
have to seek the help of others in the preparation of illustrations- If you entrust this
responsibility to them at this stage, your report will not be delayed.

Purpose

Illustrations form an essential part of the text of a report, and are not used for
mere embellishment. Their aim is to clarify and supplement the verbal analysis,
description, or discussion. There are several ways in which they can help you make
your communication more effective.

(i) You can present a large number of details in less space and with greater precision.
A written description of such material may turn out to be vague and clumsy.

(ii) Often you will need to give an integrated picture of a number of items or to
compare the results arrived at through analysis of data discussed in your report.

Illustrations will aid you in doing this more efficiently.

(iii) Most people find illustrated material more lively and interesting than solid blocks of written material. Suitable illustrations catch the readers' attention quickly and transmit the message effectively.

Practical Hints

Before we discuss the types of illustrations commonly used in reports, let us consider the points that should be borne in mind while using illustrations:

(i) Refer to all illustrations in the text. It is essential to provide a context for them in order to discuss and draw conclusions from the details shown.

(ii) Place them immediately after the first citation in the text as far as possible.

(iii) Locate them in the text in such a manner that it is easy to consult.

(iv) Make sure that the design is as simple as possible; frills have no place in an illustration. Make each constituent element or factor clear and distinct so that its significance can be grasped easily.

(v) Number them consecutively. For this reason it is necessary to classify them into two categories-tables and figures. Usually the number and the title of the table are put above it and that of the figures at the bottom. Roman numerals are used for tables and Arabic numerals for figures,

(vi) Ensure that each illustration is complete in itself and deals, like a well-written paragraph, with one main idea or topic.

(vii) Give each illustration a title and write it against or below the number. Centre the title on the page and ensure that it is not longer than the width of the table or the figure. If it cannot be accommodated in one line, run it into two or three lines.

Types

Several types of illustrations are used in reports. They are usually in black and white, though colour may be used sometimes to emphasize important points. The contents of your report will determine which type of illustrations you should use. All types are not suitable for presenting a particular kind of information. Exercise your judgment and choose the one that will serve your purpose best. Some of the commonly used illustrations are described below.

Tables

A table is used for displaying original numerical data and derived statistics in a logical, orderly and compact fashion. It has a row of columns across the page; the first of these is called the *subhead* under which a number of items are listed vertically. The other columns are called *boxheads.* Usually all columns are of equal size.

The data are written in the center of the concerned column. If certain data in the table are not available, a dash is used in the column to indicate this fact. The unit of measurement, unless it is clear from the tide, is invariably mentioned on the top and any additional information, e.g. source, is given in the footnote immediately below the table.

A table with more than two columns is generally framed by lines on all the four sides. To make cross reference convenient, lines are also sometimes drawn horizontally and vertically after each item and column.

As far as possible avoid drawing a table on more than one page. But if this is unavoidable give a parenthetical note on the first page at the bottom *(continued on page* } and on the next page indicate that it is a continuation from the previous page by writing, for example, *Table IV-(continued}.*

Graphs

Graphs present pictorially the same kind of data that appear in tables. They are, however, more effective in indicating distribution, trends and comparisons of two or more quantities. The reader can at a glance grasp information which would otherwise require a detailed study of a mass of numerical data.

The types of graphs most commonly used are rectilinear graphs, semi-log graphs, bar graphs, pie graphs, pictorial graphs and scatter graphs.

Rectilinear Graphs Rectilinear graphs are used for showing the trend of progress over a given period of time. They are particularly useful when continuous change with time is being stressed. The convention is to plot the independent variable horizontally and the dependent variable vertically, The reason for it is that we are primarily interested in the values of the dependent variable and it is but natural that the magnitude be expressed by height.

Semi-log Graphs A semi-log graph has a linear scale on one axis and a logarithmic scale on the other. It is generally used when the range of one variable as compared to another is very large.

Bar Graphs   A bar graph is the most easily adaptable form of a graph. It contains parallel bars drawn vertically or horizontally. It is generally used to indicate the different periods or the quantities of different items during the same period or to present a comparative value of two or more variables. The bars are arranged chronologically or according to their length.

Pie Graphs A pie graph (also called percentage or circle graph) is a hundred per cent graph. It owes its name to the resemblance it bears to the well-known pastry. Since a circle has 360 degrees, 1 per cent works out to 3.6 degrees. Thus, a central angle of 72 degrees will show 20 per cent of the total quantity.

In a pie graph the data are displayed in terms of percentage. Each slice is made distinct with the use of different shades or designs. For comparing values, the pie graph is not very effective because it is difficult for the human eye to grasp quickly the area covered by each slice in the graph. Similarly, when there are more than five items to display and compare, the use of this type of graph is not advisable.

Pictorial Graphs A pictorial graph contains symbols each of which represents a single unit. The symbols have some resemblance to the objects they denote. For example, a symbol showing a stack of coins may serve to represent a sum of money or a symbol showing a tree may indicate a certain number of trees.

Scatter Graphs On this graph dots or other marks are plotted to display the agreement of two variables, one on each axis. If no clustering takes place, it will be an indication of the absence of a proper correlation between the variables.

Charts A chart depict the organization of something by representing its sub-divisions or the sequence of steps in a process. There are three main types of charts—organization charts, flow charts and block charts.

Organization Charts these charts show the chain of command in an organization. Figure 6.1 shows the organization of a corporation. You will observe that the chain command moves vertically from top to bottom and post departments of equal rank or status are aligned horizontally.
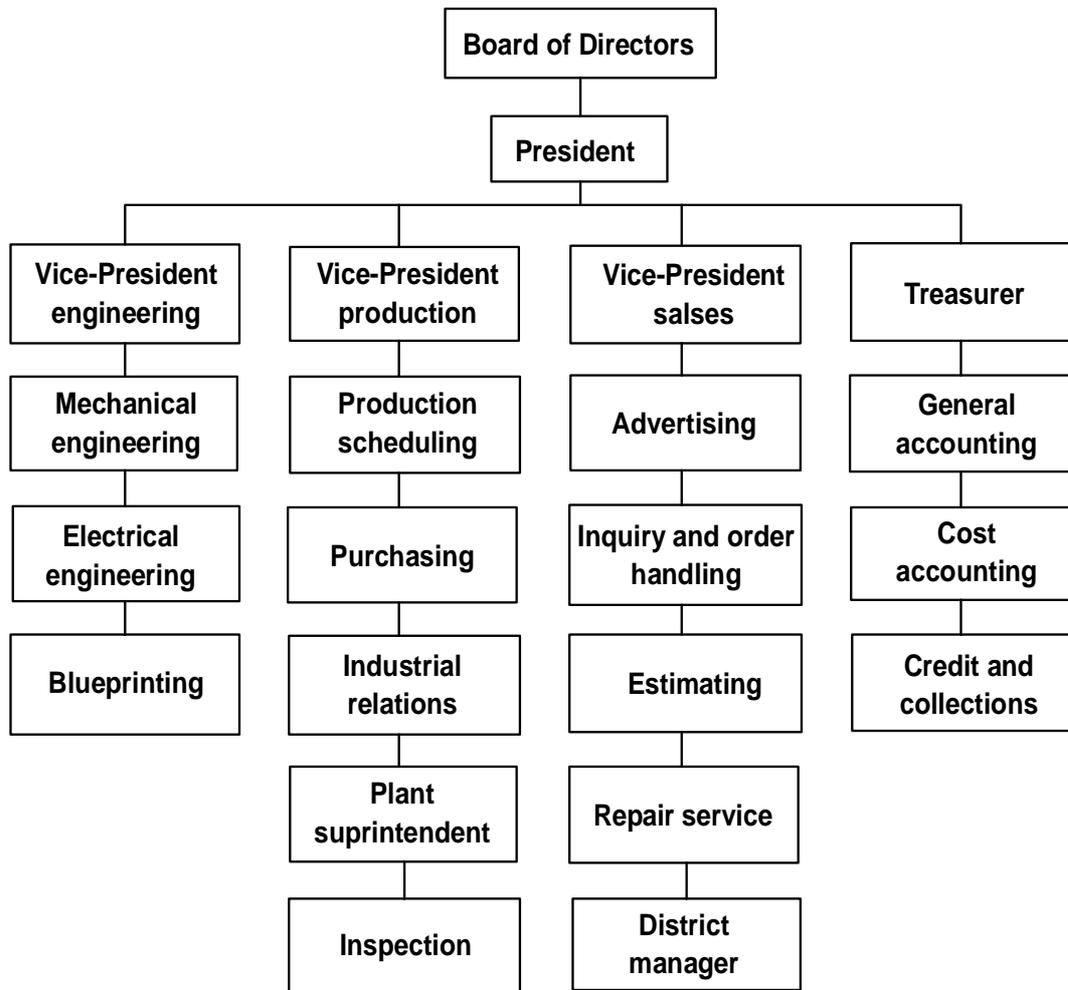
Fig. 9.1 Organization chart of a corporation

Flow Charts A flow chart is generally used to indicate various steps in a process or a sequence of operations. The symbols are put into blocks which are connected by straight lines or arrows.

Block Charts As the name indicates, these charts use blocks to indicate the major elements/components or major groups of elements/components of a complex structure, generally of a technical nature. The mechanical or electrical connections are denoted by lines and their logical relationships indicated by arrows. Though they are designed to inform the technical man of fundamental arrangements of the complex, the general plan is intelligible even to the layman.

Maps

Maps are used to show geographical distribution of data. To focus attention on the main facts, extraneous details are omitted. For example, if cities are the only important feature all other details such as rivers, roads, mountains, etc. will not be plotted. Lines, dots or shaded areas are generally used for plotting the data.

Photographs

Photographs are of limited use in reports in as much as they cannot be used to emphasize any important detail. Reproduction costs are high and so they are used only when the actual appearance of something has to be shown. For reproduction it is essential that the photograph is sharp, and free from any glare effects or shadows. It should be large enough for retouching and eliminating any unwanted detail. This can best be done on the negative.

Drawings

Drawings are mainly composed of lines but may include shaded, solid or cross-hatched areas. They are used to represent objects as they appear to us.

A drawing may also be used to indicate the exploded, the sectional and the

cutaway views of an object. The exploded view shows the assembly as if it has blown up; however all its parts are properly aligned. The purpose of the sectional view is to show the interior of an assembly. The cutaway view shows both the interior and exterior of an assembly.

9.13 CONCLUSION

Written communication must not only be clear, concise and cordial but also logical and well structured so that the communicated can understand it easily. In addition the style of communication should be as lucid as possible.

9.13 Check your Progress

1)   Mention 4 types of paragraph alignments.

…………………………………………………………………………..……………

…………………………………………………………………………….……………

2)   Define Report.

…………………………………………………………………………….……………

…………………………………………………………………………….……………

3)   What is Italics?

…………………………………………………………………………….……………

…………………………………………………………………………….……………

4)   Define continuation sheets.

…………………………………………………………………………….……………

…………………………………………………………………………….……………

5)   Define Block style

…………………………………………………………………………….……………

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9.14 SUMMARY

This chapter deals with the essentials of written communication. It also makes us understand the various aspects of written communication.

9.15 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS- ANSWERS

1)   4 types of paragraph alignment are.

a) Left aligned a) Center aligned a) Right aligned a) Justified.

2)   A report is an orderly & objective presentation of information that assists in decision making and problem solving

3)   The italics version of a normal roman upright typeface has characters designed specifically to slant to the right.

4)   Continuation Sheet is basically continuation of a letter heads where the business communication spills into the next page.

5)   Block style is style in which the date line, the complimentary close and the signature are cosigned with the right margin: all other parts except the letter head are set flush left.

9.16 QUESTIONS FOR SELF - STUDY

1) Define Indented style.

2) Define semi-block style.

3) Define Hanging-indented style.

4) Define Graphs.

5) Define Block charts.

9.17 SUGGESTED READINGS

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Rao & Dr. Das, *Himalaya Publishing House*

- *Communication Skills* Dr. Urmila Rai & S.M. Rai, *Himalaya Publishing House*

- *Communication Skills for Effective Management* Dr. Anjali Ghanekar, *Everest Publishing House, New Delhi*

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