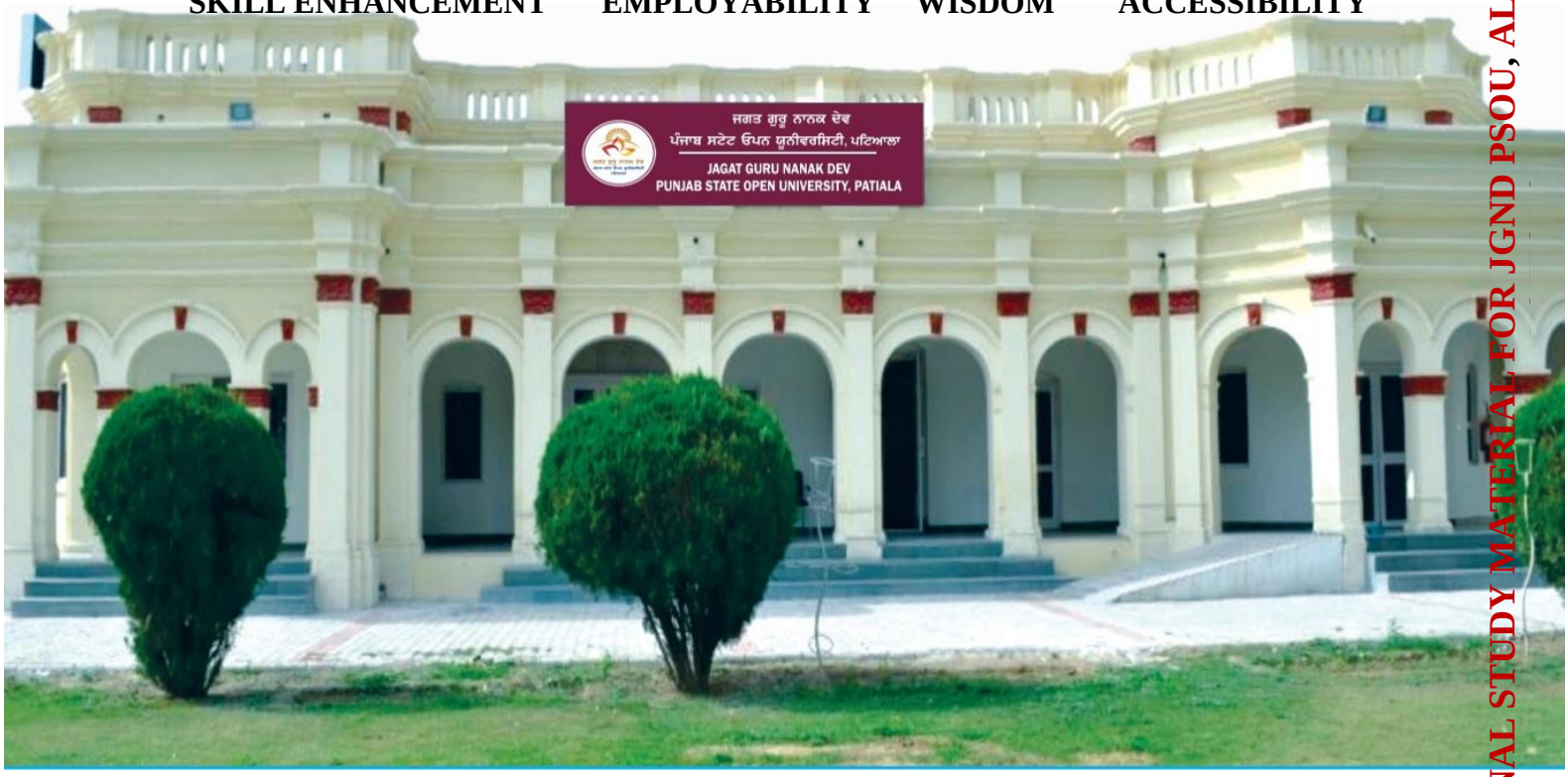
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(Established by Act No.19 of 2019 of Legislature of the State of Punjab)

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JAGAT GURU NANAK DEV

PUNJAB STATE OPEN UNIVERSITY PATIALA

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PREFACE

Jagat Guru Nanak Dev Punjab State Open University, Patiala was established in December 2019 by Act 19 of the Legislature of State of Punjab. It is the first and only Open Universit of the State, entrusted with the responsibility of making higher education accessible to all especially to those sections of society who do not have the means, time or opportunity to pursue regular education.

In keeping with the nature of an Open University, this University provides a flexible education system to suit every need. The time given to complete a programme is double the duration of a regular mode programme. Well-designed study material has been prepared in consultation with experts in their respective fields.

The University offers programmes which have been designed to provide relevant, skill-based and employability-enhancing education. The study material provided in this booklet is self-instructional, with self-assessment exercises, and recommendations for further readings. The syllabus has been divided in sections, and provided as units for simplification.

The Learner Support Centres/Study Centres are located in the Government and Government aided colleges of Punjab, to enable students to make use of reading facilities, and for curriculum-based counseling and practicals. We, at the University, welcome you to be a part of this institution of knowledge.

Dean Academic Affairs

CONTENT

Unit 1 - Communication 5

Unit 2 - Listening Skills and Activitiess 45

Unit 3 - Speaking Skill.....101

Unit 4- Stress Management.....147

Unit 5 - Oral Activities 170

Unit 6- Interview Skills.....192

UNIT 1 - COMMUNICATION

STRUCTURE

1.0 Learning Objectives
1.1 Introduction
1.2 Verbal and non-verbal communication
1.3 body language
1.4 communication processes
1.5 communication styles
1.6 barriers to effective communication,
1.7 Formal communication and its aspects.
1.8 Summary
1.9 Keywords
1.10 Learning Activity
1.11 Unit End Questions
1.12 References

1.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the nature of communication
- Identify the scope of communication
- State the need and importance of communication styles
- List the functions of communication in every sphere of life

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Communication (from Latin: communicare, meaning "to share" or "to be in relation with") A painful separation between oneself and others, the private and public spheres, and one's inner thoughts and the outside world is addressed by As this definition demonstrates, it is challenging to define communication consistently because, in everyday usage, the term refers to a very broad spectrum of various behaviors involved in the dissemination of information. According to John Peters, the challenge in defining communication arises from the fact that it is both a universal phenomenon (because everyone communicates) and a distinct academic profession with institutionalized research. Limiting what can be included in the category of communication is one definitional method (for example, requiring a "conscious intent" to persuade According to this reasoning, one definition of communication may be the process by which entities or groups establish meaning through the use of signs, symbols, and semiotic conventions that are sufficiently mutually understood.

The influential] concept by Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver proposed that human communication operated similarly to a telephone or telegraph.

As a result, they thought of communication as consisting of distinct steps: The development of communicative drive or logic. Message structure (further internal or technical elaboration on what exactly to express).

Encoding of messages (for example, into digital data, written text, speech, pictures, gestures and so on). The process of sending the encoded message as a series of signals across a chosen medium or channel. The quality of signals as they travel from the transmitter to one or more receivers starts to be influenced by noise sources, including natural forces and occasionally human activity (both intentional and inadvertent). Receiving signals and piecing together the encoded message from a series of signals received Reassembling the encoded message and decoding it.

Making sense of the supposedly original message through interpretation. Rather than being steps in a sequence, these components are now understood to be extensively overlapping and recursive actions.

In the case of plastics, for instance, communication acts can begin before a communicator consciously attempts to do so. In addition, communicators can adjust their intentions and message formulations in reaction to real-time input (e.g., a change in facial expression).

Receivers of any message operationalize their own frames of reference in interpretation, and practices of decoding and interpretation are culturally enacted, not simply by individuals (genre traditions, for example, cause anticipatory expectations for how a message will be perceived).

Information theory, which studies the quantification, storage, and communication of information generally; communication studies, which examines human communication; and biosemiotics, which studies communication in and between living organisms generally, can be used to categories the scientific study of communication.

A prime example of sign-mediated interactions in and between creatures from all spheres of life, including viruses, is miscommunication.

Visual (via pictures and written language), auditory, tactile/hap tic (using Braille or other physical means), olfactory, electromagnetic, and biochemical methods can all be used to communicate (or any combination thereof). Communication between people uses a lot of abstract language, which makes it special.

Communicating using body language

Language used in nonverbal exchanges

Nonverbal communication describes the procedures used to transmit a certain kind of information using non-linguistic representations. Hap tic communication, chromatic communication, gestures, body language, facial expressions, eye contact, and other nonverbal cues are examples of nonverbal communication. The intent of a message is also related to nonverbal communication. Movements that is deliberate, intentional, like shaking hands or winking, as well as those that are involuntary, like sweating, are examples of intent.

Paralinguistic components including rhythm, intonation, speed, and stress are also found in speech. It builds trust and has a subconscious impact on communication. Similar to spoken language, written texts also contain nonverbal components including handwriting style, word placement, and the usage of emoticons to express emotion

One of Paul Watzlawick's laws—that you cannot not communicate—is illustrated by nonverbal communication. Living things start analyzing signals once they have developed awareness due to closeness. Humans use nonverbal communication for a variety of

purposes, including supporting and emphasizing, emphasizing and replacing, replacing and substituting, governing and regulating, and contradicting the denotative message.

The expression of communication and the interpretation of other people's communication significantly rely on nonverbal clues, which can either replace or supplement verbal messages.

Nonverbal communication is crucial for communication for a number of reasons, including:

"Non-verbal communication is omnipresent."

They are a part of each and every communication act. All non-verbal channels, such as the body, face, voice, appearance, touch, distance, timing, and other environmental factors, must be used during face-to-face engagement in order to have complete communication. Nonverbal characteristics can also be present in written communication. To translate non-verbal indications into a verbal medium, non-verbal cues can be translated into different text font colors, stationery, emoticons, capitalization, and photos in e-mails, web chats, and social media. Nonverbal behaviors serve a variety of purposes. Simultaneous communications can be sent and received when numerous non-verbal channels are active at the same moment during communication activities.

A universal language system may be formed by nonverbal behaviors.

People of all nationalities employ and understand non-verbal behaviors like smiling, sobbing, pointing, stroking, and glaring. When language limitations prevent efficient verbal communication, these nonverbal cues enable the most fundamental form of communication. When nonverbal and verbal cues conflict, it is important to observe nonverbal behavior rather than relying solely on the verbal communication to determine the other person's attitudes and sentiments. Talking out loud

Verbal communication is the delivery of a message orally or in writing. A system of symbols (sometimes referred to as lexemes) and the grammars (rules) by which the symbols are used make up human language. Language also refers to the characteristics that all languages share. The most rigorous language learning often takes place in early infancy.

The majority of the numerous human languages make use of sound or gesture patterns as symbols to allow for communication with those around them. Although there are some exceptions, languages frequently share basic characteristics. Esperanto, computer languages, and numerous mathematical formalisms are examples of constructed languages that are not necessarily constrained to the characteristics of human languages. As was already mentioned, language is a symbolic medium. The Triangle of Meaning model, created by Charles Ogden and I.A. Richards, explains the relationship between a word's symbol and referent as well as its meaning (the thought associated with the word and the thing). The prototypical phonology (the sounds that typically appear in a language), morphology (what counts as a word), syntax (word order), semantics (the conventional meaning of words), and pragmatics (the use of language) of that language place functional restrictions on the varied efforts of communicators to produce and interpret meaning in that language (which meanings are conventional to which contexts)

Words can have literal meanings, or what is known as denotative meanings, which relate to the subject being discussed, or connotative meanings, which take context and relationships

into consideration and relate to the emotions, past, and power dynamics of the communicators. Contrary to common opinion, sign vocabulary, syntax, and other linguistic elements in signed languages around the world—like American Sign Language—are taken into account when determining whether a communication is verbal or not. But there are nonverbal components to signed languages as well, such as the pace, intensity, and size of the signs. If a signer wants to convey a distinct nonverbal meaning, they may choose to sign "yes" in a sardonic or large-slow manner. The verbal communication is the yes sign, and the nonverbal meaning is added by the additional movements. Written communication's growth over time through the ongoing advancement of technology, communication methods and concepts have changed over time. Advances in the newly growing subject of research of media psychology and communications psychology

Three "information communication revolutions" can be used to describe the development of written communication:

Pictographs were originally used to create written communication. Written communication was not yet movable since pictograms were still constructed of stone. Pictograms started to take on more conventional and straightforward forms.

The next development was the appearance of writing on medium like paper, papyrus, clay, wax, and other types of media with widely used writing systems. Mobile communication emerged. Information is transferred using regulated electromagnetic radiation waves (such as radio, microwave, and infrared) and other electronic signals during the final stage. Thus, the process of assigning and communicating meaning in an effort to establish a common understanding is known as communication. It was referred to by Gregory Bateson as "the universe's repetition of tautologies." Collaboration and cooperation are made possible by this process, which calls for a wide range of interpersonal processing abilities, including listening, observing, speaking, questioning, analyzing, and judging gestures an influential communications theorist was Harold Lass well. Prior to that, he was a political science student at the University of Chicago under the mentorship of Charles Merriam Professor, where he studied public policy and propaganda. He earned his PH.D. In 1926 after graduating from the University of Chicago in 1922. His graduation work was conducted at universities in London, Paris, Berlin, and Geneva. He made the claim that the audience did not fully comprehend communications and did not make the best political decisions during his graduate studies. His doctoral dissertation, "Propaganda Technique in the World War," from 1927, which has since been included into communication theory, examined propaganda.

From 1946 to 1970, he taught law and political science at Yale. From 1922 to 1938, he was a professor at the University of Chicago. He created the Las well model of communication while attending Yale. He is regarded as one of the key pioneers of communication theories, and during the course of his academic career, he wrote between 4 million and 6 million words.

He contributed to the recognition and legitimacy of communications as a field of study. The Lass well Model of Communication, created by Harold Lass well, has come to represent a broad category of various models of communication due to its simplicity and capacity to

support a wide range of theoretical interpretations. It appeared in the 1948 article "The Structure and Function of Communication in Society." In the 1930s, radio had a significant role in the mass media, according to Lass well. After the Second World War, it gained enormous popularity. The Lass well model is divided into five sections, known as the "five W's," which concentrate on the "who," "what," "whom," "which Channel," and "what effect." Lass well points out that there are three purposes for communication, including environmental monitoring, social component correlation, and generational cultural transmission.

Who, Newspapers, internet, radio stations, and television stations are all forms of communication. Reporters, editors, and others who work for these regulated institutions generated this communication.

Says what is a term for evaluating and recognizing the provided stuff.

Whom, what, and how this information is conveyed to the audience, which Channel eludes to the media and the analysis that will be done on it. Interactivity in the Media what effect refers to the outcome of using given information.

Regarding the Lass well Model, benefits as well as some criticisms are presented. Some benefits include the notion's simplicity and suitability for most communication styles, as well as the fact that it is the primary concept of effect.

While it was very important at the time, some academics think that the Lass well model of communication is no longer relevant. The concepts of noise and feedback are not discussed in the Lass well model, according to the criticisms that have been leveled at it. Other theories, particularly the Shannon and Weaver model, began to emerge at that point to make up for the Lass wells technique not includes these elements. The Lass well model was criticized for being linear, contradicting other examples of communication that show it to be more of a back and forth process. Additionally, power's role in communication is not mentioned. Particular emphasis was placed on power in Stuart Hall's methods and thoughts. With the idea of media power, which has power, and what message they are sending out in mind, Hall began to modify the Lass well technique. Hall looks at how we perceive institutions and the media, as well as how they enforce particular meanings to further their goals.

Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver proposed the first significant communication model for Bell Laboratories in 1949 The initial model was intended to mimic how radio and telephone technology operate. Sender, channel, and receiver were the three fundamental components of their early model. The section of a phone that a person talked into was known as the sender, the channel was the actual phone, and the receiver was the area where the other person could be heard. Shannon and Weaver also noted that noise, which they classified as static, frequently prevents people from hearing telephone conversations.

A message in natural language, for example, is transmitted in some way (as spoken language) from an emitter (shown as the emissary in the image)/sender/encoder to a destination/receiver/decoder in a straightforward model that is frequently referred to as the transmission model or standard view of communication. This widespread idea of

communication merely sees it as a way to exchange and receive information. The simplicity, universality, and quantifiability of this paradigm are its benefits. This model was built by Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver using the following components:

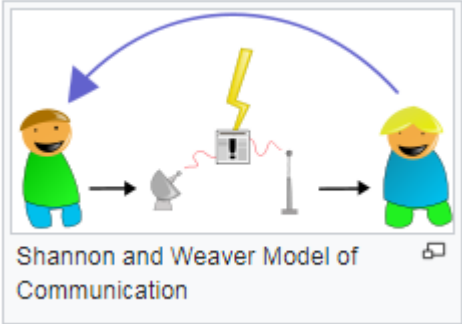


Fig 1.1 communication

1. A Source Of Information That Generates Messages
2. A Signal-Encoding Transmitter That Converts Messages Into Signals.
3. A Transmission Channel for Which Signals Are Tailored.
4. A Source of Noise That Tampers With the Signal As It Travels Across the Channel.
5. A Receiver That "Decodes" (Reconstructs) The Signal To Recover The Message.
6. A Place where the message is delivered.

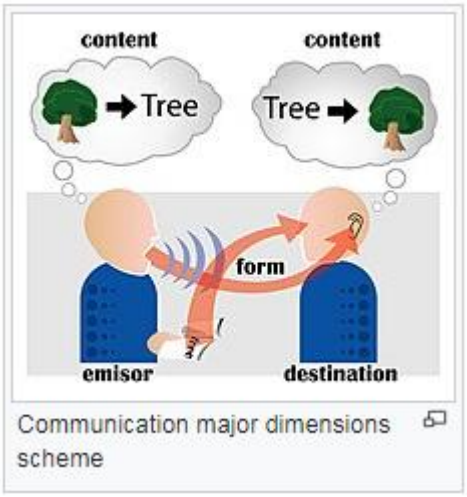


Fig 1.2 Communication major dimension scheme

According to Shannon and Weaver, this hypothesis has three different types of communication issues.

How correctly can the message be transmitted? is the technological issue.

How precisely is the meaning communicated? That is the semantic challenge.

How successfully does the received meaning influence behavior? This is the effectiveness issue.

According to Daniel Chandler [36], the transmission model is flawed because

It presupposes that communicators are solitary beings.

There is no room for different purposes.
There is no room for varying interpretations.
No room for power imbalances.
No consideration of contextual factors

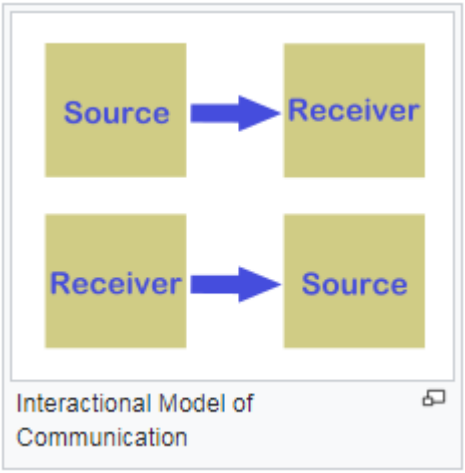


Fig 1.3 Interaction model of communication

The SMCR Model of Communication was developed in 1960 by David Barlow as an extension of Shannon and Weaver's (1949) linear model of communication. [37] Other researchers have built on the Sender-Message-Channel-Receiver Paradigm of communication, which clearly divided the model into its component pieces.

Message (what types of items are transmitted), source/emissary/sender/encoder (from whom), form (in what form), channel (via what medium), and destination/receiver/target/decoder are the traditional major dimensions along which communication is represented (to whom). According to Wilbur Scrams (1954), we should also consider the effect that a message has on its intended and unintended audience. [38] Acts of imparting information and experiences, giving counsel and orders, and posing queries are all examples of communication between parties. These actions could be done in a variety of ways using one of the many communication methods. The format depends on the group's communication skills. Communication form and content come together to create messages that are transmitted in a direction. One's self, another person or creature, or another thing can be the target (such as a corporation or group of beings).

Three levels of semiotic rules can be used to describe the processes of information transmission that constitute communication:

Pragmatic (interested in the connections between signs and expressions and the people who use them). Semantic (study of relationships between signs and symbols and what they represent). Syntactic (formal properties of signs and symbols).



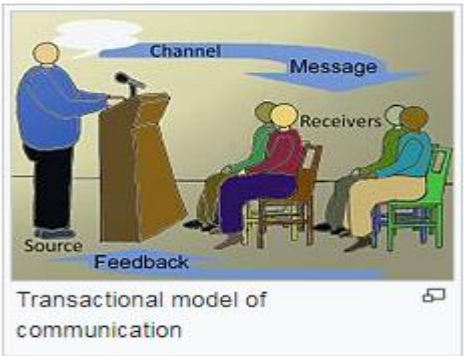


Fig 1.4 Transaction model of communication

As a result, communication is social interaction in which at least two interacting agents use the same set of signals and semiotic principles. This widely accepted norm inadvertently disregarded auto communication, including intrapersonal communication through journals or self-talk, both of which were secondary phenomena that emerged after the initial development of communicative skills in social encounters.

Berglund (2008) developed a transactional model of communication in response to these flaws.

The fundamental tenet of the transactional model of communication is that persons are actively sending and receiving messages at the same time.

The relationship between a sender and a receiver is reciprocal in a somewhat more complicated form. This second communication attitude, also known as the constitutive model or constructionist view, emphasizes that the manner a person communicates will determine how the message will be understood. A conduit is thought of as a path via which information passes from one person to another and separates from the communication itself. Speech acts refer to specific communication events. Depending on differing geographical customs, cultures, or gender, the sender's and the recipient's personal filters may differ, which could change the message's intended meaning.

The receiving and decoding of content may be erroneous in the presence of "communication noise" on the transmission channel (in this case, the air), which may prevent the speech act from having the desired impact. The procedures of encoding and decoding presuppose that the transmitter and receiver each have something that serves as a codebook, and that these two code books are, at the very least, similar if not the same. This is one issue with the encode-transmit-receive-decode model. Despite the model's suggested use of anything akin to code books, it makes no mention of them, which leads to numerous conceptual issues.

Co regulation theories view communication as a creative, dynamic, ongoing process rather

than a discrete information exchange. Harold Ennis, a Canadian media expert, proposed the idea that as individuals communicate through a variety of media, their choice of medium will influence how society develops and lasts. Page not found His most well-known illustration of this uses ancient Egypt and examines how they constructed themselves out of materials with extremely diverse qualities, such as papyrus and stone. He referred to papyrus as "space binding." It enabled the conduct of far-off military operations and the management of colonies by enabling the transmission of written orders across space and empires. The other is stone and "Time Binding," which allows them to maintain their power from generation to generation by building temples and pyramids. They can also alter and reshape communication in their culture through this medium.



Communication studies are the academic field that examines human communication processes. The field of study covers a wide range of issues, including interpersonal communication and mass media channels like television broadcasting. Additionally, communication studies looks at how messages are understood in relation to the political, cultural, economic, semiotic, hermeneutic, and social settings in which they are used. In order to support assertions, statistics, a quantitative approach to communication science, has also been introduced into communication science study.

Corporate communication

Communication in business, principal

Strategic communications planning, media relations, internal communications, public relations (which can include social media, broadcast and written communications, and more), brand management, reputation management, speech writing, client-customer relations, and internal/employee communications are just a few of the many activities that use business communication.

Few of these activities may be chosen by businesses with limited resources, while a full range of communications may be used by larger firms. Communications professionals frequently specialize in one or two of these areas due to the difficulty of developing such a broad variety of skills, but they typically have at least a working understanding of most of them. The ability to think critically and strategically, a strong writing ability, and outstanding "people" skills are by far the most crucial abilities that communications professionals must possess.

The manner of communicating within a certain corporate body may also be referred to as "business communication" (i.e. email conversation styles or internal communication styles).

The traditional strategy:

Frederick Taylor, who also founded scientific management theory, is credited with developing the classical approach to management.

The fundamental tenet of the traditional organizational communication method is that it views organizations as machines. According to the hypothesis, employees complete the

tasks assigned to them in order to contribute to the organization's general wellbeing. Similar to how each component of a machine performs its role while collaborating with other components to create a well-managed, functional machine, each member of the group serves a certain purpose. Additionally, similar to a machine that breaks down when one component stops working. When members of an organization fail to properly perform their assigned tasks, the organization will collapse.

Approaching human relationships:

The human relations method is based on the theories of a number of different theorists, including Argyrols, Abraham Maslow, Mary Parker Follett, and Elton Mayo.

The human relation approach to organizational communication's central thesis is that families and organizations are similar in many ways.

Given that this idea likens a company to a family, it places more emphasis on employee pleasure and relationships inside the workplace than it does on work performance. In order to achieve organizational performance, the human relations approach encourages management teams to concentrate on interpersonal interactions, group dynamics, and leadership philosophies. It places a strong emphasis on the value of employee attitudes.

Communication in politics

One of the most important weapons in political strategies, including propaganda and persuasion, is communication. The strategist's work in mass media research and online media research is to obtain a precise decoding while preventing "message reactance," or message rejection. The following are examples of how an approach to a message might influence how people respond to it:

The audience rejects the meanings, values, and points of view that the text's authors included when they engage in "radical reading." Refusal of the message

The audience adopts the meanings, values, and points of view that the text's authors incorporated into it in "dominant reading." acceptance of the message.

In "subordinate reading," the audience mostly adopts the interpretations, values, and worldview that the text's authors incorporated. Effect: Follow the instructions

Leaders of communication campaigns and communication strategists employ holistic approaches to examine all the possibilities, "actors," and channels that have the potential to alter the semiotic landscape—that is, to alter perceptions, credibility, and the "mimetic background," the perception of movements, candidates, players, and managers by key influencers who can play a part in creating the desired "end-state."

The framework and methods of "information operations" theories, which draw their inspiration from strategic and military studies, have a significant impact on the field of political communication in the current period. This point of view contends that the idea of acting on the information environment is what is truly important. The collection of people, groups, and systems that gather, process, distribute, or act on information is known as the information environment. Three interconnected dimensions make up this environment, which is always interacting with people, groups, and systems. These are referred to as the physical, informational, and cognitive dimensions.

Relational interaction

Interpersonal communication, the main point

Interpersonal communication is simply the exchange of information between people (or others). Face-to-face contact between two (or more) persons is another name for it. Body language and verbal communication both contribute to how one understands another and are indicators of one's own soft skills. A content message and a relational message are the two sorts of communications sent during verbal interpersonal communication. Relational messages are those that are about the connection itself, whereas content messages are those that are about the topic at hand. This means that relational signals are conveyed through speech and reveal a person's feelings—whether favorable or unfavorable—about the person they are speaking to. They show how they feel about both the subject at hand and their relationship with the other person.

Interpersonal communication has a wide range of components, including:

Communication issues as perceived through audiovisual media.

The idea is founded on the notion that depending on how stressful or urgent a situation is, our words will alter in form. The idea that stuttering when speaking signals to the listener that a problem exists or that the environment is more stressful is also explored.

The Theory of Attachment This is a joint effort by Mary Ainsworth and John Bowl by (Ainsworth & Bowl by, 1991) this idea examines how a mother and child's bond develops and how that affects how they interact with others.

Triggers and emotional intelligence.

The ability to control one's own emotions as well as those of others is at the centre of emotional intelligence. Emotional Triggers concentrate on things or persons that frequently cause strong emotional reactions in people.

Assign ability Theory. This research examines people's theories regarding the origins of certain occurrences and behaviors

The Influence of Words (Verbal communications).

Verbal communication places a strong emphasis on the impact of words and how they are conveyed. It accounts for word choice, volume, and tonality

Nonverbal Expression. It places a lot of emphasis on the context in which the words are spoken as well as their physical delivery.

Personal Relationship Ethics.

It concerns a place of shared accountability between two people; it concerns giving and receiving in a partnership. In her piece What IS Relationship?, Dawn J. Lipthrott examines this theory. What is an ethical alliance?

Fraudulent Communication This idea explores the idea that everyone lies and how this can affect interpersonal interactions. In his article Interpersonal Deception Topic: Ten Lessons for Negotiators, James Hearn examines this theory.

Couples Conflict. This focuses on how social media affects relationships and how to communicate when there is dispute. Couples, the Internet, and Social Media by Amanda Len hart and Maeve Duggan examine this theory.

Family interaction

Family communication is the study of communication from a broad perspective in a close-

knit, trustworthy family.

Understanding family interactions and behavior patterns among family members in various situations is the major purpose of family communication. Family members can express their differences as well as their love and appreciation for one another in a setting where communication is open and honest. Understanding one another's feelings is also beneficial.

Family communication research examines issues like family norms, family roles, or family dialectics and how those aspects may impact family members' ability to communicate with one another. To better understand communication habits, researchers construct hypotheses. The study of family communication also delves deeply into particular stages of family life, such as union, parenthood, or divorce, and how communication functions in specific circumstances. It's critical that family members recognize communication as a reliable method that builds strong families.

1.2 VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Verbal Interaction

Verbal communication is undoubtedly a great tool in your communication toolkit because it is arguably the most obvious and known kind of communication. Simply put, verbal communication is the exchange of information between two people using spoken language.

Written vs. Spoken Communication

When discussing verbal communication, we frequently refer to speech, but it's crucial to keep in mind that writing is also a type of verbal communication. After all, words are used when writing!

Consider yourself a college student who is having trouble understanding the topic in a class for a moment. Instead of just giving up, you make the decision to approach your instructor for the advice you require finishing the semester. You now have a few options on how to accomplish this through spoken communication. If your instructor has given you their phone number or other contact information, you can call them or meet with them in person after class or during office hours. You can want to approach them differently and write them an email. You can certainly compile a list of advantages and disadvantages for each of these strategies. But really, what's the difference in these circumstances between talking and writing? Let's examine four of the most significant variations between the two:

Formal vs. Informal Communication: Typically, verbal communication is informal, while written communication is formal.

A chat with a buddy is an example of synchronous communication, as opposed to asynchronous communication, which takes place at a later time. Asynchronous communication, on the other hand, refers to communication that doesn't happen right once and takes place over time, like letters, emails, or even text messages.

Speaking communication is typically not recorded, whereas written communication is typically saved and recorded for later retrieval.

Advantages of Verbal Communication

Speeches, meetings, and conversations are all examples of spoken communication. Speaking

provides for input from all facets of the social communication paradigm, which makes spoken communication powerful. Your audience is expected to interpret and comprehend your thoughts once you have stated them. For direct confirmation that your message has been understood, you can ask for feedback.

Speak-to-talk communication is a breath of fresh air in a world where we communicate primarily via email and text. Use the power of verbal communication to develop connections with others. By speaking with your audience, you can build rapport and trust. Speaking to others allows you to connect with them on an emotional level.

By addressing concerns and clearing up misunderstandings, spoken communication also makes it simpler to ensure understanding because you can modify your message as you go along based on the responses you're receiving from your audience. With spoken communication, you can leave a conversation knowing more or less with assurance that your message was understood.

Verbal communication is an effective tool, and when combined with listening and nonverbal communication, it becomes even more effective.

Nonverbal Expression

With the active listening techniques we've previously discussed, we've already used several nonverbal communication techniques. Nodding, making facial expressions, and leaning inward to demonstrate interest are all examples of nonverbal communication. Your spoken message might be supported by your body language or completely undermined by it.

It's a common misconception that just 35% of what you say when you speak is verbal and 65% of it is nonverbal. That's not totally accurate as a lot depends on the circumstances. However, it is unquestionably true that nonverbal cues can make or break your message.

The following are some examples of nonverbal communication and the impact it may have on how well you communicate:

Facial expressions: Although your teenage cousin, whom we mentioned at the beginning of this section, may have appeared to be pleased, his disinterested expression may have said something else.

You can convey your message more effectively by using facial expressions, such as happiness, sadness, and anger. Be mindful of your facial expression while you speak, especially when you're listening because that's when it's easiest to overlook it.

When you speak, a gesture might strengthen your message. One instance of nonverbal communication that effectively conveys your message is pointing out a particular detail that you want your listener to pay closer attention to. Making a fist to express annoyance or fury, or making a loving gesture toward a coworker who deserves particular appreciation, both of these actions help you engage your audience more when you speak.

A nonverbal communication is sent by your proximity to your audience when you talk. It's likely that your nonverbal communication will come across as a little menacing if you are large and leave very little space between yourself and the person you are speaking to. On the other side, giving someone excessive space is a clumsy nonverbal cue that could leave your listener perplexed.

Touch is a nonverbal cue that might influence the effectiveness of your message. For

example, shaking an audience member's hand or placing your hand on his shoulder. Although touch conveys tenderness, it also conveys strength. After a job interview, you can consider the messages a job applicant might convey with a shaky versus a solid handshake.

Maintaining eye contact with a listener or audience while speaking or listening shows the other person that you are attentive and involved in what they are saying. Making eye contact might help you communicate your honesty to the other person.

Clothing, jewelers, and hairstyles all contribute to nonverbal communication. It speaks something about you as a person if you wear a dachshund pin on your lapel every morning because you have one as a pet. Similar to this, your clothing's caliber and condition, fit, and suitability for the occasion all convey information about your communication style without using words.

Verbal and Nonverbal Communication: Differences

Societal advancement

Interacting and exchanging ideas with other individuals is the act of communication. Verbal and nonverbal communication is the two main types.

In verbal communication, people use spoken or written words to convey their thoughts, ideas, and feelings. Other means of nonverbal communication include body language, which includes gestures, facial emotions, and more. In order to better grasp each of these communication methods, we will discuss them.

Verbal Communication: What Is It?

During talks, presentations, and casual conversations, people express themselves in a variety of ways through verbal communication. The effectiveness of this communication method can vary. Your voice loudness, tone of voice, speech clarity, and the quality of the words you employ will all be factors. The response you get will probably give you a good indication of how effective your communication is.

By taking into account your target audience and how you may modify your message to make it more understandable to them; you can increase the efficacy of your communication. When communicating verbally, you have a lot of flexibility to change your message if you feel it is ineffective.

To do this, you must first confirm that your intended message has been conveyed. The people you are trying to speak with can interpret your words or the meaning behind them incorrectly.

Effective communication depends on both the speaker and the audience. Although you have no influence over the audience, you may make an effort to make your message as clear as you can. You must take into account nonverbal cues when doing this.

Nonverbal Expression

Nonverbal communication is a form of verbal communication. While spoken words can be emphasized by nonverbal cues, vice versa is also possible.

Tone of voice, body language, and eye contact are the three key nonverbal cues that influence how others will interpret your message.

Tone of Voice: Your voice's loudness, pitch, and tempo convey your emotions. It can make it easier for others to tell if you're happy, confident, angry, etc.

Body Language: Of all nonverbal communication, body language is arguably the most understandable. It might reveal a lot about your feelings to someone. When you face the speaker with your arms at your sides, you will appear more engaged in what they have to say. If someone sees that you are speaking to them with your arms folded, they will likely assume that you are not very receptive to what they have to say.

Make eye contact with the speaker to show attention in what they have to say. Additionally, it might assist you in understanding the speaker and maintaining conversational interest.

Do you understand the examples of verbal and nonverbal communication given here?

Achieve Better Nonverbal Communication

In order to effectively convey your message, nonverbal communication skills are essential. People frequently base their interpretation of messages primarily on nonverbal cues. You must therefore priorities developing your nonverbal communication abilities.

Conclusion

In every element of life, effective communication is essential. Understanding the distinctions between verbal and nonverbal communication is necessary for developing your communication abilities. Effective communication can be achieved by simply understanding indicators like keeping eye contact and displaying interest in what the speaker is saying through your body language.

Communication that is nonverbal

A nonverbal medium, such as eye contact, facial expressions, gestures, posture, and body language, is used to convey messages or signals in nonverbal communication (NVC). It makes use of touch, voice (paralanguage), kinesics, distance (proxemics), physical settings, and appearance (hap tics). [1] The use of time (chromatics), eye contact, staring while speaking and listening, frequent glances, fixation patterns, pupil dilation, and blink rate are further examples (oculesics).

The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals by Charles Darwin marked the beginning of the study of nonverbal communication in 1872. After seeing interactions between animals like lions, tigers, dogs, and others and realizing they also used gestures and facial expressions to communicate, Darwin started to research nonverbal communication. Nonverbal communication was investigated and its applicability questioned for the first time. According to contemporary experts, nonverbal communication has a greater capacity for meaning than spoken communication.

According to some academics, most people trust nonverbal communication more than verbal communication. Ray Birdwhistell [note 1] comes to the conclusion that nonverbal communication makes up 60–70% of human communication even though other researchers contend that the communication style is not quantifiable or accurately represents contemporary human communication, especially given how heavily people rely on written communication

Similar to how speech has prosodic features like rhythm, intonation, and stress, as well as nonverbal components known as paralanguage like voice quality, rate, pitch, loudness, and speaking style, written texts also have nonverbal components like handwriting style, spatial arrangement of words, or the actual physical layout of a page. However, a large portion of

the study of nonverbal communication has concentrated on interaction between people where it can be divided into three main categories: the physical characteristics of the communicators, the environment in which communication occurs, and the behaviors of communicators during interaction.

Encoding and decoding are conscious and unconscious processes used in nonverbal communication. Encoding is the capacity to convey feelings in a way that the recipient can understand them with accuracy (s). The capacity to take this encoded emotion and appropriately translate its meanings to what the sender intended is known as "decoding," also known as "nonverbal sensitivity." The process of creating information, such as facial expressions, gestures, and postures, is known as encoding. We might assume that universal signals are used while encoding information. Decoding is the process of interpreting data from sensations that have been received and encoded by the encoder. Information is decoded using any prior knowledge of certain sense impressions. For instance, the encoder holds up two fingers in the image above, and the decoder may already be familiar with the meaning of two from prior use. According to various "decoding rules," some people may be able to accurately assess certain nonverbal clues and comprehend their meaning, but other people may not be able to do so as successfully. Some people are better at one or both of these abilities than others, and both of these abilities can vary from person to person. These people would be better at interacting with others and more socially conscious [citation needed]. Women are reported to be better decoders than men because they are more aware of and willing to employ nonverbal clues, as an illustration with regard to gender.

Culture is a factor that affects how learning activities are arranged and plays a significant role in nonverbal communication. For instance, nonverbal communication is frequently emphasized in many Indigenous American tribes as a valuable tool for teaching young people. In this sense, nonverbal communication serves as the primary means of coordinating interpersonal relationships as well as communicating cultural values, and children learn how to engage in this system from a young age. In this way, learning is not dependent on verbal communication.

When Charles Darwin's book The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals was published in 1872, it marked the beginning of formal scientific study of nonverbal behavior and communication Darwin maintained in the book that all mammals, including humans and other animals, express emotion through their facial expressions. Questions like, "Why do our facial expressions of emotions take the precise forms they do?" were among those he posed. And "Why do we scrunch up our noses in distaste and flash our teeth in rage?"Darwin linked these facial expressions to functionally connected habits, or acts that had clear and immediate purposes earlier in our evolutionary past. For a species that fought by biting, for instance, baring the teeth was a required preparation for battle, while wrinkled noses prevented the inhalation of unpleasant odors. The answer that Darwin's forebears came up with to the question of why facial expressions continue to exist even after they are no longer useful is one that is well regarded. Darwin argued that the reason why facial expressions are still used by people today is because they have developed communicational value over the course of evolution. In other words, people use their facial expressions to communicate how

they are feeling within. Darwin's book The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals does not rank among his best works in terms of content or overall influence on the subject, but his initial theories sparked a plethora of study into the forms, implications, and manifestations of nonverbal behavior and communication.

Although nonverbal communication was first seen in the 1800s, further study of it was put on hold when behaviorism first appeared in the 1920s.

According to the definition of behaviorism, people's behaviors are learned through conditioning. In order to show how animals participate in actions with rewards, behaviorists like B.F. Skinner trained pigeons to engage in a variety of behaviors.

The study of nonverbal communication as shown on film started in 1955–1956 at the Center for Advanced Study in Behavioral Sciences through a project that later became known as the Natural History of an Interview, while the majority of psychologists were studying behaviorism

The early participants comprised two linguists, Norman A. McQueen and Charles Hackett, two psychiatrists, Frieda Fromm-Reichmann and Henry Browsing, as well as two anthropologists, Clyde Kluckhohn and David M. Schneider (these last two withdrew by the end of 1955, and did not participate in the major group project). They were replaced by two additional anthropologists who joined the team in 1956: Gregory Bateson, a more renowned human communication theorist, and Ray Birdwhistell, who was already recognized at the time as the creator of kinesics, the study of body motion communication. One of the tiny research teams that continued its work after the CASBS academic year finished included Albert Steffen and Adam Kenton. Using an analytical technique known as natural history at the time of the study and later, primarily by Scheele, context analysis, researchers examined a Bateson film. Due to its size and awkwardness, the outcome was never published, but by 1971 it was available on microfilm. The technique, which entails meticulously transcribing recorded or videotaped behavior, was later employed in research on the order and structure of greetings, party behavior, and the role of posture in interpersonal contact.

The study of nonverbal communication exploded in the middle of the 1960s thanks to the efforts of many psychologists and academics. For instance, Michael Argyle and Janet Dean Fodor investigated the connection between eye contact and conversational proximity. The patterns of staring while speaking and listening were studied by Ralph V. Exile. Eckhart Hess published numerous researches in Scientific American that dealt with pupil dilation. Robert Summer conducted research on how the environment and private space interact. According to Robert Rosenthal, expectations set by educators and researchers might affect their findings, and small, nonverbal clues may be crucial in this process. Albert Mehrabian investigated the nonverbal signals of likability and promptness.

The expanding body of research was described in a number of academic psychology books by the 1970s, including Shirley Weitz's Nonverbal Communication and Marianne LaFrance and Clara Mayo's Moving Bodies. [14] Popular publications on nonverbal conduct in negotiations included How to Read a Person Like a Book (Nierenberg & Calero, 1971) and

Body Language (Fast, 1970), both of which concentrated on how to utilize nonverbal communication to attract other people. Environmental Psychology and Nonverbal Behavior was established in 1976

Although spoken language is intended to convey meaning about events that are external to the person talking, Argyle proposed in 1970 that nonverbal cues are utilized to create and strengthen interpersonal bonds.

According to the idea, communicating attitudes toward others nonverbally rather than verbally is appropriate and correct when a person wants to avoid awkward or contradictory situations during dialogue.

In line with this philosophy, Michael Argyle discovered and came to the following conclusion in 1988: nonverbal body language and gestures serve five main purposes in human communication: self-presentation of one's entire personality, rituals and cultural greetings, expressing interpersonal attitudes, expressing emotions, and to accompany speech in managing the cues set in the interactions between the speaker and the listener.

Initial perception

One tenth of a second is all it takes for someone to judge and form an initial opinion. A Princeton University study found that in this brief period of time, it is possible to make multiple judgments about a person. "Attractiveness, likeability, trustworthiness, competence, and assertiveness" were among these qualities. The nonverbal communication power of the initial impression. The first impression a person gives to an observer is a non-verbal statement about that individual. Clothing and other outward features, such as face expressions or basic facial qualities, might be considered presentation. Negative perceptions may also be based on how something is presented or a person's prejudice. Although they might be deceiving at times, first impressions of someone are frequently a true representation of them.

Collectivists have a tougher difficulty modifying their initial impressions when it comes to culture because they place a lot more emphasis on context and take more time to process new information when presented with hints because each position may be accurate in some circumstances.

Additionally, Fang et al. noted that initial impressions are less likely to alter in Asian cultures because they place a high importance on group cohesion and consensus. As a result, they will not risk group cohesion in order to change their first view after reaching a consensus.

Gestures

You can make gestures with your hands, arms, or body, as well as by moving your head, face, and eyes in ways like winking, nodding, or rolling your eyes. Some broad kinds of gestures have been recognized by academics, despite the fact that the study of gesture is still in its infancy. The so-called symbols or quotable gestures are the most well-known. These common, culturally unique hand gestures, like the hand wave employed in western cultures for "hi" and "goodbye," can be used in place of words. In various cultural contexts, a same symbolic gesture might have quite distinct meanings, ranging from highly favorable to extremely insulting. See List of gestures for a list of illustrative hand motions. Some hand

motions, like the shoulder shrug, are considered universal.
Additionally, gestures can be classified as independent of speech or linked to speech. Speechless gestures have a direct verbal translation and rely on culturally accepted interpretation.]: 9 an example of a gesture that is independent of speech is a wave or a peace sign. Along with verbal conversation, gestures related to speech are utilized; this type of nonverbal communication is used to highlight the message being expressed. Speech-related gestures, like pointing at a topic of conversation, are meant to support spoken communication.
More than anything else, facial expressions are a useful form of communication. Human faces are said to be capable of more than ten thousand diverse expressions thanks to the numerous muscles that accurately govern the mouth, lips, eyes, nose, forehead, and jaw. Due to their adaptability, facial nonverbal are, unless purposefully altered, incredibly effective and honest. Many of these feelings, such as joy, sorrow, anger, fear, surprise, contempt, embarrassment, suffering, and interest, are also widely acknowledged.
Emotional outbursts can typically be divided into two categories: negative and positive. Increased tension in numerous muscular groups, such as the jaw muscles, forehead furrows, squinting eyes, or lip occlusion, are typical signs of negative emotions (when the lips seemingly disappear). Positive emotions, on the other hand, are reflected by the thinning of the forehead creases, the relaxation of the muscles around the mouth, and the enlargement of the eye region. The head will also tilt to the side, revealing our most delicate area, the neck, when people are completely at rest and at ease with themselves. It is almost impossible to imitate this high-comfort presentation when feeling tense or suspicious, although it is frequently seen during courtship
Three categories can be used to further divide gestures:



Fig 1.5 Policeman directing traffic by gesture

Adapters

Some hand gestures are not regarded as gestures. They involve manipulations of the person or an item (such as clothing, pencils, or eyeglasses), as well as the usual scratching, fidgeting, rubbing, tapping, and caressing that people engage in. These behaviors can indicate that someone is anxious or uncomfortable, which is common when someone is not in control of the conversation or circumstance and subconsciously shows their displeasure. These actions are known as adapters. They could be used as the foundation for dispositional

inferences of the speaker's emotion even if they are not viewed as meaningfully related to the speech they follow (nervous, uncomfortable, bored.) These movements are assumed to convey a person's unconscious thoughts and emotions or ideas and emotions that they are deliberately attempting to conceal.

Symbolic

Gestures include additional hand motions. Symbolic gestures are movements with predetermined, accepted meanings.

Since they are designed to be transmitted and have a specific meaning for both the person making the gesture and the one receiving it, they are the exact opposite of adaptors. Symbolic hand motions like the "raised fist," "bye-bye," and "thumbs up" are common. Unlike adaptations, symbolic gestures are employed consciously and have a distinct communication purpose. Systems of symbolic gesture that are well developed include sign languages. Some teachers who work with deaf students combine cued speech, lip reading, and lip speaking to assist D/HH in encoding and decoding words according to their phonetic structure. Every culture has its own collection of gestures, some of which are exclusive to that culture, in addition to the extra component of cues like location and movement. For instance, the social background and linguistic variety of D/HH people have a significant impact on their phonological and lexical repertoire. Across cultures, gestures that appear to be very similar might indicate very different things. Symbolic gestures are frequently employed in place of speech; however they can also be used in conjunction with it.

Conversational

Conversational gestures fall somewhere between adapters and symbolic gestures. Although they follow discourse, these gestures do not allude to any activities or words. Hand gestures used in conversation are those that go along with speaking and are relevant to that discourse. Conversational gestures are only made by the person speaking, even though they do accompany speech and cannot be seen in silence.

Conversational gestures come in a variety of forms, mostly motor and linguistic movements. Motor movements are those that are rhythmical and repeated, don't require any spoken words to be added because they have a clear meaning, and the speaker's hand typically stays in one place. They can be used to emphasize particular syllables when utilized in conjunction with verbal communication. This might be demonstrated by pointing at someone and saying, "That way," as an example. In this instance, the movements would emphasize the word "That" in the statement.

Lexical movements are more intricate, longer and more diversified than rhythmic or repetitive ones. Giving complex directions and coordinating them with different hand gestures to indicate the numerous turns to take would be an example of this.

Distance

According to Edward T. Hall, the distance we keep between ourselves and the people we are speaking to demonstrate the significance of the science of proxemics. Throughout this process, our current attitudes toward others are revealed. Hall identifies four main distance zones in American culture: intimate (touching to eighteen inches [0-46 centimeters]),

personal (eighteen inches to four feet [0.46-1.22 meters]), social (four to twelve feet [1.22-3.66 meters]), and public (greater than twelve feet [3.66 meters]). Intimate distance, which denotes closeness and trust, is accepted in familiar relationships. While social distance is employed for communication that takes place in professional settings and occasionally in the classroom, personal distance, which keeps another "at arm's length," is seen to be the most comfortable distance for the majority of our interpersonal contact. In circumstances where two-way communication is either undesirable or impractical, public distance arises.

Keeping a gaze

The key nonverbal signal of engagement, interest, attention, and involvement is eye contact, which occurs when two people stare into each other's eyes at the same time. Encoding and decoding are conscious and unconscious processes used in nonverbal communication. Encoding is the capacity to convey feelings in a way that the recipient can understand (s). The capacity to take this encoded emotion and appropriately translate its meanings to what the sender intended is known as "decoding," also known as "nonverbal sensitivity." The process of creating information, such as facial expressions, gestures, and postures, is known as encoding. People can convey attention by using their eyes, according to several researches. This includes eyebrow motions and the commonly recognized winking gestures. When little to no eye contact is established in a social context, it is very obvious that someone is disinterested. But when someone is intrigued, their pupils will enlarge.

Eckman claims that "Mutual gaze, or eye contact, is another significant nonverbal communication technique. The most important part of eye contact is how long it lasts."

In general, the level of intimacy between two people increases the longer they maintain eye contact. The act of gazing includes viewing and hearing simultaneously. Important nonverbal indications include the length of a look, the frequency of glances, patterns of fixation, pupil dilation, and blink rate.

Descroix et al. assert that extended blinks do not result from conversation context between the sender and the recipient. Mutual staring tends to build liking in most cases

Disinterest can be seen in a person, but deception can also be shown in them. Hogan asserts "When someone is lying, their eyes tend to blink far more frequently. Eyes are a leading indicator of dishonesty or truth when spotting dishonesty, verbal and nonverbal indicators are both helpful. It is normal for people who are spotting lies to regularly rely on verbal signals; yet doing so may make it harder for them to spot lies. It is crucial to remember that those who are telling the truth and those who are lying use different verbal and nonverbal signs. Furthermore, it's crucial to keep in mind that a person's cultural background can affect how readily deceit can be picked up because nonverbal indicators vary depending on the society. These nonverbal indicators can also include physiological characteristics like heart rate and sweat levels in addition to eye contact. Additionally, dislike to the eyes may indicate deceit. The avoidance of eye contact is known as eye aversion. Important social and emotional cues are communicated through eye contact and facial expressions. Overall, according to Pease "Make as much eye contact as is necessary to make everyone at ease. Lookers obtain greater credibility than non-lookers, unless staring at people is considered

impolite in their culture."
Nonverbal communication makes it simpler to lie without being caught when it comes to concealing deception. This is the result of a study in which participants observed fictitious interviews with suspects in wallet theft. About 50% of the time, the interviewees were caught lying. The interviews' written transcripts, audio tape recordings, or video recordings were all available to the public. The tendency that interviewers who genuinely lied were perceived to be truthful was stronger the more information viewers had at their disposal. That instance, those who are skilled at lying can convey sincerity by their tone of voice and facial gestures. A liar does not always avoid eye contact, despite what many people think. Those who were lying purposefully made more eye contact with interviewers than those who were telling the truth in an effort to appear more convincing.
However, there are numerous documented instances of signs to lying that are transmitted through nonverbal (preverbal and visual) communication channels, in which liars allegedly unintentionally provide clues to their genuine beliefs or secret information.
Although a recent study also showed variations in bodily movements between truth-tellers and liars utilizing an automated body motion capture system, the majority of studies looking at the nonverbal cues to deceit rely on human coding of video data
The meaning of gestures and how they are employed varies greatly throughout cultures. A frequent illustration is pointing. When beckoning a dog in the United States, pointing is the act of indicating with a finger or hand or saying, "Come here please." But some cultures also view pointing with one finger as impolite. People from Asian cultures frequently point with their entire hand. [58] Another illustration is thrusting your tongue out. In Western nations, it can be interpreted as ridicule, but in Polynesia, it's a greeting and a mark of respect. 417 Clapping is a method of applause in North America, however in Spain; it is used to call for a waiter at a restaurant. Nodding and shaking the head differently to express agreement and disagreement also exist. Northern Europeans nod their heads in agreement and disagreement while shaking their heads side to side. However, the upward nod indicating disagreement and the downward nod for agreement had been utilized by the Greeks for at least three thousand years. :417 Waving goodbye can be done in a variety of ways: Americans wave with their palm facing outward and move their hand in a side-to-side motion, Italians wave with their palm facing inward and move their fingers toward the departing party, and French and Germans wave with their palm horizontal and move their fingers in the same direction. 417 It's also vital to remember that youngsters utilize gestures more frequently and in more casual circumstances. In order to give approval and permit an action, people frequently utilize the "OK" hand gesture in the United States. The identical sign, however, denotes "money" in Japan. Beyond these two, it also refers to "zero" or "nothing" in other cultures (Argentina, Belgium, French and the Portuguese). The identical "OK" sign is seen as a crude swearing gesture in Eastern European cultures.



Fig 1.6 Gesture

1.3 BODY LANGUAGE

Body language is a method of communication in which information is expressed or conveyed via bodily behaviors rather than words. Face expressions, body posture, gestures, eye movement, touch, and use of space are examples of this type of behavior. Animals and people both have body language; this article concentrates on how to decipher human body language, also known as kinesics.

Although body language is a crucial component of communication, much of it occurs subconsciously.

It's important not to mix up body language and sign language. The essential characteristics that are thought to exist in all (real) languages can be seen in sign languages, which are also able to demonstrate their own complicated grammar systems. Contrarily, body language lacks a grammar structure and must be interpreted broadly rather than having a precise meaning associated with a particular movement. As a result, it is not a language but is instead referred to as a "language" due to popular culture.

There are socially accepted explanations for specific behaviors. Interpretations may differ from one nation or culture to another.

(Additionally, whether body language is universal is a subject of debate.) In social interactions, body language, a subset of nonverbal communication, supports verbal communication. In fact, according to some academics, the bulk of information shared during interpersonal interactions occurs nonverbally.

Although it controls interaction and aids in establishing a bond between two people, it might be unclear.

Moods of the face

Body language and the display of emotion both include facial expression. A person's mood and state of mind can be accurately inferred from a number of indications, including the movement of their eyes, eyebrows, lips, nose, and cheeks. It should also always be taken

into account in relation to the context in which it is occurring and the person's likely objective.

Happiness: a cheerful person usually smiles and is more likely to gaze up. In general, their body language and facial expression exude more enthusiasm.

Sadness is indicated by the absence of a grin and an evident reluctance to do so. Additionally, melancholy people are more prone to exhibit gloomy expressions on their faces. Particularly when compared to someone who is pleased, their facial body language will appear de-energized

When someone is focused, their eyebrows are lowered and more centrally positioned. This is referred to as having "knitted brows" in everyday speech. Additionally, their eyes appear more focused, and overall, they will appear more determined to complete whatever activity they are working on. Positive emotions are typically linked to being more center-focused and composed overall. When someone is concentrated, it means they have given a certain point or area of their visual appreciation top priority. Increased mental function coexists with this process. As a result, it is sometimes described as appearing mentally concentrated; however this statement can also be applied more broadly to describe a state of mental resolve. As a result, a person's facial body language may indicate their level of concentration and hence give away what they are thinking. A clear example may be seen in everyday conversation, where a person is primarily focused on the other person with whom they are speaking while simultaneously using enhanced brain function to consider what they are saying.

When someone does this, it appears like they are concentrated on knowing the other person cognitively and visually

Unfocused: A facial expression with an unfocused facial expression frequently has elevated eyebrows and unfocused eyes. Unfocused people will appear less enthused about any task they are working on. Looking unfocused is frequently related to feelings of depression, boredom, and anxiety

Confident facial body language has a more concentrated, centered, and energetic appearance. If speaking at the same time, a person who is confident is also far more likely to be looking up, willing to make eye contact, and would also most likely be grinning.

Fear: A person who is terrified presents a generally stressed-out and lethargic facial body language. Their mouth may hang slightly open, their brow may look tense, and their eyebrows may frequently be elevated. Similar to when someone is sad, someone who is fearful is more likely to have their eyes lowered downward. A person will naturally pull their head back and stare at the threat if they become abruptly terrified or alarmed. This is an exception to the rule. Instinctively, the head is moved out of harm's way while simultaneously locating the threat's visual source. However, because it is still a scared reaction, their degree of focus will still be lower than if they had responded confidently, in which case they would appear more concentrated. They raise their eyebrows, and their scalp also contracts in a specific way. When someone says something will "make your hair stand on end," they're exaggerating the sensation of the scalp rapidly tightening out of dread (horrification). While regaining attention, a person's scalp may still be constricted by fear. In

this situation, the individual will be battling against or diverted from their experience of fear, even though it still there. People who actively use body language to appear convincing, such as actors and businesspeople, have found that one way to regain focus is to think about things more physically. This can be done by looking at something to better appreciate its physical presence or by engaging in more direct physical interactions with it, such as squeezing a stress ball or smelling a flower.
Although lack of facial body language can be regarded as lack of sincerity, it can also be seen as a sign of real feeling. For instance, the absence of wrinkles around the eyes could indicate a phony grin. Researchers formerly thought it was practically difficult to create a realistic smile on demand. A person's eyes wrinkle when they are smiling gleefully.

People do not when they are lying. One won't see the creases if someone is pretending to be joyful but isn't. But more recently, a study from Northeastern University discovered that participants could successfully imitate a Duchene smile even when they weren't feeling particularly cheerful.
Consider the pupil of the eye in particular; as its behavior also reflects emotion, it might convey a person's mood when it is noticed. For instance, the study discovered that a person has no control over his pupils, which grew when a person expressed interest in another person or was fixated on something. When you're chatting to a friend about something interesting, observe the size of their pupils. Then, change the topic to something less fascinating and watch their pupils shrink. Normally, one's eyes need to naturally blink six to ten times per minute, but simply focusing on something that the viewer finds "beautiful" can cause this rate to slow down. This could be a hint that the viewer is flirting if they are attracted to the person they are speaking to.
Studies and behavioral studies have demonstrated that a person's facial expression and physical expression are both consistent with observable indicators of their emotional state.
This implies that the processing of the other's facial and physical expressions occurs simultaneously in the brain. In these experiments, participants accurately classified emotions based on facial expression. The emotional messages from the face and body are effectively integrated, and the face and body are typically seen together in their natural proportions.

Neck and head gestures

Along with the neck's body language, the head's should also be taken into account. The head should be held in a position that feels normal in terms of posture overall. The head and neck can move in a variety of directions to indicate different types of body language. But it's crucial to remember that the head posture shouldn't leave the neck stretched or compressed for an excessive amount of time without relief. When the neck is stressed in this way, it may be difficult to effectively communicate with others through body language. Additionally, several scientists and medical professionals have discovered a link between persistently bad head and neck posture and depressive moods. Therefore, head and neck-related body language should not be forced and aim to be as natural as possible.
As with all types of body language, it helps to comprehend as many related elements as you can in order to correctly interpret its meaning.

In general, nodding your head is interpreted as a "yes" response. It could be taken as a nod of agreement when employed in conversation, which might encourage the speaker to continue. A single nod of the head is a gesture of courteous acknowledgment that is comparable to the Asian custom of bowing to someone in order to show respect. Shaking one's head is typically taken to imply "no." It is the polar opposite of nodding in terms of meaning. A head wobble in India is the act of tilting the head from side to side and is frequently used to indicate the words "yeah," "ok," or "I understand" in some way. The context in which it is used has a significant impact on its interpretation, which might be unclear.

When the eyes are emphasized along with a lowering of the head, this may be a sign of surrender. An increase in attention in what someone is saying may be shown by elevating the head from a depressed position.

One way to show interest in what the other person is saying is to tilt one's head to the side. As a result, it can be interpreted as a sign of curiosity, uncertainty, or doubt. When the head is tilted, the presence of a hand may indicate that the person is pondering about something or, in the case of an ongoing conversation, may not be interested. A head that is pulled downward and slightly angled forward could be a sign of suspicion. Voice inflection

Poster: Emotional prosody

Our breathing patterns are greatly influenced by our bodies, and our breathing patterns are greatly influenced by how we speak.

There is a relationship between specific voice tones and specific body language. For instance, if someone's vocal tone suggests that they are joyful; their body language will typically also suggest the same thing. This is due, in part, to the fact that a person's breathing rhythm changes along with their mood. Their intra-abdominal pressure (IAP), which has an immediate impact on and is audible in their tone of voice, is also influenced by this. For instance, when someone is feeling confident, their breathing pattern deepens, their IAP rises, and their voice sounds louder and richer. They will breathe too shallowly, their IAP will drop, and their voice will sound weaker and thinner if they are feeling stressed.

Therefore, a person's tone of voice will typically transmit the same sense of mood as their body language, and vice versa, based on the fact that their breathing pattern, which is a basic influencing component to both tone of voice and body language, reflects their mood. Notably, digital voice-based hands-free technologies like Amazon.com's Alexa frequently omit or tone down the sound of IAP. As a result, the voice sounds more artificial and lacks a human-like fullness of tone.

The way your body is positioned has a big impact on how you sound. For instance, if someone is speaking while slouching in a chair, this can block the throat's ability to breathe, muffle the tone of voice, and give off the appearance that they are bored, dissatisfied, or depressed. In contrast, if they were sitting up straight, the respiratory system would be unhindered and the tone of speech would be clearer, more animated, and more concentrated.

Attitude

Human communication is incredibly complicated, and in order to determine the attitudes being represented, one must consider the communication as a whole

The attitude that a person communicates to others is greatly influenced by their body language. According to Albert Mehrabian, 38% of what is transmitted during a conversation about feelings and attitudes (i.e., like-dislike) is done so through tone of voice, 55% is done so through body language. This concept, which is also known as the "7%-38%-55% Rule", is frequently taken into account in studies of human communications. Although there is some disagreement as to what proportion of each of the three contributing variables should be given the credit for, it is generally acknowledged that a person's body language greatly influences the attitude they transmit.

A person's body language can change the attitude they express, which in turn can affect how well they get along with other people. The other person's response may vary depending on whether a formal or informal attitude is conveyed. An interviewer's formal demeanor, for instance, gives off a more professional appearance and may nudge the interviewee to provide more somber responses. As a result, their whole professional relationship may improve. A more open and easygoing impression is given, however, if the interviewer strikes a casual tone. This might be utilized to get a more honest reaction from the interviewee, motivate them to provide more frank responses, and perhaps even forge a more intimate connection.

Trust

There must be a certain amount of trust between people, whether the relationship is one of friendship or commerce. Building rapport and trust will be easier if you are aware of body language.

All healthy interpersonal connections depend on trust. Trust-expressing body language typically exudes an air of openness and warmth. On the other hand, mistrusting body language will come off as somewhat cold and closed. The manner in which one expresses trust varies based on the type of relationship. For instance, there may be parallels in the body language used for business, friendships, and personal relationships, but it can also be noticeably distinct.

Business

In a professional setting, trust is communicated through formal body language. This is consistent with business etiquette in general, which calls for people to present themselves in a serious, focused manner while also clearly acknowledging the boundaries of the relationship. An attitude that comes across as businesslike assures the other person that business will be the only topic of discussion and nothing else. In business, shaking hands before a meeting or negotiation is customary. It demonstrates that everyone is ready to put their trust in one another. It might be followed with a friendly smile, but it wouldn't typically be accompanied by more casual body language like a pat on the shoulder or a big grin. Business professionals make a special effort to avoid any signals of distrust in their body language. For instance, when someone is speaking in a professional setting, crossing their arms or legs can appear as a barrier to the listener. The listener can thus assume that the speaker does not trust them or is concealing something. Barrier-type body language is avoided in professional settings because it may convey mistrust.

Friendship

In comparison to corporate interactions, body language between friends is often more expressive and casual. In a friendship, trust can be expressed in many different ways. In meetings, a handshake is appropriate, just like in business, but it is also acceptable to clasp two hands around one hand, place a hand on the shoulder, etc.

Friendship-related body language may also be far more expressive and physical than in professional settings. Giving someone a hug or a pat on the back, for instance.

When compared to how outsiders portray themselves as trustworthy in a commercial setting, people's natural propensity to act honestly and warmly with friends who they know well can seem more sincere. This is so that friends can more easily interpret one other's nonverbal cues and facial emotions. As a result, it is simpler for them to answer appropriately since they are more certain of what the other person is saying. As a result, the interaction can be more honest, which is evident when watching friends engage. The conversation is more open and unrestricted by a sense of formal decorum, whether it be expressed via voice or body language.

Intimate connections

Even if it may not always be as physically dynamic as that seen in a friendship, for example, the body language of trust in close relationships like courting and marriage is quite open and frequently highly individualized. Holding hands is a typical gesture used by close couples to show affection and trust in Western societies. It is a quiet act that could last several minutes or more. A handshake between friends, however, may be fairly enthusiastic and last for a few seconds. People kissing and cuddling each other in close relationships are another way that trust is expressed. These behaviors are intended to communicate warmth and openness in a very individualized way. By letting their spouse to touch them more intimately than would ordinarily be appropriate, each partner is expressing to the other that they are attracted to them and that they trust them. A time of wooing may be used to progressively establish this body language. It is unacceptable to utilize intimate relationship body language in non-intimate partnerships.

People frequently place themselves closer to one other in intimate relationships than they would in other types of relationships. Even if they may simply be a little distance closer to one another, an onlooker might infer from this tighter proximity that they are engaged in an intimate relationship. Spouses, for instance, can move around in each other's intimate space when standing or walking, whereas business associates may keep a greater distance and remain outside of each other's intimate area.

The couples do not feel the same need to keep the same distance as the professional colleagues because they are in an intimate connection. Other indications that someone is in an intimate relationship could display include a sense of naturalness, commitment, and a sense of comfort in each other's company.

If someone in a relationship exhibits signs of fear, shock, or despair when they are with their partner, this could indicate that they are in a coerced intimate connection, meaning they feel pressured or frightened into the union.

1.4 COMMUNICATION PROCESSES

Effective corporate communications depend on having good communication skills. The fundamental goal of communication is to transfer information from one person to another in a way that both the sender and the recipient can understand it. Clear communication is typically the sender's obligation. However, it is also the receiver's duty to make sure they have understood the message completely. The process of communication is dynamic and circular.

Understanding the roles of the sender and receiver of communication as well as communication hurdles can be understood by dissecting the communication cycle into its component sections.

The Five-Step Process for Communication

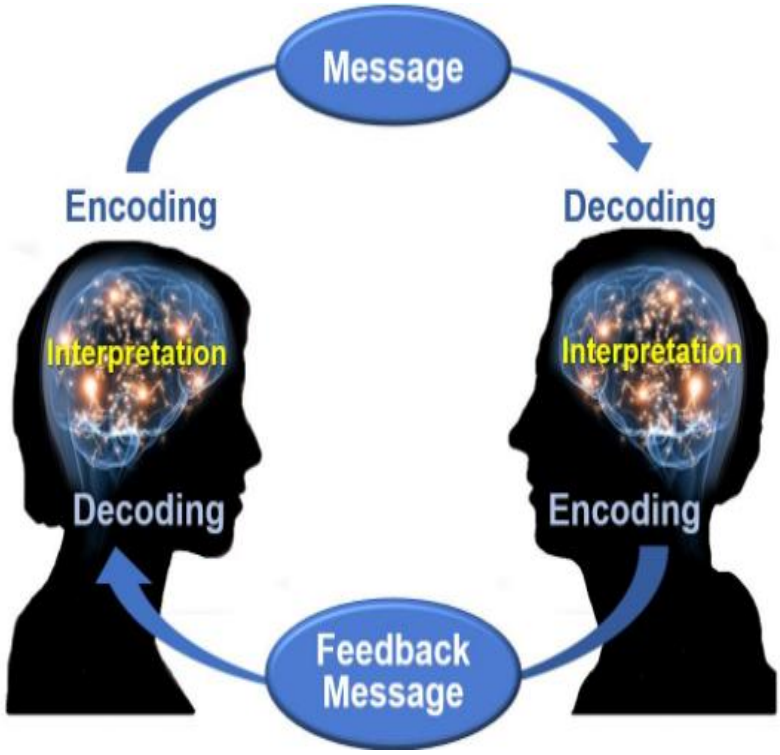


Fig 1.7 Five-Step Process for Communication

Step 1: Idea Formation - When the sender has an idea they want to share, the communication process starts. The sender's complex external circumstances will have an impact on the concept. The sender must first make the idea and intention clear. What objectives does the sender have in mind? What kind of impact is the message likely to have? Knowing this information increases the likelihood of effective communication.

Step 2: Message Encoding - The concept must be translated into meaning-conveying words, symbols, and gestures. Since no two individuals receive information exactly the same way, the sender must take care to select words, symbols, and gestures that are widely understood to minimize the likelihood of miscommunication. To achieve clear communication, a sender must be aware of the recipient's communication abilities, attitudes, skills, experiences, and culture.

The third step in the communication process is message transmission, which involves selecting the medium via which the message will be delivered. Messages can be sent orally, in writing, or visually (see Table 1). The channel and message must coincide for there to be clear communication.

Mediums for Transmitting Messages

Table 1.1

Verbal	Written	Visual
In-person speech	Email	Drawings, paintings
Phone conversation	Text, instant message	Photos, graphic designs
Voice-over-internet protocol (VoIP)	Report, article, essay	Body language (e.g., eye contact, hand gestures)
Radio	Letter	Graphs
Podcast	Memo	Font types
Voicemail message	Blog	Semaphore
Intercom	Tweet	Architecture

Step 4: Decoding - The message must be translated into its intended meaning when it is received by the recipient. As a result, the recipient must interpret the sender's words, symbols, and actions. Because no two persons process information exactly the same, misinterpreting a message might result from improper decoding. When the receiver establishes a receptive environment and ignores distractions, successful decoding is more likely. Alert listeners make an effort to comprehend both verbal and nonverbal signs, refrain from making assumptions about the message, and anticipate learning from the communication.

1.5 COMMUNICATION STYLES

Five Different Types of Communication

Certain situations will demand for particular styles, or you might discover that one style works very well with one employee while another is more suitable for another.

Styles can be blended, and depending on who they are interacting with, people may choose

to employ a style other than their default one.
Even if some communication styles are generally more effective than others, there is no reason to rigidly use one style to interact with every individual you come into contact with throughout the course of the workday.

1. Confident communication

This is regarded as the most effective kind of communication.
This individual has strong opinions and communicates them with conviction, yet they take care not to denigrate or dominate the dialogue of others.
Instead of using coercion or pushing boundaries, they seek compromise and consensus by attentive listening and outlining their requirements or wants in detail.
People who are assertive communicators typically have high self-esteem and avoid using passive or hostile language.
The use of "I" statements, as opposed to "You need to remain quiet during client meetings since you insist on interrupting continuously," is a distinguishing feature of assertive communication. An example of this is "I feel as though your interruption during the customer meeting compromised my expertise."
In most professional situations, this manner of communication is advised.
By being calm, collected, and upbeat, assertive communication can be used to handle a variety of circumstances and solve difficulties.
This type of communication can be aggressive, ominous, and motivated by the desire to prevail at all costs.
The content of an aggressive communicator's message is frequently lost due to the tone of their delivery, which acts as though their contribution to the debate is more significant than everyone else's.
People who experience this kind of speech may feel frightened, overpowered, and denigrated.
They may respond negatively to an aggressive communicator in some circumstances, not because the communicator is right but instead because the message was delivered in such a disagreeable manner that they automatically disagreed.
Some business executives have been seen using this style of communication; nonetheless, it takes expertise to make one appear brave rather than overbearing.
In general, it is advisable to avoid this manner because it won't make a person popular with their coworkers in day-to-day operations.

2. Aggressive communication style

This communication style can be hostile, threatening, and comes from a place of wanting to win at all costs. An aggressive communicator behaves as if their contribution to the conversation is more important than anyone else, and the content of their message is often lost because of the tone of their delivery. This type of communication can result in people feeling belittled, steamrolled, and intimidated. In some cases, they may reactively push back at an aggressive communicator, not because the communicator is incorrect, but simply because the delivery of the message is so unpleasant that they instinctively disagree. This type of communication has been observed in some business leaders, who can control their

style enough to come across as bold, rather than domineering, but that takes skill. In day-to-day operations, this is not a style that will endear someone to their colleagues, and it is advised that this style is avoided in most cases.

3. The use of passive communication

The submissive communication style is another name for this kind of interaction. It might also be referred to as the "people-pleaser" type.

This form of communication is self-effacing, avoids conflicts, and is laid-back.

That's not to suggest that a passive communicator is always content; in fact, over time, resentment might grow since the person is unable to express their thoughts, needs, and wants clearly

Passive communicators typically take a backseat and let more aggressive or forceful people take the lead.

They may struggle to articulate themselves clearly and strive to avoid conflict at all costs. This increases the likelihood that their valuable suggestions will go unheard or that there will be misunderstandings.

When dealing with a client or another individual with whom other communication styles are not successful, this type of communication can be utilized in response to hostile communication in the workplace.

To prevent passive communicators' essential thoughts and ideas from being overlooked, managers can attempt to assist them develop a more forceful attitude within a team or department.

4. The use of passive-aggressive communication

As its name implies, this communication approach includes elements of passive and aggressive methods.

The aggressive simmers beneath the surface while the passive is present.

Although the communicator presents as kind and laid-back on the outside, they are really acting out of bitterness and rage.

This manifests itself through the use of sarcasm, being patronizing, spreading rumors, or gossip.

Although they express their anger in these covert ways, they still have the same negative impact on others' willingness to collaborate with them as someone who is overtly violent.

This manner of working usually breeds animosity and discontent among the team or department as a whole.

This manner of communication is never suitable in a professional context. It is crucial to assist communicators who naturally use this style in your firm in changing to one that is less disruptive.

5. Communication that is manipulative

This method of communication manipulates the conversation's conclusion and, in turn, the behavior of those around them by using deception, persuasion, and cunning.

Manipulative communicators rarely express what they intend; instead, they will conceal their true intentions beneath multiple guises in order to gain their desired outcomes without

the other party being aware of it.

When individuals understand they have been duped by a manipulator, they will not react well to that person in subsequent discussions. This approach is sometimes described as being dishonest and pompous

While some deceit may be necessary in a customer-facing position when the need to placate an agitated client arises, this approach will cause some conflicts between teams or departments if one individual does it frequently

A manipulative communicator should, wherever feasible, be led toward forceful communication.

Manipulator has clear objectives and knows what they want to accomplish; they are just not following the best route to get there. They may get better results without upsetting coworkers if they put everyone else's wants before their own.

1.6 BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Every day, we interact with individuals in many ways. Conversation, our facial expressions and body language, social media, email, the phone, etc. are all ways that we communicate. We rely on our communication abilities to strengthen our bonds with friends, arrange trips, mend broken marriages, place dinner orders, buy cars, voice our thoughts, solicit assistance, close deals, accept job offers, etc.

We should be professionals in communication since we use different channels of communication so frequently. We aren't. 400 businesses with 100,000 or more employees were questioned by the Society for Human Resources Management (SHRM).

According to SHRM research, companies reported losing $62.4 million in sales annually as a result of poor communication. That comes to $62.4 million per business, for a grand total of more than $24 billion.

COMMON RESTRICTIONS TO SUCCESSFUL COMMUNICATION

Whether it's vocal, nonverbal, written, listening, or visual, if we don't communicate effectively, we endanger both ourselves and those around us. There are six barriers to successful communication that both employees and managers should work to remove in addition to the physical and technological ones.

Discontentment or Lack of Interest in One's Job

You are much less likely to communicate successfully on both the giving and receiving sides if you are dissatisfied with or have lost interest in your job. In other words, you're not giving it your all. Due to the fact that it requires altering a perspective, this barrier is possibly the most challenging to get past because it frequently doesn't shift till the person departs.

Lack of Listening Skills

Effective communication relies heavily on active listening. If you don't listen to someone, you won't be able to engage with them because you'll start assuming things about their needs based on your preconceptions rather than what they actually need.

Lack of Trust and Transparency

Any kind of communication becomes quite challenging when there is a lack of openness and confidence. For instance, if your team suspects you are withholding information, they will

feel tense, some will guess, and as a result, it will be harder for them to understand any attempts you make to communicate with them.

Styles of Communication (when they differ)

Everyone has a unique way of communicating. While some people prefer to be quite upfront, others choose to be more tactful. Others rely on generalizations, while others use specific data, and so on. Sometimes a person becomes so ingrained in their communication style that they have trouble interacting with others who use a different approach. You can hear something like "Bill gets so caught up in the weeds, I lose sight on the greater picture" or "Mary never explains what she wants me to do, she's never explicit.

Working-place Conflicts

For a variety of reasons, conflict can arise, and when it does, it prevents people from communicating effectively. Working to resolve the issue is more important than the specifics of the conflict, which are not always important. When a problem is not resolved, it escalates, leading to people taking sides and further impeding efficient communication.

Language and Cultural Differences

It's critical to comprehend how communication differs between cultures. But don't only think globally by keeping in mind that in Japan, a person's given name comes before their surname. Additionally, there may be regional variations; for instance, a northerner might not appreciate the word "y'all" or even comprehend the more inclusive variant, "all y'all." The point is that cultural differences can exist inside the borders of the US, and when one fails to understand cultural differences, they run the danger of insulting the other person. These examples may seem insignificant. The offence is where communication breakdown occurs.

We should all actively participate in self-reflection regarding our communication abilities. The list of communication difficulties provided above is a fantastic place to start. You can enhance your abilities through reflection, empathy (seeing yourself in the other person's shoes), and practice. Nobody is flawless, though, so it's equally crucial to admit when you've made a mistake. Doing so will help keep the lines of productive communication open.

It's simple to communicate, right? We do communicate every day, after all. So why may conversing with others be so challenging, challenging, or unpleasant at times?

You are likely running across one of the major communication obstacles that can sabotage both personal and professional relationships under these circumstances. Here are seven of the most typical communication roadblocks that obstruct healthy connections.

PHYSICAL RESTRICTIONS

According to research, proximity is crucial for creating cohesive teams, but a variety of physical communication hurdles in the workplace frequently prevent this from happening. These can include things like office and desk partitions, locked doors, designated spaces for different status levels, and "team zones" that other people stay away from.

An abundance of online collaboration tools have emerged as a result of the surge in home employment, which has increased communication barriers and made people feel more disconnected. Take a peek at the new hybrid training age, for instance.

PERCEPTUAL RESTRICTIONS

People have mental barriers to communication because of the way they view the world.

They may be brought on by the numerous cognitive biases that plague the human mind and keep us from appropriately assessing individuals and circumstances. A person's particular prejudices may also be influenced by their past experiences and the opinions of others.

Consider what beliefs you or others may have that prevent you or them from speaking properly. Try using this brief anecdote to persuade people to think critically about their perceptions.

A traveler ran across a person from the neighboring town while they were both walking. The traveler said, "Excuse me.”I want to spend tonight in your town. What kind of individuals are they, please?

The inhabitant enquired, "What did you think of the people at the last place you visited?"

Oh, they were a troublesome group. Kept their distance. Saw me as a fool. I was overcharged and had subpar service.

"Well," the resident replied. You'll probably discover them to be the same here as well.

EMOTIONAL RESTRICTIONS

Emotional communication obstacles are the unfavorable attitudes we develop toward particular persons, locations, and circumstances. They arouse negative feelings like fear and mistrust that inhibit productive engagement, whether brought on by unpleasant experiences or the influence of others.

Sometimes the barrier is simply our worry of what other people will think of us. This concern may stem from our early instruction to "watch our Ps and Qs" or "never speak until you are spoken to."

Although being cautious is prudent, excessive concern of what others will think might impede your progress and prevent you from developing stronger relationships.

CULTURAL RESTRICTIONS

We frequently need to adopt behavioral patterns that the group interprets as signs of belonging in order to be accepted as a member of the group. For instance, openness, honesty, diligence, chit-chat, or humor.

Lack of comprehension of the group's expected behavior patterns creates cultural communication obstacles and raises the possibility of doing something the group members would find unacceptable.

The best strategy for overcoming this is research. You can create successful connections and work towards common goals by being aware of the group's norms and traditions.

LANGUAGE RESTRICTIONS

When you employ terms that other people do not understand, language becomes a barrier to communication. You start to exclude people as soon as you use these terms. Remember that this includes jargon, buzzwords, and phrases.

If we want to understand people and change their behavior in business, we must always speak to them "in their own language."

Nikita Khrushchev telling the US during the Cold War was one of the more terrifying moments I can remember.

We'll bury you, they say.

This was seen as a nuclear annihilation threat, however the more accurate meaning was We'll catch up to you.

Which he intended as attaining economic dominance.

GENDER OBSTACLES

Did you know that the speech patterns of men and women differ significantly? Our brains are wired differently, which is the cause.

Men use their left sides of the brain to speak, though not always in that order. Women use two unique areas on both sides of the brain when speaking. Men typically speak in a compartmentalized, linear manner, whereas women speak more freely and logically while also expressing emotion.

Men and women make up the majority of teams, thus keeping this in mind can help you value each team member's contribution and reduce the likelihood of communication breakdowns.

PERSONAL LIMITATIONS

Interpersonal barriers are behavioral patterns that make it difficult for you to communicate effectively or for others to communicate with you.

Given that there may be numerous factors, it might be difficult to pinpoint these communication hurdles. A person may withdraw, for instance, as a result of problems at work. They could struggle with self-esteem or have a propensity to "play games." Issues can also arise and be exacerbated by workplace cultures, organizational problems, and an increase in the usage of remote work.

Consider the communication patterns that frequently emerge when individuals are together and make an effort to pinpoint any potential problems.

GET OVER THE OBSTACLES

The best strategy to improve your communication is to take a broad approach and consider various facets of your circumstance, other people, and yourself.

Try to alter your own thoughts and feelings as you converse and see how the interaction changes. Often, this is the first step to improving relationships and removing obstacles to communication. Improve your ability to communicate in daily life it’s simple to communicate, right? We do communicate every day, after all. So why may conversing with others be so challenging, challenging, or unpleasant at times?

You are likely running across one of the major communication obstacles that can sabotage both personal and professional relationships under these circumstances. Here are seven of the most typical communication roadblocks that obstruct healthy connections.

1.7 FORMAL COMMUNICATION AND ITS ASPECTS

Informal communication, in contrast, refers to multifaceted communication. Informal communication is unrestricted by established channels and communication routes and can flow freely throughout the organization. Informal communication moves especially fast. As people engage with each other freely and can chat about a wide variety of issues, frequently

extending beyond of their professional tasks, informal communication is far more relational than formal communication and is, by nature, a very natural kind of communication. Informal communication is by its very nature much faster and does not leave a paper trail.

The "grapevine," as informal communication is known in the office, typically starts with employees through social relationships. When included in the formal communication information flow of a corporation, informal communications frequently become formal communications.

Since employees can discuss matters connected to their jobs informally, it is seen to be effective and save the company time and money. Additionally, it promotes the development of healthy and effective relationships at work.

Formal communication styles

Following is a detailed summary of the several formal communication styles:

1. Memos
2. Intranet
3. Meetings
4. Conferences
5. Formal one-on-one conversations
6. Message boards
7. Handouts
8. Letters
9. Presentations
10. Speeches
11. Message Boards
12. Blogs for businesses
13. Emails from supervisors and executives

1.8 SUMMARY

- Communication is the interchange of ideas between people using a shared symbolism. The functions, forms, and psychology of communication are covered in this article. See animal behaviour for a discussion on animal communication.
- Language, speech, and writing are further treatments of the fundamental elements and methods of human communication.
- See broadcasting, dictionary, encyclopaedia, information processing, information theory, library, printing, publishing, history of, telecommunications medium, telecommunications network, and telecommunications system for technological elements, such as communications equipment and information systems.
- Since the time of ancient Greece, scholars have been interested in the topic of communication.
- However, until recent times, the subject was typically covered by other disciplines and seen as a given as a natural process inherent to each.

- I.A. Richards, an English literary critic and author, provided one of the earliest definitions of communication as a distinct human Endeavour in 1928. In some ways, this description is still the best today.

1.9 KEYWORDS

- **Verbal**- Sometimes, when discussing agreements we've made, we use the verbal to signify "spoken rather than written." A verbal child is one who can speak, and we refer to someone who is particularly articulate as being verbal. Definitions for the terms adjective, verbal, and produced from words generally.
- **Non-verbal** - not utilising or using words Nevertheless, this pope conveys eloquence in his spontaneous remarks or even during the lengthy pauses in between speeches when he interacts with people and crowds nonverbally.
- **Communication** - Information sharing is the process by which people communicate with one another using a shared set of signs, behaviours, or symbols.
- Pheromones are used for this purpose in insect communication. B: Lack of interpersonal communication between the elderly and the young.
- **Body language** - Body language, which is frequently done automatically rather than intentionally, is the use of physical behaviour, expressions, and mannerisms to communicate nonverbally. You constantly send and receive wordless signals when you interact with other people, whether you realise it or not.
- **Barriers -** Something made of a material that prevents or is meant to prevent passageway barriers for highways barrier contraception. Geographic barriers to the spread of species; barrier beaches; medications that pass the placental barrier; b: a natural formation or structure that restricts or impedes movement or action.

1.10 LEARNING ACTIVITY

1. Define Communication?

_____

_____

2. State the principal of verbal and non verbal?

_____

_____

—

1.11 UNIT END QUESTIONS

A. Descriptive Questions

Short Questions

1. What is important of communication?
2. Why communication is important in life?
3. What is the introduction of communication?

4. What is the nature of communication?
5. What is element of communication?

Long Questions

1. What is the difference between verbal and nonverbal communication with example?
2. What are 5 example of verbal communication?
3. What are the 4 types of verbal communication?
4. What are the 3 example of verbal?
5. What are the 2 types of verbal communication?

B. Multiple Choice Questions

1. The origin of the word communication is _____

A) Communicate
B) Communicares
C) Compute
D) Computer

2. Types of words used for verbal communication?

A) Acronyms
B) Simple
C) Technical
D) Jargons

3. The first language which we learn or speak as a child _____

A) Jargon
B) Dialect
C) Mother Tongue
D) Vernacular

4. Which of the following shows a positive facial expression?

A) Frowning while concentrating
B) maintaining eye contact
C) Smiling continuously
D) rolling up your eyes

5. By what method we can know what the receiver understood or got the message

A) transmitting
B) feedback
C) message
D) listening

Answer1-b 2-b 3-c 4-b 5- b

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UNIT 2 - LISTENING SKILLS AND ACTIVITIESS

STRUCTURE

2.0 Learning Objectives
2.1 Introduction
2.2 Hearing versus listening
2.3 active and passive listening
2.4 guidelines for good listening and its benefits
2.5 Listening activities
2.6 Audio and video Clips (See the recommended clips)
2.7 Followed by writing and speaking.
2.8 Summary
2.9 Keywords
2.10 Learning Activity
2.11 Unit End Questions
2.12 References

2.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the nature of listening skills.
- Identify the scope of listening skills.
- State the need and importance of active and passive listening.
- List the functions of listening activities in every sphere of life.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

To listen is to focus on a sound or movement. When one listens, they hear what others are saying and attempt to decipher what they mean. Listening calls for sophisticated emotive, cognitive, and behavioral processes.

The desire to listen to others is an example of an effective process. Cognitive processes include attending to, understanding, receiving, and interpreting relational and content communications. Behavioral processes involve giving others verbal and nonverbal responses.

An important ability for issue solving is listening. Poor listening skills can result in misunderstandings, which might result in conflict or a dispute. Excessive interruptions, inattention, hearing what you want to hear, mentally preparing a response, and having a closed mind are some additional contributing factors.

Memory and listening go together. One study found that background noises during a speech helped listeners remember part of the material by hearing it again. One can remember what they were doing, for instance, when they were reading or doing something else while listening to music.

Additionally, listening has a rhetorical purpose in advancing intercultural communication discourses. Radcliffe based her claim on two instances where people showed a propensity to reject cross-cultural discourses.

What is being heard?

Different from obeying is listening. Even if the outcome is not what the speaker desired, a person who receives and comprehends information or an instruction before deciding not to comply with it or agree to it has listened to the speaker. Hearing a speaker play the desired sound is the first step in listening. The difference between listening and hearing was defined by a semiotic a Roland Barthes. "Listening is a psychological act; hearing is a physiological phenomenon." People are constantly hearing, often without even being aware of it. It is voluntary to listen to. It is the action of interpreting something in order to comprehend and possibly make sense of what is heard.

How is listening done?

It would be much more accurate to view listening as a sophisticated and methodical process rather than as a straightforward and discrete activity. It entails recognizing the speaker's vocalizations, the information-focused intonation patterns, and the applicability of the subject matter.

Barthes argues that there are three ways to understand listening: alerting, decoding, and comprehending how the sound is created and how it affects the listener

People spend 45% of communication time listening.

The initial stage of alerting involves listening for environmental sound cues. This implies that specific locations have particular noises connected with them, such as any particular residence. Every house has a particular sound that its occupants connect with being cozy and familiar. Anyone who resides there is made aware of potential danger by an entrance or a sound that is unfamiliar (such as a creaking door or floorboard or a shattering window).

The second level of understanding involves deciphering patterns in the interpretation of sounds, such as a child listening for the sound of his mother's arrival home. In this case, the toddler is watching for aural cues that indicate his mother's approach, such as jingling keys or turning the doorknob.

The third level of understanding comprehends how one's words will impact others. In psychoanalysis, which examines the unconscious mind, this kind of listening is crucial. In order to communicate with the patient's unconscious without prejudice, according to Barthes, the psychoanalyst must put his or her own judgment aside while the patient speaks. Similar to this, when listening to others, lay listeners must refrain from passing judgment.

The three listening levels all operate simultaneously and on the same plane. In particular, the processes of acquiring, comprehending, and deriving meaning can be linked at the second and third levels, which heavily overlap. In this approach, anyone can virtually immediately presume that someone is at the door when they hear the doorknob turn (deriving meaning).

Active hearing

Listening actively in the main text

Active listening entails paying attention to what is being said while making an effort to understand it. There are numerous ways to describe it. Good listeners who are focused,

impartial, and interrupt-free are necessary for active listening. A person who listens actively searches the speaker's words for underlying meanings and subliminal signals. To fully understand what is being said, an attentive listener searches the speaker for nonverbal cues.

In order to actively listen, one must be open to hearing what is being said and making an effort to comprehend what has been heard. Active listening has numerous advantages. One can gradually improve their listening skills by being an active listener. Along the way, one's leadership abilities are strengthened.

A conversation involving two or more people is considered active listening. The talk will be of higher caliber and be more understandable if they are attentive listeners. Conversations between active listeners have deeper interpersonal connections. A deeper, more satisfying relationship between or among people might result through active listening.

The speaker's perspective can be changed by active listening. Active listening is a catalyst for one's personal growth, which increases personality transformation and group development, according to clinical study and data. If someone else gives them the opportunity to speak and convey their message, people are more inclined to pay attention to what they have to say.

Being present during a conversation is made possible via active listening. "Relationship building depends heavily on listening since, according to peaceful communication Dharma teachings, the more we comprehend the other person, the greater connection we establish. We should listen more intently than we speak, as someone just said."

When learning a language

One of the "four skills" of language learning, along with speaking, reading, and writing, is listening. Except for grammatical translation, every method of teaching a language includes a listening component. Students are required to do nothing more than listen and respond in some instructional techniques, such as total bodily response.

It's common to distinguish between "intense listening," in which students try to listen as accurately as possible to a very short speech sequence, and "extensive listening," in which students listen to lengthy sections for overall comprehension. Extensive listening is more successful at improving fluency and keeping learners motivated while intensive listening may be more effective at developing particular areas of listening ability.

Unless they are having trouble, people rarely think about how they listen in their first language, or native language.

During the listening process, L2 (second language) learners make conscious use of whatever tactics they unconsciously utilize in their native language, such as inferring, paying selective attention, or evaluating, according to a study on language learning facilitation.

Speech perception is influenced by a number of variables, including phonetic quality, prosodic rhythms, pauses, and input speed, all of which affect how easily listening input can be understood. For both first- and second-language speech comprehensions, there is a shared store of semantic information (single) in memory, but research has discovered separate stores of phonological information (dual) for speech. Phonological tagging of any language heard provides access to the scripts and schemata necessary for language comprehension (relationships to real-world persons, places, and actions).

Listening anxiety was found to be a significant barrier to improving speed and explicitness in second language hearing tasks in a study with 93 participants that looked at the relationship between second language listening and a variety of tasks. Additional studies looked into the relationship between listening anxiety and understanding, and as the researchers predicted, they found that the two variables were adversely connected.

Listening while speaking

Background

According to Krista Radcliffe, a large portion of literacy instruction in the United States involves traditional Western rhetorical theory, which prioritized speaking and writing but disregarded listening.

These views mainly concentrated on the retro's ability to persuade the audience through speech. Classical rhetorical studies therefore focused on what the audience should listen for rather than how they should listen. This viewpoint was expanded upon by Shari Stenberg in order to explain why listening is lacking in academia. While neglecting the word legion, which relates to speech as well as, in etymological terms, to lay down and listen, Western teaching methods kept the inherited rhetorical Greek noun logos, which signifies reasoning and logic to elaborate, hearing can take place in one of two stances: the divided logos or the restored logos. The methods used by each to (re)shape the purposes and results of listening are distinct. The listener concurrently responds to the speaker while listening in the divided logos.

On the other hand, within the restored logos, the listener takes advantage of the listening time by living through other people's experiences before reflecting on them and creating meanings in order to respond.

Aristotle's thesis was one illustration of divided logos. Listening was replaced and devalued despite the fact that it was concerned with teaching pupils oral discourse, which requires listening to generate and understand enthymemes. Speaking while not listening "perpetuates a homogenized way of discourse oriented on competitiveness rather than dialogue," according to the study. Radcliffe attributed this lack of hearing to the cultural prejudices of the West, which are shown as: Listening is gendered as feminine while speaking is gendered as masculine; Speaking is subordinated to ethnicity: White people speak while people of color listen; in other words, in cross-cultural relationships, there is one superior member of the conversation who does not need to listen as carefully; Western society prefers to rely primarily on visual rather than auditory cues for interpretation.

Rhetorical listening: a definition

Radcliffe urged linguists to think of listening as a fresh method for understanding and hearing the discursive discourses of race and gender and, most significantly, for fostering cross-cultural communication

As a metaphor for interpretive creation that "emerges from a space within the logos where listeners may deploy their agency," Radcliffe defined rhetorical listening. (p. 204) to put it another way, listening can be a tool for understanding the perspectives and experiences of others. As a result, listening allows us to understand, consider, and create new meanings. Radcliffe claimed that rhetorical listening offers a "position of openness that a person may

choose to assume in connection to any person, text, or culture" in order to achieve this. Radcliffe asserted that rhetorical listening cultivates people's awareness and willingness in a way that promotes communication, especially cross-cultural communication, as a result of this openness.

According to Steven Pedersen, when interlocutors maintain stereotypes and prejudices, a behavior that results in dis-identification, communication worsens. Contrarily, rhetorical listening fosters intercultural understanding and enables students and teachers to stifle mutual opposition.

People must be present and have the aim of seeking insight in order to engage in rhetorical listening. Simply listening will not result in this comprehension. Stenberg issued a warning against any anticipated interpretational restrictions that might result from these goals. As a result, the word comprehending becomes "standing under" when used in rhetorical listening. This entails taking into account all viewpoints in order to (re)conceive one's beliefs and moral principles. Therefore, people don't listen to others to absorb their ideas; instead, they cultivate these ideas so they can improve their language and alter their perspectives, creating a fresh space for other responses.

Teaching students to listen to rhetorically

Meagan Rodgers created the intent/effect approach as a way for students to improve rhetorical listening in the English composition classroom based on Krista Radcliffe's research on the subject. Applying this strategy is intended to challenge racial stereotypes and verbal discrimination. In her classroom-based research, Rodgers discovered that racism or racial stereotypes are unintentionally reinforced when members of the majority or dominant group concur with or make fun of a minority group member's racial peculiarities. The intent/effect strategy invites students to consider various perspectives of a statement and understand that well-intentioned comments (intent) can be perceived as detrimental (effect) by others, all without confronting them or jeopardizing their willingness to participate in class discussions.

Applying techniques from Deaf Studies is another tactic educators can use to enhance cultural sensitivity and practice rhetorical listening in the classroom. Students using this type of listening pedagogy must: be focused and turn down background noise share their story, including any relevant cultural background; engage in "critical dialogue" to understand others; and pay attention to their classmates' body language and the messages it conveys.

Students' reasons for remaining silent in class might also be clarified through rhetorical listening. Janice Cools talks about a number of reasons why there is silence in the ESL/ELL composition class, such as when students intentionally withhold their knowledge to prevent harassment from other students or teachers if they provide the incorrect response. An individual may feel uncomfortable and incompetent as a result of the anxiety and doubt that can follow this kind of reaction, which may force them to keep quiet in the classroom. Students may also opt to remain silent because they were taught to do so, particularly in secondary education in specific cultures, such as Puerto Rico.

Students should be asked in writing, according to Cools, "what a professor should deduce from [students'] silence" and "why [they] are (or are not] silent in [their] classes." Students

responded that silence can be helpful because it demonstrates their concentration on the subject matter, gives them the chance to learn about other points of view while listening to their peers, and enables them to contemplate and process questions. Moreover, because peers lack subject-matter expertise, talks may be viewed as interruptions. Cools comes to the conclusion that students should value and respect stillness in the classroom.
The ability to receive sounds through an organ, such as the ear, by detecting vibrations as periodic changes in the pressure of an environment is known as hearing or auditory perception. The study of hearing is known as auditory science.
Any material, whether solid, liquid, or gaseous, can carry sound.
It belongs to the conventional set of five senses. Hearing loss refers to a partial or complete loss of hearing.
Hearing is primarily carried out by the auditory system in humans and other animals. Mechanical waves, also known as vibrations, are recognized by the ear and converted into nerve impulses that are perceived by the brain (primarily in the temporal lobe). Similar to touch, audition involves awareness of the motion of molecules in the environment around the organism. Mechanosensation includes the senses of hearing and touch.

Mechanism for hearing
The outer ear, middle ear, and inner ear are the three primary parts of the human auditory system outside ear Main idea: the outer ear The pinna, the portion of the ear that is visible, and the ear canal, which empties into the eardrum, also known as the tympanic membrane, are both parts of the outer ear. Sound waves are focused by the pinna as they travel through the ear canal and toward the eardrum. Sound is filtered differently on its route into the ear depending on where it originates due to the asymmetrical nature of the outer ear in most animals. These characteristics enable these animals to localize sound vertically. Since the eardrum is an airtight membrane, sound waves that enter it force it to vibrate in accordance with the sound waveform. Ceremonious and sebaceous glands in the epidermis of the human ear canal create ceriman (ear wax), which shields the tympanic membrane and ear canal from harm and microbial invasion.

Centre ear
Middle ear, the main idea
A tiny air-filled chamber that is medial to the eardrum makes up the middle ear. The three smallest bones in the body, the malleus, incus, and stapes, together known as the ossicles, are located in this chamber (also known as the hammer, anvil, and stirrup, respectively). They assist in the transmission of the eardrum's vibrations to the cochlea in the inner ear. The middle ear ossicles' function is to provide impedance matching in order to compensate for the impedance mismatch between air waves and cochlear waves.
The stapedius muscle and tensor tympani muscle, which are also found in the middle ear, guard the hearing mechanism by stiffening reflexively. The oval window, a flexible membrane separating the fluid-filled inner ear from the air-filled middle ear, is where the stapes delivers sound waves to the inner ear. Another flexible membrane, the round window,

enables the fluid in the inner ear to be smoothly displaced by sound waves entering the room.

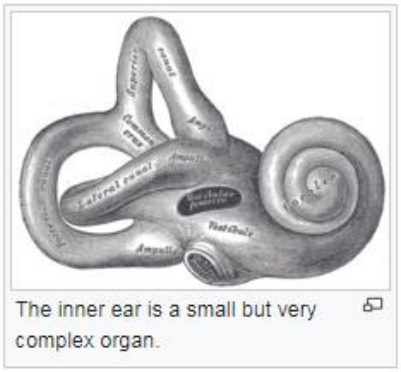


The middle ear uses three tiny bones, the malleus, the incus, and the stapes, to convey vibrations from the eardrum to the inner ear.

Fig 2.1 Ears

Inside ear

The cochlea, a fluid-filled tube with a spiral form that makes up the inner ear, is its component. The organ of Corti, which is the primary organ of mechanical to neural transduction, divides it longitudinally. The basilar membrane, a structure inside the organ of Corti, vibrates as waves from the middle ear travel through the end lymph, the cochlear fluid. Each frequency has a distinctive region of resonance along the ton topic basilar membrane. High frequencies are present near the cochlea's basal entrance while low frequencies are present at the apex. The hair cells in the organ of Corti, which are specialized auditory sensors, get depolarized as a result of basilar membrane motion. Although the hair cells do not generate action potentials on their own, they do release neurotransmitters when they make synapses with the fibers of the auditory nerve, which do. In this manner, the oscillation patterns on the basilar membrane are transformed into spatiotemporal firing patterns that communicate sound information to the brainstem.



The inner ear is a small but very complex organ.

Fig 2.2 Inner Ear

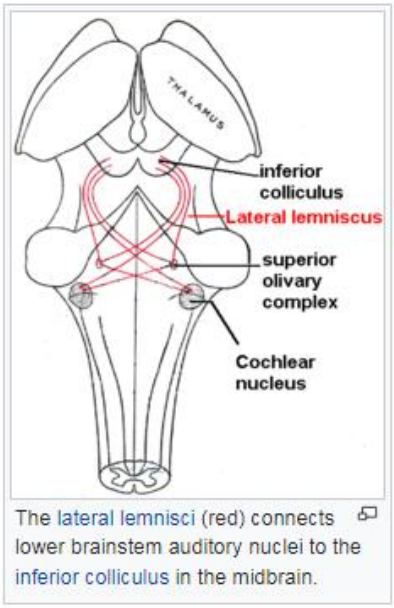
Neuronal

The auditory nerve carries the cochlea's sound input to the cochlear nucleus in the brainstem. The inferior colliculus in the midbrain tectum receives the signals from there and projects them thither. Involved in automatic responses like the auditory startle reaction, the inferior colliculus integrates auditory input with scant input from other areas of the brain.

The medial geniculate nucleus, a region of the thalamus, receives sound information from the inferior colliculus and relays it to the primary auditory cortex in the temporal lobe.

It is thought that sound first enters consciousness in the primary auditory cortex. Wernickes area, a cortical region involved in sound interpretation crucial for understanding spoken words, is located around the primary auditory cortex

Hearing issues may result from disturbances (such as stroke or trauma) at any of these levels, particularly if the disturbance is bilateral. In some cases, it can also cause auditory hallucinations or more complicated issues with hearing.



The lateral lemnisci (red) connects lower brainstem auditory nuclei to the inferior colliculus in the midbrain.

Fig 2.4 Neuronal

AUDIO TESTS

Utilizing an audiometer, behavioral tests can assess hearing. Even in unconscious

participants, electrophysiological hearing tests can yield precise assessments of hearing thresholds. These tests include electrocochleography, otoacoustic emissions, and auditory brainstem evoked potentials (ABR, OAE) (ECochG). The tests' technical advancements have made it possible for baby hearing screening to become widely used.

Mobile apps with hearing aid applications or audio logical hearing test functions can measure hearing. These programmers enable users to assess their hearing thresholds at various frequencies (audiogram). Hearing loss can be identified despite measurement mistakes.

Loss of hearing

Conductive hearing loss, sensor neural hearing loss, and mixed types are some of the several types of hearing loss.

The severity of hearing loss varies:

Slight hearing loss - Individuals with mild hearing loss find it challenging to follow discussions, particularly in noisy environments. People with minor hearing loss can hear the quietest sounds between 25 and 40 dB HL with their better ear.

Moderate hearing loss - Without a hearing aid, people with moderate hearing loss find it difficult to follow conversations. The quietest sounds that individuals with moderate hearing loss can typically hear with their better ear range between 40 and 70 dB HL.

A strong hearing aid is necessary for people with severe hearing loss. Even when wearing hearing aids, people frequently rely on lip-reading. Between 70 and 95 dB HL are the quietest sounds that people with severe hearing loss can detect with their better ear.

Extremely hard of hearing, people with profound hearing loss mostly communicate by lip-reading and sign language. People with severe hearing loss can only hear sounds that are 95 dB HL or louder with their better ear.

Causes

Heredity

Congenital disorders

Presbycusis

Acquired

Loss of hearing caused by noise

Chemical ototoxicants and medicines

Infection

Prevention

Utilizing equipment to prevent noise-induced hearing loss (NIHL), a form of post-lingual hearing impairment, is known as hearing protection.

The many strategies for preventing hearing loss typically concentrate on lowering the noise levels to which people are exposed. One approach to achieve this is by environmental changes such as acoustic quieting, which may be accomplished with simple solutions like enclosing a room with curtains or more difficult ones like using an anechoic chamber that virtually absorbs all sound. Earplugs, which are used to block noise and are put into the ear canal, and earmuffs, which completely enclose the ears of the wearer, are two more methods

Management

Management of hearing loss in the main

When neuronal damage is the cause of hearing loss, there is currently no cure. Instead, its effects can be lessened by using audio prosthetic devices, also known as hearing aids and cochlear implants, to aid with hearing. These services are provided by topologists and audiologists in a clinical setting.

Associated with health

Hearing loss is linked to dementia and Alzheimer's disease, with a larger risk for those who have more severe hearing loss.

Additionally, type 2 diabetes and hearing loss are linked.

Hearing in the ocean

Humans lose their hearing threshold and their ability to pinpoint sound sources when they are submerged, but aquatic creatures like whales, seals, and fish, which have ears that are suited to process water-borne sound, do not.

Vertebrate animals

Not all animals can typically hear all sounds. Each species has a range of loudness and frequency that corresponds to normal hearing. Hearing is particularly crucial for survival and reproduction in these species since many animals utilize sound to communicate with one another. Hearing is often most sensitive for the range of pitches produced in calls and speech in species that rely primarily on sound for communication.

Range of frequencies

Frequencies that people can hear are referred to as audio or sonic frequencies. Normally, the range is thought to be in the 20 Hz to 20,000 Hz range. Ultrasonic frequencies are those that exceed audio frequency, and infrasonic frequencies are those that fall below audio frequency. Some bats fly while using ultrasound echolocation. The idea behind "silent" dog whistles is that dogs are capable of hearing ultrasonography. Baleen whales, giraffes, dolphins, and elephants use infrasound for communication and perceive it with their jaws. A strong, bony connection between the ear and the swim bladder in some fish allows them to hear more clearly. Some fish species, like carp and herring, have this "aid to the deaf."



Fig 2.5 Invertebrates lack hearing

Invertebrates lack hearing, but they have evolved different structures and systems to interpret the vibrations that make up "sound" as they move through the air. The first scientist

to formally demonstrate this phenomenon in ant studies was Charles Henry Turner. Turner disregarded the possibility that ground vibrations could be detected and asserted that other insects probably have hearing systems as well

Numerous insects use the way air vibrations cause hairs on their bodies to deflect to hear sounds. Some insects have even evolved specialized hairs that are tuned to sense specific frequencies. For example, some species of caterpillars have evolved hair that resonates most strongly with the sound of buzzing wasps, alerting them to the presence of their natural adversaries.

Several insects have tympanal organs. These "eardrums" on the legs are actually air-filled chambers. The eardrums react to sonar waves in a manner akin to animals' hearing mechanisms.

The oscillation is converted into electric signals and sent to the brain by internal receptors. This ability to perceive the ultrasonic emissions allows certain species of flying insects that are preyed upon by echo locating bats to reflexively exercise ultrasound avoidance.

Interventions in the community and public health

To encourage responsible listening practices, several groups have established projects. For the "tween" demographic, the U.S. National Institute on Deafness and Other Communication Disorders (NIDCD) has recommendations for safe use of personal music players (children aged 9–13 years). The Dangerous Decibels initiative encourages the use of "Jolene" mannequins to gauge PLS output as a teaching tool to increase awareness of excessive sound exposure from personal listening. This kind of attention-grabbing mannequin is easy to build, doesn't cost much, and is frequently found in waiting areas at clinics, health fairs, and other venues.

The Know Your Noise campaign was created by the National Acoustic Laboratories (NAL), the research arm of Hearing Australia, with funding from the Australian Government Department of Health. Users can easily discover their levels of noise exposure (at work and play) and potential risks for hearing damage using the Noise Risk Calculator on the Know Your Noise website. Users can test their hearing in a noisy environment by taking an online hearing test

The Make Listening Safe initiative was introduced by the WHO on March 3, 2015, in conjunction with World Hearing Day.

The major objective of the programmed is to make sure that audio media may be enjoyed by individuals of all ages without putting their hearing at danger. Using headphones, headsets, earpieces, ear buds, and any True Wireless Stereo technology frequently and at high volume has been linked to noise-induced hearing loss, hyperacusis, and tinnitus.

Create Safe Listening seeks to:

Increase knowledge of appropriate listening techniques, particularly among younger people;

Elucidate the advantages of safe listening to decision-makers, health professionals, producers, parents, and others;

Encourage the design and adoption of guidelines that encompass safe listening features for personal audio devices and recreational spaces.

Becoming a repository for open-access materials and knowledge on sound safety in at least

six languages (Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian, and Spanish).
The World Health Organization released a toolkit for safe listening devices and systems in 2019 that outlines the justification for the suggested methods as well as the possible next steps for governments, business partners, and civil society.
The World Health Organization released a toolkit for safe listening devices and systems in 2019 that outlines the justification for the suggested methods as well as the steps those governments, business partners, and civil society can take to implement them.
One strategy used by Make Listening Safe is to encourage the creation of PLS features that will help users become more aware of unsafe listening habits. To create appropriate exposure limits for the voluntary H.870 safety guidelines on "Guidelines for safe listening devices/systems," the WHO collaborated with the International Telecommunication Union (ITU). On this project, specialists from the domains of audiology, otology, public health, epidemiology, acoustics, and sound engineering are working with manufacturers, users, professional organizations, standardization organizations, and experts in these fields.
Entertainment establishments are included in the Make Listening Safe initiative. Nightclubs, discos, pubs, gyms, and places where live sports are played can all have average sound pressure levels (SPL) as high as 112 dB (A-weighted); pop concerts may have much higher SPLs. These kinds of extremely high sound pressure levels might be dangerous if exposed frequently or even briefly. As part of World Hearing Day 2022, WHO reviewed the noise regulations already in place for a variety of entertainment locations, including clubs, bars, concert halls, and sporting arenas in various nations around the world? WHO then published a global Standard for Safe Listening Venues and Events? Released in 2022 as well were
A manual on how to build a healthy safe listening programmed called mSafeListening.
And a media toolbox for journalists with essential details and advice on how to discuss safe listening



The logo for the Make Listening Safe initiative of the World Health Organization

Fig 2.6 Create Safe Listening seeks

Personal audio players (PLS)
Personal listening systems are small, portable devices meant for listening to different media, such music or games. They typically consist of an electronic player connected to headphones

or ear buds. These systems produce a wide range of results. Depending on the exact devices and local regulatory restrictions, maximum output levels can change. PLS users often have the option to set a volume restriction between 75 and 105 dB SPL. It is advised by the ITU and the WHO that PLS be set up with a monitoring feature that establishes a weekly sound exposure limit and sends alarms when a user exceeds 100% of that limit. Users have the option to turn down the volume after acknowledging the alert. However, the device will automatically lower the volume to a predetermined level if the user does not acknowledge the alert (based on the mode selected, i.e. 80 or 75 dBA). The goal of this proposal is to make it simpler for listeners to regulate their exposures and prevent any harmful consequences by providing exposure information in a fashion that end-users can easily understand. Beginning in 2019, the health app for iPads, Apple Watches, and iPhones adopted this strategy. These include the opt-in Apple Hearing Study, a project being run in conjunction with the University Of Michigan School Of Public Health through the Research app. The Make Listening Safe initiative of the WHO receives data sharing. One year into the study, preliminary findings from March 2021 showed that 20% of participants had hearing loss, 10% of individuals had symptoms indicative of noise-induced hearing loss, and 25% of participants reported having ringing in their ears at least a few times per week. [41]

The majority of participants—nearly 50%—said it had been at least 10 years since their last hearing test. 25% of the subjects had high environmental sound exposures in terms of exposure levels.

The first European standard for personal audio systems, IEC 62368-1, was released by the International Technical Commission (ITC) in 2010.

It established 85 dB or below as the safe output level for PLSs while enabling users to turn up the volume to a maximum of 100 dBA. However, the standard stipulates that when users turn up the volume to its highest setting, a pop-up message shall appear to advise the listener of the possibility of hearing issues.

ITU and WHO's 2018 H.870 standard

The administration of weekly sound-dose exposure is the main topic of "Guidelines for Safe Listening Devices/Systems." The EN 50332-3 standard, "Sound system equipment: headphones and earphones associated with portable music players - maximum sound pressure level measuring technique - Part 3: measurement method for sound dose management," served as the foundation for this standard. According to this regulation, a weekly sound exposure equivalent to 80 dBA for 40 hours/week is the safe listening level.

Places for entertainment

Hearing issues can affect both people who work in the music business and those who listen to music for leisure at venues and gatherings.

A paper detailing rules for limiting sound exposure in entertainment venues in Belgium, France, and Switzerland was released by the WHO in 2019. The case studies were released as the first step in creating a WHO regulatory framework for the management of sound exposure in entertainment venues. A few studies from 2020 discussed exposure scenarios and practices used at entertainment events. These considered the security of individuals present at an event, those occupationally exposed to the loud music, as well as those in the

nearby areas. With country-specific examples, technical solutions, monitoring procedures, and on-stage sound are described together with the challenges of implementing environmental noise restrictions in an urban setting.

For those who frequent music venues, a number of various regulatory strategies have been put in place to regulate sound levels and reduce the danger of hearing loss.

A report from 2020 identified 18 rules governing sound levels in entertainment venues, 12 of which were from Europe and the rest from North and South American towns or states. Legislative measures include limiting sound levels, monitoring sound exposure in real time, requiring the use of hearing protection equipment, requiring signage and warnings, placing restrictions on the installation of loudspeakers, and guaranteeing that customers have access to quiet spaces or rest areas. Although it has not been determined if these precautions are helpful in lowering the risk of hearing damage the adaption of the above-described strategies is in line with the fundamental ideas of the hierarchy of controls used to limit noise exposure in workplaces.

Customers of music venues have stated that they prefer lower sound level and are open to the idea of having earplugs available or offered

This result might only apply to a certain area or nation. The findings of a survey of American adults about the use of a hearing protection device during exposure to loud sounds at recreational activities were released by the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention in 2018. [65] Overall, more than four out of five people said they never or only occasionally wear hearing protection when they go to a loud sporting or entertainment event. Young adults between the ages of 18 and 24 were substantially more likely to not wear hearing protection than adults aged 35 and older. Women are twice as likely as males to wear hearing protection rarely or never among people who frequently enjoy going to sporting events. Adults who were more likely to wear protection had higher household incomes or at least some college education. Adults with hearing loss or households with a deaf or hard-of-hearing member were much more likely to wear their safety equipment.

Implementing policies to lower hearing dangers in a variety of entertainment venues, whether through statutory or voluntary rules, with or without enforcement, is fraught with difficulties. It needs support from a wide range of professional associations as well as from venue management and patrons. On World Hearing Day 2022, the WHO and ITU announced the Global Standard for Venues and Events, which provides tools to encourage action. The guideline lists six characteristics that are suggested for secure listening areas and occasions. The standard can be utilized by governments to put laws into effect, by venue owners and event managers to safeguard their patrons, by audio engineers, and by other employees.

Individual interventions

Even though establishing efficient public and community health interventions, passing pertinent laws and regulations, and creating relevant standards for listening and audio systems are all crucial in creating a societal infrastructure for safe listening; individuals can take steps to ensure that their own listening habits reduce their risk of hearing issues.

Among my own safe listening techniques are:

PLSs should be heard at a loudness that is 60% or below for safety. One can avoid turning up the volume to drown out distracting background noise by using noise-cancelling headphones or sound-isolating earphones.

One can use sound measurement applications to determine how loud sounds are. A decent rule of thumb is that sounds are potentially hazardous if you have to raise your voice to be heard by someone an arm's length away without first measuring the sound levels. Using hearing protection or moving away from the noise are two strategies to lower exposure levels.

One can manage risk by keeping an eye on the amount of time spent engaging in loud activities. Take a break between exposures whenever you can to allow the ears to rest and repair. Looking out for early indications of hearing loss. Hearing loss may be indicated by tinnitus, difficulty hearing high-pitched sounds (such as birds singing or cell phone notifications), and difficulties understanding speech in noisy environments.

Regular hearing evaluations. From kindergarten through the third grade, as well as again in seventh and eleventh grade, school-aged children should have annual hearing loss screenings, according to the American Speech Language Hearing Association. Every ten years for adults up to the age of 50, and then every three years after that, should get their hearing tested. If any warning symptoms emerge, hearing testing should be done sooner.

Teaching young people how to adopt safe listening practices and the dangers of excessive exposure to loud noises can help safeguard their hearing. Healthy listening habits may also be encouraged by good listening role models. The opportunity exists for healthcare practitioners to inform patients about pertinent hearing issues and encourage safe listening practices. Hearing professionals can recommend suitable hearing protection as necessary as part of their health promotion activities, and they can also offer information, training, and fit testing to make sure people are sufficiently but not excessively protected. It has been demonstrated that using earplugs when attending concerts can significantly lessen transient hearing alterations after the event.

Concerns have been expressed concerning the potential hazards that could be connected to children's frequent exposure to PLS.

Due to physiologic differences and the more severe developmental effects of hearing loss early in life, there is no consensus on the acceptable risk of noise-induced hearing loss in children, and adult damage risk criteria may not be ideal for determining safe listening levels for children.

The best exposure limit for children's recreational noise exposure would aim to shield 99% of kids from a shift in hearing surpassing 5 dB at 4 kHz after 18 years of noise exposure, according to one attempt to determine safe limits.

The authors determined that, according to estimates from the International Organization for Standardization (ISO 1999:2013), 99% of kids who are exposed to 8-h average sound levels (LEX) of 82 dBA from birth until the age of 18 would have hearing thresholds that are about 4.2 dB higher, indicating a change in hearing ability. The study calculated a hearing change of 2.1 dB or less in 99% of youngsters by adding a 2 dBA margin of safety, which lowers the 8-hour exposure allowance to 80 dBA. It was advised that noise exposures be kept to no

more than 75 dBA per day in order to protect hearing from infancy until the age of 18. For children and individuals who are susceptible to high sound stimulation, other researchers advised limiting the weekly sound dose to the equivalent of 75 dBA for 40 hours/week.

Products for amplification of personal sound (PSAPs)

Products for ear-level sound amplification, or personal sound amplification, are designed for use by people with normal hearing. In 2014, the output levels of 27 PSAPs that were offered for purchase in Europe were examined. They all had a maximum output level that was higher than 120 dB SPL; 23 (85%) were higher than 125 dB SPL, and 8 (30%) were higher than 130 dB SPL. Level limiting was not an option for any of the examined products.

A few standards for these devices were created as a result of the report. The "Personal Sound Amplification Performance Criteria" ANSI/CTA standard 2051[48] was adopted in 2017. A 120 dB SPL maximum output sound pressure level was defined. ITU-T H.871 titled "Safe listening standards for personal sound amplifiers," was published in 2019. According to this regulation, PSAPs should monitor their weekly sound exposure and maintain a weekly maximum sound level of no more than 80 dBA for 40 hours. PSAPs should restrict the device's maximum output to 95 dBA if they are unable to measure the weekly sound dose. It also suggests that PSAPs include unambiguous warnings about the potential for ear injury in their user manuals, packaging, and advertisements along with instructions on how to reduce those risks. In 2021, a technical document outlining the testing procedures for determining whether various personal audio systems and devices adhere to the mandatory and optional features of ITU-T Recommendation H.870 was released.

2.2 HEARING VERSUS LISTENING

Ever hear the phrase, "You might be hearing me, but you're not listening to me"?

If you are aware of the saying, there is a significant possibility that you are aware of the distinction between hearing and listening.

Despite the fact that hearing and listening may appear to have the same function, there are some key differences between the two. We'll discuss some of the most significant variations and offer advice on how to develop your ability to actively listen.

Definition of hearing vs. listening

The definition of hearing is more concerned with the physiological process of hearing sounds than it is with understanding and engaging with the speaker.

Hearing is "the activity, function, or power of experiencing sound; specifically: the particular sense through which noises and tones are received as stimuli," according to Merriam-Webster.

In contrast, listening is defined as "paying attention to sound; hearing anything with serious attention; and giving consideration."

According to clinical psychologist Kevin Gillland, PsyD, there is a world of difference between the two.

He says, "Hearing is like gathering information.

Hearing is a very basic and basic act. Contrarily, listening is a three-dimensional experience. According to Gilliland, "those that excel at job, or in marriage, or in friendships, are ones

that have developed their ability to listen."

What does it mean to listen actively versus passively?

We can go one step further when it comes to the definition of listening. The terms active and passive listening is frequently used by specialists in the field of communication.

Curiosity is the essence of active listening. Active listening is "a manner of listening and responding to another person that increases mutual understanding," according to the United States Institute of Peace.

In other words, if you want to comprehend someone else or find a solution, you need listen in this way.

Passive listening is at the other extreme of the listening continuum.

A passive listener, particularly at work or in school, is one who isn't making an effort to contribute to the conversation, according to Gilliland. It's not a very effective approach to interact with others. Gilliland advises against using it around your spouse or children because they would instantly detect it.

How to listen more intently in the future

You might be curious to find out how to enhance your active listening abilities now that you are aware of the distinction between passive and active listening.

Gilliland offers six practical suggestions that you might apply to improve your ability to listen actively.

1. Show interest

A real interest in and desire to comprehend what is being said characterize active listening. When you're actively listening, you're more concerned with hearing what the other person has to say than with coming up with a response.

2. Pose thoughtful queries

This advice can be challenging, especially if you don't understand what a good question is. You should refrain from asking closed-ended, yes-or-no questions in order to practice active listening

Instead, concentrate on asking questions that promote further discussion. Request additional details and clarifications. Because emotions are involved when we listen, Gilliland says, "We urgently need as much information as possible if we want to move things ahead."

3. Take your time while starting a discussion.

It's not necessary to communicate at breakneck speeds. Think about starting the conversation slowly while you're speaking with someone. When we try to speed, we frequently argue, but listening requires no rushing, according to Gilliland.

4. Stay focused on the task at hand and avoids getting sidetracked.

Don't follow rabbit trails while trying to conduct a conversation in which listening is essential, advises Gilliland. In other words, refrain from deflecting attention from the subject at hand, especially if it's a challenging one, by bringing up irrelevant or insulting things.

Gilliland advises against doing this, saying that you should tune out the background noise and stick to your original point of discussion until it is finished.

5. Quit making up tales.

Have you ever had a chat with someone when you felt that a lot of details were missing?

Gilliland laments the fact that we often try to fill in the gaps when we don't have all the facts. And every time we do it, it's in a bad way. He advises to quit doing it and return to asking thoughtful questions as a result.

6. Avoid making a big deal out of making a mistake.

This advice should come naturally to you if you're good at taking responsibility for your mistakes. However, active listening could be challenging for you if you have trouble admitting when you're mistaken.

Try acknowledging when you're incorrect instead of placing so much importance on being right. "My fault, I was mistaken about it," says Gilliland, summarizing the process. I apologies.

Who are you as a listener?

You are best known by your closest friends and family. In order to find out what kind of listener you are, ask someone close to you. Gilliland suggests getting their opinion on the kinds of errors you commit when you listen to them.

Inquire with them about the areas where you can improve, he further advises. Ask them if there are any particular areas or themes you seem to struggle with the most if this is someone you spend a lot of time with.

Ask them if there are particular conversations or subjects where you tend to struggle with active listening, in other words.

Partial or complete hearing loss results in an inability to hear Hearing loss can develop later in life or be present at birth One or both ears may experience hearing loss Hearing issues in adults can make it difficult to communicate socially and at work, just as they can hinder children's ability to learn spoken language. Hearing loss can be either transient or irreversible. Due to the loss of cochlear hair cells, hearing loss associated with ageing typically affects both ears. Hearing loss can make some people feel lonely, especially older people. Most deaf people have minimal or no hearing.

Genetics, ageing, noise exposure, some illnesses, birth difficulties, ear trauma, and some drugs or toxins are only a few of the causes of hearing loss.

Recurrent ear infections are a frequent illness that impairs hearing.

The kid may potentially have hearing loss as a result of some illnesses contracted during pregnancy, including rubella, syphilis, and CMV.

When a person's hearing is tested and it is discovered that at least one ear cannot hear 25 dB, hearing loss is identified. All neonates should undergo testing for hearing impairment.

There are four levels of hearing loss: mild (between 25 and 40 dB), moderate (between 41 and 55 dB), moderate-severe (between 56 and 70 dB), severe (between 71 and 90 dB), and profound (greater than 90 dB). Conductive hearing loss, sensor neural hearing loss, and mixed hearing loss are the three basic categories of hearing loss

Public health initiatives can help prevent almost 50% of hearing loss worldwide.

Examples of such behaviors include immunization, sensible pregnancy care, avoiding loud noise, and avoiding particular drugs.

In an effort to reduce exposure to noise, the World Health Organization advises young people to restrict their exposure to loud noises and to using personal audio players for no

more than an hour each day.
In children, early identification and support are especially crucial. Many people find benefit from hearing aids, sign language, cochlear implants, and subtitles. Another useful talent some people learn is lip reading. However, many parts of the world have restricted access to hearing aids.
As of 2013, around 1.1 billion individuals worldwide had some degree of hearing loss.
It results in moderate to severe disability in 124 million individuals and causes disability in 466 million people (5% of the world's population)
108 million people with moderate to severe disabilities reside in low- and middle-income nations. Of individuals who have hearing loss, 65 million had it as children. Members of the Deaf culture who use sign language could consider themselves to be different rather than disabled. Many members of the Deaf community are against efforts to treat deafness. Cochlear implants could wipe out this community's culture, according to and some members of this community. Although the terms are still frequently used when referring to deafness in medical contexts, they are frequently seen negatively because they emphasize what people cannot do.



Fig 2.7 Hearing loss

Diminished sharpness to noises that might otherwise be heard normally is referred to as hearing loss. People who have a relative inability to hear sound at speech frequencies are

typically referred to as hard of hearing or hearing impaired. The increase in sound intensity over the typical level necessary for the listener to recognize it is used to classify the severity of hearing loss.

Deafness is described as a level of hearing loss that prevents a person from understanding speech, even with amplification.

Even the loudest noises produced by an audiometer, which produces pure tone sounds over a range of frequencies to assess hearing, may not be heard by someone who is profoundly deaf. No noises, regardless of amplification or mode of production, can be heard when one is completely deaf.

Another component of hearing is speech perception, which focuses on the perceived clarity of a word rather than the volume of sound it produces.

This is typically assessed using speech discrimination tests in humans, which assess both the capacity to recognize sound and the capacity to comprehend speech. There are very few hearing impairments that only impact speech discrimination. One illustration is auditory neuropathy, a type of hearing loss in which the auditory nerve fails to accurately convey sound information to the brain even when the cochlea's outer hair cells are intact and functional.

Many in the deaf community and advocacy groups prohibit the use of words like "hearing impaired," "deaf-mute," or "deaf and dumb" to characterize deaf and hard of hearing people because they are upsetting too many of them.

Hearing requirements

Also see hearing's maximum sensitivity and its range

Additional details: A-weighting and a contour with equal loudness

The range of human hearing is 0 dB to 120 dB HL or more in strength and 20 Hz to 20,000 Hz in frequency. The lowest volume that a normal human ear can detect without impairment is 0 dB; some persons can detect sounds as low as 5 or 10 dB. Above 90 dB, sound becomes generally uncomfortable loud, and 115 dB is the pain threshold. The hearing sensitivity of the ear peaks about 3,000 Hz, hence not all frequencies are heard equally by the ear. Beyond frequency range and intensity, there are many other aspects of human hearing that are difficult to quantify. However, an audiogram, which charts the sensitivity thresholds of hearing at specific frequencies, is often used to determine normal hearing for practical purposes. 'Typical' hearing may not be normal due to the cumulative effects of ageing, exposure to noise, and other acoustic assaults.

Symptoms and signs

Having trouble using the phone

Sound localization is lost

Trouble understanding speech, particularly that of women and children whose voices are more resonant.

Speech harder to comprehend when there is background noise (cocktail party effect)

Drab, muddled, or weak-sounding audio or voice

Need for louder speakers for music, radio, and other audio sources

Although hearing loss is sensory, it may come with additional symptoms:

Ears that hurt or feel pressure
A stifled emotion
Additionally, there might be auxiliary secondary symptoms:
Hyperacusis, often known as "auditory recruitment," is the term for heightened sensitivity to sound with concomitant auditory discomfort.
When there is no external sound, there is tinnitus, ringing, buzzing, hissing, or another sound in the ear. Dizziness and instability
Tympanophonia, or autophonia, is the abnormal ability to hear one's own voice and breathing noises. This condition is typically brought on by a patulous (constantly open) Eustachian tube or dehiscent superior semicircular canals.
Facial movement abnormalities (pointing to a probable tumour or stroke) or in Bell's palsy patients
Complications
Dementia and Alzheimer's disease are linked by hearing loss.
The risk rises as hearing loss progresses. Several theories have been put out, such as the redistribution of cognitive resources to hearing and the detrimental effects of social isolation brought on by hearing loss. Preliminary research suggests that using hearing aids can delay the deterioration of cognitive abilities.
Tinnitus and visual snow syndrome are two neurological illnesses that are brought on by thalamocortical dysrthymia, which is brought on by hearing loss.
Mental deterioration
A growing worry is hearing loss, particularly among older populations. For every decade after age 40, the prevalence of hearing loss about doubles. The prevalence of hearing loss is anticipated to increase due to the ageing population in the US, despite the secular trend perhaps lowering individual level risk of getting hearing loss.
Cognitive decline, which could lead to moderate cognitive impairment and eventually dementia, is another issue with the ageing process. Numerous study settings have looked into the link between hearing loss and cognitive decline. The majority of this research has discovered a consistent correlation between age-related hearing loss and cognitive decline, cognitive impairment, and dementia despite variations in study design and methods. This study supports the theory that hearing loss is associated with dementia independently of Alzheimer pathology and that there is no relationship between age-related hearing loss and Alzheimer's disease. The underlying causative mechanism for age-related hearing loss and cognitive decline is the subject of various hypotheses. This connection may have a common genesis or share a neurological disease with decrease in another physiological system, according to one theory. The cognitive load of an individual is another potential cognitive mechanism. The cognitive demands of auditory perception grow as people age and experience hearing loss, which may cause changes in brain structure and eventually dementia. Another theory contends that a number of psychosocial factors, including a fall in social interaction and an increase in social isolation, mitigate the relationship between hearing loss and cognitive decline. Since roughly 9% of dementia cases are accompanied by hearing loss, research findings on the relationship between hearing loss and dementia have

important public health implications.

Falls

Falls have major negative effects on health, particularly in ageing populations where they can result in high rates of morbidity and mortality. Since older persons often have more fragile bones and less effective protective reflexes, they are especially susceptible to the effects of injuries brought on by falls. The financial and healthcare systems may be burdened as a result of injuries sustained from falls. Age-related hearing loss has been reported to be strongly correlated with incidence falls in the literature. Additionally, there may be a dose-response relationship between hearing loss and falls; more severe hearing loss is linked to worse postural control and a higher incidence of falls. The underlying cause of the relationship between hearing loss and falls has not yet been identified. Numerous hypotheses suggest that there might be a connection between the deterioration of the auditory system and the rise in incident falls, which is caused by physiological, cognitive, and behavioral variables According to this data, correcting hearing loss may improve older persons' quality of life in terms of their health.

Depression

One of the main causes of sickness and mortality in the globe is depression. The suicide rate is higher in older persons than in younger adults, and depression is a more common cause of suicide. [39] Numerous researches have been conducted to look into possible risk factors that could lead to depression later in life. It has been discovered that some chronic conditions, such as coronary heart disease, lung disease, vision loss, and hearing loss, are significantly linked to the chance of developing depression. Loss of hearing can lead to a drop in health-related quality of life, a rise in social isolation, and a decline in social participation, all of which are risk factors for an increased likelihood of experiencing the symptoms of depression.

Fluency in spoken language

Hearing loss that persists after learning a language is known as post-lingual deafness. It might be brought on by illness, trauma, or a medication's side effects. Hearing loss typically happens gradually, and family members and acquaintances of those who are affected sometimes notice it long before the sufferers themselves do. Compared to pre-lingual deafness, post-lingual deafness is far more prevalent. Those who lose their hearing later in life, such as in late adolescence or adulthood, confront different difficulties as they adjust to their new hearing loss and maintain their independence.

Prelingual deafness, which can result from a congenital disease or from hearing loss before birth or in infancy, is a profound hearing loss that is sustained before the acquisition of language. Prelingual deafness hinders a person's capacity to learn a spoken language in youngsters, however deaf children who receive cochlear implants can learn a spoken language (sometimes combined with hearing aids). 90% to 95% of the time, non-signing (hearing) parents of deaf babies choose an oral strategy without the aid of sign language since these families lack prior sign language exposure and are unable to successfully teach it to their children without learning it themselves.

Unfortunately, this could lead to language deprivation for the deaf newborn in some

situations (late implantation or insufficient benefit from cochlear implants) because the deaf baby would not have a sign language if the child is unable to successfully acquire spoken language. Due to early exposure to a sign language by sign-competent parents, the 5–10% of deaf newborns born into signing homes may experience age-appropriate language development and may thus achieve language milestones in sign language instead of spoken language.

Causes

Main text: Hearing loss causes

Ageing, genetics, prenatal issues, and acquired causes including noise and disease are just a few of the many factors that contribute to hearing loss. The underlying cause of several types of hearing loss may be deemed unknown.

Presbycusis, a progressive loss of high frequency hearing with age, is common. This can begin for men as early as 25 and for women at 30. It is a typical side effect of ageing and is distinct from hearing impairments brought on by noise exposure, chemicals, or disease agents, despite being genetically varied. High blood pressure, diabetes, and the use of certain ear-harming drugs are common factors that can raise an aged person's risk of hearing loss. Although everyone loses hearing as they age, the degree and nature of the loss might vary.

The most common symptom of noise-induced hearing loss (NIHL), also known as acoustic trauma, is an increase in hearing thresholds (i.e. less sensitivity or muting). Approximately 50% of cases of hearing loss are brought on by noise exposure, which affects 5% of the world's population in some way. Noise exposure causes hearing loss more frequently than ageing. Noise standards are established by numerous governmental, commercial, and standards bodies. Many people are not aware of the dangers of ambient sound or the decibel level at which it becomes dangerous. Car stereos, children's toys, motor vehicles, crowds, lawn and maintenance tools, power tools, gun use, musical instruments, and even hair dryers are common causes of harmful noise levels. The danger of noise harm must be evaluated by taking into account all potential sources of damage. 12.5% of children in the US between the ages of 6 and 19 have permanent hearing loss as a result of exposure to loud noises

According to the World Health Organization, using loud personal audio devices puts half of people between the ages of 12 and 35 at danger. Loud toys, music played through headphones, and live performances or events can all contribute to hearing loss in teens.

Hearing loss may run in families. Seventy-five to eighty percent of all these cases are inherited by recessive genes, twenty to twenty-five percent by dominant genes, one to two percent by X-linked patterns, and less than one percent by mitochondrial inheritance.

When a person also has additional symptoms or health issues, such as Usher syndrome, Stickler syndrome, Warrensburg syndrome, Alport's syndrome, or neurofibromatosis type 2it is referred to as syndromic deafness. When a person has nonsyndromic deafness, there are no additional symptoms or health issues connected to their deafness.

According to reports, foetal alcohol spectrum disorders, which result in malnutrition during pregnancy as a result of excessive alcohol consumption, can result in hearing loss in up to 64% of infants born to alcoholic mothers. Due to an increased risk of hypoxia,

hyperbilirubinemia, ototoxic medications, infection, and noise exposure in neonatal facilities, premature birth can be linked to sensor neural hearing loss. Additionally, because hearing tests are typically administered to newborns within 48 hours of birth, doctors must wait until a premature baby is medically stable before testing hearing, which can take months after birth. As a result, hearing loss in premature babies is frequently identified much later than a similar hearing loss would be in a full-term baby. For newborns weighing less than 1500 g, the risk of hearing loss is highest.

Auditory neuropathy is one of the illnesses that causes hearing loss

Down syndrome, variation 1E of Charcot-Marie-Tooth illness,

These conditions include syphilis, vestibular schwannoma, autoimmune disease, multiple sclerosis, meningitis, cholesteatoma, otosclerosis, perilymph fistula, Ménière's disease, recurrent ear infections, strokes, superior semicircular canal dehiscence, Treacher-Collins, Usher syndrome, Pendred syndrome, and Turner syndrome, as well as viral infections like measles

HIV/AIDS, West Nile virus, and

Some drugs may have reversible effects on hearing. These drugs are regarded as ototoxic. This includes non-steroidal anti-inflammatory medicines (NSAIDs), both over-the-counter (aspirin, ibuprofen, naproxen) and prescription (celecoxib, diclofenac, etc.), paracetamol, quinine, and macrolide antibiotics. Loop diuretics like furosemide and bumetanide are also included others might result in long-term hearing damage. The amino glycosides, which include gentamicin as its primary component, and platinum-based chemotherapeutics like cisplatin and carboplatin are the two most significant groups.

In addition to pharmaceuticals, certain environmental pollutants, including metals like lead, solvents like toluene (found in things like crude oil, gasoline, and car exhaust, for example), and asphyxiants can cause hearing loss.

These ototoxic substances have an additional effect on hearing loss when combined with noise. Chemical-induced hearing loss begins in the high frequency range and is permanent. It weakens the central auditory system and causes lesions that harm the cochlea. Hearing loss risk can be higher when exposed to some ototoxic chemicals, such as styrene than when only exposed to noise. The effects are most pronounced when impulsive noise is included in the combined exposure. The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) and the US Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) published an informational bulletin in 2018 that introduces the problem, gives examples of ototoxic chemicals, lists the industries and occupations at risk, and offers prevention advice.

Damage can occur to the cochlea, the external or middle ear, the ear, or the parts of the brain that process the sounds our ears produce. Ossicular chain fracture and discontinuity are examples of middle ear damage. A fractured temporal bone may harm the cochlea, which is part of the inner ear. People who suffer head injuries are particularly prone to acute or permanent hearing loss or tinnitus.

Hearing or Listening

Hearing is an unintentional, automatic, and effortless brain reaction to sound. The majority of the time, sounds are all around us. For instance, we are used to the noises made by aero

planes, lawnmowers, furnaces, and other household appliances. We have trained ourselves to disregard those incidental sounds when we hear them, unless there is a specific reason not to. We develop the ability to filter out sounds that are unimportant to us, just as we choose to hear the ring of our cell phones and other important sounds.



Fig 2.8 Hearing or Listening

Contrarily, listening is intentional and targeted rather than random. It calls for motivation and work as a result. The best listening is giving active, undivided attention with the goal of understanding the meanings being given by the speaker. However, this chapter will look at some of the reasons why we don't always listen well as well as some techniques for improving our listening skills.

Gains from Listening

It's important to not take listening for granted. Prior to the introduction of writing, individuals mostly shared knowledge by showing rather than by explaining. Tribal histories were delivered to listening audiences by elders. Religious teachings were eagerly embraced by the audience. Only because audiences were eager to listen did myths, folklore, folktales, and stories for entertainment continue to exist. Nowadays, however, reading and listening to electronic recordings work just as well for obtaining knowledge and amusement as live listening. You can go back and play a tape if you get sidetracked and let your focus wander. Despite this, improving your real-time listening skills will still help you in at least four persuasive ways.

You improve as a student.

You will be able to recognize not just the words used in a lecture but also their emphasis and their more sophisticated meanings if you pay close attention to the content being taught in a classroom. You'll take more thorough notes and retain the instructor's assertions, details, and conclusions better. It can be helpful to pay close attention because professors frequently provide vocal indications about what information are crucial, particular requirements for assignments, and even what material is likely to be covered on an exam.

You Improve as a Friend

People are more likely to perceive you as someone who cares about them when you pay close attention to them while they are sharing ideas and experiences that are significant to them. This is especially true when you give someone your undivided attention and refrain from offering your own judgments, thoughts, or suggestions.

People will think highly of you and your intelligence.

You can tell that you're curious and interested in people and events when you listen attentively to others. Additionally, being able to interpret what you hear can help you become a more educated and considerate person.

The Benefits of Good Listening for Public Speaking

You begin to pick up more on the aesthetic elements associated with how people construct arguments and present information when you listen well to others. As a result, you are able to evaluate what you believe works and don't work in other people's presentations, which might aid you in changing your own speeches. For instance, paying close attention to how other people cite sources orally while they are speaking might help you come up with creative ways to mention sources in your presentation.

2.3 ACTIVE AND PASSIVE LISTENING

In a job where emotions frequently approach a critical mass, strong and effective communication skills are crucial. Professionals must be prepared to assist families in sorting through difficult material and making decisions that could have long-term effects on both the family of the potential donor and the families of others who can benefit from donation. Everyone concerned must work together effectively.

Unexpectedly, experts in this sector frequently miss or undervalue one important aspect of communication. The effectiveness of listening

Most professionals will admit that they have good active listening skills if questioned. It's starting to realize how infrequently individuals engage in attentive listening when interacting.

We allow ourselves to be sidetracked, preoccupied with other important issues, or planning our next move. Giving someone the respect and regard they deserve by being "totally present" and paying attention to them entirely is actually one of the most challenging communication skills to develop.

It has been demonstrated that conveying respect for another individual requires listening. Examine your own emotions to verify this assertion. Take into account a period when you were conversing with someone who kept interrupting you or kept bringing up their point of view. Perhaps it was obvious that they weren't "completely there" with you and that their thoughts were elsewhere. Our capacity and dedication to listening intently and empathically is crucial if we wish to establish a meaningful bond with another individual.



Fig 2.9 Different people listen differently

Hearing is essentially all that passive listening is. Allowing someone to speak without

interfering is passive listening, which is listening without responding. While not actively engaging in another activity, but nonetheless giving only passing attention to what is being stated? One-way communication is known as passive listening, in which the recipient does not offer comments or queries and may or may not comprehend the sender's message.

Responding in a way that shows you comprehend what the other person is attempting to tell you about their experience is an example of active listening. This is a very different method of communication than the unfocused or passive listening we frequently utilize in casual conversation.

When you accurately repeat back to someone what they have said, you demonstrate that you have been paying attention—rather than merely hearing—and that you actually comprehend the feeling(s) or message(s) they are attempting to get through.

This fosters an atmosphere that enables the speaker to go farther and occasionally even reach fresh insights. It is the cornerstone of respect and trust. It provides the base you need to provide better support to the families of the donors and recipients.

Empathy, effort, concentration, and a lot of practice are necessary for active listening, which is a conscious process.

Healthcare practitioners frequently describe their worry of "saying the wrong thing" when speaking to grieving families. This could be a sign of fear of setting off strong feelings. Another worry is that we might doubt our capacity to comfort and help others. And it makes sense why this is the case. In truth, no amount of words can take away the sorrow and suffering of the family. It's crucial to keep in mind that by putting active listening skills and practices into practice, you'll be able to create a setting where families may openly discuss their feelings and start to process this life-altering tragedy. Being listened to help people develop their own coping mechanisms while also offering comfort and healing during times of greatest need. Your expertise might mean the world to a lot of families.

Being a successful communicator is a lifelong Endeavour and dynamic process. There is a tone more to active listening and the many other skills that will enable you to interact with your team members and give outstanding care to potential donor families.

Although it may not come naturally to many of us, active listening fosters solid connections and is a crucial communication skill. It will require commitment and practice to improve your listening skills, but it will be well worth it in both your career and personal life.

Active listening as the name suggests is the process wherein the listener, carefully hears what the speaker says, processes the message and then responds to the message so as to lead the conversation further.

Active Listening involves paying full attention to the speaker, showing interest in what he/she is saying through expressions, body language and asking questions at timely intervals, to make a good conversation.



Fig 2.10 Active listening

The term "passive listening" refers to paying attention to the speaker during a conversation but doing so subconsciously. He/she remains still while listening to the speaker. Silent, attentive listening is listening without speaking and without joining in on the discourse.

This indicates that although the listener is physically present, it's possible that they're not paying attention to what the speaker is saying. As a result, the message is not retained by the listeners, and they might not be able to recollect it later.

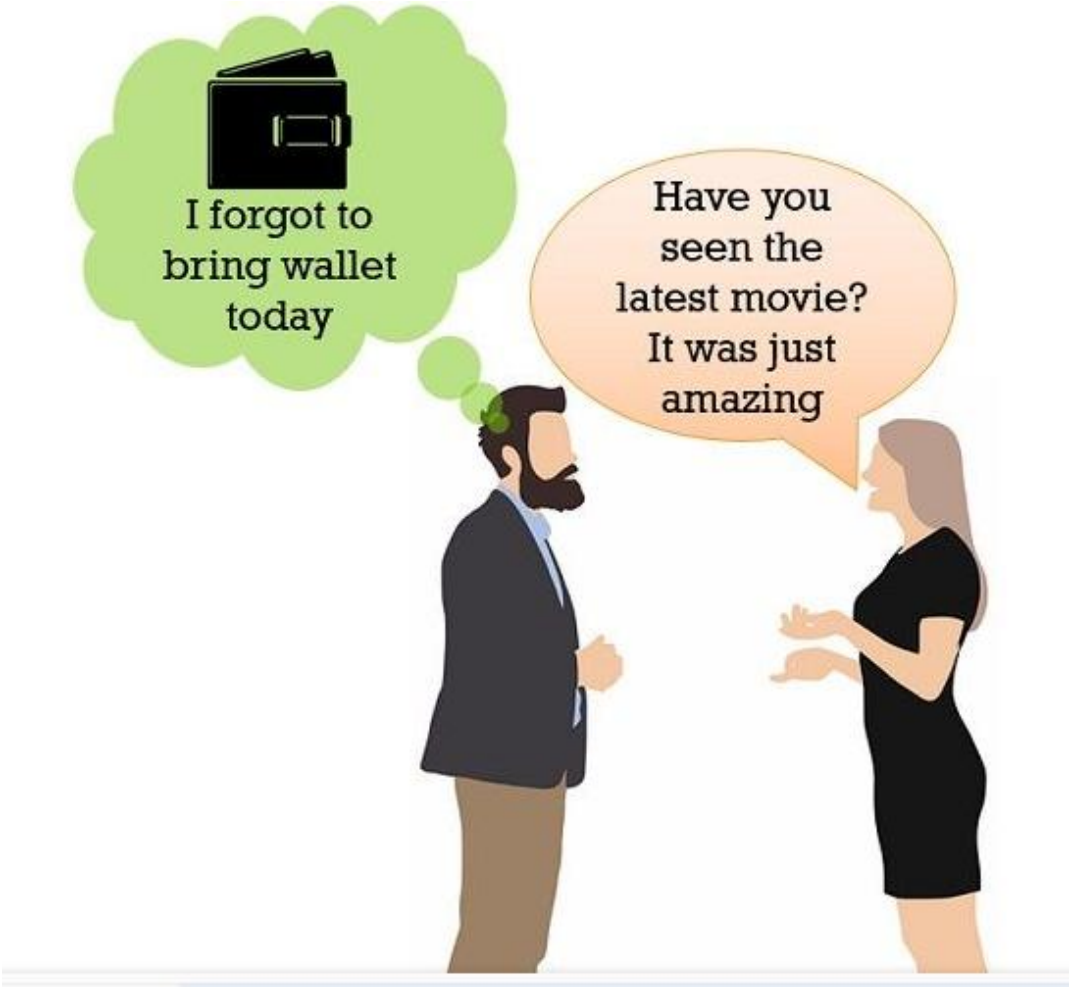


Fig 2.11 Passive listening

Important distinctions between passive and active listening

The following details how active and passive listening differs from one another:

When a person is actively listening during a discussion, they take in what the speaker says and make an effort to check the facts by posing questions. On the other hand, passive listening occurs when a listener is physically there but cognitively disengaged during a presentation. In this case, the listener hears all the speaker says but does not process it.

Passive listening is a mechanical process, but active listening involves interaction.

By expressing interest in the discourse, the listener actively encourages the speaker to continue speaking. On contrast, a passive listener frequently makes the speaker seem less important by not paying attention to what is being said and by displaying weariness and disinterest in his face.

Nodding, making eye contact, if necessary, and asking questions all enhance active listening. On the other hand, inactive listening is characterized by awkward posture, roving eyes, etc.

Responses or reactions play a crucial role in listening because they demonstrate how attentive or sharp the listener is. It is possible to listen passively without responding, although this is different from hearing. In this case, the listener does not pay attention to the speaker's discourse and does not interrupt the speaker. On the other hand, response or reaction on the side of the listener characterizes active listening.

As the listener or receiver does not give the speaker feedback, passive listening is a one-way conversation. In contrast, active listening involves two-way communication and includes appropriate responses, which show that the listener understands what the speaker is saying as well as hearing what they are saying.

A passive listener always wants the speaker to wrap up the topic as quickly as possible, so he/she does not lead the topic further by asking questions or offering suggestions. An active listener, on the other hand, shows his keenness for information by asking more questions, offering suggestions, and agreeing or disagreeing with the speaker's thoughts.

When someone is listening actively, they pay attention, comprehend, react, and retain the speaker's statement. In contrast, passive listening occurs when the listener simply pretends to be paying attention to the speaker while actually being lost in their own thoughts.

An active listener will alter their facial expression, roll their eyes, or demonstrate interest by posing questions or smiling, among other nonverbal cues. In contrast, passive listeners typically display nonverbal cues like yawning, aimless eye contact, boredom, being mute, etc.

Disadvantages of Active Listening

These obstacles to active listening are depicted:

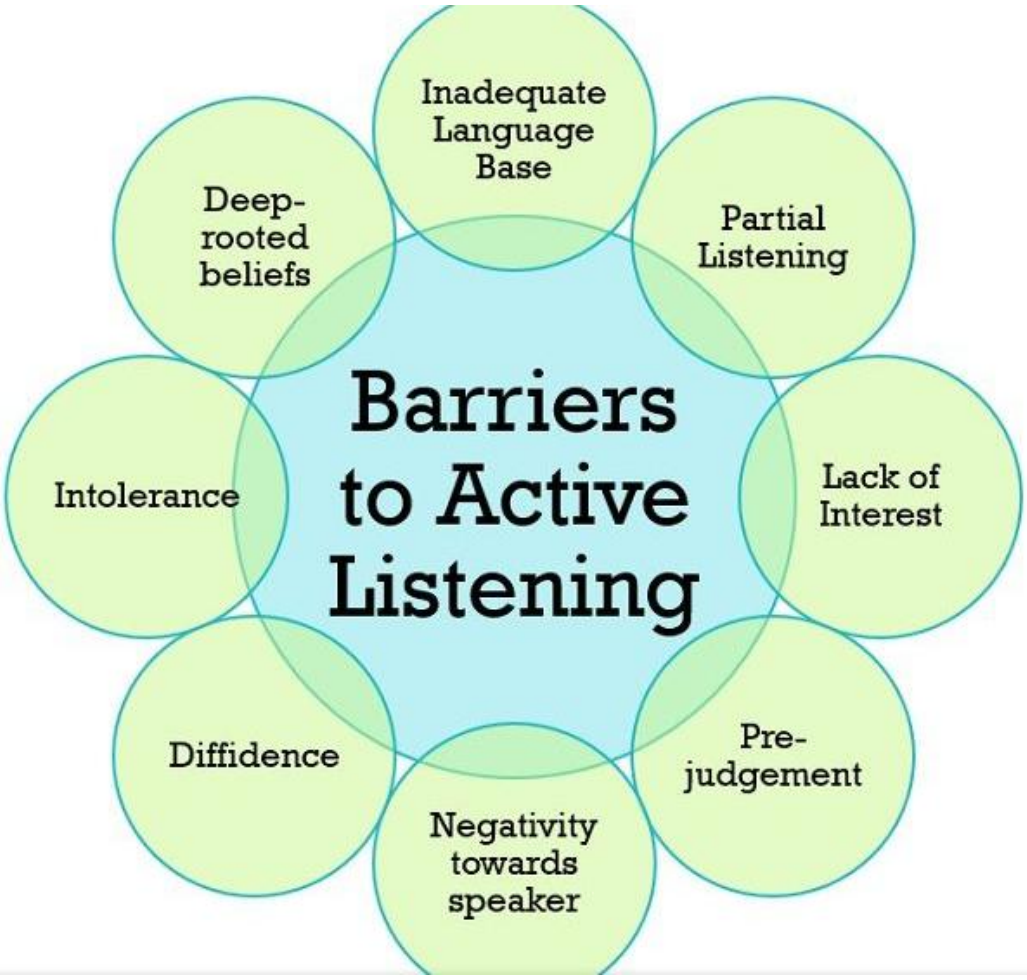


Fig 2.12 Barrier to Active Listening

ACTIVE LISTENING	PASSIVE LISTENING
Group Discussion	Watching TV while eating food.
Students asking questions from the teacher on the topic explained.	Listening to someone while operating mobile.
Job Interview	Listening to the speaker during the presentation.

Table 2.1 Active listening &Passive Listening

2.4 GUIDELINES FOR GOOD LISTENING AND ITS BENEFITS

Active listening is the practice of paying attention with intent and making an effort to understand what you hear before responding or asking a question. It is a crucial communication skill for company that is necessary at your job. What does attentive listening entail at work? You may make sensible decisions and communicate wisely if you are

attentive and pay attention to what is going on around you. A good speaker is one who has always been a good listener, as the saying goes.
The ultimate purpose of active listening is to learn as much as you can about individuals so that you can comprehend them before you react to a situation. Even if you don't naturally have the ability to listen actively, you can always work on it.
Active listening characteristics
Active listening requires a great deal of work on the part of the listener to be both physically and mentally present. Active listening involves a variety of cognitive skills, including questioning, paraphrasing, and summarizing what you hear. To learn more about the problem and to make your point more clear, ask questions. The speaker's resilience is also strengthened as a result of this.
Effective listening is characterized by being attentive and concentrating on what is being said. Active listening involves more than just listening; it also involves accepting what others have to say and, when necessary, empathizing.
Eye contact, nodding, an upright posture, or verbally validating what you are listening to are nonverbal cues that you are paying attention. Positive body language enhances the listening process by demonstrating your interest.
Don't just hear; listen to learn, to comprehend the seriousness of the debate, to enjoy yourself, or to get the most out of a conversation. Never plan a reply while having a conversation. By removing other environmental influences, avoid getting sidetracked.
Before you diverge and start making judgments, give the speaker the chance to finish. When answering a question, be open and truthful. Again, one of the key components of active listening is patience.

The advantages of active listening

There are many advantages to active listening, but there are also some drawbacks. Let's examine and discuss the advantages of active listening.
Engaging in active listening enables the speaker to express his emotions. Conflict can be avoided by practicing active listening, which also improves your comprehension of the conversation.
The listener maintains attention on the discussion as a result of active listening.
Building a strong relationship, rapport, and the highest level of trust between the listener and the speaker requires active listening.
Active listening encourages the collaborative trust that is crucial for jointly solving problems. Before taking action, it is crucial to have a group discussion.
Active listening is crucial in times of emergencies or crises to accurately understand sensitive information and calm the situation.
As you navigate life with health and wholesome relationships, active listening helps you develop self-worth and confidence.
The likelihood of misunderstanding, blunders, or a communication breakdown is reduced by active listening, which also strengthens conversations.
Listening Actively at Work

It's crucial to practice active listening in the workplace if you want to advance professionally. You, your coworkers, and friends may understand each other's organizational needs and assist them in achieving their objectives. The advantages of active listening at work are those listed above.

Gaining Trust It's crucial to establish respect and trust in the workplace. In order to do this, we must always remain non-judgmental and be willing to listen. Gaining trust only requires being open and helpful.

Superior Productivity

At work, a group of attentive listeners can share ideas and generate creative solutions to improve output and grow your company. Giving constructive criticism frequently increases productivity as dialogue takes place in both directions.

Self-Empowerment

Your knowledge increases as you actively listen. Speaking less and listening more will help you understand the conversation better. You can maintain your sense of empowerment with the support of this confidence boost.

Better-Outcome

Clear communication among coworkers fosters strong teamwork and deep understanding, which improves business outcomes.

Gaining Clients

Customers are won over when their needs are met right away and their questions are satisfactorily addressed. He would always spread good news about your company. Wining someone over involves active listening a lot.

A Conclusion

The definition of active listening and its advantages were both clearly explained in this essay. It is simple to develop the habits necessary to become an active listener now that you are aware of its qualities.

2.5 LISTENING ACTIVITIES

The advantages of being a good listener are numerous. People with excellent listening abilities can encourage others to feel comfortable sharing their ideas. Additionally, they might be better able to diffuse conflict and show respect for the speaker. Being more likeable, developing deeper relationships, and having a better comprehension of the topics being discussed are further potential advantages.

Positive listeners are more endearing. The conversation is being held by people who can listen well. People are frequently seen as more likeable when they listen intently.

Relationships are strengthened by attentive listeners. The flow of communication is two-way. Good listeners express curiosity, pose probing questions, and pay attention to what is being said. This lessens misunderstandings and strengthens bonds between people.

Good listeners comprehend the subject being conveyed more clearly. The goal of someone with skilled listening is to thoroughly comprehend what they are hearing. They are aware of both verbal and nonverbal cues, and when necessary, they seek clarification.

Techniques for Listening Well

Not a passive activity, listening is a process you actively engage in. You need to pay attention to the speaker and their message in order to listen better. You should also let the speaker know that you comprehend what they have said. Here are just a few methods you can utilize to improve your listening skills.

Establish eye contact. Make eye contact with the speaker and keep it going so they know you are paying attention. Turn off the radio and TV, put your phone on silent, and put it away. Set your status to "do not disturb" and close any open browser windows if you're participating in a Zoom meeting. You may come off as indifferent and find it difficult to focus on what is being said if you look at your phone or scan the room.

Pose follow-up inquiries. To get extra information if the speaker's message isn't clear, ask clarifying questions. You can also validate your understanding by asking questions such, "I want to make sure I got it right. Does that sound like what you're asking? You can use this to determine whether you correctly understood the message. Take notes and give yourself space for silence if you're conversing with a teacher, a fellow student, or a manager. This enables you to pause and consider the data you've just received before requesting more details.

Be mindful and present. Good listeners are focused and present in the conversation. They block off outside noise and pay full attention to the speaker. Additionally, demonstrating active listening and engagement with the speaker by employing a positive minimal reaction like nodding, touch, or sound.

Avoid interjecting. Interrupting implies that you are uninterested in what is being stated. Interrupting might sometimes give the impression that you are not interested in what is being said and were waiting for an opportunity to say something else.

Illustrations of Poor Listening

Ineffective listeners are disinterested, avoid eye contact, and frequently miss the information being conveyed. Selective listening, being distracted, and defensive listening are ineffective listening techniques that you should avoid.

Discerning listening Hearing with a highlighter is what selective listening is like. Selective listeners only focus on the portions of the speaker's message they believe are most important to them, rather than taking the speaker's message as a whole.

Listeners who aren't paying attention don't give presenters their entire focus. They frequently lose track of what the speaker is saying because they are preoccupied with other things and easily sidetracked.

Listening with caution. I don't like people who are indecisive is an innocent statement that defensive listeners interpret as a personal attack. Relationships, both personal and professional, can suffer from defensive listening.

4 Types of Listening

It takes practice to improve listening abilities, but it is possible. Strong listening skills can be useful whether you want to increase your network, land a new customer, or build stronger relationships with your family. Here are just a few examples of good listening techniques.

1. Listening intently

When you're devoted to comprehending the speaker's viewpoint, deep listening happens. It

requires observing verbal and nonverbal signs, such as the words being used, the speaker's tone and body language. By fostering trust and rapport, this kind of listening encourages others to feel at ease while expressing their ideas and opinions

Complete Listening

Full listening entails giving full attention to what is being said by the speaker. Active listening strategies are frequently used, such as paraphrasing what has been said to the person you are conversing with to make sure you comprehend their meaning. Perform listening is beneficial in the classroom, when receiving instructions on how to complete a task, and when speaking with superiors about work tasks

3. Listening critically

Analyzing a speaker's message and separating fact from opinion requires methodical thinking and careful consideration. When listening to political discussions or salespeople marketing a product or service, or when speakers may have an objective or aim in mind, critical listening is frequently beneficial.

4. Compassionate listening

Allowing a friend, coworker, or family member to talk about their concerns is known as therapeutic listening. Along with empathizing with their experiences, it entails stressing and using reassuring nonverbal signs like nodding and maintaining eye contact.

Learn to Listen Better

It takes practice to improve your listening skills, but once you do, you'll discover that you're always picking up new information about the individuals you speak with. Additionally, you might discover that you have a stronger sense of subtle signaling indications than others.

There are many different approaches of listening, but they all revolve around being present, paying attention, and showing respect to the people speaking. This skill can make you a better coworker, parent, student, and partner.

The two general listening types, which serve as the basis for all other listening subtypes, are

Discriminatory Hearing

Wide-ranging Listening

Discriminatory Hearing

Discriminative hearing begins to develop extremely early, possibly even in the womb before birth. This is the simplest type of hearing since it focuses only on the various sounds that are made and does not require understanding the meaning of words or phrases. Early on, a differentiation is created between the sounds of the parents' voices, with the father's voice being heard differently from the mother's.

Through childhood and into maturity, discriminative listening develops. Our capacity to discern between various noises gets better as we age, mature, and accumulate more life experience.

We learn to distinguish minute changes in the way sounds are produced, which is essential to finally understanding what these sounds represent. This goes beyond just being able to distinguish between different voices. The ability to recognize other languages, differentiates between regional accents, and pick up on nuances that reveal a speaker's emotions and

moods are just a few examples of the differences.

Understanding small differences in speech produced by people who are pleased, unhappy, furious, or worried, for example, adds value to what is really spoken and, of course, facilitates comprehension. We can start to understand the speaker more thoroughly when discriminative hearing abilities and visual inputs are coupled. For instance, we can recognize someone is unhappy notwithstanding what they are saying or how they are saying it.

Imagine being surrounded by speakers of a language you are unable to understand. Maybe going through an airport in a different nation. Based on the speech tones, mannerisms, and body language of the other people, you can probably tell the difference between different voices, including those of men and women and young and elderly, as well as acquire some knowledge of what is happening around you. Although you do not understand what is being said, you are employing discriminative listening to understand your environment to some extent.

Wide-ranging Listening

Understanding the message or messages being communicated is necessary for active listening. Comprehensive listening is a key component of all listening subtypes, just like discriminative listening

The listener must have the necessary language and vocabulary abilities in order to employ comprehensive listening and, as a result, grasp what is being said. Therefore, using overly complex language or technical jargon can prevent someone from listening carefully. The fact that two persons listening to the identical thing could have two different interpretations of what they just heard complicates comprehensive listening even further. In a group context, such as a classroom or business conference, where many distinct interpretations can be inferred from what has been stated, this problem can be amplified.

Sub-messages from non-verbal communication, such as voice tone, gestures, and other body language, complement attentive listening.

These non-verbal cues can substantially improve comprehension and communication, but they can also be perplexing and perhaps result in misunderstanding. It's crucial to ask questions and apply comprehension-enhancing techniques like reflection in a variety of listening circumstances.

Particular Listening Styles

Specific hearing kinds require discriminative and thorough listening.

The purpose of the hearing might characterize different listening styles.

The three primary listening styles that are used in interpersonal communication the most are:

Knowledge-Based Listening (Listening to Learn)

Observant Listening (Listening to Evaluate and Analyze)

Empathetic or Therapeutic Listening (Listening to Understand Feeling and Emotion)

In truth, you might be listening with more than one aim in mind at once. For instance, you might be listening to understand while also seeking to be empathic.

Knowledge-Based Listening

Informational hearing is any listening that is done with the intention of learning something. This is valid in a variety of everyday contexts, including education and the workplace, as

well as whether you watch a documentary, listen to the news, get recipe instructions from a friend, or get assistance with a computer-related issue.

Even while all forms of hearing are "active," understanding requires focus and effort. Compared to many other listening styles, informational listening is less active. When we listen to learn or be instructed, we are absorbing new facts and information; we are not analyzing or critiquing. In order to preserve important information so that it may be reviewed later, note taking is frequently done in conjunction with informational listening, especially in formal contexts like meetings at work or in the classroom. (For more details, see Taking Notes.)

Observant Listening

When our intent is to assess or examine what is being said, we can say that we are practicing critical listening.

When compared to informational listening, critical listening is far more active and typically involves some sort of problem-solving or decision-making. Similar to critical reading, critical listening involves analyzing the information heard and comparing it to what we already know or think. While receiving facts and/or fresh information may be the main focus of informational listening, critical listening focuses on analyzing opinion and passing judgment.

When you use the word "critical" to describe reading, thinking, or listening, you are not necessarily implying that the material you are hearing is false or incorrect in any way. Instead, active listening involves asking oneself questions like, "What is the speaker attempting to say?," "What is the main argument being presented?," and "How does what I'm hearing differ from my views, knowledge, or opinion?" Thus, critical listening is essential to real learning. (Also see Critical Reading on our website.

We base a lot of our daily decisions on some kind of "critical" examination, whether it be critical thinking, reading, or listening. Our ability to digest information, establish our own ideas about the world around us, and assess the pros and drawbacks of different options allows us to form our thoughts, values, and beliefs.

When listening critically, it's crucial to keep an open mind and avoid prejudice caused by preconceptions or prior notions. You will improve your listening skills and extend your understanding and perspective of other people and your relationships by doing this.

Empathetic or Therapeutic Listening

Empathetic listening entails making an effort to comprehend the speaker's thoughts and feelings in order to empathies with them and share their perspective. (For additional details, visit our page What Is Empathy?).

In order to truly connect with someone, one must have empathy, and therapeutic or empathic listening can be particularly difficult. Since empathy requires a deeper connection and an awareness of another person's perspective, it differs from sympathy in that it goes beyond feeling sympathetic or empathetic for another.

To comprehend and eventually assist their clients, counselors, therapists, and various other professionals use therapeutic or empathic listening. Instead of passing judgment or giving advice, this kind of listening softly prods the speaker to comment on their feelings and

emotions.
Clarification and reflection techniques are frequently employed to assist prevent misconceptions. For further information on these subjects, visit the following sections on our website: What is counseling? Clarification and Reflection.
We can all listen empathically and can practice this skill with friends, family, and coworkers. In many interpersonal situations, demonstrating empathy is a desired quality. You might feel better at ease discussing your own experiences and emotions with a particular person. A good friend, your spouse, a parent, or brother, for example, are likely to listen to you with more empathy than others since you share similar viewpoints, experiences, ideas, and values with them.

2.6 AUDIO AND VIDEO CLIPS (SEE THE RECOMMENDED CLIPS)

Electrical or optical connectors are used to transmit audio and video signals, respectively. Physical parameters and signal interpretation are defined by audio and visual interfaces, respectively. This can be seen as describing the physical layer, data link layer, and most or all of the application layer for digital audio and digital video. These features are all represented for analogue audio and analogue television in a single signal specification, such as NTSC or the direct speaker-driving signal for analogue audio.
Electrical or optical equipment's physical features include the required wire kinds and numbers, voltages, frequencies, optical intensity, and connectors' physical designs. Any specifics of the data link layer specify how application data is wrapped (for example for synchronization or error-correction). Application layer details, which frequently include codec’s not unique to the interface like PCM, MPEG-2, or the DTS Coherent Acoustics codec, establish the actual audio or video format being conveyed. The application layer is sometimes left open; for instance, HDMI has an Ethernet channel for sending all kinds of data.
Some connector types are utilized by numerous hardware interfaces; for instance, composite video and component video interfaces both use RCA connectors, while only DVI utilizes the DVI connector. As a result, not all components with physically comparable connectors will always function as a unit.
Shielded cables are frequently used with analogue A/V connections to reduce noise and radio frequency interference (RFI)
Several signals
Several general-purpose digital data connection standards are made to convey power, audio, and video data.
Display Link is its most successful Audio Video protocol. USB was created as a single connector to accommodate all demands, including any general data, audio/video, power, and more. Prior to the 3.0 upgrade, the majority of A/V required other connectors due to the very low data speeds.
Many other protocols are possible with USB-C, including USB 3.1, Display Port, Thunderbolt, HDMI, MHL, power, and audio.
The replacement for FireWire, a general-purpose high-speed data link with clear audio/video

usage, is Thunderbolt. Though not every USB-C is Thunderbolt compatible, the most recent Thunderbolt 3 uses it as its port.
High-end studio audio and video equipment, Camcorders (especially MiniDV), and other devices employ FireWire, a general data link with audio/video standards.
Along with its Mini Display Port counterpart, Display Port transmits digital audio, digital video, and auxiliary data.
30-pin dock connector, Apple iPod, iPhone, and iPad docking cradle, and its Lightning successor
The no longer used Apple Display Connector (ADC) Apple Connector for Display
Audio over Ethernet, audio over IP, IPTV, and other digital multimedia formats are supported by Ethernet when employing modular connectors.
Some digital connection protocols were created specifically to concurrently transmit audio and visual signals:
Along with supporting other protocols, HDMI mixes uncompressed video data that complies with DVI standards with compressed or uncompressed audio.
High-Definition Link for Mobile (MHL)
Many analogue connectors include both of these:
The F connector, commonly referred to as an RF connector, was the common analogue connector used in the Americas throughout the analogue era. It was originally used with coaxial cable (RG-59 and RG-6), but it has since been adapted for use with general digital data connections.
In Europe, SCART was the de facto connector during the analogue era.
The S-Video connector was advancement over the F connector.
4 conductor tip-ring connector.
S/PDIF
S/PDIF is an audio-only format that uses optical fiber or electrical coaxial cable with RCA plugs (TOSLINK).
It should be noted that the signals sent via optical or coaxial S/PDIF connectors carry the exact same information; there are no distinctions. The choice between the two is primarily determined by the user's preference and the presence of suitable connectors on the equipment of choice. Coaxial cable should be used for connections longer than 6 meters or for those requiring tight bends because TOSLINK cables' effective range is constrained by their substantial light signal attenuation...
The small audio/video standard known as High-Definition Multimedia Interface (HDMI) is used to send uncompressed digital data.
There are three various kinds of HDMI connectors. The HDMI 1.0 specification established Type A and Type B. The HDMI 1.3 specification specified Type C. Electrical compatibility exists between Type A and single link DVI-D. Dual link DVI-D and Type B are electrically compatible, although Type B has not yet been applied to any products.



Fig 2.13 Hdmi Type Socket

A popular digital data transmission protocol for cameras (common on MiniDV tape camcorders), IEEE 1394 (branded "FireWire") is also used for computer and audio data transfers.

In contrast to the Point-to-Point connections mentioned above, IEEE 1394 allows several signals to share one wire while still having the data delivered and shown on the destination set. Additionally, it is entirely bi-directional, using its entire bandwidth in one direction or the other, or splitting it up to the fullest extent possible.

IEEE 1394 "FireWire" [edit]

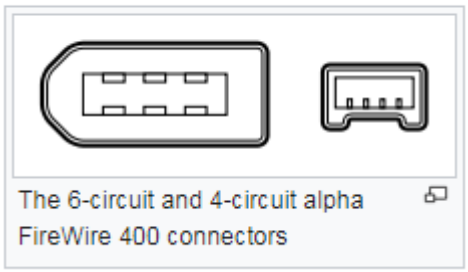


Fig 2.14 , IEEE 1394 FireWire

A group of PC and semiconductor manufacturers created the Display Port (DP) digital display interface, which the Video Electronics Standards Association then standardized (VESA). The main function of it is to link a video source to a display device, like a computer monitor. Audio, USB, and other types of data can also be carried on it.

To replace VGA, FPD-Link, and the Digital Visual Interface, Display Port was created (DVI). By using either active or passive adapters, it is backward compatible with other interfaces like HDMI and DVI.

It is the first display interface to use packetized data transmission, a type of digital

communication used by Ethernet, USB, and PCI Express, among other technologies. Both internal and external display connectors are allowed to be used. Its protocol is built on tiny data packets known as micro packets, which can integrate the clock signal in the data stream, providing greater resolution requiring fewer pins, in contrast to conventional standards that broadcast a clock signal with each output. It is extensible due to the usage of data packets since more capabilities can be added over time without substantially altering the physical interface.

Although each can be delivered independently, audio and video can be transmitted concurrently over Display Port. The audio signal path can include up to eight channels of 24-bit, 192 kHz uncompressed PCM audio, and the video signal path can have six to sixteen bits per color channel. [1] Device management and device control information for the Main Link, such as VESA EDID, MCCS, and DPMS standards, is transmitted over a bidirectional, half-duplex auxiliary channel. Bidirectional USB signals can also be sent and received using the interface.

DVI or HDMI are incompatible with the LVDS signal protocol used by the interface. Dual-mode Display Port ports, on the other hand, are intended to enable compatibility mode and convert the signal from 3.3 to 5 volts while transmitting a single-link DVI or HDMI protocol (TMDS) across the interface with the use of an extra passive adaptor. A powered active adapter is necessary for compatibility with analogue VGA/YPbPr and dual-link DVI and is not dependent on dual mode. Active dual-link DVI adapters often need on an external power source, such as USB, whereas active VGA adapters are powered directly by the Display Port connector.

Connections for audio

For audio frequencies, there are audio connectors. They could be digital or analogue.

Typical single-wire connectors for analogue audio include:

Banana splices

Connections for spades

Banana plugs and five-way binding posts for loudspeakers

On early breadboard radio receivers, Fahnestock clips.

Screw terminal connectors known as "Phoenix connectors" or "European-style terminal blocks" are used for audio and control communications.

Connectors with several conductors:

DB25 is for analogue or digital multi-channel audio and multi-track recording.

Both mini-DIN and DIN connectors

Screw terminal connectors known as "Phoenix connectors" or "European-style terminal blocks" are used for audio and control communications.

For use with analogue or digital audio or analogue video, RCA connectors, also known as phono connectors or phono plugs are available.

Neutral’s Speak on connectors for loudspeakers

Tip-ring-sleeve (TRS) or tip-sleeve plug, phone plug, jack plug, mini-jack, and mini-stereo are further names for the phone connector. This contains the mono and stereo (balanced) variants of the more modern and widely used 3.5mm (miniature or 1/8 inch), 2.5mm

(subminiature), and the original 6.35mm (quarter inch) connector.
Cannon plugs, commonly known as XLR connectors, are used for balanced analogue or digital audio.
Interfaces and interconnects for digital audio:
Interface ADAT (DB25)
Typically, the AES/EBU interface uses an XLR connector.
S/PDIF delivered through optical fiber or electrical coaxial cable with RCA jacks (TOSLINK).
An audio jack, phone plug, jack plug, stereo plug, mini-jack, or mini-stereo is another name for a phone connector (tip, ring, or sleeve).
This covers both the mono and stereo variants of the more current 3.5mm (miniature or 1/8 inch) and 2.5mm (subminiature) jacks in addition to only video signals are carried by video connections. Common connectors used just for video include:
Known as component video or YPbPr (3 RCA or BNC; or D-Terminal)
Montage videos (1 RCA, Antenna socket, or BNC)
DB13W3 ("13W3" computer video connector)
A single DMS-59 connector that can accommodate two DVI and two VGA
Musa, a British connection used in communications and television
PAL connector, a popular antenna connector in Europe
S-Video (1 Mini-DIN)
Broadcast-grade digital interface using BNC wires is called SDI.
A VGA port the most common D-sub connector type for video cards
Some laptops include mini-VGA displays.
The VGA signal can also be sent via five BNC connectors as R, G, B, HSync, and VSync.
A hybrid analog/digital connector known as Digital Visual Interface (DVI) is typically seen on PC graphics cards and LCD monitors.
Some Apple laptops have a mini-DVI port.
Superior Graphics Adapter (EGA)
Interface in RGB
Interface RGBI
Digital Flat Panel VESA the earlier 6.35mm (quarter inch) connector.

Audio

	white RCA/TS	analogue audio, left channel; also mono (RCA/TS), stereo (TRS only), or undefined/other
	black RCA/TS/TRS	
	grey RCA/TS/TRS	
	red RCA/TS	analogue audio, right channel
	orange RCA	S/PDIF digital audio

Video

	yellow RCA/BNC	composite video
	red RCA/BNC	red or Or/Cr chrominance
	green RCA/BNC	green or luminance
	blue RCA/BNC	blue or Pb/Cb chrominance
	white BNC	horizontal sync
	black BNC	vertical sync

Electronic media that includes both a sound and a visual component is known as audiovisual (AV). Examples of AV include slide-tape presentations, movies, television shows, business conferences, religious services, and live theatre productions.

Web streaming, video conferencing, and live broadcasting services are typically provided by audiovisual service providers.

With the installation of projection equipment and the usage of interactive whiteboard technology in many schools and colleges, computer-based audiovisual equipment is frequently employed in education.

Components

Wiring and system control are two important components of audiovisual, in addition to equipment installation. The system might not work at its best if one or both of these parts is broken or absent.

When it comes to wiring, it's important to choose the right cable rating based on the distance from the main rack, frequency, and fire codes.

When possible, cables should also be hidden behind walls and in the ceiling. The quality of the cables affects the performance of the system as well. Signals may not transmit smoothly during cabling, which could degrade the quality, if cables are exposed or handled carelessly. The main component's wires should be tidily organized and clearly labeled for quick access.

Control refers to the system's operation and the communication between every installed component. The various system components are integrated by system automation devices from manufacturers like RTI, Creston, Control4, AMX, and others, making the system simple to use from a variety of devices. For instance, with the right programming, a control system may enable a TV in zone one to switch off when music is playing in zone two. Without correct control programming, even when the music in zone two is on, the TV in zone one would continue to be on.

Residential

Residential audiovisual systems typically include flat-panel TVs, projectors, and projector screens in addition to in-ceiling speakers. This might apply to the lighting, blinds, movie theatres, etc.

Commercial

The multibillion dollar professional audiovisual market consists of producers, distributors, systems integrators, consultants, programmers, presenters, and technology managers of audiovisual goods and services.

Installing and appropriately configuring commercial audiovisual can take some time. For a variety of reasons, including the necessity for CEOs to conduct meetings with associates, clients, and suppliers all over the world, boardroom audiovisuals may be deployed. It is advantageous to balance the audio and microphone patterns when designing different boardrooms for clients so that the listeners' ability to hear is not compromised

In many facets of society, it is clear that audiovisual communications technologies, such as sound, video, lighting, displays, and projection systems, are proliferating. Business, education, government, the armed forces, healthcare, retail settings, places of religion, sports and entertainment, hospitality, dining establishments, and museums all fall under this category.

Applications for audiovisual systems include command and control centers, presentation rooms, auditoriums and lecture halls, digital signs, and collaborative conferencing, which includes video, audio, web, and data conferencing. The most apparent places to use audiovisual technology in a staged environment are concerts and business gatherings. Rental and staging firms are known as the service providers in this field, while an internal technology team may also assist them (e.g., in a hotel or conference center).

Video clips, sometimes known as memes, are brief comedic videos that are frequently derived from movie or television show excerpts. The phrase is often used more broadly to refer to any video program—including an entire program—that is published to a website or other platform.

Online, video snippets have become quite popular. By the middle of 2006, there were millions of video clips available online. New websites started popping up that were only dedicated to providing users with free video clips, and many well-known corporate websites included the option to clip already-existing video content on their websites.

While the majority of this content is non-exclusive and accessible on rival websites, some businesses create their own movies instead of relying on the labor of independent contractors or amateurs.

A comprehensive video symbol, for example, to point to video material on a website

Despite the fact that some video clips are lifted from well-known news sources, community- and privately-produced clips are growing more prevalent. Some people publish their original works on vlogs, or video blogs, and as these platforms became more popular, more people started to use online videos. Between March and July 2006, YouTube saw a daily increase in video views from 30 to 100 million. [2] The BBC's player, which was made available for open beta testing in July 2007, was one of the developments that took place during that time.

Advertising has used and continues to use video clips. Online video entertainment became incredibly popular as a result of websites that offer free access to premium television programming.

Advertising on video sites is now more widespread and many of these adverts are longer than 20 seconds as companies try to reduce their budgetary allocations.

Additionally, vloggers who advertise things use video clips in their advertisements. The typical advertisement lasts 30 seconds.

Increase in amateurs

Video clips are primarily produced by amateurs, in contrast to traditional movies, which are largely controlled by companies. 90% of the video clips on YouTube were created by amateurs, some of whom were young comedians, according to a May 2006 the Economist article. In essence, it also highlighted amateur abilities. Two Chinese students, Huang Yixin and Wei, henceforth known as the "Back Dorm Boys," gained notoriety in 2005 after they were seen in a video on certain clip websites lip-syncing to a Backstreet Boys song. They performed live and on television, and a Beijing-based media business gave them a lip-syncing contract.

A former star who was skilled at popping and liquiding was David Elsewhere. He was employed for TV commercials and music videos as a result of his performance at the Collaboration talent event in 2001 to Craftwork's song Expo 2000, which received a lot of online attention. Video clips not only entered the realm of TV advertising and music videos, but they also gained popularity as a form of entertainment and a pastime for individuals known as "Vloggers" (video blog creators). There are a lot of seasoned video bloggers online. During this time, numerous well-known amateur video bloggers also started to appear.

Public journalism

Despite the fact that citizen journalism video reporting predates the invention of camcorders, all videos at the time were vetted by regional media outlets. This was the case up until free upload platforms helped spread it by limiting censorship and making a huge selection of films accessible to anyone who wanted to watch them. Rarely were scenes shown on television, and a lot of first-hand accounts of scenes have since become widely accessible.

Notably, tourist videos of the Indian Ocean earthquake and tsunami released in December 2004 gave viewers all across the world their first glimpse of the calamity. Videos of bullying at De La Salle School in Hong Kong upset the public and sparked widespread concern about school violence in December 2003. As a result, 11 students were detained; seven of them were eventually expelled in 2020.

Vlog

A vlog is a brand-new type of blogging that originated between late 2005 and early 2006.

It's a blog where the main material is video, which is frequently supported by supplementary text, images, and additional metadata to provide context. As with blogs, which have evolved into extensions of traditional media, Su Li Walker, an analyst with the Yankee Group, predicted that "video blogs will be a supplement to traditional broadcasting."Reverse chronological sequence is frequently used to present regular entries.

Combining digital and traditional media

Traditional movie studios became interested in the potential markets for video clips. The makers of the Morgan Freeman, Lucy Liu, and Bruce Willis movie Lucky Number Slevin created an 8-minute YouTube clip in 2006. The majority of inexperienced video creators have shown to be less popular in clip culture than traditional media celebrities.

Some of the biggest entertainment executives in America, including Michael Eisner, the current CEO of the Tornante Company and a former executive at Disney, were interested in

the rising possibilities for success in web video. On October 26, 2009, Eisner's Vuguru subsidiary of Tornante collaborated with Rogers Media, a Canadian media powerhouse, securing plans to develop as many as 30 new web series annually. Future products from Vuguru would get funding and distribution assistance from Rogers Media, establishing a clear link between traditional and digital media.

2.7 FOLLOWED BY WRITING AND SPEAKING

The representation of a language through a system of physically inscribed, mechanically transferred, or digitally recorded symbols is what writing does as a form of human communication.

Writing systems are ways of translating a language into a form that may be reconstructed by other people separated by time and/or space; they are not in themselves human languages (with the arguably exception of computer languages)

Even though not all languages have writing systems, those that do can complement and expand spoken language capabilities by allowing the formation of long-lasting speech forms that can be communicated across space (like letters) and preserved through time (e.g., libraries or other public records). Writing has also been seen to have knowledge-transforming effects since it enables people to externalize their thoughts in ways that are simpler to think through, expound on, revisit, and revise. Writing is dependent on a number of the same semantic components as the speech it represents, such as lexicon and syntax, in addition to phonology and morphology, which are represented by a set of symbols. A text is the end product of writing, and a reader is the one who interprets or activates this text.

Collectively, as human societies developed, writing was motivated by the need to organize and govern societies through the creation of legal systems, census records, contracts, deeds of ownership, taxa, and codifying knowledge through curricula and lists of texts considered to contain foundational knowledge (such as The Canon of Medicine) or to be artistically exceptional (such as a literary canon).

Since the early 20th century, amateur historians have hypothesized about the possible correlation between the emergence of writing systems and the expansion of city-states into empires, including H.G. Wells. According to Charles Bozeman, the act of "marking signs on stones, clay, paper, and now digital memories—each more portable and quickly travelling than the previous—provided means for increasingly coordinated and extended action as well as memory across larger groups of people over time and space." Writing became a more dependable way to record and display transactions in a permanent form when, for instance, the complexity of trade and governance in Mesopotamia about the fourth millennium BC surpassed human memory. On the other hand, writing might have developed in ancient Egypt and Mesoamerica due to calendared and political requirements for documenting historical and environmental events. Additionally, portable and easily reproducible forms of inscriptional language were crucial to the development of more standardized, predictable, and widely dispersed legal systems, the dissemination and discussion of accessible translations of sacred texts, and the beginnings of modern scientific inquiry and knowledge-

consolidation.

To-do lists, recipes, reminders, logbooks, maps, the correct order for a difficult task or significant ritual are just a few examples of individual, as opposed to group, motivations for writing.

Other individual motivations for writing include the dissemination of ideas (as in an essay, monograph, broadside, petition, or manifesto), imaginative narratives and other forms of storytelling, maintaining kinship and other social networks, negotiating house rules, and (e.g., a diary or journal)

Writing has become a more crucial aspect of daily life as a result of the virtually universal adoption of digital communication tools like e-mail and social media, which coexist with more traditional technology like paper, pencils, whiteboards, printers, and copiers.

The majority of workplaces in developed nations include a significant quantity of daily writing. Written documentation is not just the primary deliverable but also the manner of work in many professions (such as law, accountancy, software design, human resources, etc.). Most employees write at least occasionally as part of everyday workflows (keeping records, reporting incidents, keeping records, tracking inventories, recording sales, tracking time, answering client enquiries, etc.), even in professions not traditionally associated with writing.

The four main types of writing systems are logographic, syllabic, alphabetic, and feature. It has been suggested that a pictography is not a writing system because it does not represent the sounds of a language.

Logographies

A logography, also known as a logosyllabary, is written with logograms, which are written characters that stand in for particular words, morphemes, or syllables.

For instance, anytime the pronunciation of a logogram needed to be communicated, the Mayan language utilized the glyph for "fin," which is pronounced as "ka," to represent the syllable ka. There is often an ideographic component to logograms (Chinese "radicals", hieroglyphic "determiners"). About 90% of Chinese characters are blends of a radical, which denotes the semantic (meaning) component, and a phonetic, which denotes the sound. However, rather than the other way around, these phonetic elements support the logographic elements.

Despite the fact that the phonetic Hangul system is primarily used in South and North Korea, Chinese characters are still the most widely used logographic system today. They are employed with some modification for the many languages or dialects of China, Japan, and occasionally in Korean. Cuneiform and Mayan logographic systems are older.

Syllabifies Syllables are represented by a collection of written symbols called syllabarieswhich typically consist of a consonant and a vowel or just a vowel. More complicated syllables, like consonant-vowel-consonant or consonant-consonant-vowel, may have specific glyphs in some writing systems. Syllables that are phonologically similar are not written the same way. For instance, the syllables "ka" and "ki" may not resemble one another, nor will syllables with the same vowels.

Syllabifies work best with languages like Japanese that have a straightforward syllable

pattern. The Linear B system for Mycenaean Greek, CherokeeNdjuka, a Surinamese Creole language, and the via script of Liberia are examples of other languages that use syllabic writing.

Alphabets

Consonants and vowels are represented by a collection of written symbols called an alphabet.

The letters of a phonological alphabet would line up with the language's phonemes exactly. Thus, a speaker might predict the pronunciation of a word given its spelling, and a writer could predict the spelling of a word given its sound. The degree to which letters of an alphabet correspond to phonemes of a language, however, varies greatly from one language to another and even within a single language due to the fact that writing systems are frequently borrowed for languages they were not designed for and that languages frequently evolve independently of them.

Although abugidas and abjads may also be acknowledged as alphabets, the name "alphabet" is occasionally limited to systems containing distinct letters for consonants and vowels, such as the Latin alphabet. Greek is commonly regarded as the first alphabet due to this usage.

Abjads

Typically, only the consonants of a word are represented in the majority of Middle Eastern alphabets, while vowels may be conveyed by the inclusion of various diacritical characters. Since the time of the Egyptian hieroglyphs, writing systems have been used that are predominantly centered on recording consonant phonemes. These systems are known as abrades, or consonantaries, from the Arabic term for "alphabet"

Abugidas

Vowels are denoted in the majority of Southeast Asian and Indian alphabets by diacritical marks or by altering the consonant's form. These are known as abogados. Some abugidas, such as Ethiopic and Cree, are referred to as "syllabics" because children learn them as syllabifies. There isn't a separate glyph for each syllable, in contrast to real syllabify.

Artificial scripts

A featural script consistently depicts the characteristics of the language's phonemes. Korean hangul is an illustration of this kind of system. For instance, there may be a characteristic shared by all labial sounds (spoken with the lips). This is unintentionally the case for the letters "b" and "p" in the Latin alphabet; however, the labial "m" is entirely different, and the similarly-looking "q" and "d" are not labial. Although all four labial consonants in Korean Hangeul are based on the same fundamental component, in reality children learn Korean as an ordinary alphabet and the feature aspects are often overlooked.

The most common writing system for many sign languages, Sign Writing, is a feature script that uses icons to describe the forms and movements of the hands and face. Additionally, fictional or imagined systems like J.R.R. Tolkien's Tengwar frequently use natural scripts.

Equipment and supplies

Stone tablets, clay tablets, bamboo slats, papyrus, wax tablets, vellum, parchment, paper, copperplate, styluses, quills, ink brushes, pencils, and pens are just a few of the numerous

writing implements and writing materials that have been used throughout history. For keeping records, the Incas employed quipu (or khipu), which are knotted threads.
Numerous studies have analyzed the ways in which writers have framed the experience of writing using such equipment as compared to the pen or pencil. The typewriter and different types of word processors have now become widely used writing tools.
As a result of developments in natural language generation, some tools (in the form of software) are now capable of producing certain types of highly formulaic writing (such as quick sports reports and weather predictions) without the direct input of people.

History
Proto-writing, a list of languages by first written reports, and a history of writing are the main articles.
Writings is a redirected page. To be distinguished from Ketuvim
Mesoamerica
The Cascajal Block, a stone slab with 3,000-year-old writing that predates the oldest Zapotec writing by around 500 years, was found in the Mexican state of Veracruz. It is an example of the oldest script in the Western Hemisphere.
It's believed to be Olmec.
The Maya script is one of several pre-Columbian scripts found in Mesoamerica; it is also the only one that has been successfully deciphered. The earliest Maya writing discovered dates to the third century BC. The logograms utilized in Maya writing, along with a set of syllabic symbols, had a purpose somewhat like to that of contemporary Japanese writing.
Southeast Asia
Archaeologists found evidence of a writing-using culture in Central Asia around 2000 BC in 2001. An inscription was found on a piece of stone that was used as a stamp seal during an excavation close to Ashgabat, the capital of Turkmenistan.
China
Oracle Bone and Bronze ware scripts are more details.
The earliest extant writing in China may be found on so-called "oracle bones," tortoise plastrons, and ox scapulae that were used for divination. These writings date to the late Shang dynasty, circa 1200 BC. A few bronze inscriptions from the same time period have also been found. Archaeologists found isolated carvings on tortoise shell that date to the seventh millennium BC in 2003, although it is debatable whether or not these symbols correspond to the characters of the later oracle-bone system.
Egypt
Around 3100 B.C., the two Serpopards on the Narmer Palette symbolized the union of Upper and Lower Egypt.
The earliest known hieroglyphs date to the second half of the 4th millennium BC. Examples include the Narmer Palette, which was discovered in recent years and dates to around 3100 BC, as well as the clay labels of the Predynastic ruler "Scorpion I" (Naqada IIIA period, c. 32nd century BC), which were discovered at Abydos (modern Umm el-Qa'ab) in 1998. The hieroglyphic writing was phonetically augmented with a functional alphabet and was

logographic in style. On a seal impression discovered in the tomb of Seth-Peribsen at Umm el-Qa'ab, which dates from the Second Dynasty, was the oldest sentence ever deciphered (28th or 27th century BC). 800 hieroglyphs from the Old Kingdom, Middle Kingdom, and New Kingdom periods are present. There are more than 5,000 by the Greco-Roman era.

Literacy was concentrated among well-educated elite of scribes, who played a crucial role in upholding the Egyptian empire through writing.

To train as scribes for temple, pharaonic, and military authorities, only those with specific backgrounds were permitted. Although the hieroglyphic system was always challenging to master, it became much more challenging in subsequent centuries on purpose to maintain the position of the scribes.

Around the middle of the nineteenth century BC, Canaanite turquoise miners in the Sinai desert are thought to have created the world's oldest alphabet.

At Sera bit el-Khadem, a hilly Egyptian mining site, some 30 primitive inscriptions have been discovered. The "Mistress of turquoise," Hath or, had a temple on this location. At Wadi el-Hol in Central Egypt, a later, and two line inscriptions has also been discovered. Each sign appeared to stand for a consonant rather than a word, providing the foundation for an alphabet based on ancient prototypes as well as wholly new symbols. However, it wasn't until the 12th to 9th centuries that the alphabet really took off and started to be used worldwide.

Islamite writings

Three unique Islamite scripts evolved over the years. The earliest known writing system from Iran is proto-Islamite. Clay tablets containing Proto-Melamine lettering, which were only in use for a short time (3200-2900 BC), have been discovered at numerous locations around Iran. Early cuneiform is supposed to have given rise to the Proto-Elamite script (proto-cuneiform). More than 1,000 signs make up the Proto-Elamite script, which is assumed to be somewhat logographic.

A few colossal inscriptions in Iran attest to the existence of the writing system called Linear Elamite. For a very brief time in the final part of the third millennium BC, it was in use.

Even though Linear-Elamite has not been deciphered, it is sometimes asserted that it is a syllabic writing system descended from Proto-Islamite. Several academics, most notably Walther Hinz and Piero Meriggi, have tried to decode the lettering.

From roughly 2500 to 331 BC, the Elamite cuneiform writing, which was developed from Acadian cuneiform, was in use. About 130 symbols made up the Elamite cuneiform script, which was significantly fewer than the majority of other cuneiform scripts.

Greek and Cretan writing

Additional details: Hieroglyphics from the Creta, Linear A, and Linear B

Cretan relics include hieroglyphic writing (early-to-mid-2nd millennium BC, MM I to MM III, overlapping with Linear A from MM IIA at the earliest). The writing system used by the Mycenaean Greeks, known as Linear B, has been decoded, while Linear A has not yet been. The three writing systems' chronological development and geographic distribution can be summed up as follows (the commencement date relates to the earliest attestations; all scripts' presumed beginnings are further back in time): Between approximately 1625 and 1500 BC,

Crete used Cretan hieroglyphs; between approximately 18th and 1450 BC, Linear A was used in Greece's mainland (Laconia) and the Aegean Islands (Kea, Kythera, Melos, Thera); and between approximately 1375 and 1200 BC, Linear B was used in Crete (Knossos) and the mainland (Pylos, Mycenae, Thebes, and Tiryn

Delhi Valley

Article focus: Indus script

Short strings of symbols from the Indus Valley civilization, which existed between 2600 and 1900 BC and covered modern-day Pakistan and North India, are referred to as Indus script. It has not yet been deciphered despite numerous claims and attempts. The phrase "Indus script" primarily refers to the writing system employed in the mature Harappa era, which may have developed from a few indications discovered in early Harappa after 3500 BC The text is written in a boustrophedon manner occasionally and from right to left.

Many researchers consider the writing to be logo-syllabic[39] since it has 400–600 principal signs, which is roughly halfway between ordinary logographic and syllabic scripts (typically syllabic scripts have about 50–100 signs whereas logographic scripts have a very large number of principal signs). According to certain academics, structural research proves that the script is based on an agglutinative language.

Mesopotamia

The prevailing opinion is that writing originated in the ancient Near East as a result of economic need, despite continued research into the evolution of writing during the late Stone Age. Writing most likely developed as a result of political expansion in ancient cultures, which required trustworthy means for information transmission, financial account maintenance, historical record keeping, and related tasks. Around the fourth century BC, writing emerged as a more dependable way of documenting and presenting transactions in a permanent form as the complexity of trade and administration surpassed the capacity of memory.

Around the beginning of the Bronze Age in the late 4th millennium BC, the earliest writing systems were developed. Generally speaking, the earliest writing systems are the Egyptian hieroglyphs and the Sumerian ancient cuneiform script, both of which developed from their ancestors' proto-literate sign systems between 3400 and 3300 BCwith the earliest coherent writings appearing around 2600 BC. Although it is widely acknowledged that Sumerian writing was an original innovation, it is unclear whether Egyptian writing also originated independently of Sumerian or as a result of cultural diffusion.

Globular envelope from Susa with a collection of accounting tokens, Uruk era. Louvre Museum

The oldest of these previously unclassified clay "tokens," discovered in the Iranian Zagros region, were connected to Mesopotamian cuneiform by archaeologist Denise Schmandt-Besserat.

Clay tokens were first used by the Mesopotamians to quantify their manufactured and agricultural items around 8000 BC. Later, they started putting these symbols into sizable, hollow clay jars called bulla, also known as globular envelopes, and sealing them.

One image was imprinted on the surface of each container to represent one token for every instance of that token inside, therefore expressing the number of tokens in each container.
Then they stopped using the tokens and only used the symbols for the tokens that they had drawn on the clay surfaces. They 'counted' the things by utilizing various little markers instead of taking a picture for each instance of the same thing (for instance, 100 pictures of a hat to signify 100 hats). In this fashion, the Sumerians "added to their developing system of symbols a mechanism for enumerating items."
From this system of record-keeping, the ancient Mesopotamian writing system was derived circa 3200 BC. The Mesopotamians were employing a stylus with a triangular form that was pushed into soft clay to write numbers by the end of the 4th millennium BC. A pointed stylus was gradually added to this technique to signify what was being counted using pictographs. Writing with a wedge-shaped stylus (hence the name "cuneiform") increasingly supplanted writing with a round or sharp stylus, initially exclusively for logograms but by the 29th century BC even for phonetic components. Cuneiform first started to express spoken Sumerian syllables around 2700 BC. Around that time, cuneiform writing in Mesopotamia evolved into a writing system that could be used for numerals, syllables, and logograms. Around 2600 BC, this script was translated into another Mesopotamian language, the East Semitic Akkadian (Assyrian and Babylonian), and afterwards into Islamite, Haitian, Hurricane, and Hittite. This writing system resembles Old Persian and Ugarit scripts in appearance. Old Aramaic was also adapted to Mesopotamian cuneiform when Aramaic became the "lingua franca" of the Neo-Assyrian Empire (911-609 BC). The first century AD is when the last Acadian cuneiform writings were unearthed
Phoenician script and its descendants
It is believed that Proto-Canaanite was first written in the Proto-Sinai tic script, which dates back to the 19th century BC. Before the 14th century BC, the Proto-Canaanite script, which had earlier used Egyptian hieroglyphic principles to encode phonetic information, gave rise to the Phoenician writing system. This was a peculiar kind of syllabify where only consonants were used as symbols. The Greeks modified this script by substituting certain consonantal marks for their vowels. The Etruscan alphabet and its own offspring, including the Latin alphabet and Runes, were born from the Cumae alphabet, a variation of the early Greek script.
Cyrillic, which is used to write a number of languages, including Bulgarian, Russian, and Serbian, is another descendant of the Greek alphabet. The Aramaic script, from which the Hebrew and Arabic scripts are descended, also adopted the Phoenician system.
The Libyco-Berber script, which is thought to have originated in Phoenicia, is the ancestor of the Tifinagh script, which is used in Berber languages.
Modern initiatives to encourage writing acquisition
There are numerous initiatives in place to help adults and kids develop their literacy abilities. The establishment of the writing centre and community-wide literacy councils are two examples of initiatives aimed at assisting students and community members in improving their writing abilities. These and other materials are available to people of all ages, giving them a greater comprehension of their language and the ability to express

themselves in writing, potentially enhancing their socioeconomic standing. Did you ever notice that when individuals are serious about communication, they want it in writing? asks William J. Farrell.

Programs like the World Literacy Foundation and International Literacy Foundation, as well as a general push for expanded worldwide contact, have led to an improvement in writing skills in other regions of the world.

2.8 SUMMARY

- In the communication process, listening is the capacity to accurately hear and interpret communications.
- To communicate effectively, you must first listen. Messages are readily misconstrued if one lacks the skill to listen effectively. As a result, there is a breakdown in communication, and the message sender may become upset or dissatisfied.

Listening is the one communication skill you should work to learn.

- Because listening is so crucial, many prestigious firms provide their staff with listening skills training. This is not unexpected, given that effective listening abilities can result in higher productivity with fewer errors, better customer happiness, increased information sharing, and ultimately, more inventive and creative work.
- Effective listening abilities are credited by many successful business-people and leaders. Richard Branson routinely mentions listening as one of the key elements in Virgin's success.

- Additionally, beneficial to our daily lives are good listening abilities, which include: an increase in friends and social networks, a boost in confidence and self-worth, better academic and academic-related grades, better health, and overall well being.
- But listening calls for more than just that—it calls for concentration and focus—both mental and occasionally bodily. Listening entails paying attention to the story being given as well as the manner in which it is being delivered, as well as the speaker's use of language, voice, and body language. It entails being conscious of both verbal and nonverbal cues. The extent to which you perceive and comprehend this information will determine how well you can listen.
- The act of listening is not passive. In actuality, the audience member may and ought to participate in the process, at least as actively as the speaker. This method of giving your complete attention is known as "active listening."
- Active listening is the process of getting ready to listen, paying attention to the verbal and nonverbal cues being used, and then responding appropriately to demonstrate that you are paying attention to what is being said. This kind of listening demonstrates a shared understanding between the speaker and the listener. Speakers get validation that their message is getting over, while engaged listeners take in more information and comprehend it better. Carl Rogers and Richard Farson created the concept of active listening.

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- The listener must engage in numerous different types of active listening, including paying attention to what the speaker is trying to say and asking for clarification when it's important for understanding.

2.9 KEYWORDS

- **Hearing** - the act, quality, or capacity of precisely experiencing sound: the unique sense by which noises and tones are received as stimuli. B: in earshot. 2a: a chance to be heard, to argue one's position, or to be well-known or respected
- **Listening -** When you listen, you must pay attention to the tale being given as well as the language and vocalisations being used as well as the other person's body language.
- **Passive -** When you say someone is passive, you're referring to the fact that they do nothing but watch things happen to them.
- **Active** - When you say someone is passive, you're referring to the fact that they do nothing but watch things happen to them**.**
- **Skills -** The capacity to quickly and effectively apply one's knowledge in action or performance. b) Coordination or dexterity, particularly when performing acquired physical tasks. 2: a developed aptitude or ability to perform something competently: language skills.
- **Audio -** of or pertaining to acoustic, mechanical, or electrical frequencies that roughly range from 15 to 20,000 hertz and correspond to sound waves that are generally audible. 2a: pertaining to or involving sound, or the reproduction of sound, particularly high-fidelity reproduction.
- **Video -** : being, pertaining to, or utilized in the transmission or reception of a video channel for television images; compare to audio. 2: pertaining to, involving, or consisting of graphics on a computer display or television screen.
- **Writing -** Experts have identified three definitions for writing. Writing is the process of conveying ideas, information, knowledge, or experience, and understanding the writing to learn or to communicate some information, according to White (1986:10).
- **Speaking** - Speaking is the act of communicating verbally. We use a variety of body parts, including the lungs, vocal tract, vocal chords, tongue, teeth, and lips, to produce sounds when we speak. The second of the four linguistic abilities is speaking.

2.10 LEARNING ACTIVITY

1. Define Listening Skills ?

_____

_____

2. State the principle of Listening Skills ?

_____

_____

3. Define audio and video?

_____

_____

__

2.11 UNIT END QUESTIONS

A. Descriptive Question

Short questions

1. What is listening explain?
2. What is the process of listening?
3. What prevents good listening?
4. What are elements of listening?
5. How can listening be improved?
6. What are the types of listening skills?
7. Which type of listening is best?
8. What are the four listening strategies?
9. What is the most common type of listening?
10. What are the 3 A's of active listening?
11. What are the 8 listening skills?

Long questions

1. What are the 5 listening skills?
2. What are the 7 listening skills?
3. What are good listening skills?
4. Why are listening skills important?
5. Why are listening skills important for students?
6. What are the 5 activities involved in listening?
7. What are the 7 types of activities for listening with a purpose?
8. How do you conduct a listening activity?
9. Why are listening activities important?
10. What is the role of a teacher in listening activities?

Multiple Choice Questions

1. _____How much listening effect on our communication?

a) 20-35%

b) 5-15%

c) 25-40%

d) 40-70%

2. We listen at _____ % efficiency without training?

a) 20%

b) 25%

c) 30%

d) 35%

3. _____How much words could be spoke by a person in a minute?

a) 70-80

b) 90-100

c) 125-150

d) 120-140

4. _____How much time required to shortly memorizing a content?

a) Immediately

b) 5 minutes

c) 10 minutes

d) 15 minutes

5. _____A person can think how many words in a minute?

a) 150

b) 200

c) 300

d) 400

Answer; - 1- d 2-b 3-c 4-a 5-d

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UNIT 3 - SPEAKING SKILL

STRUCTURE

3.0 Learning Objectives
3.1 Introduction
3.2 English speech sounds (contrast with Hindi sounds
3.3 Transcription
3.4 intonation
3.5 emphasis
3.6 Pauses
3.7 Formal and informal communication.
3.8 Summary
3.9 Keywords
3.10 Learning Activity
3.11 Unit End Questions
3.12 References

3.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the nature of formal and informal communication
- Identify scope of Speaking Skill:
- State the need and importance of Speaking Skills:
- List the functions of Speaking Skills in every sphere of life

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The SPEAKING model, also known as the SPEAKING socio-linguistic research model, was created by Dell Hymes and is used in socio-linguistics. This model was created by Hymes as a component of the ethnography of speaking, a novel methodology. This model is a tool to aid in the identification and labeling of interactional linguistics components. It was inspired by his belief that in addition to learning a language's vocabulary and grammar, one must also understand the context in which words are employed. In essence, developing verbal competence requires mastering the elements of the SPEAKING paradigm.

Hymes created the mnemonic S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G (for setting and scene, participants, ends, actions sequence, key, instrumentalities, norms, & genre), under which he organized the sixteen components into eight divisions to make the application of his depiction easier

Message form, message content, setting, scene, speaker/sender, addressor, hearer/receiver/audience, addressee, purposes (outcomes), purposes (goals), key, channels, forms of speech, norms of interaction, norms of interpretation, and genres were the sixteen components of the model that could be applied to many different types of discourse.

Linguistic anthropologists employ the SPEAKING model to examine speech events (one or more speech acts involving one or more people) as a component of ethnography. The

relationships and power dynamics within a specific speech community can be understood using this method, which can also provide light on cultural values.

Divisions

Scene and Setting

A speech act's setting refers to its time and location as well as its basic physical surroundings.

A family saga can take place in the grandparents' living room. Scene refers to a scene's "psychological context" or "cultural definition," which includes traits like formality range and sense of humour or seriousness. The family history can be discussed at a gathering honoring the grandparents' wedding anniversary. The family would occasionally be joyful and amusing and other times solemn and celebratory.

The implicit rules and expectations that surround the speech event are sometimes referred to as the setting and scenario.

For instance, the context of the speech event dictates who should and shouldn't talk, what speech patterns are allowed (such as code-switching), and when interruptions are permissible. For instance, there are certain implicit standards for teachers speaking and pupils listening during speech events in the classroom, certain terms are not considered proper there, and interrupting is frequently punished with repercussions. On the other hand, distinct implicit guidelines and standards apply in social and professional settings.

In addition to the participants' locations, the speech event's setting also includes any potential physical obstacles. For example, whether or not participants are facing one another, what body language they are using, and whether or not a table, some seats, or a blank wall separates them. For the purpose of finishing ethnography of a particular group, documentation of the physical environment is extremely helpful.

Participants

The audience and the speaker are participants. Within each of these groups, linguist anthropologists will draw distinctions. The audience may consist of persons who are addressed by the speech act as well as bystanders who overhear it. An aunt might, for instance, relate a story to the young female relatives during a family reunion, but even though the story isn't directed at them, men may nonetheless hear it.

One should take into account both implicit and explicit restrictions concerning who can participate in a speech event and how they should participate, as well as the expectations that have been set for the speakers and the audience. Regarding those who participate in speaking events, certain ideas are in force. For instance, cultural expectations about how children should interact with adults, how women ought to behave among men, and how workers ought to address their employer. The standards and expectations that each participant in a speaking event must follow are vital for linguistic competency.

Ends

The speech's objectives, goals, and results are listed in the conclusion.

The aunt can share a tale about the grandmother to enlighten the audience, provide knowledge to the young girls, and pay tribute to the grandmother. A speaking event's conclusion may vary depending on who is there.

Harriet Joseph Ottenheimer used the example of a visitor asking for directions and a New Yorker giving hazy responses, saying that "although your goal may be to obtain information and reach your destination, their purpose is to appear competent." Goals and outcomes for speech events might vary widely, especially in classrooms and professional environments. For effective communication and integration into a culture or speech community, similarities and variations in speech event endpoints are crucial.

ACT SECTION

The order of speaking actions that make up an event is referred to as the act sequence. The speech event is significantly influenced by the speech acts' order. For instance, the opening statement in a dialogue creates the mood; starting a lecture with "Ladies and gentlemen..." sets a different mood than starting a lecture with "Hello! How are you all today?

The order of an event's acts helps participants become aware of social cues. Turn-taking and interrupting are crucial components of act sequencing. The plot and growth of an aunt's story, for instance, might be framed by the aunt and could start as a response to a toast to the grandmother. During the narrative, there can be a collaborative interruption. Following a round of applause for the story, the group may then go on to something else.

Key

The indications that establish the "tone, manner, or spirit" of the speech act are referred to as "key." The aunt might playfully mimic the grandmother's movements and speech, or she could speak to the group in a serious tone to emphasize the respect and sincerity of the adulation the story communicates. In general, several keys are employed in a variety of contexts; for example, different tones are employed at birthday parties and funerals. Sentences can be given additional meaning by altering the intonation; lighter tones convey camaraderie and comedy, whereas monotone speech conveys seriousness or a lack of emotion. Similar to how language choices affect tone, keys can be professional or informal. For instance, informal keys include the use of contractions (can't rather than cannot), slang or profanity, condensed or loose pronunciations (going to), missing infinitives ("the kids require bathed" as opposed to "the kids need to be bathed," and prepositional ends "what did you do that for?").

Overall, a speech act's key adds a human touch to communication and offers crucial details about social norms and expectations around the speech event. Linguistic competency depends on the relevant key being applied correctly in a speech occurrence

Instrumentalities

The means by which the speaking act is completed are called instrumentalities. These include the means of communication (writing, speaking, signing, or signaling), the language, the dialect (a subset of a language that is mutually comprehensible), or the register (a variety of a language that is used in specific settings). These tools were commonly referred to as the Forms and styles of speech by Hymes. For instance, the spoken word has a distinct purpose than the written word; the dialect and the spoken language are particular to the speaking act. Similar to this, the speech event is influenced by the uttered register. A discussion may look awkward if, for instance, an aunt speaks in a casual register with many dialect traits and her niece responds in a more formal register with careful use of grammatically "regular" words.

Norms

The event and the participants' behaviour are governed by social norms. In the aunt's humorous narrative, audience participation and interruptions may be encouraged frequently, or they may be restricted to elder female audience members. The aunt's solemn, formal story might demand that everyone pay attention to her and refrain from interjecting.

Each speaking community will have its own norms. Examples of concerns with accepted norms include as follows:

When is it appropriate to talk?

Who should listen?

When should you keep quiet?

When is something too loud?

What conversational pace should be used?

What subjects are appropriate?

Genre

The kind of speaking act, occasion, or, in the case of the example given here, story. For amusement or as a lesson in morality, the aunt can relate a story about the grandmother's personality. Speech groups occasionally have their own terminology for types, and various fields have their own terms for various speech activities. The speech genres of rumours, jokes, and discussions are other instances.

Points Rich

Rich points are situations in which two speakers in a speech event are at odds with one another due to divergent perceptions of implicit rules and expectations. These situations show a disagreement between two people in the SPEAKING model. MAR refers to this disagreement and the negotiations to resume communication (Mistake, Awareness, and Repair)

Mistake

When participants in a conversation are using various implicit rules and expectations for the SPEAKING paradigm, mistakes can happen. Disputes about the inclusion of participants, mismatched ends, unexpected act sequences, keys, or instrumentalities frequently result in mistakes. Generally speaking, when there is a conversational variation from the norm, blunders and disagreements occur. Rapid turn-taking and interrupting are not only acceptable but required in some genres, such as gossip. A mistake would be for one participant to appear passive in this style of discourse, giving the impression that they are uninterested in the topic

Awareness

When one or more of the parties realize that their expectations for the talk are different from one another, awareness has occurred. This could, in some situations, imply that one speaker is aware that the other is speaking more quickly or more slowly, utilizing act sequences that strongly rely on quick turns or acceptable interrupting, speaking in a more professional or more casual range, etc. It would be crucial to identify if one's speech does not match the gossiper's speech pattern.

Repair

When one or more speech event participants modify one or more SPEAKING components to correct the error, the conversation is said to have been repaired.
In certain cases, this could indicate that the speaker speaks more quickly, takes turns speaking quickly, and interrupts more frequently. Speech events that are not repaired can come off as awkward. However, as one learns to fix speech events, they are better able to establish rapport with the speech event participants. Speaking clearly while adhering to grammar rules to ensure proper understanding

Applications

Standard (Linguistic)

The speaking model has been used to comprehend numerous societies and circumstances. Speech occasions are essential to the building blocks of culture; hence they are the focus of extensive investigation. The SPEAKING paradigm has been applied by many people to interpret talks in diverse groups and settings, to better understand how culture and language interact, and to examine status, power, and inequality.

Non-standard

The SPEAKING model has been used to provide a framework for the examination of computer programmers in the emergence of various ERP (like D365BC) and other software, assisting businesses and individuals in obtaining comparable results when selecting from a variety of accessible solutions.
The investigation of communication within a broader context of the social and cultural practices and beliefs of the members of a specific culture or speech group is known as the ethnography of communication (EOC), which was once known as the ethnography of speaking. It's based on ethnographic analysis. It is a linguistics discourse analysis technique that incorporates elements of ethnography, a branch of anthropology. EOC, however, differs from traditional ethnography in that it considers both the communicative form—which can include spoken language but is not limited to it—and its function within the particular culture.
In order to gain insight into specific communities, this qualitative research method's general goals include being able to identify the communication acts and/or codes that are significant to various groups, the types of meanings that groups attribute to various communication events, and the methods by which group members acquire these codes.
This increased understanding may be utilized, among other things, to clarify group choices, improve communication with group members, and set groups apart from one another.

Origins

In order to support his concept of communicative competence—which itself was a reaction to Noam Chomsky's distinction between linguistic competence and linguistic performance—Dell Hymes proposed the ethnography of communication as a method for examining patterns of language use within speech communities.
In the 1962 study of the same name by Dell Hymes, the term "ethnography of speech" was first introduced. In his 1964 paper, Introduction: Although most EOC scholars still tend to focus on speech since it is often believed "to be a dominant - even fundamental - form of communication," there has been a move toward ethnographies of communication to

compensate for the non-vocal and non-verbal features of communication

The phrase "ethnography of communication" refers to the qualities that an anthropological perspective on language approach to language must have. In particular, it must 2) "take as context a community, researching its communicative habits as a whole" and 1) "examine directly the use of language in contexts of circumstances so as to discover patterns suited to speech activity." In other words, the analysis of a culture's or community's communication, whether linguistic or otherwise, must take into account the sociocultural context of its use and the purposes of the meanings conveyed, rather than distancing linguistic form from its function. According to Deborah Cameron, "If you are primarily concerned with the way a particular speech event fits into a whole network of cultural beliefs and practices, you will spend more time describing things that are external to the talk itself: who the speakers are, where they are from, and what beliefs and customs are significant in their lives."

Usage Communication experts Thomas R. Lind of and Bryan C. Taylor write in their book Qualitative Communication Research Methods that "Ethnography of communication conceptualizes communication as a continuous flow of information, rather than as a fragmented exchange of messages."

Deborah Cameron claims that EOC can be seen as the application of anthropological techniques to a group's communication patterns.

Littlejohn and Foss cite Dell Hymes' contention that "all forms of communication require a shared code, communicators who know and use the code, a channel, a location, a message form, a topic, and an event caused by transmission of the message," even though cultures communicate in a variety of ways. "According to Lind of and Taylor, "EOC investigations generate extremely in-depth analyses of communication codes and their dynamic roles in many circumstances. According to these interpretations, speech communities are made up of ongoing, local representations of cultural and moral issues."

Any group of people who establishes and creates its own speaking codes and norms is referred to as a "speech community," and it is possible to examine interactions among members of that community using EOC. Each society has its own cultural norms regarding speaking, according to Gerry Philipsen, and these values are connected to assessments of context appropriateness.

Depending on the community, various people will interpret the presence or absence of speech differently. Understanding local cultural patterns and norms is necessary to examine and interpret whether a speaking act is appropriate within a certain community. Thus, "The assertion that not all social situations value discourse equally proposes a study methodology for identifying and documenting cultural or subcultural variations in the value of speaking. Speaking is one of several symbolic resources that are distributed and allocated in social contexts in accordance with unique cultural patterns."

Hymes also employed EOC to refute the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, which holds that a person's language competence influences their cognitive capacity. Hymes agreed that a person's language shapes how they see the world, but he contended that how much of an impact a language has on a person's perspective depends "on the conditions of its acquisition, and its place in the linguistic repertory of a person and a community."

Model SPEAKING

Dell Hymes' "S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G" model, principal

The mnemonic SPEAKING model is one that Hymes created as a framework for the examination of a speech event within its cultural context.

Message form, message content, setting, scene, speaker/sender, addressor, hearer/receiver/audience, addressee, purposes (outcomes), purposes (goals), key, channels, forms of speech, norms of interaction, norms of interpretation, and genres are the sixteen elements that make up Hymes' model, which he believed were essential to take into account in order to accurately and satisfactorily describe any specific speech event. SPEAKING is made up of these sixteen elements divided into eight groups.

Setting and scene refers to the location of the speech event in time and place.

P stands for participation. Who participates in the speaking event and in what capacity? (e.g. speaker, addressee, audience, eavesdropper)

E - Ends: What the speech event's goal is and what the intended result is

What speech acts comprise the speech event, and in what order are they performed?

K-key: the performance's tone or style (serious or joking, sincere or ironic, etc.)

I - Instrumentalities: Which mode of communication is employed (e.g., speaking, signing, writing, clapping, whistling, or drumming), and which language or dialect is chosen from the participants' repertoire.

What the guidelines are for creating and interpreting speech acts are called "N-Norms of Interaction" (NI)

G - Genres: What "kind" does a speech event fall under (ex., interview, gossip), and what other pre-existing conventional speech forms are drawn on or "cited" in creating suitable contributions to talk (ex., do people quote from mythology, poetry, or scripture)?

Although Hymes' model should be used more as a guide than a template because adhering to it too closely may result in a limiting view of the subject of its study, Cameron cautions that the SPEAKING model is a valuable model to EOC and is also the descriptive framework most frequently used in ethnography of communication. According to Cameron, communication ethnography should aim to explain "why particular events occur and why they have particular characteristics" in addition to "addressing such 'descriptive' questions as "what speech events occur in such-and-such a community?" and "what are the components of speech events X, Y, and Z?"

Important studies

When performing empirical research, a number of studies have employed ethnography of communication as an approach. Examples of this work include Philipsen's study, which looked at how blue-collar males in the Chicago area spoke or didn't speak depending on the context of communication and their interpersonal relationships (i.e. whether they were considered to be of symmetrical or asymmetrical social status). Other examples are Carbaugh's comparative studies of communication in various intercultural situations and Kat riel’s examination of Israeli communication actions that involve complaining and making

fun of societal issues these studies give several applications for the approach in addition to identifying communication actions, codes, rules, functions, and norms. In Kuna Ways of Speaking, Joel Sherzer explores the dialects used by the Kuna in Panama. This groundbreaking study focuses on speaking in daily life, puberty rituals, and gathering-house speeches. It was the first monograph to openly approach the full range of verbal activities among a group of people from anthropology of speaking perspective.

In qualitative research, the researcher gathers information through participant-observation, interviews, questionnaires on which participants write in a descriptive manner, focus groups, participant-writing, field recordings, documents, case studies, and artefacts. Most of the data are not numerical. Ethnography, grounded theory, discourse analysis, and interpretative phenomenological analysis are examples of qualitative approaches. Qualitative research techniques have been applied in the fields of sociology, anthropology, political science, psychology, social work, and academic inquiry. Qualitative researchers examine how people perceive their social reality.

Background

Numerous philosophical schools have influenced qualitative research, which looks at various facets of human existence, such as culture, expression, beliefs, morals, stress in daily life, and imagination.

Numerous philosophical schools, such as constructivism, post positivism, constructivism, positivism, and post positivism, have had an impact on contemporary qualitative research Over the past few decades, the historical shifts or "moments" in qualitative research as well as the idea of "paradigms" have become increasingly prominent.

The adoption of paradigms, according to some academics, may be unproductive and result in communities that are less philosophically engaged. In this regard, Pernecky suggested a different approach to incorporating philosophical considerations in qualitative research in order to retain the necessary intellectual elasticity and mobility for researchers.

Methods of inquiry

Researchers' methods for qualitative research have been influenced by a number of philosophical and psychological traditions, including phenomenology, social constructionist, symbolic interactionism, and positivism.

Philosophy-related customs

Phenomenology is the philosophical study of how a person's consciousness and overall subjective experience are organized. Grounded theory is one of the constructionist approaches to qualitative research that considers how the subjectivity of both the researcher and the study subjects may influence the theory that emerges from the investigation. The symbolic interactionist method of qualitative research investigates how people and groups form worldviews. Traditional positivist methods of qualitative research aim for a more impartial comprehension of society. The sociology of knowledge and the works of Alfred Schütz, Peter L. Berger, Thomas Luckmann, and Harold Garfunkel have also had an impact on qualitative researchers.

The qualitative community has been introduced to a variety of realist approaches that are available within the broad philosophical spectrum of qualitative thought by more recent

philosophical contributions to qualitative inquiry (Pernecky, 2016 which have covered topics like skepticism, idea-ism, idealism, hermeneutics, empiricism, and rationalism. In order to spark a more recent discussion on typical qualitative issues like absolutism and universalism, Panicky also addresses some of the understudied fields in qualitative research, like social ontology and forays into uncharted waters (like quantum physics).

Data sources

To better comprehend the subject they are studying, qualitative researchers employ a variety of data sources. In-depth interviews, focus groups, standardized interviews, and artefacts like books or pieces of artwork are some examples of these data sources.

The case study approach is a prime example of how qualitative researchers value depth, context, and detail. Qualitative research employs the approach of data triangulation as well

The study of oneself, or auto ethnography, is a qualitative research technique where the researcher draws on personal experience to comprehend a problem

Grounded theory is an inductive method of research that is founded on (or "grounded" in) a detailed examination of the actual findings of a s

Analysis of meaning patterns is part of thematic analysis. Speaking conversations are the main subject of conversation analysis. Reconstructing life histories from biographical tales and records is the focus of biographical study. The narratives that people employ to describe their experiences are the subject of narrative inquiry.

Data gathering

Observations, taking notes, interviews, focus groups (group interviews), documents, and artefacts are some of the methods that qualitative researchers use to collect informati

Observer participation

Through participant observation, ethnographers can better comprehend a culture by actively taking part in its activities.

Participant observation is used in disciplines other than ethnography, such as psychology. Palmer, for instance, researched how EMTs manage the stress brought on by some of the horrific crises they deal with by enrolling in an EMT programmed and living as one of them.

Recursively

Recursively is a concept that describes the emergent nature of research design in qualitative research. In contrast to established research methods, recursively represents the idea that the qualitative researcher can change a study's design during the data collection process.

The methodologies utilized by scientists who conduct experiments contrast with the recursively found in qualitative research procedures. Data collection, findings analysis, discussion of the data in light of the research literature, and drawing of conclusions should all be done separately from the scientist's perspective (or at most a small number of times).

However, data collection is continued in qualitative research until one or more predetermined stopping conditions are reached, demonstrating a no static approach to the structuring and organization of research operations. When a qualitative researcher abruptly alters their research emphasis or design halfway through a study based on their initial interim data analysis that is an example of this dynamism in action. On the basis of another

interim data analysis, the researcher may even make more unforeseen alterations. An experiment would not be able to use such a strategy. Recursively in the development of the pertinent evidence, according to qualitative researchers, allows the researcher to be more receptive to unexpected findings and the emergence of novel structures.

Data evaluation

There are several analytic techniques available to qualitative researchers.

Coding

Article focus: Coding (social sciences)

Coding, in general, is the process of connecting important concepts to the relevant facts. The interpretive features of the coding process are frequently acknowledged and stated in the context of qualitative research; coding aids in the production of certain words or brief phrases that are seen to be valuable abstractions from the data

Study of patterns and themes

To organize and present the study's findings, data may be arranged into patterns for thematic analyses

Content evaluation

Article focus: Content analysis

Content analysis is a research approach for establishing reproducible and accurate inferences from data to their context," says Krippendorf (p. 21). It is used in written and spoken communications as well as papers. An essential component of the conceptual analysis of qualitative data is content analysis. In sociology, it is commonly employed. For instance, content analysis has been used in studies on a variety of human life topics, including the way that race is seen across time[31] and the way that contractors live their lives.

Qualitative Research Challenges

A screenshot of an NVivo user coding text

Software for qualitative data analysis with computer assistance (CAQDAS)

Computer programmers can support modern qualitative data analyses (termed computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software).

These software applications have been used both with and without meticulous hand coding or labeling. These applications do not take the place of codling's interpretive nature. The programmers are made to make it easier for analysts to apply, retrieve, and save the codes they create as a result of analyzing the data. Numerous tools increase editing and rewriting code efficiency, enabling more effective work collaboration, peer review, data analysis, and large-scale data analysis.

Software used frequently to analyze qualitative data includes:

ATLAS.ti

Dedoose (mixed methods)

MAXQDA (mixed methods)

NVivo

PDQ MINE

The sorting of qualitative data into predetermined (nomothetic) categories that are

reminiscent of the categories found in objective science is a criticism of quantitative coding systems. The qualitative data's diversity, depth, and unique qualities are diminished or perhaps erased.

Qualitative researchers contend that by clearly defining the codes they use and connecting those codes to the underlying data, they preserve some of the richness that might be lost if the results of their research were reduced to a list of predefined categories, in response to the criticism that qualitative approaches to data are too subjective. Additionally, repeatability is a claim made by qualitative researchers that is prized by statistically oriented researchers.

Computers and associated software are sometimes used by academics to scan and filter significant amounts of qualitative data.

Numerical coding approaches rely on counting words and phrases within a dataset at their most fundamental level; other methods analyze phrases and exchanges in conversational analysis. When there is a vast corpus to analyze, content analysis can benefit from a computerized data analysis technique.

Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is a key issue in qualitative research (also known as credibility or, in quantitative studies, validity).

Member check, interviewer corroboration, peer debriefing, prolonged engagement, negative case analysis, audit ability, conformability, bracketing, and balance are just a few of the various techniques for determining trustworthiness. Obtaining instances of interviewee stories and data triangulation are two of the most often employed techniques for determining the reliability of qualitative investigations. Results transferability has also been used as a sign of validity.

Research limitations in qualitative methods

Qualitative research has some restrictions. Participant reactivity, the potential for a qualitative researcher to identify too strongly with one or more study participants, "the impracticality of the Glaser-Strauss idea that hypotheses arise from data unsullied by prior expectations," the inadequateness of qualitative research for testing cause-and-effect hypotheses, and the Baconian nature of qualitative research are some of these limitations. Participant reactivity describes how people frequently act differently when they are aware that they are being watched. Over-identifying with participants is the term used to describe when a sympathetic researcher studies a group of people and excessively attributes a virtue or other quality to one or more of the participants. Although not ideal, experimental research and some kinds of no experimental research (such as prospective studies) are better ways to determine causes and effects than qualitative research.

The idea that theoretically significant categories and hypotheses can "naturally" emerge from the observations a qualitative researcher collects was pioneered by Glaser and Strauss, influential figures in the qualitative research community. This is provided that the researcher is uninformed by preconceptions.

David Katz, an ecologist, wrote "A hungry animal separates the world into edible and inedible components.

Generally speaking, things alter in response to an animal's wants." Karl Popper, extending

Katz's argument, stated "The only other way that things may be categorized and made to be similar or distinct is when they are tied to needs and interests. This rule applied to scientists as well as to animals." According to Popper, research can never be conducted without preconceptions because observation is always selective and relies on prior findings as well as the objectives and motivations of the researchers.

The assumption that a qualitative researcher can gather enough observations so that categories and hypotheses will arise from the data is known as the Baconian aspect of qualitative research. In order to comprehend the characteristics of the individuals under investigation, Glaser and Strauss established the concept of theoretical sampling by making observations up until theoretical saturation was reached. According to Bertrand Russell, there can never be an orderly arrangement of observations such that a hypothesis will emerge from those ordered observations; instead, the collecting of observations is typically guided by a preliminary hypothesis.

Within psychology

Public psychology

Research on autobiographical narratives has been done in the discipline of community psychology.

The book Six Community Psychologists Tell Their Stories: History, Contexts, and Narrative contain a collection of autobiographical accounts by community psychologists.

Psychology of health

In the study of health and sickness and the social construction of health and illness in daily life, qualitative methodologies have been used more and more in the field of health psychology.

Since then, health psychologists have embraced a wide range of qualitative techniques, such as discourse analysis, thematic analysis, narrative analysis, and interpretive phenomenological analysis. A special issue on qualitative research was published by the journal Health Psychology in 2015.

Organizational and industrial psychology

Organizational psychologists reportedly make substantial use of qualitative research "during the design and implementation of activities including organizational change, training needs evaluations, strategy reviews, and employee development plans," according to Doldor and colleagues.

Psychology of workplace health

Despite the fact that the majority of research in the area of occupational health psychology (OHP) has been quantitatively focused, some OHP researchers have used qualitative techniques. If conducted effectively, qualitative research efforts can benefit OHP researchers who are more interested in numbers. Among these benefits are assistance with (1) theory and hypothesis development, (2) item creation for surveys and interviews, (3) the discovery of stressors and coping mechanisms not previously identified, (4) the interpretation of challenging quantitative findings, (5) the understanding of why some stress-reduction

interventions fail and others succeed, and (6) the provision of rich descriptions of the lived lives of people at work. Some OHP researchers have combined qualitative and quantitative methods in a single study (e.g., Elfering et al., [2005 these researchers have used qualitative methods to assess job stressors that are challenging to determine using standard measures and well-validated standardized instruments to assess coping behaviors and dependent variables like mood.

Face book psychology

Millions of people worldwide have shared previously private tales of personal events with the public with the rise of social media in the early 2000s. Because disclosures are frequently made in the open, social media has played a crucial part in movements like the #metoo movement.

For qualitative and mixed-methods researchers, the prevalence of self-disclosure on social media has created previously unheard-of opportunities. Mental health issues can now be qualitatively studied more thoroughly, more affordably, and without the need for researcher intervention.

Researchers must be skilled in using qualitative research's techniques in order to benefit from these data.

A framework for communicating in a specific speech community is referred to as speech codes theory. It examines how groups communicate based on socioeconomic, cultural, gender, vocational, or other aspects as a field of study.

The phrase "historically enacted socially built system of terms, meanings, premises, and regulations, relevant to communicative conduct" can also be used to describe a speech code.

This theory aims to provide answers to queries regarding the existence, nature, discoverability, and influence of speech codes on individuals within a community (Griffin, 2005). This theory only addresses speech acts as a category of human activity.

Sociologist Basil Bernstein's basic definition of speech code is that "a coding principle is a guideline guiding what to say and how to say it in a given circumstance."

History and significant writings

Work by Gerry Philipsen has been influential in the development of speech codes theory. The theory of communication as it exists today was influenced by work done in the 1960s.

Before speech codes theory gained its name Philipsen first referred to this idea as the Ethnography of Communication. He made the decision to alter it after realizing that many individuals were still stuck on the notion that ethnography was just a research technique. He was regarded a naturalist who watched, listened and recorded communication activity in a cultures natural surroundings. Many people "can't get past the idea of ethnography as simply a research approach," according to Em Griffin. Having said that, Philipsen transitioned from a description to an explanation, leading him to refer to his work as "speech codes theory." The ultimate objective of Philipsen was to create a theory that would explain how communication and culture interrelate.

"In the end, there were two reasons why the Speech Codes idea was developed. The first attempted to extract some of what might be learnt from a substantial amount of fieldwork research on culturally different styles of speaking. The second objective was to offer a topic

for additional investigation and discussion. Four empirically supported rules about speech codes were presented together with an introduction to the idea of speech codes in the theory's first published prototype version. The five empirically supported premises were given as formal theoretical statements, four of which were unchanged from the previous iteration." (Philipsen, Coutu and Covarrubias).

Through his investigation into the Speech Code Theory, Philipsen aimed to respond to four questions:

The occurrence of unique speech codes

The content of speech codes (whether they contained a vocabulary or way of speaking that held meanings for social constructs and worlds).

How speech codes could be identified and written down.

The influence of social speech codes (Philipsen and Albrecht 119-156)

Philipsen was profoundly affected by Basil Bernstein's writings. In sociology, Bernstein coined the phrase "speech codes" and went into additional detail about speech codes and their settings. He claimed that, "within the same society, there can exist separate social groupings or social classes whose communicative practices differ in crucial ways" (Philipsen, 1997) (Philipsen, 1997). According to Bernstein, everyone has a unique speaking style that influences and strengthens how they perceive themselves, other people, and social interactions. A coding principle, according to Bernstein, is "a guideline guiding what to say and how to say it in a specific context."

The second tenet of Speech Codes Theory was developed in part by ethnographer Lisa Coutu. This claim asserts that there are many speech codes within each speech group. Her arguments are supported by a substantial body of study on Robert McNamara's book "In Retrospect."

Anthropologist and linguist Dell Hymes' work has had a significant impact as well.

[2] He concentrated on how people spoke in diverse social and cultural contexts.

Model S.P.E.A.K.I.N.G.

Main text: TALKING

The S.P.E.A.K.I.N.G. model was developed by Dell Hymes to assist in the search for speech codes in particular speech communities. The following is what the letters stand for, according to Miller:

Situation (setting or scene)

Participants (analysis of personalities and social positions or relationships)

Ends (goals and outcomes)

Acts (message form, content, etc.)

Key (tone or mod

Instrumentalities (channels or modalities used)

Norms (framework for producing and processing messages)

Genre (interaction type)

Nacirema and Teamsterville

Philipsen carried out the "Teamsterville" study in Chicago, which is frequently referenced. During the late 1960s and early 1970s, the study was conducted. Miller claims that the

neighborhood in Chicago under investigation earned the moniker "Teamsterville" because the majority of the men there worked as truck drivers. Philipsen spent three years talking to everyone he could, including guys in bars, women on their front porches, and kids on the corner. Despite the fact that everyone spoke English, Philipsen could tell their speech patterns apart from his. As a follow-up, the "Nacirema" (American written backwards) study was carried out, which compared Teamsterville's speech with that of the typical American. [2] A "generalized U.S. discourse that is carried at the public level and at the interpersonal level in face-to-face engagement" is the standard Nacirema speech.

Six broad principles

Philipsen provided a summary of the research in speech coding theory using the two experiments mentioned above. According to Em Griffin, the claims are as follows:

1. Speech codes' distinctiveness (There is a speech code in every culture.

There are specific speech codes that are unique to each individual culture (group) and alien to outsiders.

Preposition 1 enables the posing of two different queries. The first being: Do symbols, meanings, presumptions, and guidelines for appropriate communicative behaviour exist in every culture? The second is: Do these codes differ in terms of the specific vocabulary, meanings, assumptions, and guidelines for appropriate communicative behaviour that they contain?

2. There are numerous speech codes (Multiple speech codes exist in any given speech community.)

People are constantly impacted by different speech codes, and they may even be associated with several codes at once.

3. The content of language codes (A speech code has a distinctive psychology, sociology and rhetoric.)

Psychology. Every speech code "thematizes," in Philipsen's words, "the essence of individuals in a certain way."

Sociology. A speech code, according to Philipsen, "provides a system of answers concerning what links between oneself and others can properly be sought, and what symbolic resources can correctly and effectively be deployed in seeking those linkages."

Rhetoric. Truth's discovery and convincing argument. No matter the culture, speech codes reflect the self, society, and strategic action frameworks.

4. What speech codes mean (The speech community assesses the meanings of speech.)

We must pay attention to how people within a culture communicate as well as how they react. Within that society, individuals define what constitutes simple conversation, small talk, or everyday chitchat.

5. The speech-coding website (The terms, premises, and rules of a speech code are inextricably woven into the speech itself).

We must first evaluate the speech of native speakers in order to comprehend our own speech codes and even those of others.

6. Speech codes' discursive power (Speech Codes impact life.)

Participants can direct met communication by acquiring agreed speech codes (the talk about

talk).

Characteristics

Philipsen identified three elements of the speech codes idea, and he used Carbaugh's earlier research to illustrate each. Speech codes are "based in the observation of communication behaviour in certain times and places," according to the first feature (Gudykunst, 2005).

The goal of speech codes theory is to observe communication behaviour through watching, describing, interpreting, and explaining the results. Speech codes offer "a mechanism to evaluate or explain observed communicative behaviour by reference to situated codes of meaning and value," according to the second claim. Depending on the discursive life of that group, several interpretations of various meanings may be made. The theory "provides a general knowledge of communicative conduct," which is the final quality.

Philipsen describes the Speech Code Theory as follows: "Three things make it generic. It describes the characteristics of all speech codes. It provides a broad response to the topic of how an observer may methodically attempt to learn about local slang and other particularities of particulars. It provides an all-encompassing response to the query of how speech codes connect to communicative behaviour."

The Speech Codes Theory, according to Gerry Philipsen, is a historically adopted, socially built system of terminology, meanings, premises, and regulations relevant to communication behaviour. One of his six general claims is that there is a particular speech code wherever there is a distinctive culture. For instance, we frequently find particular speech patterns weird when we are involved in a new community with a culture that is foreign to us. We initially notice these disparities because we are an outsider. The difference in pronunciation and/or grammar, however, fades as we become accustomed to these patterns. Speech codes can be evident in how a group decides when to speak up and what is appropriate to say when.

Criticisms

In response to the critiques of the Speech Code Theory, Philipsen states:

1 "Speaking Norms Theories do not take into account how power is expressed in discourse. The theoretical presumptions, methodological framework, and analysis of fieldwork materials all leave this out.

2. The Speech Codes Theory over determines culture. This has the implication of reifying culture as a static thing."

This exerts a powerful influence on communication. It has a social viewpoint that directly confronts the problem of "a universal possibility of displays of power, solidarity, closeness, and other significant features of social existence in any body of discourse."

Examples of settings and scenarios when speech codes are used

Across cultures

In offices (note that workplaces often also have official speech codes in the legal sense)

Inside social groups like clubs and organizations with specialized interests.

Dual-language speech coding

Between the national culture

Specific regional subcultures

3.2 ENGLISH SPEECH SOUNDS (CONTRAST WITH HINDI SOUNDS

Hindustani, which has two standardized registers, Hindi and Urdu, is the common language of northern India and Pakistan. It is also the national language of Pakistan and a co-official language of India. There aren't many phonological differences between the two standards.

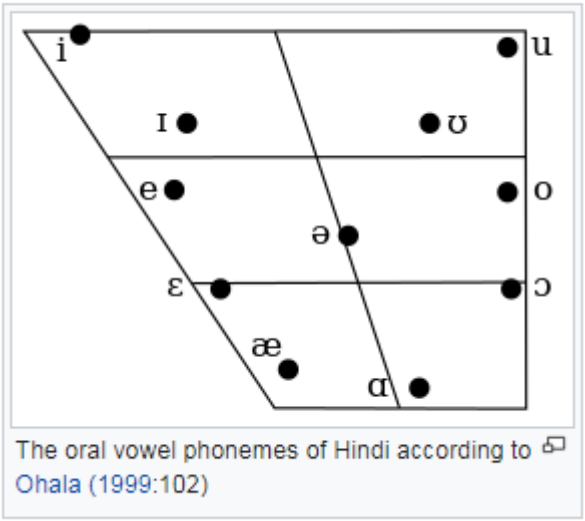
Vowels

Hindustani has a symmetrical ten-vowel system by nature.

[1] Vowels [a], I [u], [e], [o], [], [], and an additional eleventh vowel, /ae/, which is present in English loanwords, are typically regarded as long vowels in contrast to the vowels [a], I [u], [e], [o], [], and []. It's common to refer to the difference between short and long vowels as tenseness, with short vowels being lax and long vowels being tense.

Hindustani vowel phonemes

	Front		Central	Back	
	long	short		short	long
Close	iː	ɪ		ʊ	uː
Close mid	eː				oː
Open mid	ɛː		ə		ɔː
Open	(æː)		aː		



The oral vowel phonemes of Hindi according to Ohala (1999:102)

Vowel [] / is frequently realized as a near-open [] since it is more open than mid [].

The vowel [a]

In the IPA, the open middle vowel is represented by [a] or [].

In contrast to [a] (spelled [a] as in [a] lak [lka]), short [a] (spelled [a] as in [a] kamra [kmra]) occurs in word-final position in Urdu. Urdu speakers sometimes miss this contrast, while in Hindi (where both sounds uniformly correspond to [a]), it is invariably neutralized.

Vowels [u], I and "u"

What in Sanskrit is regarded to have primarily been quality distinctions, or length accompanied by quality, among the near vowels (that is, /i, i/ and /u, u/), have changed to distinctions of quality in Hindustani.

Only lengthy close vowels are permitted in final position now that the opposition of length in close vowels has been neutralized. As a result, Sanskrit loans that originally had a short close vowel are realized with a long close vowel, such as akti (- "energy" and vastu (- "item"), which are [kti] and [stu], respectively, rather than *[kt] and *[st].

Vowels [] and []

The vowel that is visually represented as [-] (romanized as ai) has also been written as [] or [ae].

Ohala (1999), seen on the right, Shapiro (2003:258), and Masica (1991:110) are some of the sources used for this article. Furthermore, English loanwords like /b/ ('bat') contain an eleventh vowel, /. To distinguish it from the later //, - (romanized as ai) will henceforth be written as []. Contrary to the consonants, the vowel system in Hindustani is relatively close to that of English.

Additionally, [] only occurs in close proximity to / as a conditioned allophone of / (schwa) if and only if the / is surrounded on both sides by two underlying, orthographic schwas.

Although it is a feature of Delhi's prestige dialect, not all speakers will experience it. Here are a few illustrations of this procedure:

Vowels							
IPA	Hindi		ISO 15919	Urdu[10]			Approxi. English equivalent
	Initial	Final		Final	Medial	Initial	
ə[11]	अ		a	ہ	◌َ	اَ	about
aː	आ	◌ा	ā	ا		آ	far
ɪ	इ	◌ि	i	ی	◌ِ	اِ	still
iː	ई	◌ी	ī		◌ِ◌	ایِ	fee
ʊ	उ	◌ु	u	و	◌ُ	اُ	book
uː	ऊ	◌ू	ū	◌ُو		اُو	moon
eː	ए	◌े	ē	ے	◌ے	ایے	mate
ɛː	ऐ	◌ै	ai	◌َے	◌َ◌َ	اَیَ	fairy
oː	ओ	◌ो	ō	◌و		او	force
ɔː	औ	◌ौ	au	◌َو		اَو	lot (Received Pronunciation)
ɦ[12]			h	ھ			(Aspirated sounds) cake
◌ँ[13]		◌ँ	m̐	ں	◌ں	ںں	nasal vowel faun ([ãː, õː], etc.)
		◌ं	ṁ				jungle

Hindi/Urdu	Transliteration	Phonemic	Phonetic
कहना / کہنا "to say"	kahnā	/kəɦ.nɑː/	[kɛɦ.nɑː]
शहर / شہر "city"	śahar	/ʃə.ɦər/	[ʃɛ.ɦɛr]
ठहरना / ٹھہرنا "to wait"	ṭhaharnā	/ʈʰə.ɦər.nɑː/	[ʈʰɛ.ɦɛr.nɑː]

However, words having a schwa solely on one side of the //, such as kahn /kani/ (- "a story") or bhar /bar/ (- "outside"), do not exhibit the fronting of schwa.

Vowels [] and []

If there is a round vowel on one side and a schwa on the other, the vowel [] occurs close to the consonant /. Because it is a short vowel, it varies from the vowel []. For instance, the / is surrounded by a schwa on one side and a round vowel on the other in the word "baht" (/bt/). The pronunciation of [bt] will result from one or both of the schwas changing to [].

Some Eastern dialects continued to pronounce the vowels /a, a/ as depth

Vowel nasalization

In Hindustani, vowels are nasalized, just like in French and Portuguese. The nature of

nasalization is a contentious topic (with the exception of English-loaned /ae/, which is never nasalized. Masica (1991:117) offers four opposing perspectives:
There aren't any *[] and *[], probably as a result of nasalization's impact on vowel quality;
All vowels exhibit phonemic nasalization;
The nasalization of every vowel is predictable (allophonic);
Word-finally and before voiceless stops, nasalized long vowel phonemes (/ /), while nasalized short vowels ([ ]) and nasalized long vowels before voiced stops (the latter, perhaps due to a deleted nasal consonant), are allophonic.
Masica concurs with this final opinion.

A core set of 28 consonants that were inherited from older Indo-Aryan make up Hindustani. Seven consonants that were originally found in loan words and whose expression is influenced by factors like status (class, education, etc.) and cultural register round out the list of consonants. Two consonants that are internal developments in specific word-medial contexts and these are also present (Modern Standard Hindi vs Urdu).
The majority of native consonants can appear geminate (doubled in length; /b/, /a/, /e/, /i/, /j/, /k/, /l/, /m/, / The internal vowels (//, //, or //) always come before geminate consonants, which are always medial. With the exception of [], which only appears in a small number of Sanskrit loans where a morpheme boundary may be proposed in between, such as /n + i/ for ni [ni]l ('without shame'), they all occur monomorphically.
The four-way phonation distinction between plosives, as opposed to the two-way differentiation in English, is one distinguishing characteristic of Hindustani consonants for English speakers. They are as follows:
/p/ tenuis, which sounds like the letter p in English, spin
Voiced, as /b/, similar to the English letter "b"
Aspirated, as in /ph/, which sounds like the letter p in the word "pin," and
Whispered as /b/.
The final one is frequently referred to as "spoken aspirate," although Shapiro (2003:260) points out
"However, evidence from experimental phonetics has shown that the two different sound kinds involve two different voicing and release mechanisms. As opposed to travelling between the ligament vocal bands, the series of so-called voice aspirates should now be correctly understood to comprise the voicing mechanism of murmur, in which the air flow flows through an opening between the arytenoids cartilages."
All branches of the Indo-European family, with the exception of Indo-Aryan and Armenian, lack the phonation known as murmured consonants, which is thought to be a reflex of the phonation found in Proto-Indo-European.

Consonant phonemes of Hindustani

		Labial	Dental/ Alveolar	Retroflex	Post-alv./ Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Glottal
Nasal		m	n	(ɳ)	(ɲ)	ŋ		
Stop/ Affricate	voiceless	p	t	ʈ	t͡ʃ	k	(q)	
	voiceless aspirated	pʰ	tʰ	ʈʰ	t͡ʃʰ	kʰ		
	voiced	b	d	ɖ	d͡ʒ	g		
	voiced aspirated	bʱ	dʱ	ɖʱ	d͡ʒʱ	gʱ		
Fricative	voiceless	f	s	(ʂ)	(ʃ)	(x)		ɦ
	voiced	ʋ	z		(ʒ)	(ɣ)		
Approximant			l		j			
Tap/Trill	unaspirated		r	ɽ				
	aspirated			ɽʱ				

Notes

Parentheses indicate marginal and non-universal phonemes.

Some speakers' / is lateral [].

[Can the aspirated () be lateral as well?]

Post-velar means /.

In Hindi, the letters /x/, //, //, and /q/ are respectively pronounced as /kh/, /gh/, /d/, and /k/.

Stops in final position continue to keep the four-way phonation distinction in final position but are not released. With [v], / can be pronounced in a variety of ways, including [w]. In essence, /r/ is a trill. In intervocalic position, it may have a single contact and be referred to as a flap [], but it can also be a clear trill, particularly in word-initial and syllable-final positions. Geminate /r/ is always a trill in Arabic and Persian loanwords, for example, zar [za] (- little) versus well-trilled zarr [zra] (Only in consonant clusters, where each nasal is followed by a homorganic stop, as an allophone of a nasal vowel followed by a stop, and in Sanskrit loanwords do the palatal and velar nasals [,] appear. There are whispered sonorants, [l, r, m, n], but according to Ohala's interpretation, they are consonant clusters with the sound /. (1999).

Hindustani's fricative is frequently voiced (as []), particularly when it is followed by a vowel, although there is no phonemic distinction between this voiced fricative and its voiceless counterpart [h] (Sanskrit, Hindustani's progenitor, has such a distinction).

Additionally, there is a phonemic distinction in Hindustani between dental plosives and so-called retroflex plosives. Similar to Spanish, Hindustani's dental plosives are laminal-denti alveolar, and the tongue tip must be in close contact with the upper front teeth's chewing surfaces. The retroflex series isn't just retroflex; it also features an apico-postalveolar articulation (also known as an apico-pre-palatal articulation), and in rare cases, as in words like "broken" (/ua/), it even turns alveolar.

The flaps [,] and the plosives [,] are allophones in several Indo-Aryan languages, with the latter appearing in intervocalic and final places and the former occurring in initial, geminate, and postnasal locations. However, they contrast in similar situations in Standard Hindi, as in naj (- 'bird') vs. niar (- 'fearless'). [24]

[v] and [w] allophonic

Hindi in particular does not distinguish between [v] and [w]. These are separate phonemes in English, although they are conditional allophones of the Hindustani phoneme / (written in Hindi or in Urdu), which is pronounced differently depending on the situation. In on glide position, or between an initial consonant and a subsequent vowel, as in the word "meal dish," / is pronounced [w]; otherwise, as in the word "vow," / is pronounced [v]. The allophonic distinctions are usually not noticeable to native Hindi speakers, but they are to native English speakers.

The majority of the time, allophony is non-conditional, meaning that the speaker can consistently convey the same message whether they choose [v], [w], or an intermediate sound depending on habit or taste. This includes words like advait (), which can be accurately pronounced as either [dwt] or [dvt].

Outside borrowing

Sanskrit appropriation has brought back the consonants / and / in formal Modern Standard Hindi. They mostly appear in proper nouns and loanwords from Sanskrit. In everyday speech, /n/ and / can occasionally take their place. There is no word-initial occurrence of //, and a nasalized flap [] is a frequent allophone.

Six consonants—/f, z,, q, x, /—were introduced by loanwords from Persian, including some words that Persian itself had taken from Arabic or Turkish. Despite the fact that these sounds are formally recognized in Hindi and can be represented by modified Devanagari characters, they are considered to be unique to Urdu because of their Persian heritage. In fact, /f/ appears to be encroaching upon and replacing /ph/ even in native (non-Persian, non-English, non-Portuguese) Hindi words as well as many other Indian languages such as Bengali, Gujarati, and Marathi, as happened in Greek with phi. Among these, /f, z/, also found in English and Portuguese loanwords, are now considered well-established in Hindi. In Urdu, this /ph/ to /f/ shift can also happen sometimes. Although [z] is an unfamiliar sound, it can also be heard naturally next to voiced consonants as an allophone of /s/.

Many Hindi speakers use the other three Persian loans, /q, x, and /, which are still regarded as belonging to Urdu. However, some Hindi speakers assimilate these sounds to /k, kh, and /, respectively.

The sibilant sound, which is well-established, can be found in loanwords from all languages (Arabic, English, Portuguese, Persian, and Sanskrit). [9] Some Hindi speakers (typically non-urban speakers who mistake them for /ph, d, s/) fail to preserve /f, z, /, which is regarded as nonstandard. These same speakers, however, who have a Sanskrit education, may maintain [] and [] in a hyper formal manner. For native Urdu speakers, on the other hand, the preservation of /f, z, / is typical of all social levels rather than being correlated with sophistication and education. Although it is legally present in Hindi, many Hindi speakers assimilate the sibilant / to /z/ or /d/. It is a fairly uncommon sound that can be found in

loanwords from Persian, Portuguese, and English.

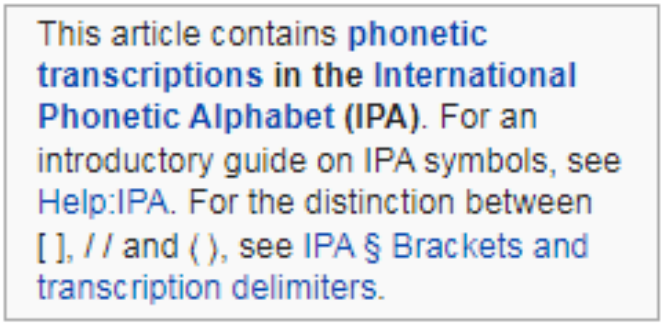
English, Sanskrit, Arabic, and to a lesser extent Persian give loanwords with a vast variety of consonant clusters as they are the principal sources from which Hindustani obtains its higher, sophisticated phrases. The inclusion of these clusters goes against a historical inclination in the language's original core vocabulary to get rid of clusters using techniques like cluster reduction and epenthesis. Schmidt (2003:293) cites distinguishing Perso-Arabic/Urdu biconsonantal clusters of ending /ft, rf, mt, mr, ms, kl, tl, bl, sl, tm, lm, m, r/ as well as Sanskrit/Hindi biconsonantal clusters of starting /kr, k, st,

English pronunciation varies significantly; both historically and from dialect to dialect, like many other languages.

However, the phonological systems of the many regional dialects of English are generally comparable (though not identical). Vowel reduction in unstressed syllables and a rich array of phonological characteristics that separate fortis and lenis consonants are two aspects common to most dialects (stops, affricates, and fricatives).

The prestigious or standard accents, such as Received Pronunciation for England, General American for the United States, and General Australian for Australia, are frequently the focus of or the basis for phonological study of English. However, many other English dialects, particularly regional dialects, are spoken today that have independently evolved from these standardized accents. When one becomes more familiar with some of the many different spoken dialects of English, knowledge of these standardized accents merely serves as a basic introduction to all of English phonology.





Phonemes

A language or dialect's phoneme is an abstraction of a spoken sound or of a collection of sounds that, to speakers of that particular language or dialect, all have the same purpose. Three phonemes, including the initial "th" sound, the "r" sound, and a vowel sound, make up the English word "through," for instance. Many English words, including this one, include phonemes that don't necessarily match up with the letters that are used to spell them (English orthography is not as strongly phonemic as that of many other languages).

The quantity and distribution of English phonemes varies from dialect to dialect and also rely on how each researcher interprets the data. Consonant phonemes are often counted at 24. (or slightly more depending on the dialect). The number of vowels varies more; in the method described on this page, Received Pronunciation has 20–25 vowel phonemes, General American has 14–16, and Australian English has 19–21. To account for some sounds used in foreign words and other visible distinctions that might not be strictly phonemic, pronunciation keys used in dictionaries typically contain a little bit more symbols than this.

Consonants

The following table lists the 24 consonant phonemes, plus the less common /x/, that are present in the majority of English dialects. While lenis consonants are always unvoiced, unglottalized, and typically partially or fully voiced, fortis consonants are always voiceless, aspirated in syllable onset (except in clusters beginning with /s/), and occasionally also glottalized to some extent in syllable coda (most likely to occur with /t/, see T-glottalization). Although some speakers pronounce the alveolars laminally, or with the blade of the tongue, that is, with the tip of the tongue touching or approaching the roof of the mouth

		Labial	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Nasal		m[a]		n[a]			ŋ	
Plosive/affricate	fortis	p		t	tʃ		k	
	lenis	b		d	dʒ		g	
Fricative	fortis	f	θ[b]	s	ʃ		x[c]	h[d]
	lenis	v	ð[b]	z	ʒ			
Approximant				l[a]	ɹ[e]	j[f]	w[g]	

Examples with vowels

The following table uses the fewest possible pairs to illustrate typical instances of the aforementioned consonant phonemes in words.

Please be advised that fortis and lenis can more directly be characterised as "unvoiced" and "voiced," respectively, for persons who prefer clearer representations of reality.

Fortis		Lenis	
/p/	**p**it	/b/	**b**it
/t/	**t**in	/d/	**d**in
/k/	**c**ut	/g/	**g**ut
/tʃ/	**ch**eap	/dʒ/	**j**eep
/f/	**f**at	/v/	**v**at
/θ/	**th**igh	/ð/	**th**y
/s/	**s**ap	/z/	**z**ap
/ʃ/	me**sh**er	/ʒ/	mea**s**ure
/x/	lo**ch**		
/h/	**h**am		
		/m/	Ti**m**
		/n/	ti**n**
		/ŋ/	ti**ng**
		/j/	**y**our
		/w/	**w**ore
		/r/	**r**ump
		/l/	**l**ump

Sonorants

Different dialects pronounce /l/ differently:

The two basic allophones of /l/ in Received Pronunciation are the clear or plain [l] (the "light L") and the dark or velarized []. (the "dark L"). When vowels and consonants are in the same syllable, the clear variant is used before the vowels, while the dark variation is used when the /l/ comes before a consonant or is in the final position of a syllable before silence.

/l/ is typically clear in South Wales, Ireland, and the Caribbean and typically dark in North Wales, Scotland, Australia, and New Zealand.

Although to varied degrees, the /l/ sound in ordinary American and Canadian speech is dark; it is neutral or hardly velarized before stressed vowels.

[17] It is distinctly audible between vowels and in several other positions in southern American accents. [18]

In urban accents of Southern England, New Zealand, and some regions of the United States, the last consonant (/l/) can be sounded as an approximate or semivowel ([w], [o], []). (l-vocalization).

According to dialect, the English letter /r/ has at least the following allophones in different regional dialects (see Pronunciation of English /r/):

Approximate postalveolar [] (the most prevalent manifestation of the /r/ phoneme, present in the majority of dialects, including RP and General American)
approximate retroflex (found in some American dialects and the majority of Irish dialects)
Approximant labiodental [] (occurs in south-east England and some London accents; known as r-labialization)
Alveolar flap (not to be confused with the flapping of /t/ and /d/) (occurs in most Scottish, Welsh,[19] Indian[10] and certain South African dialects, as well as some conservative dialects in England and Ireland)
the alveolar trill sound (occurs in some very conservative Scottish dialects and some Indian, South African and Welsh accents)
uvular fricative with voice [] (known as the Northumbrian burr; found in northern Northumbria; largely extinct)
Most dialects labialize the letter /r/ as in reed [wid] and tree [twi]; in the latter case, the letter /t/ may also be somewhat labialized.
When /r/ is not followed by a vowel in some rhotic accents, such as General American, it is realized as an r-coloring of the preceding vowel or its coda: nurse [ns], butter [b].
In some settings, the differences between the nasals are eliminated. As in the words limp, lint, and link (notice that the n in link is pronounced []), there is essentially only one nasal sound that can exist before a final /p/, /t/, or /k/ in each case. This effect can even cross word or syllable borders, especially in stressed syllables. For example, synchrony is pronounced [skni], however synchronic can be either pronounced [sknk] or [snknk]. See Coda in the Phonotactics section below for more syllable-final pairings that may be conceivable.
Obstruents
The lenis stops and affricate /b, d, d, / are distinguishable from the fortis stops and affricate /p, t, t, k/ by a number of phonetic traits and have different allophones.
The following words are allophones of the fortes:
Ph, Th, and Kh are aspirated when they start a stressed syllable, such in potato. The aspiration often takes the form of the following liquid devoicing in clusters involving that liquid. In words like stan, span, and scan, these sounds are unaspirated [p, t, k], as well as at the ends of syllables in words like mat, map, and mac. The only prominent exception to this rule is the English-speaking regions of Wales, where the voiceless fricatives are frequently aspirated.
The fortis stops /p, t, k, and t/ are glottalized in some positions in several English accents. This can be heard as an oral closure followed by a glottal stop ("pre-glottalization" or "glottal reinforcement") or as the glottal stop [] replacing the oral stop (glottal replacement). One can only preglottalize the sound /t/. When the fortis consonant phoneme is followed by another consonant or when the consonant is in final position, pre-glottalization typically happens in British and American English. As a result, both football and catching are frequently pronounced [ftbl] and [kaet]. Glottal substitution usually occurs in situations like the ones mentioned above, which is why football is frequently called [fbl]. However, glottal substitution is also more frequent in British English when /t/ appears between vowels if the preceding vowel is stressed; as a result, younger speakers frequently pronounce better as

[be]. Many British regional accents, including Cockney, where it can sometimes occur at the end of words and where /p/ and /k/ are occasionally treated similarly, also exhibit this type of t-glottalization.
Fortes and lenes both between stops:
The word-final position of [p, b, t, d, k,] may not have an audible release.
North America has more of these allophones than Great Britain does.
Always have a "masked release" (as in rubbing [bd]) before another plosive or affricate, meaning that the first stop is released after the second stop is closed. Additionally, in situations like top player where the next halt is homorganic (articulated in the same location), this is true. Welsh English is a prominent exception to this rule, where stops are typically released in this setting.
In all contexts, the fricative release for the affricates /t, d/ is required.
Both /t/ and /d/ can be pronounced as a voiced flap [] in certain positions: when they come between a preceding stressed vowel (possibly with an intervening /r/) and precede an unstressed vowel or syllabic /l/. This is very common in the United States and Canada, and less frequently in Australia and New Zealand. A few examples are water, bottles, petals, and peddles (the last two words sound alike when flapped). Even at word borders, like in put it on, the flap could be present. Winter [w] and winner [wn] may sound the same or similar when the combination /nt/ comes in these situations because certain American speakers pronounce it as a nasalized flap that can become indistinguishable from /n/.
Yod-coalescence, which frequently occurs with clusters that would be interpreted to straddle a syllable boundary, palatalizes the clusters /dj/, /tj/, /sj/, and /zj/ into [d], [t], [], and [] accordingly.
Yod-coalescence occurs in Australian, Cockney, Estuary, Hiberno-English (certain speakers), Newfoundland, South African, and to a lesser extent in New Zealand and Scottish English in stressed syllables, such as in tune and dune (many speakers). Additional homophony may result from this; for example, dew and due may start to sound like Jew.
In some dialects, such as Australian English, South African English, and New Zealand English, stressed syllables containing /sj/ and /zj/ might combine to form [] and [], respectively. Assume, for instance, is sometimes pronounced [m] by speakers of Australian English. Additionally, some British, Canadian, American, New Zealander, and Australian speakers may alter the /s/ sound to / before the /tr/ sound making a word with a cluster of'str', like'strewn,' sound like 'tru'n.
Strong labialization can be seen in the postalveolar consonants /t, d,, and /: [tw d w].
In addition to /t, d/, clusters /ts, dz, tr, dr, t, d, pf, bv/ also have affricate-like realizations in some positions (as in cats, roads, tram, dram, eighth, behind them, cupful, obvious; see also Onset) although typically only /t, d/ are considered to be the monophonemic affricates of English because
Vowels
Like other Germanic languages, English has a very large number of vowel phonemes. Additionally, the vowels of English vary greatly depending on the dialect. As a result, depending on the dialect in question, similar vowels may be represented by different

symbols. Lexical sets are frequently employed when looking at English as a whole, and each one is named by a word that contains the vowel or vowels in issue. For instance, the LOT set includes terms like lot that are pronounced with / in Received Pronunciation and / in General American. The vowel that appears in those words in whichever dialect is being analyzed is then referred to as the "LOT vowel" or, (at a higher level of abstraction), to a diaphone me that symbolizes this interdialectal correspondence. The John C. Wells lexical set system is shown below; for each set, the associated phonemes for RP and General American are provided using the notation that will be used on this page.

Full monophthongs

LS	RP	GA
TRAP	æ	
BATH	ɑː	æ
PALM		ɑ
LOT	ɒ	
CLOTH		ɔ, ɑ
THOUGHT	ɔː	
KIT	ɪ	
DRESS	e	ɛ
STRUT	ʌ	
FOOT	ʊ	

Potential diphthongs[42]

LS	RP	GA
FACE	eɪ	
GOAT	əʊ	oʊ
FLEECE	iː	i
GOOSE	uː	u

Full diphthongs

LS	RP	GA
PRICE	aɪ	
CHOICE	ɔɪ	
MOUTH	aʊ	

Vowels before historical /r/

LS	RP	GA
NURSE	ɜː	ɜr
START	ɑː	ɑr
NORTH	ɔː	ɔr
FORCE		ɔr, oʊr
NEAR	ɪə	ir
SQUARE	ɛː	ɛr
CURE	ʊə, ɔː	ʊr

Reduced vowels

LS	RP	GA
COMMA	ə	ə
LETTER		ər
HAPPY	i	

See the IPA chart for English dialects for a table that displays how these vowels are pronounced in a larger variety of English dialects.

The vowel phonemes of three mainstream English variations are displayed in the tables below. The Received Pronunciation (RP) notation scheme employed here is quite common; the others are less so.

The feature descriptions provided here (front, close, etc.) are somewhat abstracted; the IPA symbols used to represent these vowels more precisely represent their real pronunciations (see Vowel for a chart indicating the meanings of these symbols; though note also the points listed below the following tables). The traditional symbols listed in the table point to their contemporary application.

Received Pronunciation[43][44]

	Front		Central		Back	
	short	long	short	long	short	long
Close	ɪ	iː	ʊ	uː[a]		ɔː[a]
Mid	e	ɛː	ə	ɜː	ɒ[a]	
Open	æ		ʌ			ɑː
Diphthongs	eɪ aɪ ɔɪ aʊ əʊ ɪə ʊə					
Triphthongs	(eɪə aɪə ɔɪə aʊə əʊə)					

General American

	Front		Central		Back	
	lax	tense	lax	tense	lax	tense
Close	ɪ	i			ʊ	u
Mid	ɛ	eɪ[b]	ə	(ɜ)[c]		oʊ[b]
Open	æ		ʌ[c]	ɑ		(ɔ)[d]
Diphthongs	aɪ ɔɪ aʊ					

General Australian

	Front		Central		Back	
	short	long	short	long	short	long
Close	ɪ	iː		ɵː[a]	ʊ	oː[a]
Mid	e	eː	ə	ɜː	ɔ[a]	
Open	æ	(æː)[e]	a	aː		
Diphthongs	æɪ ɑɪ oɪ æɔ əɵ ɪə (ʊə)[f]					

The contemporary RP vowels /u/, //, and / resemble their equivalent Australian phonemes //, /o/, and / quite closely. The main distinction between them is in the transcription (the way they are transcribed in RP is more conservative).

Although the vowels for FACE and GOAT are notated as /e o/ in General American, they are commonly written as /e o/ in the literature due to their analysis as phonemic monophthongs.
Because there is no contrast between /r/ and /r/ in general American, the vowels in further /fr/ are normally spoken with the same segmental character as [f].
As a result, the terms forward (/frwrd/) and foreword (/frwrd/) sounds the same, sounding like [fwd]. As a result, in General American, the sound / is just a distinct notation of / retained for when it comes before the sound /r/ and is stressed. This norm was used in literature to make accent comparisons easier. Since what is traditionally pronounced as /r/, like in hurry, is also pronounced [] (see the merger of hurry and furry), /r/ is neutralized before /r/.
Except before /r/, many North American speakers combine the sounds / and / without making a distinction between them (see cot–caught merger).
With distinct short and long variations in many words from the TRAP set, Australian features the bad-lad split: a long phoneme (/ae/) in words like bad contrasts with a short phoneme (//) in words like lad. (Some southern English speakers' accents exhibit a comparable divide.)
In accounts of Australian speech, the vowel / is frequently removed because, for the majority of speakers, it has broken into the long monophthong /o/ (e.g., poor, sure) or the sequence /. (E.g. cure, lure).
The following explanation explains the discrepancies between these tables:
General American uses / in the LOT words and typically / in the CLOTH terms, lacking the phoneme that corresponds to RP / (LOT, CLOTH). Eastern New England (Boston), Western Pennsylvania (Pittsburgh), the Pacific Northwest (Seattle, Portland), and Eastern Canadian English are some North American accents where LOT nouns lack the vowel of PALM (the father-bother merger has not yet taken place) and instead merge with CLOTH/THOUGHT.
Although the vowel of STRUT in RP and General American is represented by the symbol //, the real sound is closer to an advanced back vowel in RP and a near-open central vowel in General American.
Due to history (it was traditionally a back vowel) and the fact that it is still present in other types, the symbol is still used
Because it is more convenient and historically appropriate to use "e" instead of "a," RP transcriptions do not necessarily indicate a separate phoneme from the General American phoneme, albeit the RP vowel may be characterised as being a little less open than the American one.
The two phonetic realizations of the GOAT vowel in RP and General American (/ and /o/) are reflected in the varied notations used for those vowels.
However, in RP, these sequences frequently undergo smoothing to become single diphthongs or even monophthongs. The trip thongs listed in the RP table are typically thought of as sequences of two phonemes (a diphthong plus /).
The different notations used here for some Australian vowels reflect how those vowels are phonetically realized in Australian: a central [] rather than [u] in GOOSE, a more closed [e]

rather than [] in DRESS, a close-mid [o] rather than traditional RP's [] in THOUGHT, an open-mid [] rather than traditional RP's [] in LOT, an opener [a] rather than somewhat closer [The difference between current RP and Australian English in these vowels is virtually entirely in transcription rather than in pronunciation.

Take note that centre [] in GOOSE, close-mid [o] in THOUGHT, and open-mid [] in LOT are standard realizations in modern RP.

Both the Australian and British pronunciations of the vowel /e/ are long monophthongs, however the Australian version is close-mid [e], whereas the British pronunciation is open-mid [].

The following additional considerations:

Many contemporary RP speakers are beginning to pronounce the vowel / more openly, reaching the sound [a]. However, there is a propensity for it to close up, become tenser, and even diphthongize (to something like [e]) in American speech, especially in specific contexts, as before a nasal consonant. Although the two sounds primarily occur in environments that are mutually exclusive, some American accents, such as those of New York City, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, make a little phonemic distinction between the two sounds. View rising.

In General American, a large number of words (the BATH group) contain the sound //, but / in RP. Australia's pronunciation alternates between / and /a/, with South Australian speakers using /a/ more frequently than speakers from other regions.

Many vowels can be r-colored in General American and Canadian, which are rhotic accents (where /r/ is pronounced in locations where it does not precede a vowel). This is done by realizing a following /r/. As a result, the symbol [] has been developed for an r-colored schwa (also known as schwar), as in LETTER, and the vowel of START can be modified to make [] so that the word start may be transcribed [stt]. This is frequently written phonetically using a vowel symbol with an added retroflex ion diacritic []. The START sequence can also be represented as [stt] to denote an r-colored off glide. In these languages, the vowel for "NURSE" is often always r-colored and can be transcribed as [] (or as a syllabic []).

Many words from the CURE group are beginning to be pronounced with the NORTH vowel by an increasing number of speakers in contemporary RP and other dialects (so sure is often pronounced like shore).

Common pronunciations of the vowels in FLEECE and GOOSE are narrow diphthongs that sound similar to I and [u] in RP. Near-RP speakers may exhibit more pronounced diphthongization of the types I and [u] than other speakers. The pronunciation in Standard American alternates between a monophthong and a diphthong.

Vowel allophonic sounds

Here are a few notable examples of vowel allophony that can be found in dialects of Standard English.

When a voiceless (forties) consonant follows a vowel in a syllable, the vowel is condensed.

Pre-forties clipping is the term used for this. The first word in the following word pairings, "right" (/rat/), "ride" (/rad/), "face" (/fes/), "phase" (/fez/), and "advice" (/dva/z/), all have

shorter vowels than the second word.
Tense vowels in several English accents are broken before the letter /l/, giving words like "peel," "pool," "phe," and "pole" their respective pronunciations.
[Reference needed]
Prior to the syllable-final /l/, as in the word goal, the vowel / in RP may be pronounced more back, as []. The vowel before /l/ in standard Australian English is backed similarly to the vowel before []. English from the South of America may experience a similar issue.
In open syllables, the vowel [] is frequently used.
When a voiceless consonant comes after the diphthongs PRICE and MOUTH, the starting point may be less open. This is primarily a characteristic of Canadian speech (Canadian rising), though it is also present in some American dialects.
Thus, even when flapping results in the /t/ and /d/ being pronounced identically, writer and rider can be recognized from one another.
Unemphasized syllables
Additional details: English vowel length and stress
In English, unstressed syllables can include practically any vowel, but in practice, stressed and unstressed syllable vowels frequently employ different phoneme inventories.
Particularly, compared to stress syllables, long vowels are utilized less frequently in unstressed syllables. Additionally, there are some sounds that are very frequently found as the centers of unstressed syllables. These sounds are characterised by central position and weakness. These consist of:
Schwa, [], is used in many additional contexts, including about, photograph, paddock, and (in non-rhotic dialects) LETTER (COMMA-LETTER merger). Essentially, only unstressed syllables can make this sound. Although other analyses do not recognize schwa as a separate phoneme and consider it to be a reduction or neutralization of other vowels in syllables with the least amount of stress, the technique described here identifies it as a phoneme, /.
r-colored schwa, [], which is recognised by the underlying sequence /r/ and appears in words like LETTER in General American and several other rhotic dialects.
Syllabic consonants include [l] for bottle, [n] for button, and [m] for rhythm. These can either be phonemized as a plain consonant or as a schwa followed by a consonant; for example, the phonetic representation of the word button is either /btn/ or /btn/. (see above under Consonants).
[], as in creating and flowers. The phoneme for this is //, albeit in unstressed syllables it may be pronounced more centrally and for certain speakers (especially in Australian and New Zealand as well as some American English) it is combined with / in these syllables (weak vowel merger). There are numerous instances of free variation between / and / among speakers who maintain the distinction, such as in the second syllable of "typical." (Recently, the OED adopted the symbol to denote such instances.)
[], as in today's argument, for which the same factors that applied in []'s case also apply. (In some instances, a sign akin to an is occasionally used.) Additionally, certain speakers may employ a rounded schwa [] in terms like omission [mn].
In various languages, I is used to denote joyful or coffee (others use [] in this position)

It is difficult to determine this [iphonemic]'s state. It primarily occurs in settings when the contrast between these vowels is neutralized,[66] and some authors believe it to correlate phonetically with a close front vowel that is neither the vowel of KIT nor that of FLEECE. It is implied by [67][68] that it represents the archiphoneme /i/, which can be written.

Some authors believe that the happY-vowel should be phonemically associated with either the vowel of KIT or that of FLEECE, depending on speaker, because many speakers do have a contrast in pairs of words like studied and studded or taxis and taxes; the contrast may be I vs. [], [] vs. [] or I vs. []. [69] also see happy-tensin

To each, [u], as in influence. This is the back-rounded counterpart to I that was previously described; the works listed there treat its phonemic status

Unstressed syllables with reduced vowels are a distinctive aspect of English. A syllable with a distinct vowel (a "full vowel") that is utilized in other forms of the same morpheme where that syllable is stressed frequently corresponds to a syllable of the categories indicated above. For instance, the first o in photography is reduced to a schwa while the first o in photographs is stressed and is pronounced with the GOAT vowel. Additionally, certain common words (such as a, an, of, for, etc.) are pronounced with a schwa when they are not stressed but with a different vowel when they are (see Weak and strong forms in English).

However, some unstressed syllables maintain full (unreduced), or vowels other than those mentioned above, vowels. Examples are the /a/ in finite and the / in ambition. Such syllables have been classified as secondary stressed in some dictionaries and as having tertiary stress by some phonologists who believe they are not totally unstressed. Vowel reduction is argued to be phonemic in English by linguists such as Ladefoged and Bollinger who believe that this variation is solely in vowel quality and not in stress. Examples of words where vowel reduction appears to be distinctive for some speakers include Pharaoh vs. farrow (both words have the GOAT vowel, but in the latter word it may reduce to []), chickaree vs. chicory (the latter has the reduced vowel of HAPPY, whereas the former has the FLEECE vowel without reduction), and chicory vs. chicory (the latter has the reduced vowel of H

Lexical tension

Stress and vowel reduction in English, main article

In English, lexical stress is phonemic. For instance, the placement of the stress on the first syllable in the verb increase and the second syllable in the noun increase distinguish them from one another. (See noun derived from initial stress.) Stressed syllables in English are louder than non-stressed syllables, as well as being longer and having a higher pitch.

In traditional approaches, in any English word consisting of more than one syllable, each syllable is ascribed one of three degrees of stress: primary, secondary or unstressed. Ordinarily, in each such word there will be exactly one syllable with primary stress, possibly one syllable having secondary stress, and the remainder are unstressed (unusually-long words may have multiple syllables with secondary stress).

For example, the word amazing has primary stress on the second syllable, while the first and third syllables are unstressed, whereas the word organization has primary stress on the fourth syllable, secondary stress on the first, and the second, third, and fifth unstressed. This is often shown in pronunciation keys using the IPA symbols for primary and secondary stress

(which are ˈ and ˌ respectively), placed before the syllables to which they apply. The two words just given may therefore be represented (in RP) as /əˈmeɪzɪŋ/ and /ˌɔːgənaɪˈzeɪʃən/.
Some analysts identify an additional level of stress (tertiary stress). This is generally ascribed to syllables that are pronounced with less force than those with secondary stress, but nonetheless contain a "full" or "unreduced" vowel (vowels that are considered to be reduced are listed under English phonology § Unstressed syllables above). Hence the third syllable of organization, if pronounced with /aɪ/ as shown above (rather than being reduced to /ɪ/ or /ə/), might be said to have tertiary stress. (The precise identification of secondary and tertiary stress differs between analyses; dictionaries do not generally show tertiary stress, although some have taken the approach of marking all syllables with unreduced vowels as having at least secondary stress.
In some analyses, then, the concept of lexical stress may become conflated with that of vowel reduction. A technique which seeks to separate these two is presented by Peter Ladefoged, who claims that it is possible to characterize English with only one degree of stress, as long as unstressed syllables are phonemically separated for vowel reduction. Primary stress is viewed as an example of the predictable "tonic" stress that falls on the final stressed syllable of a prosodic unit. This approach views the distinction between primary and secondary stress as a phonetic or prosodic detail rather than a phonemic feature. See Stress and vowel reduction in English for additional information about this analysis.
See Prosodic stress below for information on stress as a prosodic trait (emphasis of specific words within utterances).
Phonotactics
The study of phoneme sequences in language and the sound structures they create is known as phonotactics. In this study, vowels are typically represented by the symbol V and consonants by the letter C, therefore a syllable like "be" is referred to as having CV structure. The dot [.] is the IPA symbol used to indicate a break between syllables.
The process of breaking up continuous speech into discrete syllables is known as syllabification, and it can be difficult to determine where a syllable should be divided.
The majority of languages in the world syllabi size the sequences CVCV and CVCCV as /CV.CV/ and /CVC.CV/ or /CV.CCV/, with consonants acting primarily as the beginning of syllables containing the subsequent vowel. One theory holds that English is unusual in this regard because even when both syllables are unstressed, the /r/ sound preferentially syllabises with the preceding vowel, resulting in CVrV occurring as /CVr.V/. Additionally, stressed syllables attract following consonants, causing CVCV and CVCCV to syllabisize as /CVC.V/ and /CVCC.V/, respectively this approach is the one that the Longman Pronunciation Dictionary employs. However, as will be seen in the following section, this viewpoint is not often shared.

3.3 TRANSCRIPTION

In linguistic terms, transcription refers to the methodical rendering of spoken discourse in writing. The source can be either preexisting text in another writing system or utterances (voice or sign language).

Transliteration, which is the representation of a text's spelling from one script to another, and translation, which means representing a text's meaning from a source language in a target language (for example, Los Angeles from the source language Spanish means The Angels in the target language English), should not be confused with transcription.

Transcription is a crucial component of the approaches used in the academic field of linguistics, including phonetics, conversation analysis, dialectology, and sociolinguistics. It also has a significant impact on a number of speech technology subfields. The proceedings of a court hearing, such as a criminal trial (transcribed by a court reporter), or a doctor's recorded voice notes are frequent examples of transcriptions outside of academia (medical transcription). In linguistics, transcription is the main topic of this essay.

Paying close attention

A good set of ears is exacting when it comes to transcription work. You must be able to accurately grasp discussions despite audio difficulties such background noise, crosstalk, and quiet voices when transcribing common themes. In extreme circumstances, an audio transcriptionist should be able to infer meaning from the audio by using "sounds like" predictions.

Use of Transcription Wing’s handy Listen Link feature, which embeds an unclear portion of your transcript with a link to its corresponding audio segment, is an useful fix for this.

Keen memory

Sharp recall and keen attention go a long way in helping with general transcriptions. Sharp memory aids a transcriptionist in typing lengthy talks, getting every word without the need for repeated listening or frequent stops to type.

Rapid typing and excellent accuracy

The typical human can type 40–45 words per minute, whereas a professional transcriptionist may type 60–80 words per minute while making very few mistakes. In contrast, a skilled audio transcriber can type at a remarkable 100 words per minute.

Spelling, punctuation, and grammar skills

Although some clients prefer non-verbatim or clear, easy-to-read transcripts, certain transcribing requests are verbatim-specific. To produce neat transcripts without distorting the meaning or original intent of the dialogues, a transcriptionist should possess strong grammar, punctuation, and spelling skills. Although there are digital tools that can easily discover and fix errors like this, it is still critical for them to have a solid knowledge base to avoid fundamental yet embarrassing errors.

Research abilities

Transcriptionists require exceptional research abilities. Every day, they are given files on various subjects. Strong research ability is quite helpful for spotting unknown words or terminologies as well as for looking up important facts and proper nouns like names, acronyms, companies, enterprises, or brands in general.

Keen focus on the details

Good transcriptionists are attentive listeners who pay close attention to the minute details that are necessary for accurate verbatim transcriptions to be printed. In the event when the speaker used the word "like" five times, the audio transcriptionist should write "...like - like -

like - like - like..." in the transcript. For market researchers, different notations are also imperatively perceived in utterances like "hmm," "uh," and "uh-huh." Transcripts also provide information about pauses and laughter. These minute subtleties help the speakers in the audio transmit their meaning, thus transcriptionists should pay close attention to them as the customer requests.

Determination and attention

A qualified transcriptionist is one who is committed to completing the work to standard. On average, it takes 6 hours to transcribe a 1-hour file. It's not a game for kids. To achieve perfect accuracy and on-time completion of the work, a transcriptionist should be able to ignore pointless interruptions and focus for extended periods of time.

Diligence and a firm focus on the goals

To achieve the team's objective of delivering high-caliber transcripts on time, transcriptionists should be dedicated and self-driven. As a result, they ought to adhere zealously to the high standards set by the business. Finally, when the firm you work for recognizes your attention, diligence, a strong goal orientation, focus, and determination improve the advantages and rewards you receive as a transcriptionist.

Adaptive

We provide general transcribing services in a variety of sectors, so it is essential that all of our transcriptionists are quick learners who can grasp new concepts quickly. Only then can they provide transcripts of a high level of logic and accuracy.

Technologically savvy

A person can work as a transcriptionist without having highly developed computer skills. Basic knowledge of how to use Microsoft Word to its fullest potential for proper transcription formats and familiarity with Google search are sufficient, but it is essential to be open to learning how to use the necessary transcribing tools.

Our pool of general transcriptionists at Transcription Wing is made up of hand-selected professionals, ensuring that the caliber of our transcripts is unmatched. Our transcription team's experience will undoubtedly deliver reliable transcripts that are tailored to your demands, whether they are from in-depth interviews, focus groups, podcasts, seminars, conference calls, or even video captioning.

How to Improve Your Listening Comprehension Using the Transcription Method

I'd like to share a straightforward method that has significantly enhanced my listening abilities (many language learners say that listening the most difficult skill to master). Additionally, this method aids in my speaking, reading, and writing. There is no other method that I am aware of that is as efficient in enhancing all of these abilities.

This method has never been taught in a language or academic setting, to my knowledge. And nowhere have I read on language learning have I ever seen it referenced. But it's really effective; it's practically made active listening effortless for me.

I figured it would be beneficial to impart this method in order to aid others in their language study. It was a joyful accident that I found it. I'll explain how:

Before we begin, the Fluent in 3 Months team would like to remind you that using their method; you can have a conversation with a native speaker for at least 15 minutes. It just

takes 90 days. Click this link to learn more. How I Came Across the Transcription Method
I stated to a classmate a few years back that I found listening to the recordings 'boring' since the talking speed was too sluggish while I was taking a Chinese class that concentrated on listening skills. Have you ever tried to type a transcript while you listen, he questioned? I hadn't; in fact, it seemed like impossibility to me since I frequently have difficulties understanding music lyrics in my native English. It was obvious that my perceived level of skill and my "boredom" did not match up. However, I didn't have any issues with comprehension generally, and I didn't have any issues the following day in class when we looked over the transcript and reviewed the content, so I made the decision to accept the challenge.
I pressed play after opening a new Word document. It was challenging. really difficult Almost every statement required two or more listens on my part. In the end, my transcript was mostly complete, albeit there were a few gaps. Realizing how much I didn't know was sobering, and it gave the lesson I had previously dismissed as "boring" a whole new perspective. The recording held my attention for a length of time that was at least three times longer than it had before, which was another great thing. And I didn't have to force myself to concentrate; it just came about as I tried to type out what I was hearing.
The 'Transcription Technique': What is it?

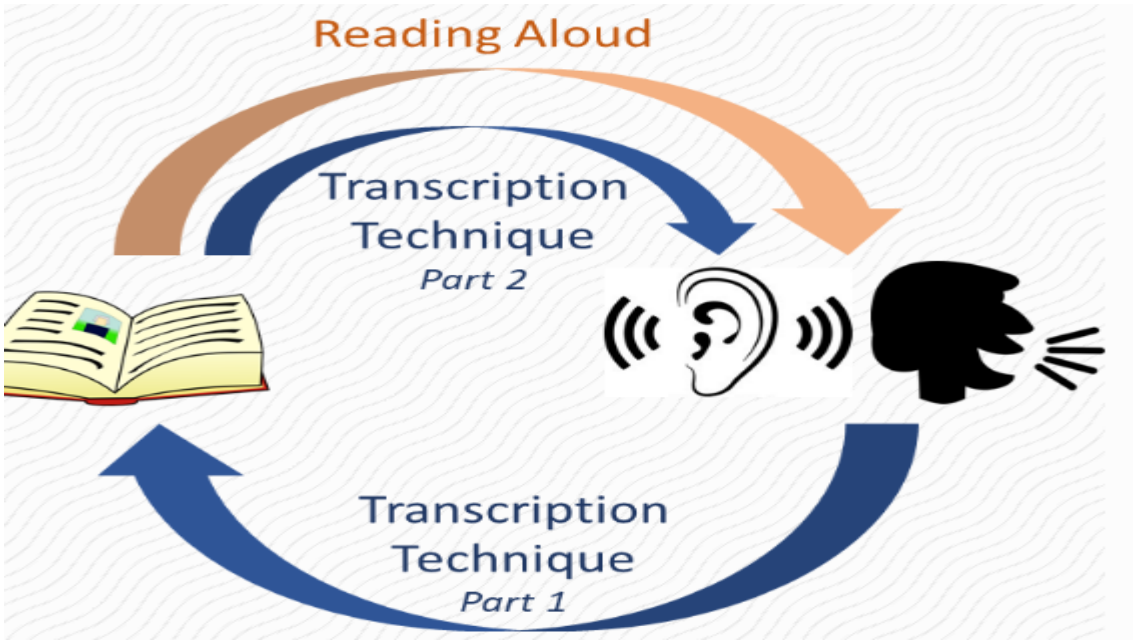


Fig 3.1 'Transcription Technique'

The Transcription Method: A Comprehensive Step-by-Step Guide
Step 1: Locate an appropriate audio clip.
Observe the following as you choose yours:
Start quickly: If you like, you can include this in a lengthier audio clip, but 30 seconds or one minute is an excellent place to start.
Make it challenging but at a level where you can understand it. If you can't understand what is being said, you won't be able to copy it. When performing a "test listen," aim for general

knowledge of 50–80%.
Pick a topic that interests you because you'll be listening to this audio for a long time.
Transcript: It will be simpler to review your work in the end if the audio includes a transcript or is a video with subtitles. However, DO NOT views the transcript or subtitles prior to step 6, since that would be counterproductive.
Don't rush: Spend some time choosing a recording that suits your skill level and interests because this will have the most impact on your outcomes.
Step 2: Listen once without trying to take notes; just concentrate on understanding the overall message and context. If you're struggling with this, think about going back to #1 and selecting a simpler recording.
Step 3: Prepare a blank Word or Google doc or, if you'd rather write by hand, a pencil and some blank paper. Steps #7 and #8 will be simpler if you choose to handwrite them by spacing your lines two spaces apart. Start the tape again and start writing down what you hear, pausing or fast-forwarding the audio as necessary. If after several listens you still can't make out what is being said, don't worry—just substitute a () for the words in question and keep going until the tape is complete.
Step 4: Read over your transcript to see whether it makes sense and seems sensible in general. You will almost always have some blanks, but as long as everything makes sense overall, it is acceptable. Consider the words that, given the context, would make sense there as you read, and then write them in, omitting the () around them.
Step 5: Restart the tape and pay close attention to those () places this time. Determine whether the () areas become any () clearer as a result of the sound and context. This stage is where many "aha" moments occur.
Step 6 (OPTIONAL): If you still have () regions after step 5 and want to put yourself through the wringer, go back and repeat steps #4 and #5 to get rid of those annoying () even further.
Step 7: Have a friend, tutor, or teacher who is a native speaker review your transcript to make any necessary corrections and fill in any gaps. Alternatively, you can utilize a transcript or subtitles to improve your transcript if you have them. My preferred method for completing this step is to print out my transcript with double spacing and then manually edit it. I seem to recall the corrections better when I hand write them. However, Word with tracked changes enabled is also an option (Google Docs automatically tracks changes). Look up any unfamiliar words in a dictionary if necessary
Step 8: Take your fully accurate transcript, set up your recording equipment, and listen to it once more while reading along. This will give your brain a chance to connect the written words (which you've already looked up if you didn't know already) with the sounds of the phrases you initially found difficult to understand.
Step 9: Take a recording of you reading the transcript.
Transcription of phonemes and orthographies
The two main varieties of linguistic transcription are as follows. The phonetic and phonological characteristics of spoken language are the main topics of phonetic transcription. Systematic mapping of individual sounds or phones to written characters is

thus made possible by phonetic transcription systems. Contrarily, orthographic transcription systems use rules to translate spoken words into written forms in accordance with a particular language's orthography. The International Phonetic Alphabet is typically used for phonetic transcription because it is a specific character set.

The type of transcription selected mostly relies on the usage situation. Phonetic or phonological analysis is the main applications for phonetic transcription, which rigorously emphasizes the phonetic aspect of language. However, in addition to the phonetic component, orthographic transcription also includes morphological and lexical components (which aspect is represented to which degree depends on the language and orthography in question).

Wherever the meaning components of spoken language are recorded, this kind of transcription is therefore more practical. In a scientific sense, phonetic transcription is more systematic than orthographic transcription, but it is also harder to learn, takes longer to complete, and has fewer practical applications.

As an idea

The process of translating spoken words into written symbols is more complicated than it initially appears. A small number of clearly distinguishable and distinctive symbols make up the idealized written language. Conversely, spoken language is a continuous (as opposed to discrete) phenomenon with an almost infinite number of constituent parts. There is no established method for differentiating and categorizing these components, and as a result, there is no established method for translating these components into written symbols.

The no neutrality of transcription practices has generally been noted in the literature. The neutral transcription system does not exist and cannot exist. Making a transcript requires direct knowledge of social culture. They are depicted in the transcript's texture (Baker, 2005)

Transcribing devices

The rules of transcription systems specify how spoken language should be represented by written symbols. The International Phonetic Alphabet or, more specifically in speech technology, its descendant SAMPA, are the foundations of the majority of phonetic transcription systems.

Following are some examples of orthographic transcription systems (all drawn from conversation analysis or closely related fields):

CA (conversation analysis)

Possibly the first system of its sort, developed by Sacks et al. in 1978, was later modified as CA-CHAT for usage in computer readable corpora (MacWhinney 2000). There are numerous unique transcription methods and styles that fall under the umbrella of conversation analysis. The Jefferson Notation is one of these. Recorded data is often transcribed into a written form that analysts can understand in order to study dialogue. There are two typical methods.

The first, referred to as narrow transcription, records specifics of conversational interaction, such as which words are stressed, which words are uttered louder than others, when turns of speech overlap, how specific words are pronounced, and so on. A second style of

transcription known as broad transcription may be sufficient if such detail is less relevant, maybe because the analyst is more concerned with the general gross structure of the conversation or the relative distribution of turns-at-talk among the participants (Williamson, 2009).

System for Jefferson Transcription

The Gail Jefferson-created Jefferson Transcription System is a set of symbols for transcription of spoken language. When Jefferson was hired in 1963 as a clerk typist at the UCLA Department of Public Health to record sensitivity-training sessions for prison guards, she already had some experience with transcription. She started by transcription some of the recordings that served as the source material for Harvey Sacks' initial lectures. Jefferson's research into talk-in-interaction over four decades, the most of which she spent without a university job and without pay, set the bar for what is now known as conversation analysis (CA). Her research has had a significant impact on the sociological study of interaction as well as other academic fields, particularly linguistics, communication, and anthropology.

[1] This method is used by everyone working from the CA perspective and is thought to have nearly become a globalised set of transcription instructions.

3.4 INTONATION

The use of altering (rising and falling) vocal pitch during speech to express grammatical information or a speaker's attitude is known as intonation. In spoken English, intonation is crucial for expressing questions. Consider the question, "When does the meeting begin?" According to the website English Pronunciation Roadmap, the word "start"—including the question mark—rises up or comes up in your voice when you say it.

Language's Musicality

According to David Crystal, author of "A Little Book of Language," intonation is the melody or song of a language. Intonation is the rise and fall of your voice while you talk, as in,

"Isn't it raining right now? (Or perhaps "in nit")"

You're not really posing a question in this passage: You use a "telling" melody in your speech to convey to the audience that it is pouring. Making a statement, you lower the pitch of your voice and appear to be an authority on the subject, which of course you are. But now, Crystal says, picture not knowing whether it's raining. You ask someone to check because you believe there might be a shower outside but are unsure. Even when you say the same thing, your melodic voice conveys a distinct meaning, as in

"Is it raining, or what?"

As you are now asking the person, Crystal advises giving your speech a "asking" melody. You sound as though you're asking a question when your voice's pitch raises.

Pitch and chucker

Pitch and chunking are two of intonation's essential concepts that must be understood in order to fully appreciate it. According to Encyclopedia Britannica, pitch is,

The relative highness or lowness of a tone as perceived by the ear is dependent on the frequency of the vocal cords' vibrations per second.

Everyone's voice pitch varies to a different degree, according to Study.com:
We can all modify our timbre depending on who we are speaking to and why, even though some people are more prone to speaking at a higher pitch and others at a lower pitch.
Timbre is the characteristic of sound that sets one voice, musical instrument, or vowel sound apart from another: It is influenced by the sound's harmonics. The musicality of your voice and the way in which you employ that musicality or timbre to transmit message are both referred to as pitch
According to the University of Technology (UTS) in Sydney, speakers divide speech into chunks, which may be single words or groups of words, to transmit a thought or idea or to focus on information they believe is significant. Chunking—and pausing—meanwhile packages information for the listener. The following chunking example is provided by UTS:
Does it really matter if someone has an accent as long as they are understandable?
The following "chunks" make up the following sentence:
"Does it matter at all?
Whether accents are present in speech
So long as they are understandable? "/
In this case, your pitch would vary slightly between each piece to help the audience better understand what you were saying. In each "chunk," your voice essentially rises and falls.
Different Intonations
The rising and falling tones in your voice are a crucial aspect of intonation. Your voice rises and falls in a melodic manner to express a feeling of meaning, much as the tone of a musical instrument changes as a competent player crafts a tune to convey a sense of mood. Consider this illustration from an essay by Russell Banks titled "Adultery," which was printed in the Mother Jones issue from April/May 1986.
"What the hell, I mean? Right?"
These two short sentences feature distinct peaks and valleys in the speaker's voice that go as follows: "I mean / what in the world? Right? "/
The voice drops when the first phrase, "I mean," is being said. The voice then gains volume throughout the second phrase, "What the heck?," sounding almost like it was ascending a musical ladder with each word. This is the speaker's way of expressing outrage. The speaker's voice then soars even higher with the final phrase, "Right?", evoking the elusive high C in music. This is similar to passing off the sentence to the listener in order to get them to concur with the speaker. (If the listener disagrees, there will probably be a dispute.)
And throughout the piece, the reader expresses agreement with the speaker by saying,
Right, yes.
The response is delivered with a lowering tone that almost makes it appear as though the listener is caving in and agreeing to the speaker's demands. The responder's voice drops so considerably by the time the word "right" is finished that it almost seems as though the person is giving in.

To provide meaning packages, statements (and responses) are chunked through the use of tone. The tone of the opening statement, which is frequently a query, may rise and fall, but it

usually rises as the speaker hands the sentence or question over to the audience. Additionally, the tone or sound of the response lowers as if the responder is bringing the discussion to a quiet conclusion; much like a melody quietly comes to a soft close at the epoch, just like a musical work that starts quietly and crescendos in sound and timber.

Five Intonation Activities That Work Regardless of Student Skill Level for Teaching English

It's ideal to employ interesting and enjoyable ESL activities while teaching intonation. Most people can't learn stress and emphasis by studying with computer programmers and textbooks.

Let's have a look at some interactive intonation exercises that will aid in the active development of your pupils' communication skills.

1. Warm-up videos

Whether you're reviewing material you covered last week or teaching intonation for the first time, it's usually a good idea to start with a little warm-up that gets students thinking about the subject.

The films listed below are excellent for classroom warm-up exercises since they not only introduce intonation in an interesting fashion but also include interactive aspects.

Rachel's language

Look at this YouTube channel if you're seeking for a way to teach intonation to your students. You can choose from a variety of video clips that discuss intonation and pronunciation.

Students can participate in classroom activities by emulating Rachel's demonstrations while watching the intonation videos on her playlist. In order to prevent English speaking fatigue, Rachel also provides mouth exercises that teach people how to relax their tongues.

Fluent

Authentic English speaking in many contexts is one of the finest ways to demonstrate proper English intonation to students. This is made possible by the immersion platform FluentU, which also actively improves students' language abilities.

Students of all ages will find the program's array of videos interesting, which range from news segments and inspiring talks to movie trailers and vlogs. As well as transcripts and subtitles, custom quizzes, contextual definitions, and a powerful SRS-based flashcard review system, fluent movies come with learning aids.

3.5 EMPHASIS

Emphasis

Our voices accentuate specific words in sentences naturally, which is one of the major things they do. This emphasis clarifies the meaning of the sentence and informs the listener of what is significant. For instance, in the classic witty "Sally sells seashells at the seashore," the speaker highlights the information they feel is most crucial for the listeners. This sort of inflection offers variation and highlights the crucial words in a sentence by making particular syllables louder or higher in pitch. Once more, if a voice lacks diversity, the speaker may come off as monotone. Let's assume, for the sake of argument that the speaker

chose to highlight the seller of the seashells.
This is how the vocal interpretation would sound:
By the water's edge, SALLY sells seashells. (This inflection presupposes that the listener is aware of Sally and will go in search of her.
Another option is to make sure the audience understands where she is selling the seashells by emphasizing the location. This phrase could appear like this:
By the seashore, Sally sells seashells.
Utilizing the aforementioned emphasis tactics, practice pronouncing these sentences. Typically, each sentence has two or more crucial words. On your speech outline, you can highlight or bold the words you wish to draw attention to in each sentence.

3.6 PAUSES

The Power of Pausing
One more thing regarding pausing versus vocalizing pauses like "ah," "uh," "like," etc. Try pausing and taking a breath before employing the filler phrases ah and um. There is occasionally strain on speakers to produce sound in silence. Defy the desire. In fact, a pause allows the audience to catch up and process what you just said while you might be searching through your note cards for anything you meant to mention. Often, when we are afraid, we want to fill the room with something so the audience won't get bored. It's not necessary to do that. Do your best to avoid ahs and ums in your speech because they can also make a speaker look unprofessional and insecure.

3.7 FORMAL AND INFORMAL COMMUNICATION

Formal communication - what is it?
The transmission of official information through appropriate, predetermined channels and routes is referred to as formal communication. Information flow is regulated, and effective communication requires conscious effort. A chain of command and a hierarchical organization guide formal communication.
The organizational structure is typically top-down, with senior staff and departmental heads funneling down to lower-level employees. While performing their jobs, employees are required to follow formal communication channels.
Formal communication is regarded as being effective since it involves a timely and organized flow of information.
Informal communication: What is it?
Informal communication, in contrast, refers to multifaceted communication. Informal communication is unrestricted by established channels and communication routes and can flow freely throughout the organization. Informal communication moves especially fast.
As people engage with each other freely and can chat about a wide variety of issues, frequently extending beyond of their professional tasks, informal communication is far more relational than formal communication and is, by nature, a very natural kind of

communication. Informal communication is by its very nature much faster and does not leave a paper trail.

The "grapevine," as informal communication is known in the office, typically starts with employees through social relationships. When included in the formal communication information flow of a corporation, informal communications frequently become formal communications.

Since employees can discuss matters connected to their jobs informally, it is seen to be effective and save the company time and money. Additionally, it promotes the development of healthy and effective relationships at work.

3.8 SUMMARY

- The SPEAKING model, also known as the SPEAKING sociolinguistic research model, was created by Dell Hymens and is used in sociolinguistics. This model was created by Hymens as a component of the ethnography of speaking, a novel methodology.
- This model is a tool to aid in the identification and labeling of interactional linguistics components.
- It was inspired by his belief that in addition to learning a language's vocabulary and grammar, one must also understand the context in which words are employed. In essence, developing verbal competence requires mastering the elements of the SPEAKING paradigm.
- Hymens created the mnemonic S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G (for setting and scene, participants, ends, actions sequence, key, instrumentalities, norms, & genre), under which he organized the sixteen components into eight divisions to make the application of his depiction easier.
- Message form, message content, setting, scene, speaker/sender, addressor, hearer/receiver/audience, addressee, purposes (outcomes), purposes (goals), key, channels, forms of speech, norms of interaction, norms of interpretation, and genres were the sixteen components of the model that could be applied to many different types of discourse.
- Linguistic anthropologists employ the SPEAKING model to examine speech events (one or more speech acts involving one or more people) as a component of ethnography.
- The relationships and power dynamics within a specific speech community can be understood using this method, which can also provide light on cultural values.

3.9KEYWORDS

- **Transcription** - Transcribers and other communication specialists employ transcription skills to provide written records for audio, speeches, meetings, videos, and other varied scenarios that call for a transcript.
- **Intonation** - Variations in the voice's pitch are the main factor in intonation. It frequently works in tandem with rhythm and stress in languages like English to produce meaning. (Tone is a separate name for pitch modulation; it refers to the use of pitch to distinguish between words and grammatical categories.)

- **Emphasis -** The definition of emphasis is giving something extra attention in order to emphasise its significance. One way to emphasise something is to make a word in a document bold to draw attention to it.
- **Informal communication** - Any sort of communication that doesn't follow the formal procedures or organisational structures in a firm is considered informal communication. Informal communication, as contrast to one-on-one or intercompany meetings, refers to the conversations, memos, and asides we have with one another outside of these formal contexts.
- **Formal communication -** Formal communication is the exchange of official information between two or more individuals working for the same organisation while adhering to established guidelines and doing so through authorised means.

3.10 LEARNING ACTIVITY

1. Define transcription?

_____

_____

__

2. State the principal of Speaking Skill?

_____

_____

__

3.11UNIT END QUESTIONS

A. Descriptive questions

Short questions

1. What is the importance of speaking skills?
2. What are types of speaking skills?
3. How can I improve speaking English?
4. How can I speak good English?
5. What is English fluency?

Long questions

1. What are 5 basics of speaking skills?
2. What are 6 speaking skills?
3. What are 3 speaking skills?
4. How can I improve speaking skills?
5. What is the importance of speaking skills?

b. Multiple Choice Questions

1. _____Which of these is the study and classification of speech sounds?

a)Gestures
b) Speech Style
c) Phonetics
d) Spoof

2. _____Which of these is not an element of the speaking technique?

a) Voice Quality
b) Word Stress
c) Appearance
d) Correct Tones

3. _____Which of these means giving emphasis to a syllable?

a) Voice Quality
b) Word Stress
c) Tone
d) Message

4. _____Which of these factors is not involved in the determination of correct tone?

a) Pitch
b) Dressing Style
c) Quality
d) Strength

5. Which of these should be avoided for an effective speech?

a) Determination of the purpose
b) Selection of message
c) Lack of interest
d) Selection of theme

Answer; - 1-c 2-c 3-b 4-b 5-c

3.12 REFERENCES

Reference books

- Note that the categories are simply listed in the order demanded by the mnemonic, not by importance
- ^ Hymes, D. (1974). *Foundations in Sociolinguistics: An Ethnographic Approach.* Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, p.53-62.
- ^ Hymes (1974), p.55.
- ^ Hymes (1974), pp.55-56.

Text books

- ^ Jump up to:[a] [b] [c] *Ottenheimer, Harriet (2009). The Anthropology of Language: An Introduction to Linguistic Anthropology. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning. pp. 129–145.* ISBN 9781428848849.

- ^ Hymes (1974), pp.54 and 56.
- ^ Hymes (1974), pp.56-57.
- ^ Jump up to:[a] [b] [c] *Ottenheimer, Harriet (2009). The Anthropology of Speaking: an Introduction to Linguistic Anthropology. Belmont, CA: Wadswoth. P*

Website;

- https://www.fluentu.com/blog/educator-english/intonation-activities-
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UNIT 4- STRESS MANAGEMENT

4.0 Learning objectives
4.1 Introduction
4.2 Concept of Stress
4.3 Some definitions of Stress
4.4 Characteristics of Stress
4.5 Type of Stress
4.6 Existence of Stress-Is it negative or positive?
4.7 Stress & Job Performance
4.8 Levels of Stress
4.9 Determinants of stress
4.10 Consequences of Stress
4.11 Stress Management
4.12 Creating a Stress-Free Environment
4.13 Summary
4.14 Keywords
4.15 Learning Activity
4.16 Unit End Questions
4.17 References

4.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the nature of stress
- Identify types of stress
- State the need and importance of stress management
- List the significance of creating a Stress-Free Environment

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Pressure is part and parcel of all work and helps one feels encouraged. But extreme pressure can lead to stress, which affect performance, which increases the overheads of the employers due to less productivity and also affect the health of the people. Stress is a condition of nervous tension that has a direct influence on a person's emotions, thought process and physical conditions. The actions of all human beings are directed towards achieving goal. These days the workforce often admit that stress is affecting their jobs, family life and health. Unpredictable economy, pressure to maintain profitability and increased responsibilities are main causes of stress. Human behaviour is directed towards the fulfilment of aspirations, needs, drives, cues want etc. Human wants are endless and reach-less. When an individual's aspirations and needs are ignored there occurs inevitable behavioural consequences of irritation, resentment, impatience, excessive complaint and frustration, which eventually results in stress. In this materialistic world, every individual

strives hard to make progress in life, and aspires to lead a peaceful life and a prosperous life, which is a great challenge.

Evolution of the Term Stress

In the 15th century, the term stress was used to describe troubles or pain. A century later, the term was used to describe burden, force or pressure, especially on a person's body or soul. In the 17th century stress denoted hardships, strains, adversity or affliction. During the 18th and 19thcenturies it meant, force, pressure, strain or strong effort". The 20th century was called the "The Age of Anxiety.

4.2 CONCEPT OF STRESS

Stress has become one of the major concerns of present times. It has become a catching phrase and a genuine concern of the present time. Majority of persons are victim of stress at some stage of their life, which denotes pressures and irritants behaviour of people in life.

People who put lot of hard work to complete their work and who spend lot of energy to finish the job are supposed to be highly stressed and vice versa. "Stress is used either to label situations that tax a person's physical or psychological resources or to refer to the emotional response of the person to such situations". A stress is any force that pushes a psychological or physical factor of a human being, beyond its range of stability, producing a strain within the individuals.

Stress is a form of uneasiness faced by an individual. Loss of emotional firmness is the general expression of stress. It is usually apparent when the individual experiences a biological disorder. Stress has a positive relationship with the age, life styles, time restrictions and the type of occupation. Certain jobs are more prone to the stress than the others. For instance, drivers of vehicles, doctors, lawyers and managers are more expected to get stress than teacher, bankers and operating personnel. People feel pressure when the needs or requirements are not accomplished in the normal expected ways. This is because of the natural constraints functioned on the individuals. The more the strength of the desire and greater is the uncertainty connected with the attainment of the goal, the greater is the degree of stress. Employees are at work for longer hours, taking on the work, laid-off colleagues, meeting stricter deadlines and cutting back on expenses are some of the causes of stress. In addition to this with the double-income family demands of monthly mortgages, childcare issues and aging parents, and the result for many is anxiety, sleeplessness, irritability, and physical and mental deterioration. Perhaps these are the potential reasons for stress in the employees.

4.3 SOME DEFINITIONS OF STRESS

In the words of Fred Luthans, stress is described as an adaptive response to an external situation that results in physical, psychological, and/or behavioural deviations for organisational members. Ivancevich and Matteson describe stress as the interface of the individual with the environment. It is an adaptive response, mediated by person characteristics and/or psychological processes that are result of any external action,

situations or event that places special physical and / or psychological demands upon a person.

Schuler defines stress as a dynamic condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint, or demand related to what he or she desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important.

Hanselye 'The Father of Stress', defined stress as "The force, pressure or strain exerted upon a material object or a person which resist these forces and attempt to maintain its original state".

Stress is a major problem in our society. More than 75% of bodily illness are said to be stress related. It has been seen that severe and prolonged stress leads to suppression and badly affect the body's immune system. Weak immune system normally prevents the human from fighting against the bacteria, virus, fungi etc. "Stress at work creates as well as promotes employee's inclination towards the job, thus enhances the performance. However, it has been more frequently observed that high level of stress acts with body process, to tear it away"

4.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF STRESS

The following are some of the features of stress:

i. Stress is intangible in nature' which cannot be seen or touched but its existence can be felt through the human behaviour and its damaging and negative human emotions.

ii. Stress is very much personal in nature and impulsive'. As stress put pressure on the employees and induces an employee's tendency towards attending the job and achieve the personal as well as organizational goals.

iii. Stress puts mental pressure on a person's physical and psychological resources.

iv. The outcomes of stress are not only negative but it has also some positive aspects, like it stimulates employees to achieve the goals on time. It has positive effects on an individual. However, too much and unrelenting stress is unpleasant for employees.

v. Stress has both psychological and physical aspect.

vi. It is widespread to both the genders.

vii. The origin of the stress is from the deviation of one's expectations from the real state of affairs.

viii. It is symptomatic. The person affected from the stress can be judged with the visible symptoms. If the potential symptom of stress is disregarded, it leads to actual stress.

ix. Stress is mostly treated to be negative in nature. However, it has positive outcomes. This is called as eustress.

x. Stress has a direct correlation with the external environment. It does not emanate from the functions of the internal organs of the individual. It originates from the interface of the human being with the external environment surrounding that person. Thus, environment has a intense influence on the stress.

xi. Stress is a general term. If it is studied in the context of an organisation, it is known as work stress or job stress.

xii. Stress is correlated to the outlook of the person to a particular situation. Stress does not crop up when the individual is having a positive attitude to the opportunity.

xiii. Stress is connected with certain universal biological disorders such as heart attack, stroke, diabetic, blood pressure, neurological disorders etc.

4.5 TYPE OF STRESS

Good Stress v/s Bad Stress:

Stress has often been misunderstood to be negative, with few people acknowledging the significance and worth of positive stress. In our day-to-day life, stress is present everywhere and certainly unavoidable; therefore, our weight should be on making a distinction between what is good stress and what is bad. Negative stress is a source of number of physical and psychological problems, while positive stress can be very useful for everyone. There are four main categories of stress. They are as follows:

Eustress: This is a positive type of stress. This enthuse a person to get ready for the allotted work, to conclude the work on time without any delay and at the same times, it provides motivation and power that is needed to complete the work. "Eustress" is the satisfying stress that accompanies potential positive events. The positive form of stress is known as eustress. The word taken from Greek language means good stress. Mild stress elevates body metabolic and biological rates

Distress: It is a depressing form of stress. This happens when the mind and body is not able to deal with the changes, and by and large happens when there are deviations from the norm. This type of stress can be sharp or never-ending, which can either be intense or enduring in nature. Distress is the distasteful stress that accompanies negative actions.

Hyper-stress: This is another form of negative stress that is mainly felt when an individual is not capable to manage with the workload. This arises when the job is highly stressful or the work that may require longer working hours than an individual can handle. If anyone suffers with hyper-stress, he / she may get emotional break downs over trivial issues.

Hypostress:

Finally, hypo stress arises when an individual has nothing to do with his /her time and persistently fed up and demotivated. This might happen because of a person doing unchallenging job, like a factory worker doing repetitive nature of job over and over again will often experience hypo stress.

4.6 EXISTENCE OF STRESS-IS IT NEGATIVE OR POSITIVE?

Although stress is normally noticed in a negative manner, it also has positive value. It is progressive at the same time challenging. Stress does not always lead to adverse effects. Sometimes stress motivates as well as promotes employee's tendency towards the job and enhances the performance of the employees. "Offended by the stressful world, many executives have accepted stress as a necessary component for their existence". Absence of stressful state of affairs is dysfunctional both to the individual and to the organization, since boredom and laziness set in and performance tends to decline. The employee may not

experience excitement from the job. But the presence of stress could make the assignment more challenging rather than resorting to job simplification.

4.7 STRESS & JOB PERFORMANCE

Performance is a significant progression, which enhances productivity in production and profit. Performance of an employee will be excellent, only when there are no serious problems and interruptions in the smooth functioning of the organization.

If the employees are working without any necessary facilities and amenities and if employees do not have satisfactory state of mind with regard to their work, stress creeps in. At such unpleasant situations, stress can either be 'helpful' or 'harmful' depending upon the quantum of stress. When there is no stress, job challenges are absent and performance tends to be low. As stress increases, performance tends to increase because stress helps a person call up resources to meet job requirements. At this point additional stress tends to produce no more improvement. Finally, if the level of stress is at high level, the performance of the employee begins to decline because stress interferes with it. At this juncture, one loses the capability to cope with the stress and unable to make decisions and shows erratic behavior.

The logic underlying in the inverted 'U' is that low to moderate levels of stress stimulates the body and increase its ability to react. The task performance of an employee at this stage becomes better and intensive. Too much stress places challenges in front of a person and job become more demanding, which leads to poor performance.

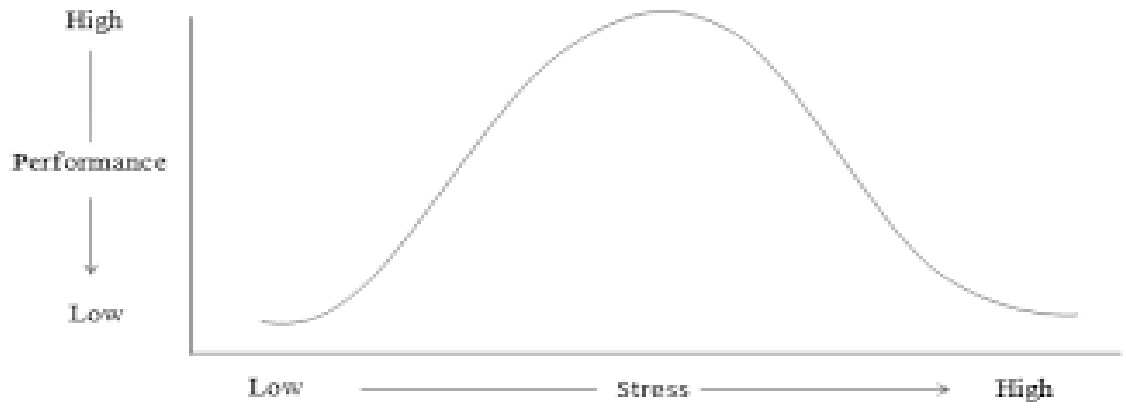


Figure 4.1

4.8 LEVELS OF STRESS

The nature of stress has the stages of High or Medium or Low. But high and low levels of stress are not encouraging to an individual and organization. But there is an '**optimum**' level or medium level of stress for every individual, under which he/she will perform the work undertaken to the fullest capacity. If the stress experienced is below this optimum level, then

the individual gets bored, the motivational level to work, reaches a low, and apathy sets in. If one operates in a very low stress environment and constantly experiences boredom, the person is likely to psychologically or physically withdrawn from work. Psychological withdrawal will result in careless mistakes being frequently made, forgetting to do things etc. And physical withdrawal will manifest itself in increased rates of tardiness and absenteeism which may ultimately lead to increased turnover.

Duration and intensity of stress: The period of frequency of stress is very important for job performance and satisfaction. Stress can either be temporary or long term, mild or severe, depending mostly on how long its causes continue, how powerful they are and how strong the employee ‘s recovery powers are. If stress is temporary and mild, most people can handle it or at least recover from its effects rather quickly. The following table visualizes and explains the levels of stress and its consequences.

Levels of stress and its consequences

Stress Level	**Low Stress**	**Optimum Stress**	**High Stress**
Reactions	Boredom/Apathy	High energy	Exhaustion
Behaviours	Low motivation, careless mistakes, Psychological Withdrawal, Physical withdrawal &Inactivity	High motivation High perception High involvement	Anxiety and nervousness Indecisiveness Bad judgment
Performance	Low performance	High performance	Poor performance
Health effects	Dull health	Good health	Insomnia Psychosomative illness

4.9 DETERMINANTS OF STRESS

Modern day stresses can take the form of monetary needs or emotional frictions. Competitions at work and an increased work load can also cause greater levels of stress. What causes stress? The following briefly discussed factors will enable to understand it. There are many different causes of stress which is known as “stressors”. Let us analyze it individually.

a. Personality characteristics:

An important factor contributing to the stress level of an employee is the personality of the individual himself.

“It builds up stress to such a level that role occupant might attempt suicide.” A person who has weak temperament to handle the stressful situation may find himself in perplexing situations as compared to a strong mind person who is more resilient in such difficult situations. There are people who shows firm personality traits of high tolerance for ambiguity, self-esteem etc. and handle high level of stress effectively. A high level of patience for uncertainty allows individuals to experience very little suffering, while working under circumstances of inadequate information or in an uncertain environment.

There are certain individual factors, which causes stress and include: personality and individual differences, family problems, economic problems, life styles and role demands.

i) **Personality and individual differences*:*** Individual basic character are the main cause for potential stress. Introversion, extroversion, masculinity, rigidity, locus of control, individual life, demographic differences such as age, health, education and occupation are some of the reasons causing stress in persons. It has been found that type A personality is more prone to stress than type B personality. Type A personality is characterised by emotion and sensitivity to organisation goals, competitive spirit and goal attainment oriented behaviour. This leads to irritation even for small deviations from the expectations, thus feeling of more stress. Type B personality is usually relaxed, carefree, patient and less serious in achieving objectives. Thus, he never feels stress.

Some premise of personality and individual stress are:

- Age is positively related to stress. When a person grows older, his expectations also go up. If he fails to find new avenues for realising expectations, he feels stress.
- A healthy person can manage stress better as compared to a person who is having unsound health.
- Education and health are related positively and negatively. Better education provides an opportunity to understand things in a better manner. Even the level of maturity increases with better education. So better educated persons are less prone to stress. Poorly educated people in relation to the jobs are likely to feel more stress due to the poor adaptability on the jobs.
- The nature of the occupation and stress are related. Certain occupations are inherently stressful than the other occupations. For instance, doctors, lawyers, Accountants etc. At the same time occupation also gives enough stress tolerance ability.
- Greater degree of locus of control leads to stress. A person is less likely to feel stress as he believes that he can exercise control over external factors.
- Self-efficacy and stress are negatively related. Higher degree of self-efficacy increases the levels of motivation. Consequently, people with greater self-efficacy remain peaceful and successfully face stressful condition.
- Another personal temperament related to stress is psychological robustness. Robustness is the capability to withstand irritation from others. Individuals with greater psychological resoluteness are able to survive and withstand stressful environment. For example, people who remain at peace even at the provocation of others and ignore the esteem are less likely to feel stress. Individual differences in perception, job experiences, social support, hostility etc., are some of the reasons that cause stress.

- Evaluation of a particular situation helps in understanding the environment. Individual having a positive insight understands truth and appraises the events objectively. Thus, he feels less stress.
- Job experience and stress are negatively related. As a person gains experience he is able to adapt new changes at job and organisational demands. He realises the job prospect. He develops a system to deal with stressful situations. Hence more experienced people remains cool, calm, and ignore stressors than young and inexperienced employees.
- Hostility and aggressive behaviour is positively related to stress. A person who becomes aggressive and couldn't hold his quick anger is cynical and does not trust others. He feels more stress than others who are cool and calm.

ii) **Family Problems*:*** Family issues influence the personal life of individuals. Sound marital relations, timely and healthy children may lead to happy personal life. They lead their life happily and become positive in their attitudes. So they feel less stress as compared to others who has some family issues in their life. On the other hand, poor marital relationships, irritating wife, family separations, extra marital relationships, disturbing children, poor settlement of family members, aging parents, dual working couple, death of spouse or other close family member are some of the reasons for greater stress in the individuals.

iii) **Economic Problems:** Economic worries are the major cause of stress. Poor management of personal finances, heavy family expenditure, and constant requirement for money, poor incoming earning capacity and slow financial growth in the job are some of the economic reasons responsible for greater stress. For instance, an rising family expenses due to inflation, increased expenditure on children education and health create heavy demand for income. This creates greater stress in the individuals.

iv) **Life Styles:** Life Styles of individuals can also be a cause of stress. The following may be the some of situations of life style stress:

• Sedentary life styles cause greater stress.

• Individuals experiencing certain unique situations may be compelled to alter their attitude, emotions and behaviour. These are known as life trauma. Life trauma is potential reason for stress.

• More rapidly career shifting brings more responsibilities to the individuals. Persons holding higher positions at jobs in the younger age are likely to get heart attacks due to greater stress. This is because of incapability to settle in the new carrier responsibilities.

v) **Role Demands:** Individuals play multiple roles in their personal life and organisations. In their personal life, they play the roles of family head, husband, father, brother and son. In social life they play the roles of club members, informal community group members, members of recreation groups, religious groups and a number of other social groups. Similarly, in organisations, employees play the role of superior, subordinate, co-worker, union leader, informal group leaders etc. Incidentally, all these roles are performed simultaneously. Thus, they cause anxiety and emotion. Another potential reason is role conflict. It arises because of poor role perception, role ambiguity, role overload and role

overlapping. Role ambiguity and stress are positively related. The greater the role conflict, individual experiences more stress.

b. Organisational Factors:

i. **Role conflict:** It is the simultaneous happening of two or more sets of pressures such that handling with one would make harder to attend the other. Role conflicts are faced by the employees who has not been given proper instructions of work by the higher authorities, at the work place. It is quite likely that the role occupant experiences some incompatibility between two expectations from his or her role.

ii. Though the situations may not be conflicting, the individual may perceive these as incompatible and suffers with confusing situations.

iii. **Role Ambiguity:** Employees in some organizations have insufficient information about what they are expected to do and especially about how they have to perform a task. As a result, they are burdened with the role ambiguity. Employees often face confusion in regards to what should be done next. Too much role ambiguity may cause psychological and physiological complaints. Hence, role ambiguity is the most powerful stressor.

iv. **Role overload:** The employees are expected to complete a set of tasks which require them to do more than they are able to do within the time available. The employee may be pressurised with more expectations, which he/she ultimately cannot manage. People suffer due to paucity of time and too many activities to be completed; these are termed as qualitative and quantitative stress. When the employees recognize the job responsibilities beyond their capacities, or has no time left over for socialisation with friends and families or if they get totally fatigued after completing the work, the employee is upset both physically and mentally.

v. **Role stagnation:** The most intimidating aspect at the work place is boring work or work lacking challenges, whereby time seems to stand still. A number of people develop a strong dislike to their job in the organization but secondary working conditions are sometimes so positive that people stay on unwillingly with their job dissatisfaction. Here promotion will also be missing which automatically creates stress.

vi. **Role Incompatibility:** This creates an agreement between an individual and the job environment. This depends on person's capabilities and the potential presented by the job. If there is lack of harmonization between the person and the environment (job), then strains and stresses take away the employee's physical and emotional wellbeing.

vii. **Self -Role distance:** When an employee does not enjoy a particular position or does not get involved in it, there is distance between the self and the role. Self-role distance indicates the differences between the self-awareness and the expectations from the role as perceived by the role occupier.

viii. **Inter personal and group factors:** This includes factors such as conflicts, unpleasant relationships and poor communication from the group. Working surrounded by the vigilant eyes of the superiors or subordinates with whom one cannot work together can be a source of stress.

ix. However, some people have patience for such conflicts and misunderstandings, majority of them find it difficult to cope with such situations and build internal stresses for

themselves. When poor interaction and distasteful relations have to be faced with work environment, persons try to stay away from the stresses by remaining absent as repeatedly as possible or even start working for other organizations i.e. may quit the job or may even seek voluntary retirement.

x. **Nature of the job:** The nature of the job performed by the person can often source of stress. If a job is too routine, dull and boredom or happens to be too challenging in terms of frequent transfers on constant travelling, attaining high targets and which confines the time that can be spent together with the family, the individual is likely to experience stress. Some of the jobs can also be dangerous to the person. For instance, People working in an explosives factory. People notice that there is a lack of cordial relations. The work calls for heavy work load and exhausts an employee after the work in such case the employee may get stressed. A worker may be required to work in this environment, which might be a regular source of severe stress and suffering to the employee.

xi. **Organizational structural factors:** Work environment factors such as noise, heat, poor, lighting, radiation and smoke are stress inducing agents. Poor lighting causes headache and poor vision leads to mistakes. Sometimes an individual may be forced to work with noisy environment, which may be quite harsh and stressful.

xii. **Pay scale and promotion:** Wages and salaries are recognized to be significant factors. Money not only helps people to fulfil their basic requirements but also helps in raising the standards of living. Fringe benefits are also essential but they are not as influential. Promotions are the rewards of past performance and recognition. Promotion will certainly lead to a positive change in work which may involve increased responsibility for people and enhance productivity. When these benefits are denied, and an employee is deprived of all these rewards, then automatically, it annoys the worker and become source of stress, frustration, fatigue and worries.

c. **Extra-Organisational Factors Environmental Factors:** Environmental factors are extra organisational. Nevertheless, they create job stress in the individuals. These are internal and external factors. Most of the internal environmental factors relate to the organisational goals, management systems, structure, processes and design of organisations.

d. External environmental factors relate to the general environment of the organisation. They are political, economical, technological, legal, ecological, governmental, social, cultural and ethical. Certain propositions describing the impact of environment on stress are presented below:

(i) The political party in power as per their philosophy enacts legislation in the Parliament. As the new laws and regulations are enacted by the new political party, these enactments changes bring ambiguity in the environment. This compels the employees to adapt to the new legal changes. This creates stress.

(ii) Economic environment deals with income levels, demand and supply, inflation etc. Changes in these factors in the economy may require more work or superior strategy to deal with the changed environment. This creates stress when the employees are unable to adjust to the new situations. For instance, increase in inflation levels creates pressures on the employee income levels leading to stress.

(iii) Technological changes bring new methods of production and new ways of doing the organisational tasks. Employees are required to learn new skills in order to discharge their jobs effectively and efficiently. When not able to cope up with the new technology, it becomes source o0f stress in the employees. For example, bank employees felt stress when the bank management decided to introduce computers with latest software packages.

(iv) Legal environment consists of intricate web of laws and regulation intended to control the business operations. Organisations are required to follow the legal provisions otherwise they are subject to levy of penal provisions and sometime prosecution. Sometimes practical difficulties arise in the implementation of the legislative framework. Employees who are unable to respond properly to the laws and regulations find themselves in stressful situation.

(v) The government is enacting legislation to guard the ecological environment in the country. Organisations are compelled to adapt to the legislative framework protecting the ecological environment. Protecting the ecological balance becomes a cause for potential stress.

(vi) Government administration comprised of the administrative machinery and institutions that enforce the laws, regulations, policies and other government orders. The intrusive practices of the administrative machinery can create stress in the executives.

(vii) Social, cultural and ethical environment can bring stress in the individuals. Social factors influence the life styles of employees. Certain social security measures such as health protection, civic facilities and social groups reduce stress in the employees. Certain sociological variables such as race, sex, social class, gender etc., and cultural factors such as beliefs, customs and traditions cause potential stress. Certain other environmental factors that result in stress in recent times are stock market crashes, frequent elections, downsizing, information technology and the related changes in the business. Career oriented couples, racial and gender discriminations, health hazards due to pollution and imbalance in the natural environment etc. are contributing to stress.

4.10 CONSEQUENCES OF STRESS

An individual experiences stress through psychological emotions and is disseminated through physiological breakdown or biological changes. However, stress is not negative always. Stress has also positive consequences. Achievement motivation comes from deep intention, mild tensions, inner urge, fire and feeling of restlessness to achieve objectives. Stress helps in the development of people too. In its mild form it enhances job performance, leads to excellence and provides impetus to work hard and perform better. Individuals involved in the discharge of professional oriented jobs, jobs involving creativity, challenge, interpersonal communications and certain managerial jobs, will be benefited by stress, which leads to positive performances. However, jobs involving physical effort do not get benefit out of stress. As indicated above mild levels of stress increases job performance. It stimulates body and increases reactivity. Thus, individuals perform tasks better and in a rapid way. Inverted-U relationship illustrates this phenomenon. Some positive consequences are: increased productivity, positive response to target, development of proper perception in

the decision making, increased motivation and performance, increased adaptability to change and increased quality of job performance. For instance, employee experiencing a moderate stress of repetitiveness on the job finds new ways of discharging jobs. Thus, stress promotes creativity in the employees.

However, in the modern organisations the negative consequences of stress are creating more problems.

As pointed out by Schuler, Khan and Byosiyere, stress leads to high blood pressure, ulcer, cancer, accident proneness and irritation. Though there is no perfect association between stress and its consequences, stress itself demonstrates into physiological, psychological, behavioural, job and organisational consequences.

The positive and negative consequences are discussed below:

Physiological Consequences: Stress affects the biological system of the human being. Certain visible forms of stress are increased in blood pressure, vulnerability to heart disease, cancer, sweating, dry mouth, hot and cold flashes, frustration, anxiety, depression, increased level of cholesterol, ulcer, arthritis etc. Physical stress increases the body metabolic rate. This results into malfunctioning of immune system and as a result there is physical illness. High stress also leads to increase in heart beating, increase in breathing rate and headache. This creates biological illness. The physical stress also creates psychological problems. In fact, physical stress and physiological disorders are interrelated. However, physical disorders and stress always need not associate positively. This is because of complexity of symptoms of physical stress and lack of objective measurement of impact of stress on bodily disorders.

Psychological Consequences: Psychological consequences are interrelated to biological consequences. They are invisible, but affect the employees' job performance. Psychological stress creates a pressure on human brain. This is expressed in terms of certain psychological symptoms such as anger, nervousness, sadness, anxiety, irritation, tension, boredom, hostility, irritability, resentment and poor attentiveness. Tensions, anxiety, and negative emotions lead to procrastination. Psychological stress produces interpersonal aggressions, misunderstanding in communication, poor interpersonal communication and low interpersonal attraction. This is recognized through violent actions like sabotage, increased interpersonal complaints, poor job performance, lowered self-esteem, increased resentment, low concentration on the job and increased dissatisfaction. Psychological stress produces insensitivity in the behaviour and may lead to assumption of authoritarian leadership style by the superior executive.

Behavioural Consequences: Stress has an impact on employee's behaviour. An unusual behaviour is observed in those individuals who are prone to stress. A change in eating habits, sleep disorder, increased smoking, alcoholism, agitating and aloofness are some of the behavioural changes observed in stressful employees.

Sometimes stress leads to anxiety, lethargy, depression and emotional disorder. This leads to irresponsible and aggressive behaviour and everyday interpersonal conflicts. Under eating, overeating, drug abuse and sleeplessness are some of the behavioural consequences. The following are some propositions relating to stress and behaviour.

i) Perception: Stressful persons develop strain and anxiety. As a result, their level of comprehension significantly decreases. When emotional disturbance occurs in the workers, it may negatively affect decision making process, interpersonal understanding, interpersonal communication and capacity to go along and work with groups members. Stress becomes unbearable for them. All these lead to increased levels of interpersonal conflicts in the organisation.

ii) Attitudes: Persistent stressful environment creates certain permanent negative feelings in the mind of the workers. These permanent feelings harmfully effect their work performance. For instance, an employee developing a negative attitude towards work, superior, working conditions, organisational climate and culture intentionally decreases his output. He also becomes disheartened and the motivation level decreases.

iii) Learning*:* Learning is a continuous process for the employees in organisations. They learn new skills and techniques. Learning new methods and techniques to become accustomed themselves and do their jobs effectively and efficiently. it is expected for the employees to learn new skills. Stressful employees cannot learn the things quickly.

Organisational Consequences: Stress has negative influence on the performance of the job. Organisations face the problems of overall poor performance and other negative consequences. Some of them are described below

:i) **Absenteeism:** Employees subject to stress were found to addict to drugs and alcohol. Thus, they remain absent from their jobs frequently. This creates obstructions in the jobs and adversely affect the performance of other employees as well.

ii) **Turnover:** Turnover and stress have shown some relationships. An employee experiencing continued stress develops anxiety and frustration. Therefore, they are likely to change their jobs.

iii) **Decision-Making:** Excessive stress poses problems to handle the situation by the managers. This adversely affects their competence to take decision.

Therefore, stressful executives become irrational in the decision making. This leads to loss of organisational resources and reputation.

iv) **Disturbed Customer Relationships:** Employees experiencing excessive stress develop irritation, loses emotional stability and emotional tolerance. Intolerance make them mentally weak and they easily conflict with their peers group members due to misunderstandings. Employees dealing with the customers and the public upset relationship due to their irritated behaviour. For example, sales persons, bank employees, public relation officers who are deployed to handle public grievances are required to be more emotionally stable. Otherwise, customer's dissatisfaction will lead to loss of business due to shifting of the customers to the competitors. This also creates bad impression of the corporate image in the minds of the customers.

The consequences of stress are complex. Stress has a vicious circle. Most of the consequences of the stress are interrelated. One has roots into the other. For example, psychological consequences result in physiological disorders and ultimately the organisation suffers from adverse effects. The ill effects of stress are more hazardous. Addiction to smoking, drinking alcohol, narcotic drugs, violence on women and children, criminal

attitude, terrorism and offensive behaviour are some of the social consequences of stress. It is in this context that stress received more attention of the organisations, psychologists and the medical practitioners in recent times. A number of plan of action exist to overcome stress. Most of them suggest leading a peaceful, calm and regulated life. Interestingly people overlook their life styles and suffer from stress. However, stress is not difficult to overcome.

4.11 STRESS MANAGEMENT

Stress management has assumed greater significance in the modern organisations. More than organisations, persons are more concerned with the stress reduction. As we often used the statement that 'prevention is better than cure', prevention of stress is better than taking steps to cure stress. This is because stress once experienced has negative consequences. Though employee vies the stress with negative perception, there should be some degree of stress as moderate levels of stress is required for better performance. There is not any unanimous view with regard to what would be the acceptable level of stress.

Moreover, there is a wide gap between theoretical and actual practice of stress management. For instance, doing yoga early in the morning and doing exercise is considered very effective way of fighting stress. However, there are very few who really sacrifice their morning cosy sleep for the sake of yoga and exercises. When they face the problem, people resort to yoga. Otherwise, they try their hands on taking allopathic medicine and they feel that it is an easy way than doing yoga and exercises. Individual and organisational stimuli causes stress, and the negative consequences are faced at individual and organisational levels. It needs to be balanced both by adopting individual and organisational strategies. The individual management techniques are more popular than organisational management techniques. Below mentioned are some of the techniques to handle stress.

1. Individual Management Individuals should assume their responsibility voluntarily and look for ways and means of handling their stress levels. Persons are more concerned about their health as they are required to look after their families. Following are some of the techniques which individuals can take on for reducing stress and its management.

Time Management: Time management and stress are inversely related. Poor management of time are the root cause of a greater degree of stress. Not doing their jobs on time causes anxiety. The following are some of the principles of time management which can be of help in combating stress.

- Making the proper time table of the activities to be done according to the priorities of the tasks to be completed.
- Arranging of the activities for the day based on importance and urgency.
- Preparing rational schedule of activities to be done.
- Analysing and understanding the daily cycle including nature of the job.
- Allocating time properly to various activities based on time demands.
- Delegating minor tasks to the subordinates in order to make use of the time in a better manner.
- Discouraging unwanted visitors and avoid time on unnecessary talks.

- Setting unfinished tasks on the top of list for tomorrow.
- Avoid using mobile phones unnecessarily while at job.

2) **Physical Management:** Management of stress become easy if one understands one' own biological and body conditions. Examining genetic characteristics habits like smoking and drinking, life styles and body conditions help in understanding one's physiological conditions. Overcoming stress is possible with overseeing physiological relaxation. Physical exercises greatly help in relieving tension and stress. When anybody does physical exercise, oxygen level optimises and blood circulation increases. This promotes healthy secretions from glands and the supply of blood to all the parts of the body keeps every organ active. Consequently, immunity level improves to resist the increase in stress levels. Physical exercises could be reactive or proactive. Physical exercises like walking, jogging, swimming, riding, aerobics and playing games considerably increases heart capacity, provide mental diversion from work pressures. These activities increase the heart capacity to withstand stressful situations. The chances of heart attack, adverse blood pressure and diabetics reduce.

3) **Psychological Management:** Most of the stresses arise because of psychological tensions. Therefore, it is suggested that managing psychological activities lead to effective management of stress. The following are some of the psychological management techniques.

i) **Relaxation*:*** Relaxation of mind through meditation, hypnosis and biofeedback can effectively manage mental stress. Meditation involves silently sitting on the ground taking deep inhalation and chanting mantra. This helps the mind and give deep relaxation. This technique relaxes body and mind. It also brings noteworthy changes in heart rate, blood pressure, lung capacity and other biological organs of the body. Transcendental Meditation, Soul Relaxation, Atma yoga, Antahkarana, Silence sitting position, Shavasana and praying the God are some of the relaxation techniques practiced for reducing stress.

ii) **Behavioural Self-control*:*** Stress also emanates from behavioural disorders. Having appropriate control over behaviour while communicating with others can be of great help in managing stress. Self-observation brings self-realisation of the individual. Likewise knowing the background and outcomes of own actions enables behavioural self-discipline. One can also remain stress free by developing appropriate awareness, practicing habit of good listening, maintaining calm and tension free mind compassion and positive attitude are some of the behavioural self-control techniques.

iii) **Cognitive Therapy:** It is a technique of clinical psychology. Cognitive therapy involves bringing knowledge about owns emotions to liberate anxiety and tension.

In this technique, individuals are made aware of the reasons causing stress in them by the process of self-observation. For example, if a worker is having a feeling that he is unskilled to handle a new job, counselling is given to develop a self-belief of capability to handle all the new jobs. Thus, with the support of cognitive therapy, a positive influence is created for the mental happiness. Cognitive therapy enables people to exercise self- control for relaxing stress.

iv) **Yogic Management:** In modern times, yoga is a useful method of relieving stress. Yoga practice involves Asana, Pranayama, Mudra and Kriya. Practicing a number of yoga asana

relaxes mind and body, reduces blood pressure, relieves neurological problems, improves lung capacity, enhances proper flow of blood and helps in relaxing tensions and strains. Certain asana, which help stress relaxation are

Padahastasana, Vajraasana, Sashankasana, Camel asana, Lotus asana, Crocodile asana, Sarvangasana, Shavasana.

4) **Social Management:** Developing and managing good social networks with peers group members who are good listeners and confidence builders. This increases social support to individuals. Encouraging informal groups communications for sharing information without hesitations, developing open platform for exchange of information, views and unpleasant experiences, promoting assurance of social support decrease tensions and stress. Social clubs, recreation clubs, friendship clubs, informal gatherings, birthday parties, and family are some of the social networks that increase social support and reduce stress.

5) **Self-awareness Management:** Self-awareness is similar to self-observations. Mangers should support open communication and keen to listen to others particularly on their deficiencies. Being aware of self is a difficult task, as individuals are unprepared to accept their defects. Self-awareness supervision involves three stages.

Stage – I: Identify, understand and analyse one's own skills, capabilities, limitations and defects.

Stage – II: Promote feedback from others viz., subordinates, peers, superiors, friends, family members and other social associations. This requires tolerant hearing without inhibitions.

Stage -III: Develop self-program to advance the skills, capabilities to conquer the limitations in a methodical way. Focus on self-management-training courses to develop the personality for overall development of self.

6) **Inter Personal Management:** One of the most thriving techniques of stress management is developing inter personal communications and understanding. Inter- personal communication, inter personal attraction and inter personal knowledge improve understanding of others behaviour. Generally misunderstanding is the source of organisational stresses which is created due to organisational politics, setting one self-aloof from others and encouraging untrustworthy comments. Therefore, maintaining honesty in communication and valuing suitable remarks facilitate development of inter personal understanding.

Organisational Management: In modern organisations, human capital are vital resources. The majority of the organisational stresses are due to the constitution and design of the organisation, policies, programs and procedure of the management and due to administrative styles and strategies. Thus the main goals of the organisations should be in finding out the organisational stressors and eliminate them as far as possible. Organisations can adopt the following techniques of stress management.

1) **Selection and Placement Policy:** Stress and personality character of workers are strongly related. Consequently, selecting the workers, whose personality match with the job decrease the possibility of stress in the individuals. For example, a sales executive job requires extensive travelling rather than experience. If a person having a less interest in travelling is

selected, he is likely to feel more stress in doing the job. Thus, right employment and selection policy should be followed by the organisation to reduce stress.

2) Goal Setting: Goal uncertainty, lack of proper awareness of goals, tough goal and unachievable goals cause stress in persons. Consequently, organisations should pursue a approach of worker's involvement in goal setting to provide motivation, reduce irritation and ambiguity of goals. Management by Objectives (MBO) is an appropriate technique of goal setting which reduces stress.

3) Job Enrichment and Job Design: Job enrichment provides motivation to the employees. It enriches job factors like accountability, appreciation, and opportunity for improvement, growth and self-esteem. Ambiguous and badly designed jobs cause greater stress in individuals. Job redesign provides more responsibility, more motivation, more meaningful work, more self-sufficiency and increased feedback. This provides better command over work performance and reduces reliance on others. Therefore, job enrichment and job redesign provide an effective way of reducing stress.

4) **Role Clarity:** Organisational stress is connected with role ambiguity, role overlap, lack of role clarity and role conflict. Accurate role description helps workers to know their role in organisation and evaluate interpersonal roles. This greatly reduces the chance of role conflict and increases role compatibility. This helps in eliminating stress in the individuals. Wherever role difference arises, counselling and arbitration can be used to resolve inter-personal role conflict to avoid stressful situations.

5) **Communication and Counselling:** Barriers in communication are also most likely reasons of organisational stress. In organisations official communication creates a lot of problems of interpersonal misunderstandings. Thus redesigning the official communication channels can perk up understanding and as a result reduce stress due to communication bottlenecks. Counselling is discussions of facts and views in a free and fair manner. It is proposed to share trouble of employees and try to cope up with the stressful situation. Counselling consists of suggestion, reassurance, communication, and release of emotional tensions, clarity in thinking. The techniques of counselling are non-directive, participative and directive.

6) **Carrier Planning and Development:** Workforce in general are free to plan their careers. However, establishments also aim at employee development through training programmes. The employee improvement is done through the enhancement of skills and the growth of personality for taking responsibility of potential managerial jobs. Stress is caused, when employees' prospect of their job in organisation are not satisfied and when employees get promotion without skill enrichment require for the job. Organisations take lesser interest in career planning of the employees. Designing suitable career plans, education programs, development programs and organisation development considerably reduce employee's stress.

7) **Democratic Leadership:** Democratic leaders create assurance in the subordinates and allow involvement in the decision making process. They create a feeling of kindness, companionship, and accommodating environment. Under such environment workers feel contented, motivated and psychologically dedicated to the attainment of objectives. In

addition, communication is open, conflicts are avoided and coordination is enhanced. This enables employees to alleviate stress and support healthy work.

8) **Organisation Climate:** Organisation design is the fundamental cause for job stress. Bureaucratic, directive and unclear management and poor organisational environment leads to greater stress.

A sound organisation environment and culture featured by sound administrative policy, good organisational communication, participative way of life and supportive climate ensure reduction of stress.

9) **Wellness Programmes:** Programmes that are based on employee's physical and psychological condition organised by the organization are known as wellness programmes. As part of these programmes, workshops, seminars and counselling sessions are conducted to help the workers, understand the dangers of smoking, alcoholism and drug abuse. They encourage an affirmative outlook for eating better things, fighting fatness, doing regular physical exercise and developing positive personality. However, these programmes are successful only when the worker himself takes personal interest in his physical and mental health. Organisations act as only a channel to promote programmes that facilitate in reduction of stress.

10) **Quality of Work Life:** This concept has been progressively more accepted in the recent years. This technique involves getting better with the working surroundings and other internal and external aspects of work life. In addition, providing good housing amenities, living surroundings, social and recreational facilities, training and development of workforce for all round development of human capital in the organisation, will develop quality of work life. Stress is a multi-faceted happening. The cause and effect relationship in stress is tricky to obtain as it is a qualitative psychological phenomenon. Furthermore, individuals fail to notice the symptoms of stress until they feel physiological breakdown. Otherwise, they resort to a number of unfriendly life practice and become addict of these practices. Changing their attitudes and habit is not an easy task.

In addition, large organisations function in a competitive and dynamic environment, organisational redesign, job redesign and administrative reorientation are more academic than realistic. Even personal strategies sound theoretically good, but be short of execution. Therefore, stress management programmes must be implemented cautiously for the reduction of stress.

4.12 CREATING A STRESS-FREE ENVIRONMENT

Stress is both positive and negative. It has already been explained that mild to reasonable levels of stress helps in developing constructive behaviour in the organisation and it is good for organisational health. Though, negative consequences of stress always overpower the positive ones. Consequently, it is usually settled that stress reduction is a serious worry to the management and individuals. The individual's responsibility should always be greater than organisational responsibility. This is because of the maxim that defending one's health is their sheer responsibility alone. Organisations can conceivably help in just beginning a certain programme for stress reduction. It is pertinent not to mention that theoretical

management of stress should be distinguished from practical management. Most of the individual techniques relate to the personality of the individual. Certain techniques require the individuals to sacrifice self-concepts and comfortable levels. Thus, it is somewhat difficult to encourage the persons to become accustomed of the strategies of stress reduction. However, it should be understood that it is not an impracticable task. Creating stress free surroundings requires a thorough examination of the stressors, understanding, analysing the implications, appraising the costs and benefits and above all bring commitment to the programmes by varying the approach.

4.13 SUMMARY

- Stress is psychological perception leading to both biological and behavioural disorders. Stress and personality, occupations, age, life styles and time demands are connected to each other. Stress is symptomatic.
- Remarkably extended stress leads to exhaustion. Stress is caused by a host of factors. Stressors are the factors that cause stress in persons.
- Stressors can be intra organisational and extra organisational. While individual stressors and organisational stressors are intra organisational, environmental stressors are known as extra organisational. Individual factors include personality, individual differences, family problems, and economic
- problems, life styles and role demands. A number of organisational aspects cause stress in people. They include: poor working conditions, poor task design, unfair managerial policies and strategies, improper organisational structure and design, organisational process and design, organisational leadership, organisational life cycle, and group dynamics. Environmental factors are: political, economical, technological, legal, ecological, government and social, cultural and ethical environment.
- Stress is deliberated as negative. Yet, it is not always correct. Eustress is a positive stress. Mild levels of stress help good performance. However, the negative consequences are more than the positive consequences. Physiological consequences are: increase in blood pressure, heart attack, cancer, sweating, frustration, anxiety and depression. Psychological consequences are: irritation, aggressiveness, moodiness, hostility, poor concentration, strains and anxiety.
- Abnormal behaviour is observed in Poor perception, unpredictable attitudes and poor learning are some of the behavioural consequences. Absenteeism, turnover, irrational decision making, disturbed customer relationships and consequently negative corporate image are observed due to stress. Stress management has assumed utmost importance in the modern organisations.
- Individual management techniques are always better than organisational management practices. Certain individual strategies are: time management, physical management, psychological management, yogic management, social management, self-awareness management and inter personal management. Though, the role of organisations in

the management of stress cannot be undermined. Organisations play a major role in the management of stress.

- Organisations follow techniques such as suitable selection and placement policy, goal setting, job enrichment and job design, role clarity, communication and counselling, career planning and development, democratic leadership, organisational climate and wellness programmes. Creating a stress free environment requires diagnosing and analysing the stressors. It targets at changing the approach of the workers. However, it should be remembered that practice of stress management is not as sound as theoretical management techniques. This is because most of the techniques require sacrifice of personal comfort. However, stress must be managed in a proper manner

4.14 KEYWORDS

- **Anxiety:** Apprehensive uneasiness or nervousness usually over an impending or anticipated ill : a state of being anxious.
- **Psychology:** Psychology is the scientific study of mind and behavior in humans and non-humans. Psychology includes the study of conscious and unconscious phenomena, including feelings and thoughts.
- **Biological disorder:** Biological Disorders: disturbances of the normal state of the body or mind. Disorders of structure or function in an animal or plant. (Oxford) Disorders may be caused by genetic factors, disease, or “trauma.” (NCI3).
- **Inclination:** An inclination is a feeling that makes you want to act in a particular way.
- **Eu stress:** The term eustress means "beneficial stress"

either psychological, physical (e.g., exercise), or biochemical/radio logical (hormesis).

- **Distress:** A situation in which you are in great danger and therefore in urgent need of help.
- **Apathy:** Apathy involves a lack of interest in different aspects of life, including normal daily tasks and social activities.
- It is often seen in varying degrees in healthy people, but it is also a symptom of a number of different mental health conditions, including depression.

4.15 LEARNING ACTIVITY

1. Define the term stress

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2. Explain Job Enrichment and Job Design

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4.16 UNIT END QUESTIONS

A. Descriptive questions

Short questions:

1. Define stress and discuss its concepts.
2. Explain the relation between Stress & Job Performance.
3. Discuss the determinant of stress with respect to personality characteristics.
4. What are the factors responsible for organizational stress?
5. Discuss the positive and negative consequences of stress.

Long questions

1. How can a person manage stress at its individual level?
2. How can one manage stress psychologically?
3. How can a stress-free environment be created at organisation level?
4. Explain different levels of stress and its consequences
5. Differentiate between good stress and Bad stress

B. Multiple Choice Questions

1. Which of the following statements is true
    a) In small quantities, stress is good
    b) Too much stress is harmful
    c) All stress is bad
    d) Only '1' & '2' are right

2. Stress management is about learning
    a) How to avoid the pressures of life
    b) How to develop skills that would enhance our body's adjustment when we are subjected to the pressures of life
    c) Both '1' & '2' are true
    d) None of the above
3. Which of the following statements is true about stress management
    a) Stress management is learning about the connection between mind and body
    b) Stress management helps us control our health in a positive sense
    c) Stress management teaches us to avoid all kinds of stress
    d) Only '1' & '2' are right
4. Which of the following are the basic sources of stress
    a) The Environment
    b) Social Stressors
    c) Physiological
    d) All of the above
5. Examples of physiological stressors are
    a) Menopause

b) Giving birth
c) Sleep disturbances
d) All of the above

6. The following are the characteristics of Positive Stress
a) It improves performance
b) It feels exciting
c) It motivates
d) All of the above

Answers:

1-d, 2-b, 3-d, 4-d, 5-d, 6-d.

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UNIT 5 - ORAL ACTIVITIES

STRUCTURE

5.0 Learning Objectives
5.1 Introduction
5.2 Role plays
5.3 describing national/international personalities
5.4 Objects
5.5 Incidents
5.6 Extempore
5.7 Group discussions
5.8 Interactive sessions on audio and video clips mentioned in Recommended audio and video clips
5.9 Summary
5.10 Keywords
5.11 Learning Activity
5.12 Unit End Questions
5.13 References

5.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the nature of role plays
- Identify scope of Oral Activities
- State the need and importance of Oral Activities
- List the functions of Oral Activities in every sphere of life

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Speaking clearly and producing sentences that the audience can understand requires oral abilities. To improve voice clarity for efficient communication, oral skills are used. The accurate interpretation of information and the transfer of messages between individuals is communication. The air that leaves the lungs during breathing causes the vocal cords to vibrate, which in turn produces speech. The form, location, and tension of the voice cords are adjusted by the cartilages of the larynx To make speech more understandable and easier to pronounce so that it can be properly translated, speech enhancers are utilized. Voice articulation improves speech resonance and makes it possible for speakers to be understood. Speaking at a moderate tempo and pronouncing words clearly enhance sound phonation. The act of creating understandable sounds for accurate speech interpretation is referred to as "phonation." Speaking with a neutral tone makes it easier for listeners to comprehend what you're saying word for word.

Creation of speech

The vocal chords' vibrations cause speech to be produced. Speech production involves the larynx, vocal chords, and lungs in a significant way. To cause the voice cords to vibrate, the lungs take in air. The vocal fords' motion and shape control the pitch of sounds. Nine cartilages make up the larynx, which helps the vocal cords produce sound. It's crucial to speak clearly if you want to communicate effectively.

Lungs The vocal folds experience air pressure as a result of the lungs' air pumping. The vocal cords vibrate as a result, producing sound. Air is exhaled from the lungs during breathing and speaking. The voice chords are opened by the air pressure. High pressure is created in the thoracic cavity by the intercostals muscles and diaphragm expanding. As a result, there is an imbalance in the air pressure inside and outside the body. As a result, when air is expelled, the air pressure equalizes.

Voice box

The glottis's faster opening and shutting actions cause vibrations in the vocal chords. This movement, which occurs as air is expelled from the lungs, makes noise. The pitch of sounds can be influenced by the glottis's size. A high pitch tone is produced by a smaller glottis opening and a low pitch tone by a bigger glottis opening.

The pitch of sound is also affected by the vocal cords' contraction and relaxation. The voice chords' vibrations are influenced by their length and force. Longer, more relaxed vocal cords vibrate more slowly, which results in lower pitch sounds.

Larynx

The throat is home to the larynx, or voice box. When breathing, the larynx creates an open airway and a mechanism for sound generation. The voice cords and nine cartilages (gristles) are located in the larynx and are joined by membranes and ligaments. The upper portion of the larynx is where the big cartilage ring (thyroid cartilage) is situated. Two bands make up the big cartilage, which is shaped like an Adams Apple. The cricoids cartilage is joined to the trachea and is situated below the cartilage. The lateral and posterior walls of the larynx are made up of six thinner cartilages. Because they stabilize the vocal cords, the arytenoids cartilages are essential for sound production. The voice cords' shape, location, and tension are altered by the muscles in the cartilage. The larynx's interior has a mucus-covered coating. The vocal cords may expel foreign objects like dust mites and mucus particles out of the larynx thanks to the layer of cilia on the mucus lining. Eliminating unwanted objects from the throat promotes the production of crisp, clear sound that is understandable and useful for communication. Under the cilia's mucus lining, the vocal ligaments are hidden. The vocal folds are formed by the folding of the mucus lining and the attachment of the vocal ligaments to the cartilages. From above, the vocal folds appear to form a "V" shape on both sides. The vestibular cords are mucosal folds that are located above the vocal cords, and they vibrate in a "V" pattern to produce sounds when air moves between the lungs and the glottis. The vestibular cords' mucus helps to lubricate the vocal cords and keeps food and drink from getting into the breathing passages.

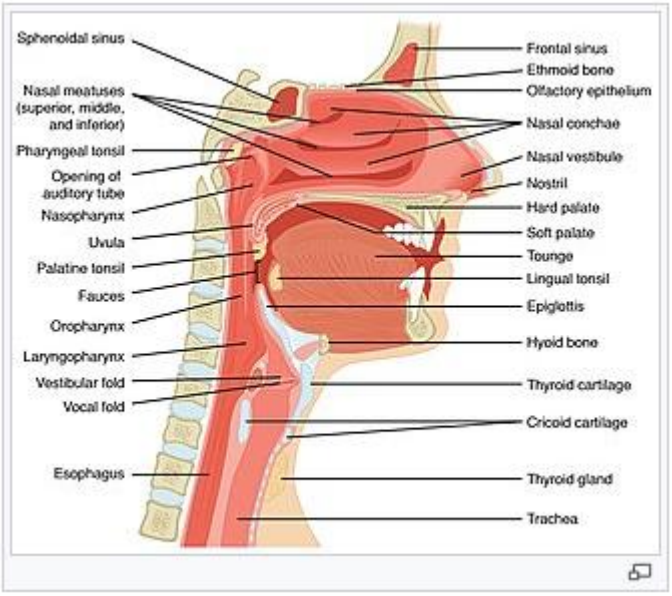


Fig 5.1 Larynx

Speaking with clarity

It is possible to speak clearly by using your oral abilities. The capacity to talk clearly and crisply is improved through oral skills. Using a number of oral techniques, including voice articulation and tonal modulation. Speaking at a moderate tempo to produce understandable speech that can be heard word for word is one of these oral abilities. The diction of speech is improved by having words that are well pronounced.

Articulation

The lips tongue and jaws of the human body are used for articulation. Vowel and phrase articulation results in comprehensible speech that is clear. The pharynx and a few cranial sinuses contribute to the resonance of speech. These sinuses have chambers that are bordered with mucus membranes and are filled with air. Any obstruction of these cavities, such as a cold, clogged nose, or sore throat, might impair speech quality by preventing enough air from exiting the cavities. The strength of the airflow affects the sound's volume. As there are more vibrations, a stronger airflow generates a louder sound. Speaking in front of a larger group of people can make speech more understandable. In order for people to understand them, speakers adjust their articulation and volume when speaking in different settings.

Moderate tempo

A person can speak clearly if they speak at a reasonable pace.

A listener can digest and comprehend the information thanks to the reasonable speaking rate. This makes it easier to digest huge and complex amounts of information. Pausing while speaking highlights the information, which helps the audience understand it properly. For an audience to understand what is being said, speaking at a moderate pace of 120–150 words per minute (wpm) is recommended. The audience can become interested and attentive by speaking at a variety of rates. A rapid tempo fosters a feeling of urgency and stress. It's

possible for the audience to view the message as either serious or urgent. As the listener needs more time to comprehend the concepts and information, a slow tempo is employed to convey complicated and important information.

Pronunciation

The soft palate, tongue, lips, and cheeks help with proper vowel pronunciation.

These elements help to "shape" vowels and consonants out of sound. The listener can accurately perceive the information if words are spoken appropriately. The way that words are spoken is influenced by how the mouth and lips move. Vowel and consonant pronunciation is greatly influenced by the tongue. In order to make these sounds appropriately, the tongue moves in a number of various directions. To generate words beginning with the letter "L," the tongue tip goes up toward the top of the gum ridge. To generate words beginning with the letter "R," the tongue will push back and away from the teeth. Syllables are used to pronounce words. By breaking down words into smaller components, this makes it easier for the audience to understand the word. It's possible to emphasize syllables when pronouncing words correctly. A two-syllable noun is pronounced with the first syllable stressed. The second syllable of a two-syllable verb is stressed when pronouncing it. Sentences' meaning and clarity can be emphasized by emphasizing key words in them.

Tone

When speaking, the tone of voice is varied to show emotion and expression. This enables the audience to receive information quickly and accurately while also enabling the responder to recognize emotion that is appropriate for the situation.

The intelligibility of speech can be affected by voice pitch. Because it is more difficult to focus on a monotonous speech, a monotonous tone of voice can lead the listener to misinterpret information. Verbose speech emphasizes internally focused technical language. Information is communicated in a verbose tone of speech. Non-technical information is expressed in a casual manner. Speech inflections are variations in the rise and fall of tone volume. Speech inflection and intonation are essential for clear communication. The listener's attention and focus are captured by the voice's intonation. The relative value of information can be affected by voice inflections. In order for speech to have inflections, breathing is crucial. Diaphragmatic breathing regulates how much air the body takes in and lets out, as well as how the volume of tone rises and falls.

Word fillers

Verbal fillers are frequently employed by speakers when they forget or become perplexed by what they are saying. Verbal fillers like "Um," "Err," and "Hmm" are frequently employed. Verbal filler is the repetition of phrases within sentences. That these inadvertent pauses might make speech less clear since they cause gaps between the speaker's sentences. Filler words can obstruct the flow of speech and divert the audience's focus. This may affect the audience's comprehension and capacity for information processing. As it does not draw the audience's attention to an unusual gap in the content, a pause in a phrase is more effective to use than verbal fillers. Pauses give the audience a chance to consider the main points that have been discussed. When speaking, mumbling and not expanding the lips wide enough

might result in garbled, incomprehensible speech.

Language perception

Human ears pick up sound vibrations and transmit this data to the brain via nerve impulses. Specialized areas of the ears receive these vibrations. Sound and energy are transformed significantly by the external, middle, and inner ears. The methods employed in oral communication to achieve clear speech have an impact on the accurate interpretation of data.

Outside ear

The pinnae, meatus, and outer layer of the eardrum make up the external ear (outer ear) (tympanic membrane). The pinnae aid in limiting the entry of sound waves into the ears. In the auditory canal, sound from the environment is conveyed as a wave (meatus).

Following that, it is sent to the tympanic membrane (eardrum). The tympanic membrane vibrates as a result of the sound waves. Sound waves cause the pars tensa, an active vibrating region, to move. The tympanic membrane develops regularly and can heal itself when damaged.

Centre ear

An air-filled hollow makes up the middle ear. The external ear and middle ear are separated by the tympanic membrane. The Eustachian tube connects the middle ear to the throat. By bringing air in from the mouth, the Eustachian tube regulates the air pressure around the sides of the tympanic membrane. The three interconnected ear ossicles transmit vibrations (kinetic energy) from the sound in the tympanic membrane to the oval window of the inner ear. The oval window serves as a conduit between the middle ear and the per lymph (fluid) of the inner ear. The cochlea's oval window has the capacity to store fluid.

Inside ear

Bony canals comprise the inner ear (bony labyrinth). The vestibule, semicircular canals, and cochlea are its three component elements. The semicircular components and this vestibule are crucial components of the sensors used for balance. Hearing depends in large part on the cochlea. A pressure wave transmits vibrations from the inner ear's oval window to the per lymph in the upper canal. The middle canal's endolymph receives the vibrations through the Reissner's membrane. The hair cells of the organ of Corti are then activated by the basilar membrane's vibration. The auditory nerve carries the information to the brain, where sound is interpreted, where it is converted from kinetic energy to electrochemical energy.

5.2 ROLE PLAYS

In this piece, I'll discuss a number of benefits of role-playing in the classroom as well as some advice on how to make the most of it.

Spain, Jo Budden, British Council

Introduction

Role play is defined as.

Why is role-playing used?

Hints for effective role-playing in the classroom

Bibliography

Introduction

Role-playing in the classroom gives variety, a change of pace, and plenty of chances for plenty of language production while also being a lot of fun! Instead of being a "one-off" event, it can be a crucial component of the class. The exercise can be very effective if the instructor is confident in its ability to succeed and provides the required assistance. But if the instructor isn't persuaded that using role-play is effective, the activity "will fall flat on its face just as you anticipated it would," according to the author (Gillian Porter Ladousse 1987). So, if you approach it positively and try it, you might be pleasantly surprised!

Role play is defined as.

Any speaking action where you put yourself in someone else's shoes or keep your own shoes on but imagine yourself in a different setting is called role-playing.

Imaginary characters - One of the best parts about role-playing is that students can temporarily "become" anyone they want! There are countless options, including the President, the Queen, a millionaire, a pop celebrity, etc. Students are capable of adopting other people's viewpoints. The class can be divided between those who are expressing opinions in favor of the theme and those who are opposed by using "For and Against" discussions.

Imaginary circumstances - Through role-play, functional language for a variety of contexts can be engaged and practiced. Possible role-play scenarios include "in the restaurant," "checking in at the airport," and "looking for lost stuff."

Why is role-playing used?

It is generally accepted that learning occurs when tasks are interesting and remembered. Role-playing is encouraged by Jeremy Harmer for the following reasons:

It's exciting and inspiring.

Quieter kids have the opportunity to communicate more directly.

By expanding the scope of the classroom to encompass the outside world, a considerably greater variety of language opportunities are made available.

In addition to these factors, students who will eventually visit an English-speaking nation have the opportunity to practice their English in a secure setting. Students might gain from the practice by creating real-world scenarios. It's possible to make mistakes without serious repercussions.

Hints for effective role-playing in the classroom

Be ready to succeed.

At the elementary school level, role-playing is feasible if the pupils are well-prepared. Make an effort to consider the language the pupils will require and make sure it has been presented. The language on the board may provide the extra support that students require. I recently acted out a "lost property office" role-play with elementary-aged people, and we practiced using the buildings beforehand. The pupils felt "equipped" with the necessary words when the role-play started. The pupils will need some time to 'get into' the job at higher levels, but they won't require as much assistance with the language.

The instructor's role

The following are a few potential instructor roles:

Facilitator: Teachers may need to "feed" kids new vocabulary. If rehearsal time is available,

this is when new language should be introduced.
Observer - The instructor observes the role-play and provides feedback and guidance at the conclusion.
Participant - In some situations, joining in on the role-play oneself is acceptable.
Make situations come to life
A role-play can be significantly enhanced by realism and props. Recently, a group of my young students acted as both a pizza chef and a client. Making a quick white card cone with the word "CHEF" inscribed on it made the entire process more enjoyable and memorable for the students, in my opinion. As soon as it was put on their heads, they immediately assumed the role of the pizza chef and behaved as such.
Also helpful is rearranging the furniture. Try to be as realistic as you can if you are imagining that you are at the tourist information centre or the doctor's office. Even just banging on the door, students can exit the space and come back in.
Keep it genuine and pertinent.
Make an effort to make the roles you assign to your students as real-world as you can. For pupils who don't get the chance to travel much, it could be challenging to visualize themselves in "Ye Olde Tea Shop" in the middle of the English countryside. The idea that they have been requested to assist an English speaker who is travelling in their own nation might fit within their worldview, nevertheless. This can entail speaking some L1 to describe the local way of life or translating the local menus into English for visitors to the nation.
Role-playing a business meeting with visitors from abroad may be simple for students who work in the business world. When interacting with young children, attempt to take advantage of their innate need to "play." They frequently play with their peers by playing out activities like going shopping or cooking.
Feed-in terminology
Students may run into word and phrase problems as they practice the role-play. The teacher has the opportunity to "feed-in" the proper words during the practice phase. This might require the instructor to serve as a "walking dictionary," keeping an eye on the class and providing help as needed.
If you don't like doing this and believe that learning a new language should give students greater autonomy, you may give students a "time-out" after the practice stage so they can utilize dictionaries to look up the words they need.
Giving students the language they need is essential, as was indicated in the section on the teacher's duty. They will acquire new language and structure in a comfortable and memorable setting by doing this. It is an opportunity to speak in actual, everyday language.
Correction of Error
When using role-play, there are numerous ways to fix faults. Rarely is it appropriate for the teacher to step in and fix every error.
This may be really discouraging! Some pupils like to get corrections immediately following a role-playing exercise, when the language is still fresh in their brains. Sentences that need to be corrected by the group can be written on the board.
Self-correction - If you have the means to record the role-plays on audiocassette or video,

you can give the students the chance to listen to the dialogue again and consider the language used. They can have an easy time identifying their own errors.

Peer-correction: Other students may be able to fix some of their classmates' errors. Students may be instructed to listen for both excellent language they would like to use themselves and any grammatical errors they hear. Make sure that everyone who participates in peer correction has a fruitful and rewarding experience.

The students won't lose motivation by being corrected immediately during or after the role-play if you make a note of common faults yourself and address them in subsequent lessons. Ask the kids how they would like to be corrected during negotiations.

Think creatively and have fun

The role-play I had the greatest success with last year was a group of teenagers and was used as a lead-in activity after listening to a song. The song was Skater Boy by Avril Lavigne. The students acted out the moment where Skater Boy eventually meets his ex-girlfriend after the concert by working in pairs. The results were amusing, and I was taken aback by how well they all fit their characters.

Playing a role is a lot of fun. If you're still hesitant to utilize it in class, I advise you to ease into it gradually. Why not make a role-play out of a suitable reading or listening assignment from a course book? The outcomes can pleasantly surprise you!

5.3 DESCRIBING NATIONAL/INTERNATIONAL PERSONALITIES

An informational exchange between two or more persons is referred to as interpersonal communication. It is also a field of study that aims to comprehend how people employ verbal and nonverbal cues to achieve various relationship and personal objectives.

At least six categories of questions are covered by interpersonal communication research, including: 1) how people adjust and adapt their verbal and nonverbal communication during face-to-face communication; 2) how messages are produced; 3) how uncertainty affects behavior and information-management strategies; 4) deceptive communication; 5) relational dialectics; and 6) social interactions that are mediated by technology.

Numerous academics have referred to their work as study of interpersonal communication. This field of research is philosophically and operationally described in a wide range of ways. The diversity of the research paradigms and theoretical traditions used by interpersonal communication researchers adds to the complexity of the discipline. Communication between individuals who are interdependent and know one another is frequently defined as interpersonal communication. Examples of this type of communication include that between a son and his father, an employer and an employee, two sisters, a teacher and a student, two lovers, two friends, etc.

Interpersonal communication can be extended to include tiny, close-knit groups like the family, despite the fact that it often only occurs between pairs of people. Both in-person interactions and online interactions through social media are examples of interpersonal communication. Numerous topics are covered in the study of interpersonal communication, and both quantitative and qualitative methodologies are used.

Perspectives on interpersonal communication from the biological and physiological

standpoints are becoming more popular.

Concepts like personality, knowledge structures and social interaction, language, nonverbal cues, emotional experience and expression, supportive communication, social networks and relationship life, influence, conflict, computer-mediated communication, interpersonal skills, interpersonal communication in the workplace, intercultural perspectives on interpersonal communication, and the escalation and de-escalation of romantic or platonic relationships are some of those that are explored.

Fundamentals of the interpersonal communication process

Process of interpersonal communication.

Human communication is a multifaceted, intricate process.

Additionally, there are communication principles that direct our comprehension of communication

Transactional is how we communicate.

Transactional communication is a dynamic process that is formed by the participants as a result of their interaction with one another.

Simply put, communication is a two-way process in which both parties must engage. It's a metaphor to dance. It is more like to a procedure that you and your spouse are always rushing through and cooperating on. The absolute success of a dance cannot be guaranteed by two perfect dancers, but it can be assured by the flawless coordination of two less-than-perfect dancers.

Both purposeful and accidental communication is possible.

Some communication is deliberate and intentional. For instance, you can spend a lot of time preparing mentally before approaching your boss about a promotion or pay raise. You might also practice talking to your boss repeatedly to avoid embarrassing situations. However, unintended communication is also a possibility. As an illustration, let's say that while you are venting about your awful day in a classroom corner, your friend just so happens to hear you. Even if you fervently hope that nobody finds out about your experience, mistakenly doing so still facilitates communication and sends message.

Communication Is Permanent

Interpersonal communication is an irreversible process; you can later apologies for something you said and wish you hadn't said it, but you can't take it back.

Communication Is a One-Time Event

Since it is impossible to replicate a communication act, unrepeatability results .The audience, our current attitude, or the status of our relationship could all be different depending on the situation. When people are interested and in the moment during in-person discussion, it can be stimulating and frequently memorable.

India has a long history and has frequently found itself at the top of several global rankings. The magnificent history of India and the people who contributed to it will always be covered in the general awareness part of graduate-level competitive exams.

We shall attempt to summaries the numerous and significant contributions made by national figures to the people of India and the rest of the globe in the space below. Let's investigate this further.

American celebrities

It is crucial that we understand India's rich history and the contributions its people have made to both the world and the nation itself in today's modern, globalised world.

Babasaheb Ambedkar, M.D.

The American celebrities

It is crucial that we understand India's rich history and the contributions its people have made to both the world and the nation itself in today's modern, globalised world.

Babasaheb Ambedkar, M.D.

The father of the Indian constitution, a polymath, economist, politician, and social reformer who also inspired the Dalit Buddhist movement and fought against societal injustice of Dalits. He campaigned for the rights of the working class and women as well. He was one of the founding fathers of the Republic of India and the country's first minister of law.

Abdul Kalam, APJfather of the Indian constitution, a polymath, economist, politician, and social reformer who also inspired the Dalit Buddhist movement and fought against societal injustice of Dalits. He campaigned for the rights of the working class and women as well. He was one of the founding fathers of the Republic of India and the country's first minister of law.

Abdul Kalam, APJ



Fig 5.2 Dr. Avul Pakir Jainulabdeen

Dr. Avul Pakir Jainulabdeen Abdul Kalam served as India's eleventh president. Because of his contributions to the advancement of ballistic missile and launch vehicle technology, this Tamil Nadu-born scientist is also known as the "Missile Man of India." Dr. had a role in India acquiring nuclear weapons as well. He also received the Bharat Ratna, which is India's highest civilian honour.

Nehru, Jawaharlal

The country of India's first Prime Minister was Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru. At the time that India gained its independence, he served as the movement's head. Nehru was a barrister and a graduate of Cambridge's renowned Trinity College. He also held other positions, including vice president of the Executive Council, minister of external affairs, minister of finance, and minister of defence, from 31 October to 14 November 1962. (2 Seo 1946 to 15 Aug 1947).

I am Kamaladevi Chattopadhyay.

She was an activist for social change and liberation from India who graduated from Bedford College in London. In independent India, Kamaladevi was a major contributor to the revival of Indian handicrafts, handlooms, and theatre. She advocated for women's rights as well. The Indian government awarded her the Padma Bhushan and Padma Vibhushan in 1955 and 1987, respectively.

Vijay Shankar

A Bengali Indian classical musician from Benaras, Rabindra Shankar Chowdhury, also known as Ravi Shankar, was born. Shankar received the Bharat Ratna, India's highest civilian honour, in 1999.

Husain, M. F.

An internationally renowned contemporary Indian painter is Maqbool Fida Husain. For Through the Eyes of a Painter, he won the National Film Award in 1967 for Best Experimental Film. He is the recipient of the Padma Vibhushan, the Padma Bhushan, and the Padma Shri (1991).

Blessings, Khan

The original name of Ustad Bismillah Khan is Qamaruddin Khan. He was an Indian classical musician who made the Shehnai more well known. The following honours have been bestowed upon Ustad:

Bharat Ratna (2001). (2001).

Pharam Vibhushan (1980)

Sangeet Natak Akademi Fellow (1994).

Talar Mausique is an Iranian national (1992).

Bhushan Padma (1968)

Pandit Shri (1961)

Award for Sangeet Natak Akademi (1956)

Government of Madhya Pradesh Tansen Award.

SK Narayan

Krishnaswami of Rasipuram Iyer Narayanaswami was a renowned author and a superb writer. The Malgudi is his most well-known creation. Additionally, the novel won the Sahitya Akademi Award. He was given the Padma Bhushan in 1964, and the British Royal Society of Literature honoured him with the AC Benson Medal in 1980.

He was chosen as an honorary member of the American Academy of Arts and Letters in 1982. He received numerous nominations for the Nobel Prize in Literature but was never awarded the prize.

Ray, Satyajit

He was an Indian director, screenwriter, author, composer, and graphic artist. He has received more than 32 National Film Awards from the Indian government. He was honoured for his contribution to cinema at the 11th Moscow International Film Festival in 1979, with the Honorable Prize. Only four filmmakers—including him—have received the Silver Bear for Best Director multiple times from the Berlin International Film Festival. He received the highest civilian distinction, the Bharat Ratna, from the Indian government soon before his passing in 1992, as well as the Padma Bhushan in 1965.

J. Homi Bhabha

One of the best nuclear physicists in the world is Dr. Homi Jehangir Bhabha. He received the Padma Bhushan in 1954, the Adams Prize in 1942, and the Fellow of the Royal Society designations.

Ramanujan, Srinivasa

One of the finest mathematicians in history is Ramanujan. He was a Tamil Nadu native who made some of the most significant contributions to pure mathematics despite having no official education in the subject.

We'll talk about a few significant and notable international figures in this part. These international personalities were chosen based on a number of criteria, including notoriety, clout, and—most importantly—their contributions to society. These are individuals who are leaders in their specialized fields. Individuals who have revolutionized their fields of study or employment, as well as individuals who have altered the course of history during their lifetime. Those who have brought justice and hope to others. Let's try to list a few of these significant global figures.

International individuals

The greatest people in the world are listed here. Let's start with a list of notable female historical figures.

Below, we include their names along with each of their accomplishments:

Significant Women



Fig 5.3 Mother Teresa

Indira Gandhi (1917–1984): She served as India's third prime minister from 1966 and 1977 and 1980 and 1984. She is revered as the "Iron Lady of India" and had a significant impact on the constitution and society of post-war India.

Benazir Bhutto (1953–2007): Up until her murder, Benazir served as Pakistan's prime minister. Additionally, she was the first female head of a Muslim state.

Mother Teresa (1910–1997), also known as the Saint of Kolkata, was a nun and a volunteer. She spent the majority of her life working to alleviate poverty in many sectors of society.

Jewish diarist Anne Frank (1929–1945) wrote about her experiences hiding in an attic in Amsterdam during the Nazi occupation. After the war, the diary of Anne Frank, who subsequently passed away in a Belsen detention camp, was discovered.

Angela Merkel, born in 1954, has been the chancellor of Germany since 2005. During the financial crisis, she served as the de facto head of the European Union.

One of history's finest scientists was Marie Curie (1867–1934). She was a physicist and chemist from Poland. She is also the first individual to get the Chemistry and Physics Nobel Prizes.

Helen Keller (1880–1968): At the age of 19, Helen Keller lost her hearing and become blind. She was a professor, author, and political activist. She also holds the distinction of being the first Bachelor of Arts graduate who is deaf and blind.
Environmentalist Wangari Maathai, who was born in Kenya and won the Nobel Peace Prize in 2004, lived from 1940 until 2011.
Iranian lawyer Shirin Ebadi, who has been practising law since 1947, was awarded the 2003 Nobel Peace Prize.

5.4 OBJECTS

Object Talent is the type of skill that aids both people and animals in finding specific desirable objects more quickly, hence shortening the time it takes to receive a reward. It is a crucial part of any reward-directed skills, along with action skill.
Object skill worth
According to evolutionary theory, higher incentives per unit of time would increase both humans' and animals' chances of success. Humans and animals primarily rely on two mechanisms to speed up reward-oriented activities and hence maximize rewards per unit time. They either increase their drive for particular activities or pick up the necessary abilities. While motivation can be swiftly sparked in the presence of rewards, giving it the benefit of flexibility, it tends to fizzle out fast in the absence of rewards. On the other hand, skill has a persistent effect even when no short-term reward is anticipated at all and appears to be far more successful at shortening the duration of target behaviors Finding an object and using it are the two components of this type of skill that is reward-oriented; the former is an object skill, while the latter is an action skill. In order to assist humans and animals maximize their chances of survival and success, object expertise is essential.
Specifications of object skill
Object skill is typically distinguished by a number of characteristics, such as a relatively stable internal value assignment, a bias in gaze and attention towards desired objects, an automaticity of response towards desired objects, a reliance on high-capacity memory, and the long-lasting nature of its effect.
Assignment of stable internal values
People discover the worth of objects in daily life based on the related rewarding or punishing outcomes of picking these objects. Therefore, this kind of value-based learning,[3][4] where consistency plays a key role, is what will determine their capacity to identify desirable goods. Because of this relatively stable object-value mapping over the course of a person's life, people tend to assign objects stable internal values.
Bias in attention and gaze
Animals and humans both employ a variety of senses to locate objects, while humans primarily rely on visual information to identify objects. According to studies, any potential manual action on desirable things always comes before the focus or attention move to those objects. Surprisingly, this shift in attention or gaze takes place regardless of the initiator's current intentions. Even when no reward is anticipated, the subject's gaze or attention automatically shifts, possibly enhancing the subject's probability of surviving in some dire

situations.

Automatism of reaction

According to studies, after people have thoroughly mastered finding a particular object, they begin to use far less of their cognitive resources to do the activity.

Additional evidence in favour of the unconscious nature of object skill has been presented by a study using monkeys in a free-viewing approach to investigate gaze shift bias.

This study found that monkeys neatly fixated their gazes solely on things with higher values discovered through earlier training. Given the restricted capacity of working memory, it appears highly unlikely that this could be accomplished through a voluntary searching method. On the other hand, in terms of maximizing the amount of reward per time unit, faster automatic search responses over voluntary search appear to be as well valued. Consequently, automaticity of response also contributes significantly to object skill.

A reliance on memory with a high capacity

Accuracy and speed are the two aspects of object skill that matter the most, just like any other ability.

Only unique memory-motor connections can provide accuracy, and speed can only be guaranteed if object-value information is sent fast through memory-motor connections.

High-capacity memory appears to be required under this method due to the demand for separate memory slots for each object-value association.

Effect's long-term nature

Additionally, object competence frequently has a long-term impact on both humans and monkeys' perception of objects. Multiple research' findings have demonstrated that both humans and monkeys retain their value-based gaze bias long after they first get it during training. Another study on monkeys focused on how they reacted to objects that were comparable to those connected to high values they had learnt in training. The findings revealed that monkeys were only strongly responsive to previously learned objects with high values, indicating a highly object-selective object-value memory and demonstrating the reliance of object competence on high-capacity memory. It is now quite obvious that object skill could only be formed slowly and would remain stable once created because high-capacity memory could only be created if each memory had been preserved for a very long time.

Obstacles to object skill

Because object skill is automated and rigid, it might be harmful when adjustments are made. Quick motor response linked with object skill still happens when values of objects change from positive to negative, which could undermine the topic. Drug abusers frequently utilize object skill to explain their propensity to associate high-value substances with certain substances despite being aware of the risks involved in doing so employing a different system that pays attention to changes in object values is one of the potential options. Such a system would be slow and voluntary, but the cost of upkeep may be offset by preventing potentially expensive dangers. Finding the ideal mix between relying on object competence and making reference to local changes would then be the main challenge.

5.5 INCIDENTS

An incident is a circumstance that has the potential to impair, stop, or otherwise affect an organization's operations, services, or activities. The term incident management (IcM) refers to an organization's efforts to locate, assess, and eliminate risks in order to avoid a repeat occurrence.

An incident response team (IRT), an incident management team (IMT), or an incident command system typically handle these situations inside a hierarchical organization (ICS). An incident can affect corporate operations, information security, IT systems, personnel, clients, or other crucial business processes if incident management is not effective.

5.6 EXTEMPORE

Extempore speech is defined as a spontaneous collection of ideas that results in a speech that is composed on the spot, on a given topic. Extempore speaking is frequently utilized to learn more about a participant's varied ideas, but it also has several drawbacks.

Which does not allow for any prior preparation? It wouldn't be incorrect to state that mastering the art of giving impromptu speeches becomes the main quality of a public speaker. A truly outstanding accomplishment is the ability to present the extempore issue to the audience without any prior preparation.

5.7 GROUP DISCUSSIONS

The goal of a group conversation goes beyond simply assessing your level of knowledge. A GD is carried out primarily to evaluate you as a team member. To succeed in this round, you should have a specific set of group discussion skills.

Please review the essential group discussion techniques listed below so that you can tailor your own GD strategy appropriately.

Reasoning

Try to identify the GD topic category in which you feel most at ease. Additionally, keep up with the news to stay current on current affairs.

Factual or social subjects are best if you excel at debate. In abstract and situation-based issues, bookworms (or ardent readers) may have an advantage over the competition.

Speaking

You must begin the GD if you are conversant with the material. Before speaking, systematically gather your thoughts (ideally in points). If not, make an effort to speak as the second or third person. Make a complete commitment to English at least one week prior to the round if you want to talk with confidence in a GD. You must consciously practice speaking English like a native speaker. Develop a strong mastery of the language you will be using to communicate. So, for at least 15 days prior to your GD, watch English-language films and comedies, listen to English songs, follow English news, and read an English-language newspaper everyday

Management of time

Define the subject, list a few advantages and disadvantages, then arrange the discussion around three points in the time allotted before the GD begins. Usually, the structure is appropriate for social/factual and current affairs issues. Therefore, strive to complete the 3–4 points you have set up for a turn as quickly as possible.

Presentation

If you can, introduce the topic and outline the structure in one or two sentences

Paraphrasing/summarizing

If you are able to talk after the first or second speaker, summaries their description of the subject, suggest a structure if it was overlooked, and list a few advantages and disadvantages.

Creativity

After that, anyone who speaks should strive to either expand on what has been said or add something new to the conversation. Pitch all sides of the debate when discussing a subject with a social bent, and then choose the centre ground. Bring out several points of view and quotes from speeches or papers for a current events topic. And for topics that are situation-based, attempt to create a few rules and adhere to them to advance the discussion.

Listening

After you've finished making your case, pay close attention to what others have to say. If you concur, nod. Continue to observe people and pay attention to their facial expressions

Proactive

You should be the N-th person to raise your points in a group discussion (GD) if there are N participants. You are truly dominating the GD if you are speaking at N-1 or N-2, which is a positive indicator. So, in a group of 8, aim to grab the sixth or seventh turn.

Speaking in public

When it's your turn to speak, be sure to do it slowly and authoritatively. Instead of being self-conscious or scrutinizing your speaking abilities or the importance of your points, concentrate more on making sure that your points are comprehended by the audience.

Social interaction

Stay confident and continue to consider or practice your points. Make use of this opportunity to comprehend the arguments made by others. Rephrase someone else's argument and post it to someone who hasn't participated in the discussion yet to make use of their point.

Recall and memory

Giving data or anecdotes with a global perspective makes an excellent first impression.

Writing

You don't want to risk having a blank thought when it's your turn, so only write down about 4-5 words. It is conceivable, and it has occurred to me several times when I had an idea for an argument but had nothing to say when it was my moment to speak.

Analytics

In addition to your points, the interviewer will assess you on a number of other factors, including your capacity for visualization, expression, and conceptualization. So make sure you are considering all the factors. Give your ideas a structure, listen, pull the group back if

they stray, add additional context to the subject, elaborate on another participant's remark, etc.

5.8 INTERACTIVE SESSIONS ON AUDIO AND VIDEO CLIPS MENTIONED IN RECOMMENDED AUDIO AND VIDEO CLIPS

IVR, or interactive voice response, is a technology that enables users to communicate with a computer-controlled phone system by speaking and entering DTMF tones on a keypad. With IVR in telecommunications, clients can speak into a phone keypad or use speech recognition to communicate with a company's host system. From there, they can ask about services via the IVR conversation. To further orient users on what to do, IVR systems can answer with pre-recorded or dynamically created audio. Because IVR systems are more intelligent than many predictive dialer systems, they are sized to handle high call volumes and are also utilized for outbound dialing in the network.

IVR's role in the caller's journey. What should be kept in mind in general, and how IVR compares to other call-handling systems in order to enhance caller satisfaction and maximize agent productivity.

IVR systems can be used independently to develop solutions for caller self-service, such as those for mobile purchases, banking payments, services, retail orders, utilities, travel information, and weather. Call routing can be greatly optimized in conjunction with systems like an automated attendant and an ACD to improve the caller experience [2] and labor productivity. An automated attendant is incorrectly referred to as an IVR. The phrases are unique and have different meanings to traditional telecom experts. An automated attendant's function is to route calls, whereas an IVR's is to receive input, process it, and deliver a response. Having said that, since both features are covered by commercially accessible call handling systems, they are frequently referred to as IVR. Voice Response Unit (VRU) is the name for

IVR technology grew during the 1970s, but it was still viewed as difficult and expensive for automating jobs in contact centers. The vocabulary of early voice response systems, which used DSP technology, was somewhat tiny. Leon Ferber's Perception Technology entered the market as the first major rival in the early 1980s as hard drive technology (read/write random access to digitized voice data) became economically viable. [Reference needed] Then, a system might play the proper spoken message, store the digitized speech on disc, and process the human's DTMF response.

Companies began to engage in computer telephony integration (CTI) with IVR systems as contact centers migrated to multimedia in the late 1990s. IVR, which served as an agent to gather client information for smart routing decisions, became essential for contact centers employing universal queuing and routing solutions. Instead of requiring users to employ DTMF signaling, systems could use speaker-independent voice recognition of a constrained vocabulary in the future.

Voice response started to spread and became more affordable to use in the 2000s. Increased CPU power and the transition of voice programmers from proprietary code to the VXML

standard were responsible for this
Technology
The caller's reaction to audio prompts is decoded using DTMF and speech recognition software. The telephone keypad is used to enter DTMF tones.
Utilizing text-to-speech (TTS) technology to speak complicated and dynamic information like emails, news articles, or weather data is another technology. Additionally, IVR technology is being incorporated into car systems for hands-free operation. TTS, or computer-generated synthetic speech, differs from the robotic voice that is typically associated with computers in that it is human-like. The speech is produced by real voices in snippets, which are then concatenated and smoothed before being played to the caller.
Several strategies can be used to launch an IVR:
Equipment put in place at the client's location
Equipment put in place for the PSTN (public switched telephone network)
IVR hosted by an application service provider (ASP)
When calling numerous larger organizations, an automatic call distributor (ACD) is frequently the second point of contact. An ACD directs a phone without typically asking for the caller's input and instead plays greetings or announcements from digital storage devices. An IVR can play announcements and ask the caller for input. An ACD can utilize this data to characterize the caller and route the call to an agent with the appropriate skill set. [2] (A skill set is a function used to describe a group of call centre representatives who have a specific competence.)
By determining the demands of the caller, interactive voice response can be utilized to front-end a call centre operation. The caller may provide information, such as an account number. Without the need for an operator, simple inquiries about account balances or pre-recorded data can be answered. For security purposes, caller ID data is frequently matched to account numbers from IVRs, and if the caller ID does not match the account record, extra IVR responses are needed.
There are numerous approaches to design IVR call flows. Traditional IVRs relied on proprietary programming or scripting languages, whereas modern IVR applications are created using standards like VoiceXML, CCXML,[8,] SRGS,[9], and SSML, which are comparable to how Web pages are created. [10] A web server can function as the application server when using XML-driven applications, freeing the IVR developer to concentrate on the call flow.
Three methods are used in the design of IVR speech recognition interactions (called call flows) to request for and recognize user input: guided, open-ended, and mixed dialogue.
A directed dialogue prompt informs the user of a range of acceptable responses (e.g "How can I assist you? Describe the account amount, order status, or more alternatives "). A question with an open-ended response (such as "How can I help you?") does not convey a list of acceptable answers. The objective is to elicit a reliable verbal response from the user in both situations. The main distinction is that the user is more likely to speak a choice verbatim when directed conversation is used (e.g. "account balance"). However, when given an open-ended inquiry, the user is more likely to employ unnecessary words or phrases (e.g.

"I was just looking at my bill and saw that my balance was wrong."). To extract the necessary information from the sentence in the open-ended prompt, more natural language processing is needed (i.e. "balance"). Additionally, open-ended recognition necessitates a larger grammar set, which allows for a greater variety of answer permutations (e.g. "balance was wrong", "wrong balance", "balance is high", "high balance"). Open-ended prompts demand more data and processing, but they are more interactively effective because the questions themselves are frequently considerably shorter.

A mixed dialogue technique switches between open-ended and directed dialogue or vice versa within the same encounter because one kind of prompt may be more useful in a particular circumstance.

Mixed dialogue prompts must also be able to identify responses that are unrelated to the immediate prompt, such as when a user chooses to go to a different function.

To further streamline the application development process, more advanced IVR development tools are available. A GUI tool can be used to build a call flow diagram, and the presentation layer (usually VoiceXML) can be generated automatically. Additionally, these technologies typically offer extension mechanisms for software integration, such as a Java interface for connecting to a database and an HTTP interface for accessing a website.

An audio response unit (ARU) in telecommunications is a device that processes calls based on (a) the call-originator input, (b) information obtained from a database, and (c) information in the incoming call, such as the time of day, to provide synthesized voice responses to DTMF key presses. ARUs are frequently present in IVR systems. Information calls are handled more frequently and are consistently of high quality thanks to ARUs.

5.9 SUMMARY

- Speaking clearly and producing sentences that the audience can understand requires oral abilities. To improve voice clarity for efficient communication, oral skills are used. The accurate interpretation of information and the transfer of messages between individuals is communication.
- The air that leaves the lungs during breathing causes the vocal cords to vibrate, which in turn produces speech. The form, location, and tension of the voice cords are adjusted by the cartilages of the larynx.
- To make speech more understandable and easier to pronounce so that it can be properly translated, speech enhancers are utilized. Voice articulation improves speech resonance and makes it possible for speakers to be understood. Speaking at a moderate tempo and pronouncing words clearly enhance sound phonation.
- The act of creating understandable sounds for accurate speech interpretation is referred to as "phonation." Speaking with a neutral tone makes it easier for listeners to comprehend what you're saying word for word.
- The vocal chords' vibrations cause speech to be produced. Speech production involves the larynx, vocal chords, and lungs in a significant way. To cause the voice cords to vibrate, the lungs take in air.

- The vocal fords' motion and shape control the pitch of sounds. Nine cartilages make up the larynx, which helps the vocal cords produce sound. It's crucial to speak clearly if you want to communicate effectively.

5.10 KEYWORDS

- **Oral -** Spoken oral traditions: expressions made orally or in writing. B: Speaking or moving the lips, particularly when instructing the deaf. 2a: an oral vaccine that is of, given through, or involves the mouth. b: being near or having to do with the mouth's surface.
- **Incidents. -** A happening is the occurrence of an event that constitutes a unique experiential unit. B: a minor event or situation that occurs in tandem: concurrent. 2: an action that could have major repercussions, particularly in diplomatic affairs or a serious border incident.
- **Object -** Talent is the type of skill that aids both people and animals in finding specific desirable objects more quickly, hence shortening the time it takes to receive a reward. It is a crucial part of any reward-directed skills, along with action skill.
- **Interactive session -A** desktop is required for an interactive session. By pressing "CTRL + ALT + DEL" (for a workstation session), you can launch an interactive session on a computer console. You can also use a "remote desktop" to launch one remotely (terminal session)
- **Personalities -** There are four personality types: average, reserved, role-model, and self-centred, according to a study published in Nature Human Behaviour. These findings may alter how people think about personality in general.

5.11 LEARNING ACTIVITY

1. Define Extempore?

_____

_____

__

2. State the principal of Oral Activities?

_____

_____

5.12 UNIT END QUESTIONS

A. Descriptive questions

Short questions

1. What is a communicative speaking activity?
2. What is a free speaking activity?
3. What does oral activity mean?
4. What are some reading activities?
5. How do you teach speaking skills in the classroom?

Long questions

1. How do you teach speaking skills in the classroom?
2. How can I make my talking class interesting?
3. What are writing activities?
4. What is meant by speaking skills?
5. What are the 6 types of oral communication?

B. Multiple Choice Questions

1. Which of the following IS TRUE about the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis?

a) Language and culture are separate and independent
b) Language is not necessary to help people organize their world
c) This hypothesis is widely unsupported today
d) If a language possessed no term for an object, speakers would have no trouble in thinking about that object

2. The view that language reflects rather than determines our thinking and perceptions relates to:

a) The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis
b) Linguistic relativity
c) Language socialization
d) Language acquisition

3. The Pirahã speak a language that provides no numerical terms beyond the number two. Many Pirahã speakers experience difficulty when trying to learn new numerical concepts. This supports which of the following positions?

a) the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis
b) B. linguistic relativity
c) C. language learning through reinforcement
d) D. nativism

4. Contemporary researchers are proposing new ways to study the relationship between language, culture, and cognition. These include all the following EXCEPT:

a) Culturally situated thinking styles
b) Language biases
c) Environmental influences
d) Language vocabularies

5. When communicating on social media, individuals lose the ability or opportunity to read all of the following EXCEPT:

a) Facial expressions
b) Body posture
c) Eye gaze
d) Text

Answers; - 1-c 2-b 3-a 4-d 5-d

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UNIT 6- INTERVIEW SKILLS

6.0 Learning objectives
6.1 Introduction
6.2 Definition
6.3 Objective of an Interview
6.4 Interviewer
6.5 Interviewee
6.6 Types of Interview
6.7 How to Crack an Interview?
6.8 Additional Tips for Success
6.9 Summary
6.10 Keywords
6.11 Learning Activity
6.12 Unit End Questions
6.13 References

6.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the scope and objectives of Interview
- Identify interview techniques employed by the recruiters
- State the difference between an interviewer and an interviewee
- List the things an interviewee must keep in mind before, during and after the interview.

6.1 INTRODUCTION- WHAT IS AN INTERVIEW?

An interview can be viewed as a face-to-face verbal exchange between two persons- interviewer and interviewee.

The interviewer aims to elicit information from the interviewee by asking certain questions. Outwardly, it may seem to be merely a conversation, but it has a specific purpose. It is a



selection device and is often considered a standardized test of intelligence on the basis of which an individual got employment in an organization. In the interview, the interviewer asks questions not only to assess the knowledge of the interviewee but also to obtain information related to his attitude and qualities. It is a two-way communication process in which one starts the conversation and the other responds. It provides an opportunity to the interviewer to interact with a candidate and to evaluate from his/her experience, skills, knowledge, and behavior the things which cannot be judged merely from the resume. It enables the interviewer to determine whether an interviewee‘s skills, experience, and personality meet the requirements of the job.

6.2 DEFINITIONS

According to Gary Dessler, —An interview is a procedure designed to obtain information from a person‘s oral response to oral inquiries.‖

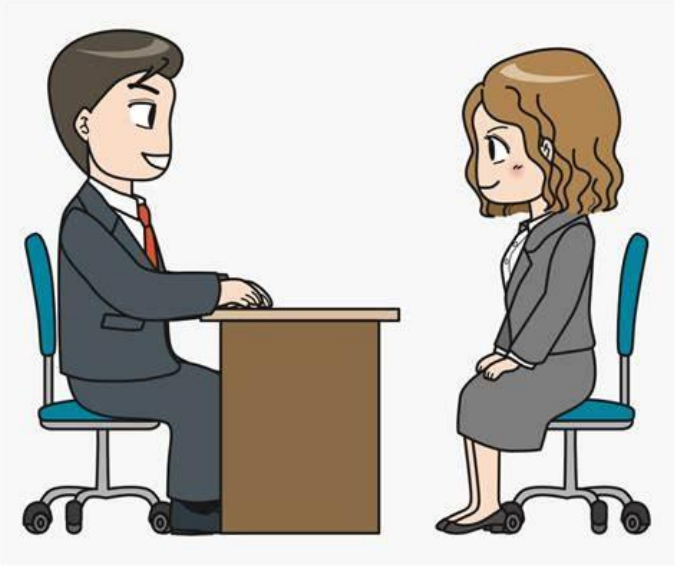
According to Thill and Bovee, —An interview is any planned conversation with a specific purpose involving two or more people‖.

According to Dr. S. M. Amunuzzaman, —Interview is a very systematic method by which a person enters deeply into the life of even a stranger and can bring out needed information and data for the research purpose.‖

6.3 OBJECTIVES OF AN INTERVIEW

The objectives of an interview can vary according to its purpose. The objective of a job interview is to recognize and choose an applicant whose range of abilities and practices match what is required for a specific job and whose character, interests, and qualities match the culture and mission of the association. During the interview, an interviewer tries to find out whether the candidate has the potential to do a certain job effectively and with this motive, a range of questions are asked and those who present themselves differently and effectively get an opportunity to serve. In research, the objective of an interview is to collect the data in order to prove a hypothesis. The collected information can be related to health, nutrition, problems of past and present, future expectations, and so on, depending upon the type of information that is required for particular research.

6.4 INTERVIEWER



An Interviewer is a subject matter expert who aspires to understand the respondent‘s opinion with the help of a series of questions. The interviewer is the one who recruits the candidate on the basis of his performance. He tries to elicit as much information from the candidate as he can in order to choose the best applicant. The number of interviewers can vary according to the type of the interview.

6.4.1 Qualities of a Good Interviewer:

An interviewer must have complete knowledge about the nature and requirements of the job as the lack of adequate knowledge could result in the selection of the wrong candidate.

He or she must have experience and maturity, as these two qualities help a person in passing judgment free from biases and based on logic and reason.

Proper control of anger, aggression, and arrogance is also an important trait of a successful interviewer. Such an interviewer would not react to any comment made by the candidate.

He must be able to communicate in a way the respondent can understand.

He must be a good and patient listener. It will help him in doing a better evaluation. Those who talk much often fails to focus on the important points mentioned by the candidates.

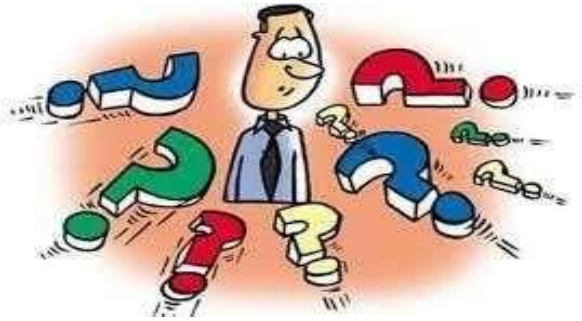
He must make the candidate comfortable in order to elicit the required information.

He must be able to see through the masquerade and focus on the actual points.

He must have the ability to identify uniqueness. Every applicant possesses different types of unique traits. A successful interviewer identifies the best combination for a particular job.

An extrovert behavior makes an individual friendly, frank and open. This quality of an interviewer can help him in asking any question and in transforming the otherwise formal and stressful interview into just a conversation.

An empathetic attitude and stable personality can also work wonders as it will relieve the candidate‘s anxiety and nervousness.



6.5 INTERVIEWEE

A person who applies for a certain position and in order to get that position answers the questions in an interview is called an interviewee. The interviewee is assessed by the interviewer on the basis of his verbal and non-verbal communication skills. He tries his best to impress the recruiter as the recruitment depends upon his performance only. In research, an interviewee can be a person who helps the interviewer by providing him with the information he is asking for. The objective of such an interview is not recruitment but the exchange of information.

6.5.1 Traits an Interviewee must Possess:

He must have good communication skills so that responses can be articulated in the best manner.

He must be a good listener. Interrupting the interviewer shows overconfidence and disrespect. He must listen first and then answer clearly, concisely, and correctly.

A candidate who is flexible enough to adapt to the changing conditions is always welcomed by the employer, so the willingness to be flexible and an eagerness to be adaptable can prove rewarding.

A cooperative individual with an ability to get along with his co-workers is wanted everywhere. The interviewee must demonstrate such traits by giving tangible examples while answering the questions.

Positive thinking and confidence are the most important ingredients for a successful interview. A positive attitude helps in dealing with any kind of problem and an expert interviewer can easily identify the lack of these traits through the actions and posture of the candidate.

Transparency and truthfulness are two pillars that enhance the demeanor. The interviewee can let his personality speak for itself by being who he really is.

6.6 TYPES OF INTERVIEW

The interview is a process in which needed information is exchanged verbally in a face- to-face situation between an interviewer and the interviewee. It can be classified into ―Structured‖ and ―Unstructured‖ interviews. An interview in which everything is properly structured and a particular set of predetermined questions are asked is called a Structured Interview. All the candidates are generally asked the same questions, which ultimately helps

in comparing their answers and selecting the suitable candidate. This type of interview is more formal. However, it has some disadvantages as it includes the risk of the leaking out of questions, which means candidates can come prepared beforehand. An Unstructured Interview, on the other hand, does not follow any predetermined pattern; questions are not decided beforehand, rather an interviewer asks the questions that come to his/her mind on the spot. This type of interview is generally informal, open-minded, and friendly. It helps in reducing the stress among the candidates but it
contains the possibility to wander off the subject and may take more time than a structured interview.

There are various techniques by which suitable candidates can be selected. Most of these techniques fall under the categories of Structured Interviews.

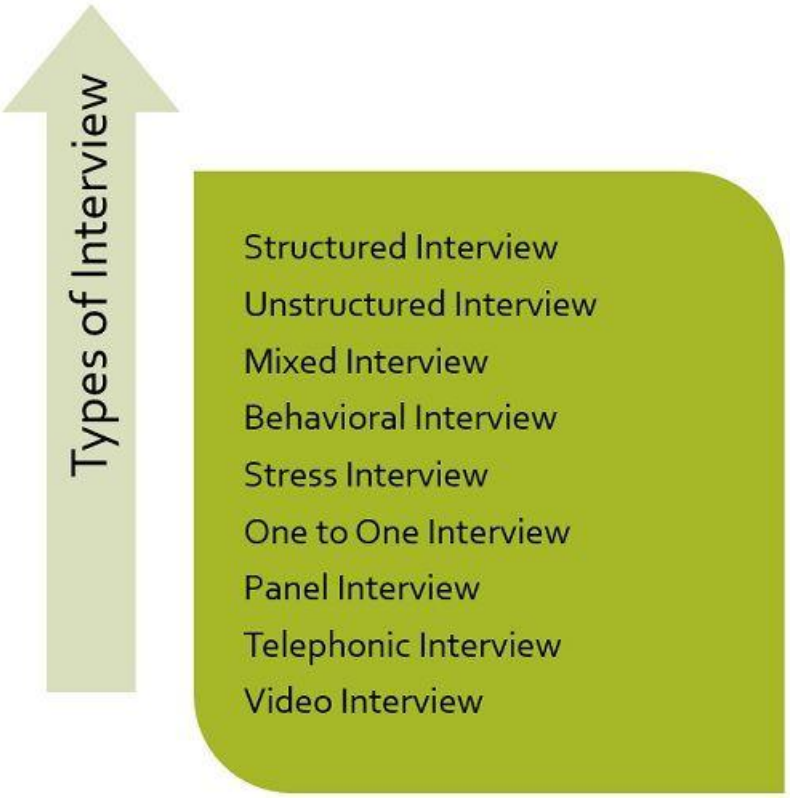


Fig 6.1 Types of interview

6.6.1 Behavioral Interview

A kind of structured interview in which questions are generally pre-designed to probe the interviewee‘s past behavior in specific situations. The interviewees are judged on the basis of their past behavior in certain situations that may emerge even in the future. In behavioral interviews, questions are pointed, probing, and specific, and candidates are asked to provide specific examples from their past experiences, demonstrating their behavior, knowledge, skills, and abilities how they dealt with certain issues. The interviewee‘s answers to such questions reveal their actual level of experience and potential to handle similar situations in the future. The questions in behavioral interviews are often structured using the STAR (Situation, Task, Action, Results) model. For example: What was the situation that the candidate faced? Which task he had to accomplish? What were the actions taken by the

candidate? And what were the results of the action taken by him?

6.6.2 Situational Interview

Situational interviews are conducted in order to judge the candidate‘s behavior or response in a particular situation. A hypothetical situation is given to the interviewees and they have to describe how they would react in those situations. The difference between a situational interview and a behavioral interview is that in a behavioral interview the focus is on the past action or experience of the candidate, while in the situational interview, one has to answer by putting oneself in an imaginary situation. Most of the questions in such interviews are related to problem-solving. Such questions often make the candidates nervous as anticipation is harder and they go off-topic, so it is important for the interviewee not to ramble and to demonstrate his qualities like the presence of mind, confidence, instinct, and patience, as these type of interviews are aimed at judging these qualities only. These questions have the potential to make the candidate drop his interview script or ready-made material and think on his own.

6.6.3 Stress Interview

An interview in which the interviewer tries to make the interviewee uncomfortable by asking him certain questions rudely in order to judge his stress tolerance is called a Stress interview. Anxiety or stress is intentionally created in such interviews to determine how an interviewee will respond to stress on the job. The interviewee‘s response under stress determines his ability to handle situations. The interviewee is made to feel that he is not wanted for a certain position as he seems to be incompetent. A few brainteaser questions are also asked which actually have no correct answers. The interviewee needs to keep calm while answering such questions. He must always stop and breathe and can also ask the interviewer to repeat the question as it may provide him time to regain composure. Stress interviews can be controversial as they may create a rift between the interviewer and interviewee and the most suitable candidate may turn down the offer due to the nature of the interview. This interview technique is common among those industries where the employees have to deal with a high-pressure work environment, like sales, law enforcement, intelligence, and airline employees.

6.6.4 Panel Interview

An interview which is conducted by a team of interviewers is called a panel or board interview. In other words, such an interview comprises one interviewee and several interviewers.

The panel typically consists of two to five people who interview each candidate and then finally combines their scores and thus a candidate with the highest rating is selected. In such interviews, the panelists or experts are free to ask follow-up or probing questions. The advantage of a panel interview is that the involvement of multiple assessors increases the accuracy of assessing a candidate and reduces the risk of biasedness. The panel generally consists of the various representatives of the organizations who evaluate the candidate from varied perspectives and mark their scores on an evaluation sheet for each section which

ultimately helps them in reaching consensus. While facing a panel interview, the interviewee must make eye contact with everyone. Having prior knowledge about the background of the interviewers can also help a great deal as it would give a fair idea of the type of questions they may ask.

6.6.5 One-on-one Interview

In a one-on-one interview, as its name shows, only one interviewer meets one interviewee. As the same interviewer interviews other candidates too, the knowledge, skills, qualities, nature, and behavior are usually compared to other candidates and in the end, the best one is chosen. Since only one interviewer is present, an interviewee has the opportunity to build a rapport more easily. He need not change his focus and can impress the interviewer with his verbal and non-verbal communication skills. It also provides an opportunity to the interviewer to probe deeply the attitude, beliefs, desires, expectations, and experiences of the interviewees. The interviewer can be flexible too, as he can change the type of questions according to his own discretion. It has some disadvantages, as it's a little time-consuming, a trained interviewer is needed and as a single interviewer is there, his decision can be biased.

6.6.6 Telephonic Interview

When a candidate is being interviewed on a phone call is called a telephonic interview. The advantage of being interviewed in this manner is that one can easily refer to some key points jointed out by him and the major disadvantage is non-verbal cues cannot be conveyed or received. Thus, even the slightest high tone of voice can be taken as a sign of arrogance.

This interview technique is sometimes used by the companies to screen candidates so that only the selected ones can be invited for an in-person interview.

While scheduling a telephonic interview, the interviewer and interviewee must select a time comfortable to both of them and a quiet space without any distractions must be chosen. A telephonic interview is equally professional, so the interviewee must take care of his answers, tone of voice, and pauses. Listening plays a major part in such type of interview. One cannot indulge in subsequent reading or note-taking as the important part of the question can be missed. In telephonic interviews, verbal communication skills can be better judged as all the focus of the interviewer is on the choice of words only as visual clues are absent in it.

6.6.7 Video Interview

In this type of interview, candidates are interviewed virtually using video software such as Zoom, Skype, Hangouts, Face Time, etc. Just like a telephonic interview, a video interview is also preferred in the early stages of hiring in order to screen a number of candidates quickly. This type of interview is also feasible when the interviewer and interviewee belong to distant places. Both interviewer and interviewee must possess basic video interview equipment like a computer with a built-in microphone, camera, and speakers or a laptop, an internet connection with good bandwidth speed, headphones, and a quiet, well-lit place. Dressing up formally, sitting in a good posture, nodding, smiling, eye contact, and other gestures are equally important in a video interview as they are in an in-person interview. One needs to be even more careful in a video interview because letting one‘s gaze drift away and fidgeting may give the impression that one is referring to some notes. Technology is

something on which one cannot rely completely; practicing beforehand can help in reducing anxiety or stress

6.6.8 Walk-in-Interview

A comparatively recent type of interview in which the interviewee need not apply for a certain position beforehand and directly walk in on the day of the interview as advertised by an organization. This type of interview is also called an open interview as no short listing is done beforehand and anyone interested in applying can come for the interview. These types of interviews are generally spontaneous and unplanned.

Organizations prefer this type of interview when there are lots of positions to fill, instead of going through stacks of formal applications or resumes for screening they simply announce a mass interview day, where recruiters can meet the candidates face to face and make their decisions quickly and effectively.

Walk-in or open interviews are generally shorter and less formal due to a large number of candidates. Since the interviewees have less time to prepare for such interviews, they should research the company, its policies, vision, and mission. However, the candidates need not apply for these types of interviews even then they must possess all the important documents as proof of their qualification and technical skills because after the selection they can be asked to show the documents. The interviewees need to keep their resumes updated for such types of interview.

6.7 HOW TO CRACK AN INTERVIEW?

As it is stated earlier, an interview is a communication between an interviewer and an interviewee in which an interviewee is assessed by the interviewer from varied perspectives. An interview is not merely a test of the knowledge of the candidate, rather, it is an art in which non-verbal expressions play an equal part. There are certain things that an interviewee must keep in mind before, during, and after the interview

Fig 6.2 CRACK AN INTERVIEW

6.7.1 Before the Interview:

The interviewee must know everything about the company or institution in which he is appearing for the interview- the policies of that company, ongoing projects, future plans, and goals.

Generating a list of probable questions and revising them will also prove helpful.

The candidate must know everything about his/her CV including the strengths and weaknesses. Before walking into the interview room one must have a fair idea of his likes, dislikes, and goals.

Punctuality is an important trait of an individual‘s personality. One must reach the interview venue well before time. It also helps in boosting the confidence level.

Even a full dress rehearsal can also prove beneficial as being comfortable in the clothes one wears adds to the confidence level.

One must know the route to the interview venue, it will help in reducing the stress.
Turning off or putting one‘s cell phone on silent mode before the interview is also a good practice.

6.7.2 During the Interview:

The interviewee must be on time on the day of the interview and should sit down only when asked to do so.
Answering the questions with a proper beginning, middle, and end and providing tangible examples is the best way. It becomes possible only when the interviewee would be focused.
Authenticity and honesty are the best traits of an individual‘s personality. An interviewee must never try to manipulate things. An honest candidate is always preferred. Interviewers can easily discover the misrepresentations, so the best way to save oneself from misery and humiliation is to be authentic and honest.
Body language comprises all non-verbal expressions such as eye contact, eye movements, posture, facial and hand expressions, coupled with good communication skills they can lead to great efficacy. During the interview, an interviewee‘s body movements should be restricted.
Unnecessary body movements such as waving hands continuously, changing postures too often, jerking head and shoulders, shaking legs, and so on make an adverse impression on the interviewer. Not only these, opening or closing the door with thunder, dragging the chair, and sitting without permission also speaks volumes about a person. Maintaining eye contact while answering the questions shows confidence and builds trust in whatever the interviewee is saying.
Sitting straight and attentive with one‘s shoulders back and feet firmly placed on the ground without being stiff, changing posture stealthily, smiling, nodding, and showing confidence can attract the interviewer‘s attention. Good body language is just an aiding device, what counts most are the words spoken by a candidate being interviewed.
After Body language, the other important tool in the hands of the interviewee is the modulation of voice and speech pattern. Volume, tone, pitch, and speed play an important role in the expression and an interview is a verbal-oriented test to judge the ability of a candidate to express freely, eloquently, and impressively. A proper modulation of these four (volume, tone, pitch, and speed) can help an interviewee to hold the attention of his interviewers.
The interviewee‘s voice must be clearly audible to everyone present depending upon the distance between him and the interviewers. He can make his tone higher or lower for effect and emphasis because a monotone signifies indifference and disinterestedness. The pitch of the voice can be significantly used in giving dramatic effect to the entire communication. A candidate can effectively use the pitch of his voice to indicate to the interviewer that he has not finished yet and can give free flow to his ideas, otherwise the interviewer interrupts a candidate and start another question.
Speed of speech is also important. Some people speak faster and some take so many pauses while speaking, these acts create a distraction. An interviewee must know how to speak at varying speeds depending upon the situation. Speaking steadily so that the communication

can be heard and understood is always better. During the interview, if a candidate makes a long statement about anything, he must summarize that in the end to make his point clear.
Another noticeable point while speaking is the way a candidate controls his breathing. It will be a little irritating to the interviewer if a candidate gushes out the wind with a great force.
Constant and slow breathing is generally not noticed which can be easily done while speaking short sentences. Keeping the breath under control and releasing stress and nervousness at the same time is important for the candidate.
The halo effect- the immediate ‗gut reaction' for a person or the ―positive first impression‖ is called the halo effect.
The interviewee can create this halo effect from the moment he enters the interview room and if he creates that effect particularly through non-verbal skills, the interviewers usually ignore or minimize every evidence that contradicts that first impression.
Talking too quickly, digressing from the points, using slang and not knowing the meaning of certain words mar the impression, so an interviewee must be careful while speaking.
The interviewee must not be too defensive if the interviewer points out some of his weaknesses. Being arrogant or defensive marks intolerance. He must admit that and show a willingness to improve those in the future.
Looking for something in common and mentioning the same thing before the interviewer can also make a difference.

6.7.3 After the Interview:

The interviewee must get the contact information of the organization in order to keep himself from staying in the dark.
Assessing one's performance critically is also good training. It helps in identifying the weaknesses and can prove beneficial for future interviews.
Writing down the important points one remembers about the interview is also a good practice.
A note of gratitude to the employer who took the time to assess is also a fine gesture within twenty-four hours of the interview.
Establishing a connection with the interviewers on social or business sites is also a good step, it would help them in learn about the candidate. Even if he did't join their organization it would open a window for future opportunities.

6.8 ADDITIONAL TIPS FOR SUCCESS

The interview is a process of exchanging information. Preparation, practice, and self-evaluation are keys to a successful interview. Required research, rehearsal of the same, and final reflection during the interview are necessary steps for a positive and successful interviewing experience.
Preparing oneself well by having all the necessary information about the organization as well as one's own self is the key to success. One must not look into the copy of the resume when asked to explain anything. One must be clear about each and everything that is written in his CV.
As it is said that ―The first impression is the last impression,‖ try to make that impression

lasting as one can never get a second chance. That impression can be made with the help of one‘s dressing, body language, posture, and confidence.

Positivity is another key to success. One must never mention anything negative related to the previous employers and focus on positive achievements. It adds charm to one‘s personality. Steering away from negative descriptions and mentioning lessons learned, skills developed and relevant experiences make a significant impression on the interviewer.

Eye contact is the most important aspect of nonverbal communication; it can make a significant impression on the prospective employer during the interview and symbolizes confidence and truthfulness of the candidate.

Self-evaluation is important and during self-evaluation, one must try to find out one‘s strengths, weaknesses, skills that one wants to improve, priorities, expectations, and future goals.

Giving specific rather than general examples also demonstrates that one has the ability to perform one‘s job well.

A flexible, adaptive, responsible, progressive, creative, active, decisive, and cooperative candidate is always preferred. Demonstrating these qualities can be helpful.

6.9 SUMMARY

- Interview skills actually comprise the art of selling oneself well. One who knows this art and presents oneself efficiently and effectively can easily excel in this and those who do not know can be successful by preparing and practicing.
- During an interview, the interviewer tries to secure the maximum amount of information from the candidate by asking him certain questions and at the same time keenly observing the behavior, body language, manners, appearance, etc.
- Different types of interview techniques are adopted by different employers based on the nature of the job and requirements.
- A truthful, flexible, seeker of knowledge, adaptive, patient, good communicator, and well-informed candidate can easily excel in this.

6.10 KEYWORDS

- **Evaluation:** The making of a judgement about the amount, number, or value of something; assessment.
- **Respondents:** A person who replies to something, especially one supplying information for a questionnaire or responding to an advertisement.
- **Applicant:** A person who makes a formal application for something, especially a job.
- **Masquerade**: To masquerade as someone or something means to pretend to be that person or thing, particularly in order to deceive other people.
- **Recruitment:** The simplest definition of recruitment is the process of identifying, interviewing and hiring employees for jobs. Of course, the reality is much more complex —

the recruitment process involves many moving parts, and there are many different types of recruiting.

- **Halo effect:** The halo effect is a type of cognitive bias in which our overall impression of a person influences how we feel and think about their character.

6.11 LEARNING ACTIVITY

1. What is an Interview?

_____

_____

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2. Describe a Walk-in-Interview?

_____

_____

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6.12 UNIT END QUESTIONS

A. Descriptive questions

Short questions:

1. List the Qualities of a good interviewer and an interviewee.
2. Describe the different types of interviews.
3. What is the difference between a Behavioral and a Situational Interview?
4. What is the difference between a panel interview and a one-on-one interview?
5. What are the basic necessities for a Video Interview?
6. Differentiate between a Structured an Unstructured Interview.

Long questions

1. What are the most important ingredients of an interviewee‘s personality?
2. What is the difference between a Structured and an Unstructured Interview?
3. What is the difference between a Behavioral Interview and a Situational Interview?
4. List the things an interviewee must do before the interview?
5. How important are non-verbal expressions during an interview?
6. What is the most important step after the interview?

B.Multiple Choice Questions

1. Interviews are conversations with _____

a) fun

b) purpose

c) friendliness

d) informality

2. Which of these is not a type of interview?
a) Screening interview
b) Stress interview
c) Music interview
d) Lunch interview
3. Which kind of interview includes a process in which the employability of the job applicant is evaluated?
a) Stress interview
b) Screening interview
c) Group interview
d) Behavioural interview
4. In which of these interviews, insults are common?
a) Screening interview
b) Stress interview
c) Behavioural interview
d) Group interview
5. Which of these interviews is adapted for computer programmers?
a) The stress interview
b) The group interview
c) The screening interview
d) The audition

Answers:

1-b, 2-c, 3-b, 4-b, 5-d.

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