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## INTRODUCTION

**The basic of Master`s dissertation paper title and its actuality** of this work can be seen in the fact of a growing number of works, researching that are devoted to bridging the gap not only between different cultures such as men and women as well. So we think that this our research is quite actual in this term of investigation. This will be an interesting development to follow, and by no means does it lessen the humor, variety and color of English language.

At the turn of the century has changed the socio-cultural context of learning foreign languages in Uzbekistan. As the result of presidential decree №1875 ‘On measures to further improvement of foreign languages learning system’ signed on December 10, 2012; [5] all staff that ever connected in teaching foreign languages greatly increased their educational and self-education functions in schools and universities, professional significance in the labor market as a whole, resulting in the enhancement of motivation to learn and teach languages of international communication. Communicative-based learning of foreign language means to form a student's communicative competence of language, conversation and practical, social, linguistic and intellectual, when the student is ready to use language as an implement of discourse activity. The purpose of this research is to consider the role of verbal and nonverbal behavior as a means of communication, develop the model of training future teachers of English to the formation of communicative competence. Verbal behavior is at once the phenomenon that makes humans particularly interesting and the vehicle with which we express that inter-est. Verbal behavior makes progress possible from one generation to the next and enhances the development of sciences, technologies, and the arts. Building on Skinner’s conceptual analysis, Mark Sundberg presents verbal behavior in the context of typical human development, with an emphasis on language assessment and intervention programs for children with autism or other develop-mental disabilities. Nowadays it’s difficult to imagine anybody managing without English. It has become a lingua franca;

its cross-cultural spread is unprecedented in many ways. That's the way of things in business, science and culture. Although secondary schools, universities and countless number of language centers give a serious foundation in English, students will inevitably face the lack of understanding of native speakers in some discourse. And the reasons of this fact are as the following:

Undoubtedly any language does not exist out of culture. Therefore modern language education shouldn't be limited to lexical and grammatical set of rules. The process of global cultural integration requires English language proficiency at the level of 'human culture'. Knowledge of a foreign language is determined by certain level of communicative competence for solving social and communicative tasks in various spheres of life and for further self-education. In other words, a high level of language education should meet requirements of modern social order of intercultural socio-communicative skills.

Undoubtedly there is no universal method of learning a language; there are a lot of different 'express technologies'. But to 'to feel' the language, to improve some language skills, to discover some colloquial words and phrases, slang, learn to use idioms it's necessary to immerse yourself in the language environment.

Hence it's difficult to exaggerate the significance of language teaching and training in the whole of its manners. They teach the language, skills and culture that will help to succeed in the English-speaking world. Moreover language practice abroad promotes better understanding among people of different countries and prevents communicative errors caused by existing stereotypes across cultures. It's possible to choose from the following course range: Intensive English, General English, Mini Group and One-to-One classes, Business Courses and Exam Preparation courses such as IELTS, TOEFL. Besides the schools offer variety of entertainments, different activities and social programmes that make for social interaction and as a result better language experience in different spheres of life. It gives a great opportunity to explore different mentality and way of life, appreciate different sense of humour, and

investigate various unexplored phenomena.

In this regard it should be noted socio-cultural approach to teaching a foreign language presented by the scientific school of S.G. Ter-Minasova, based on the concept of 'dialogue of cultures'. According to this concept the main aim of foreign language teaching nowadays is teaching a foreign language as a real tool of communication, a foreign language is not only a means of speech production, but also the part of culture and a means of humanizing education [12:87].

Thus there is a need to form students' attitudes towards language as a phenomenon of social and cultural reality, the cultural phenomenon, the product of civilization. It is quite evident that special attention should be given to the formation of students' communication skills based on their socio-cultural competence in a view of globalization of society and the intensive development of information and communication technologies. The success of socio-cultural education depends on the training for intercultural communication on the basis of the principles of dialogue of cultures and civilizations.

It is well known that the purposes of foreign language teaching are caused by the following features: language function formation of knowledge concerning the language system; communicative function formation of communicative competence; socio-cultural function formation of cultural competence, i.e. acquaintance with the culture, customs and traditions of the society of the target language; developing function formation of skills of independent work and thinking, the ability to draw conclusions, compare facts, etc. Language proficiency is possible on condition of communicative competence formation that includes language, speech and socio-cultural components. According to the concept of V.V. Safonova, socio-cultural competence in the structural plan includes: cultural; cross-cultural; linguo-cultural; socio-linguistic; social competences of the student and is regarded as an integral part of communicative competence. Socio-cultural competence provides a student the opportunity: to orient in the socio-cultural markers of authentic

language environment and socio-cultural characteristics of the communication partner; to predict the socio-cultural interference in terms of cross-cultural communication and the ways of their elimination; to adapt in a foreign language environment.

**The basic aim and purpose** of our investigation is to offer some insight into the productive impact and ways of choosing material for speaking skills teaching. Moreover, it will help and change the relationship between the student, student teacher arrangements in a classroom and students' behavior and how it can ease the task of the teacher and raise students' motivation. **Another aim's motivation of the research:**

- to explore the world of verbal and nonverbal behaviour;
- to analyze school textbooks and show how to use nonverbal units in practice.

**The subject** of the work is the analysis of idiomatic expressions due to the English language Communicative Grammar.

**The object of the research** is teaching verbal and nonverbal behavior as a means of communication by means of nonverbal expressions, units. And the objective of this research is to demonstrate how the use of nonverbal expressions can influence students' involvement to improve better speaking skills and have self confidence of the Communicative Competence. This research aims to encourage teachers to consider about using ready-made speaking skills formulars on one hand and to improve Grammar skills to the fluent level on the other hand; and how this material can have impact on learners academic, behavioral outcomes and promote learning in some manner namely collaborative learning; peer learning; learning speaking in groups; active or passive learning etc.

Furthermore, this work is directed at teachers primarily and it is hoped that they will find it valuable in terms of how the new method of teaching "Linguoculturology" has the potential to engage learners and improve the learning process. Successfully arranged grammar material with expressions used different exercises may impel to the collaborative learning and peer learning, by

providing lingua cultural resource both of target and native languages for learners to easily create groups and team and learn from one another activities.

**The novelty** of our work is to determine by means of linguistic and communicative competences with the methodological significance of studying intercultural aspects of verbal and nonverbal behavior as a means of communication and as cultural interactive usage of the subject learning material in Teaching Foreign Languages to all level students and how this issue may assist to develop Language Learning at other Educational Institutions and obviously the case of revealing the positive outcomes of effective speaking skills in foreign language teaching and its role in assisting classroom management and behavioral patterns of learners.

**Tasks:** The objective of the work is an attempt to study the aspects of intercultural aspects, the groups of their meanings according to the objects described and to analyze the usage of idioms in grammar exercises referring to English. To achieve the set aim we determine the following tasks:

- to study the history of verbal and nonverbal behaviour;
- to denote the term “verbal, nonverbal behaviour”, to distinguish intercultural aspects between them”;
- to demonstrate a variety of nonverbal units; to classify;
- to distinguish different kinds of idioms which we can use in grammar exercises with tenses, moods and etc. to help students to use them.

**Methods:** As the material for our research we used verbal and nonverbal expressions denoting Communicative English taken out from some kinds of manuals and different dictionaries. For gaining the mentioned aim we used the following methods:

- critical study of scientific literature
- methods of analysis and comparison
- illustrative method
- method of material evaluation
- description method

**Theoretical value** consists in selecting and combining some aspects of verbal and nonverbal units in exercises, different groups accordingly by means of studying Spoken English.

**The practical value** consists in the fact that the present work is a valuable manual for specialists concerned with teaching and learning English in combination of Spoken English and can be used as a teaching guide for stirring up sentences. The results of the investigation are aimed at better understanding and valuable using of Spoken English on the advanced level of the fluency in communicative language. The results and some materials of the research can be used by English learners. English teachers can use these materials on practicing communicative skills in teaching Culturology, for practical seminar courses on Cognitive Linguistics and Paralinguistics .

Our qualification paper consists of the introduction, three chapters, conclusion, list of literature studied and used and appendixes.

**The introduction** reveals the general survey of the whole work. It dwells on the subject, aim and tasks of the research and characterizes the material and methods of the investigation

**The first chapter** deals with the study Classification of verbal units which are the background of all practical courses of language teaching.

**The second chapter** deals with classification of nonverbal units and the Comparative analysis of verbal and nonverbal units in English Language. We try to do the subdivision of these units into classes due to the Spoken English materials on Communicative English teaching skills into different subclasses.

**The third chapter** is the practical part of our research work where we collect all kinds of exercises with the use of verbal and nonverbal expressions by means of speaking skills.

In **conclusion** we discuss the results of our research investigation and give some recommendations and useful tips for English teachers and learners of foreign languages as well.

## CHAPTER I

### 1. THEORETICAL PREREQUISITES OF THE INVESTIGATION

#### 1.1. Properties of verbal behaviour and function of language

When we try to make an analysis to some aspects of verbal behaviour a question may be arisen here like: Why should applied behavior analysts be concerned with verbal behavior? A review of the definition of applied behavior analysis can provide an answer to this question as the following: Applied behavior analysis is the science in which tactics derived from the principles of behavior are applied to improve socially significant behavior and experimentation is used to identify the variables responsible for behavior change [5:1 ]. Thus, it is required to note the point to improve socially significant behavior. The most socially significant aspects of human behavior involve verbal behavior. Language acquisition, social interaction, academics, intelligence, understanding, thinking, problem solving, knowledge, perception, history, science, politics, and religion are all directly relevant to verbal behavior. Additionally, many human problems, such as autism, learning disabilities, illiteracy, antisocial behavior, marital conflicts, aggression, and wars, involve verbal behavior. In short, verbal behavior plays a central role in most of the major aspects of a person's life, and in the laws, conventions, archives, and activities of a society. These topics are the main subject topics of most introductory psychology textbooks. These are the socially significant behaviors that applied behavior analysts to address. However, the verbal analysis of these topics has just begun, and a substantial amount of work has yet to be accomplished. A wide variety of theories of language attempt to identify the causes of language. These theories can be classified into three separate, but often overlapping, views: biological, cognitive, and environmental. The basic orientation of the biological theory is that language is a function of physiological processes and functions. Chomsky [19: 83] for example, maintained that language is innate to humans. That is, a human's language abilities are inherited and present at birth. Perhaps the most

widely accepted views of the causes of language are those derived from cognitive psychology [18:66]. Proponents of the cognitive approach to language propose that language is controlled by internal processing systems that accept, classify, code, encode, and store verbal information. Spoken and written language is considered to be the structure of thought. Distinguishing between the biological and cognitive views is often difficult; many are mixed and invoke cognitive metaphors such as storage and processing as explanations of language behaviors, or interchange the words brain and mind[19: 83]

The field of structural linguistics specializes in the formal description of language. The topography of what is said can be measured by (a) phonemes: the individual speech sounds that comprise a word; (b) morphemes: the units with an individual piece of meaning; (c) lexicon: the total collection of words that make up a given language; (d) syntax: the organization of words, phrases, or clauses in sentences; (e) grammar: the adherence to established conventions of a given language; and (f) semantics: what words mean [8:77]. The formal description of a language can be accomplished also by classifying words as nouns, verbs, prepositions, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, conjunctions. Other aspects of a formal description of language include prepositional phrases, clauses, modifiers, gerunds, tense markers, particles, and predicates. Sentences then are made up of the syntactical arrangement of the lexical categories of speech with adherence to the grammatical conventions of a given verbal community. The formal properties of language also include articulation, prosody, intonation, pitch, and emphasis.

Language can be formally classified without the presence of a speaker or any knowledge about why the speaker said what he did. Sentences can be analyzed as grammatical or ungrammatical from a text or from a tape recorder. For example, incorrect use of word tense can be identified easily from a recording of a child saying, "Juice all goned." A common misconception about Skinner's analysis of verbal behavior is that he rejected the formal

classifications of language. However, he did not find fault with classifications or descriptions of the response, but rather with the failure to account for the “causes” or functions of the classifications. The analysis of how and why one says words is typically relegated to the field of psychology combined with linguistics; hence the field of psycholinguistics. Skinner began working on a behavioral analysis of language in 1934 as a result of a challenge from Alfred North Whitehead, 2 which Whitehead made when he was seated next to Skinner at a dinner at the Harvard Society of Fellows. Skinner described the interaction as follows: We dropped into a discussion of behaviorism which was then still very much an “ism” and of which I was a zealous devotee. Here was an opportunity which I could not overlook to strike a blow for the cause Whitehead agreed that science might be successful in accounting for human behavior provided one made an exception of verbal behavior. Here, he insisted something else must be at work. He brought the discussion to a close with a friendly challenge: “Let me see you,” he said, “account for my behavior as I sit here saying ‘No black scorpion is falling upon this table.’” The next morning I drew up the outline of the present study. [7. 457]. It took Skinner 23 years to fill in the details of his outline, which he published in his book *Verbal Behavior*. The end result was so significant to Skinner that he believed *Verbal Behavior* would prove to be his most important work. However, Skinner’s use of the phrase prove to be 20 years after the book was published indicated that his analysis of verbal behavior had not yet had the impact that he thought it would. There are several reasons for the slow appreciation of *Verbal Behavior*. Soon after the book was published, it was met with immediate challenges from the field of linguistics and the emerging field of psycholinguistics. Most notably was a review by Noam Chomsky, a young linguist from MIT who had published his own account of language the same year *Verbal Behavior* was published. Chomsky maintained that Skinner’s analysis was void of any value. Chomsky criticized every aspect of the analysis, but more so, he criticized the philosophy of behaviorism in general. However, a reading of Chomsky’s review will reveal

to those who comprehend Verbal Behavior that Chomsky, like many scholars, gravely misunderstood Skinner's radical behaviorism, which provided the philosophical and epistemological foundations for Verbal Behavior [6:1-33]. Skinner never responded to Chomsky's review, and many felt this lack of response was responsible for the Whitehead was perhaps the most prominent philosopher of the time, known best for his landmark three-volume set coauthored with Bertrand Russell titled Principia Mathematica. widely held conclusion that Chomsky's review was unanswerable and that Chomsky made valid criticisms. Mac Corquodale pointed out that the reason no one challenged Chomsky's review was the condescending tone of the review, in addition to the clear misunderstandings of Skinner's behaviorism. Skinner was not at all surprised by this reaction from linguists because of their emphasis on the structure of language rather than its function. More recently however, a favorable review of Skinner's book from within the field of linguistics was published, recognizing that Skinner has changed the history of linguistics [33:58] Although Skinner anticipated criticism from outside the field of behavior analysis, he probably did not expect the general disinterest and often outspoken negative reaction to Verbal Behavior from within the field.

A number of behaviorists have examined this issue and have collectively provided a list of reasons behavior analysts did not immediately embrace Verbal Behavior[36:18]. Perhaps most troublesome to the behavior analysts of the time was that Verbal Behavior was speculative and did not contain experimental data .The lack of research on verbal behavior continued to concern behavior analysts well into the 1980s [13:45].

However, this situation now appears to be changing, and a number of advances in research and applications directly relate to Verbal Behavior [35:9]. Many of these advances are published in the journal, The Analysis of Verbal Behavior. Skinner proposed that language is learned behavior, and that it is acquired, extended, and maintained by the same types of environmental

variables and principles that control nonlanguage behavior (e.g., stimulus control, motivating operations, reinforcement, extinction). He defined verbal behavior as behavior that is reinforced through the mediation of another person's behavior. For example, the verbal response "Open the door" can produce the reinforcer of an open door mediated through the behavior of a listener. This reinforcer is indirectly obtained, but is the same reinforcer that could be obtained nonverbally by opening the door. Skinner [7:19] defined verbal behavior by the function of the response, rather than by its form. Thus, any response form can become verbal based on Skinner's functional definition. For example, the early differential crying of a 2-month-old infant may be verbal, as would other responses such as pointing, clapping for attention, gestures such as waving one's arm for attention, writing, or typing. In other words, verbal behavior involves a social interaction between a speaker and a listener.

The definition of verbal behavior makes a clear distinction between the behavior of the speaker and that of the listener. Verbal behavior involves social interactions between speakers and listeners, whereby speakers gain access to reinforcement and control their environment through the behavior of listeners. In contrast with most approaches to language, Skinner's verbal behavior is primarily concerned with the behavior of the speaker. He avoided terms such as expressive language and receptive language because of the implication that these are merely different manifestations of the same underlying cognitive processes.

The listener must learn how to reinforce the speaker's verbal behavior, meaning that listeners are taught to respond to words and interact with speakers. It is important to teach a child to react appropriately to the verbal stimuli provided by speakers, and to behave verbally as a speaker. These are different functions, however. In some cases learning one type of behavior (i.e., speaker or listener) facilitates learning another, but this must also be understood in terms of motivating operations, antecedent stimuli, responses, and consequences rather than in terms of learning the meanings of words as a listener and then using the

words in various ways as a speaker. When we search for what to call the subject matter of his analysis of language, we could see that Skinner wanted a term that (a) emphasized the individual speaker, (b) referred to behavior that was selected and maintained by consequences; and (c) was relatively unfamiliar in the professions of speech and language. He selected the term verbal behavior. However, in recent years verbal behavior has acquired a new meaning, independent from Skinner's usage. In the field of speech pathology, verbal behavior has become synonymous with vocal behavior. Also, in psychology, the term nonverbal communication, which became popular in the 1970 was contrasted with the term verbal behavior, implying that verbal behavior was vocal communication and nonverbal behavior was non vocal communication. The term verbal has also been contrasted with quantitative as in GRE and SAT tests for college admissions. This distinction suggests that mathematical behavior is not verbal.

However, as to Skinner's definition, much of mathematical behavior is verbal behavior. Noting that verbal behavior includes vocal-verbal behavior and non vocal verbal behaviors sometimes confusing for those learning to use Skinner's analysis. The unit of analysis of verbal behavior is the functional relation between a type of responding and the same in-dependent variables that control nonverbal behavior, namely

- a) motivating variables;
- b) discriminative stimuli;
- c) consequences.

Skinner referred to this unit as a verbal operant, with operant implying a type or class of behavior as distinct from a particular response instance; and he referred to a set of such units of a particular person as a verbal repertoire. The verbal repertoire can be contrasted with the units in linguistics that consists of

words, phrases, sentences, and the mean length of utterances as we have seen above.

## **1.2. Classification of verbal behavior as a means of communication**

Thus, Skinner's use of the term verbal referred to both vocal and nonvocal functions of communication (i.e., gestures, signs, and speech) from the perspective of the speaker. In our application of Skinner's [32:501] verbal operants, we divide both communicative and non-communicative instructional goals into form and function. Form refers to the topography or structure of language or specific responses such as words, signs, or symbols, and function refers to the effects of the behavior. A child may emit the vocal/sign/symbol "milk," but we need to know the function of this form for the child. It is the function that determined Skinner's [31:40] elementary verbal operants. They are: echoics, mands, tacts, intraverbals, textual responses, and autoclitics. More importantly, by identifying these as operants, Skinner paved the way for identifying the controlling variables for the operants and subsequently providing the means for inducing them when individuals did not have them. The following is an overview of Skinner's theory, one that is necessarily superficial. In the following we will make a short analysis to these verbal operants.

The mand is a type of verbal operant in which a speaker asks for (or states, demands, implies, etc.) what he needs or wants. For example, the behavior of asking for directions when lost is a mand. Skinner [31:48] selected the term mand for this type of verbal relation because the term is conveniently brief and is similar to the plain English words command, demand, and countermand. The mand is a verbal operant for which the form of the response is under the functional control of motivating operations (MOs) and specific reinforcement. For example, food deprivation will (a) make food effective as reinforcement and (b) evoke behavior such as the mand "cookie" if this behavior has produced cookies in the past.

The specific reinforcement that strengthens a mand is directly related to

the relevant MO. For example, if there is an MO for physical contact with one's mother, the specific reinforcement that is established is physical contact. The response form may occur in several topographical variations such as crying, pushing a sibling, reaching up, and saying "hug." All of these behaviors could be mands for physical contact if functional relations exist among the MO, the response, and the specific reinforcement history. However, the response form alone is insufficient for the classification of a mand, or any other verbal operant. For example, crying could also be a respondent behavior if it were elicited by a conditioned or unconditioned stimulus.

Mands are very important for the early development of language and for the day-to-day verbal interactions of children and adults. Mands are the first verbal operant acquired by a human child [17:22]. These early mands usually occur in the form of differential crying when a child is hungry, tired, in pain, cold, or afraid; or wants toys, attention, help, movement of objects and people, directions, or the removal of aversive stimuli. Typically developing children soon learn to replace crying with words and signs or other standard forms of communication. Manding not only lets children control the delivery of reinforcers, but it begins to establish the speaker and listener roles that are essential for further verbal development. Skinner pointed out that the mand is the only type of verbal behavior that directly benefits the speaker, meaning that the mand gets the speaker reinforcers such as edibles, toys, attention, or the removal of aversive stimuli. As a result, mands often become strong forms of verbal behavior because of specific reinforcement, and this reinforcement often satisfies an immediate deprivation condition or removes some aversive stimulus. For example, young children often engage in a very high rate of manding because of its effects on listeners. In addition, much of the problem behaviors of children who have weak, delayed, or defective verbal repertoires may be mands [17:44]. Eventually, a child learns to mand for verbal information with who, what, and where questions, and the acquisition of new verbal behavior

accelerates rapidly [10:69]. Ultimately, mands become quite complex and play a critical role in social interaction, conversation, academic behavior, employment, and virtually every aspect of human behavior.

The tact is a type of verbal operant in which a speaker names things and actions that the speaker has direct contact with through any of the sense modes. For example, a child saying “car” because he sees a car is a tact. Skinner selected the term tact because it suggests making contact with the physical environment.

The tact is a verbal operant under the functional control of a nonverbal discriminative stimulus, and it produces generalized conditioned reinforcement.

A nonverbal stimulus becomes a discriminative stimulus (SD) with the process of discrimination training. For example, a shoe may not function as an SD for the verbal response “shoe” until after saying “shoe” in the presence of a shoe produces differential reinforcement. A wide variety of nonverbal stimuli evoke tact relations. For example, a cake produces nonverbal visual, tactile, olfactory, and gustatory stimuli, any or all of which can become SDs for the tact “cake.” example, static (nouns), transitory (verbs), relations between objects (prepositions), properties of objects (adjectives), or properties of actions (adverbs); that is, nonverbal stimuli can be as simple as a shoe, or as complex as a cancerous cell. A stimulus configuration may have multiple nonverbal properties, and a response may be under the control of those multiple properties, as in the tact “The red truck is on the little table.” Nonverbal stimuli may be observable or unobservable (e.g., pain), subtle or salient (e.g., neon lights), relational to other nonverbal stimuli (e.g., size), and so on. Given the variation and ubiquity of nonverbal stimuli, it is no surprise that the tact is a primary topic in the study of language.

The echoic is a type of verbal operant that occurs when a speaker repeats the verbal behavior of another speaker. For example, a child saying “cookie”

after hearing the word spoken by her mother is echoic. Repeating the words, phrases, and vocal behavior of others, which is common in day-to-day discourse, is echoic also. The echoic operant is controlled by a verbal discriminative stimulus that has point-to-point correspondence and formal similarity with the response. Point-to-point correspondence between the stimulus and the response or response product occurs when the beginning, middle, and end of the verbal stimulus matches the beginning, middle, and end of the response. Formal similarity occurs when the controlling antecedent stimulus and the response or response product (a) share the same sense mode (e.g., both stimulus and response are visual, auditory, or tactile) and (b) physically resemble each other (Michael, 1982). In the echoic relation the stimulus is auditory and the response produces an auditory product (echoing what one hears), and the stimulus and the response physically resemble each other.

Echoic behavior produces generalized conditioned reinforcement such as praise and attention. The ability to echo the phonemes and words of others is essential for learning to identify objects and actions. A parent might say, "That's a bear, can you say bear?" If the child can respond "bear," then the parent says "Right!" Eventually, the child learns to name a bear without the echoic prompt. This often occurs in a few trials. For example, if a child can say "bear" (or a reasonable approximation) after a parent says "bear," then it becomes possible to teach the child to say "bear" in the presence of a picture of a bear or a bear at the zoo. The echoic repertoire is very important for teaching language to children with language delays, and it serves a critical role in the process of teaching more complex verbal skills [37:211]. Motor imitations can have the same verbal properties as echoic behavior as demonstrated by their role in the acquisition of sign language by children who are deaf. For example, a child may learn to imitate the sign for cookie first, and then mand for cookie without an imitative prompt. Imitation is also critical for teaching sign language to hearing children who are non vocal. For the many children who do not have an adequate echoic

repertoire for vocal language instruction, time is spent teaching echoic behavior rather than more useful types of verbal behavior. A strong imitative repertoire permits a teacher to use sign language immediately to instruct more advanced forms of language (e.g., mands, tacts, and intraverbals). This allows a child to learn quickly to communicate with others without using inappropriate behavior (e.g., a tantrum) to get what he wants. Skinner also presented copying a text as a type of verbal behavior in which a written verbal stimulus has point-to-point correspondence and formal similarity with a written verbal response. Because this relation has the same defining features as echoic and imitation as it relates to sign language, the three will be treated as one category, echoic.

The intraverbal is a type of verbal operant in which a speaker differentially responds to the verbal behavior of others. For example, saying “the Buckeyes” as a result of hearing someone else say “Who won the game Saturday?” is intraverbal behavior. Typically developing children emit a high frequency of intraverbal responses in the form of singing songs, telling stories, describing activities, and explaining problems. Intraverbal responses are also important components of many normal intellectual repertoires, such as saying “Sacramento” as a result of hearing “What is the capital of California?”; saying “sixty-four” as a result of hearing “eight times eight”; or saying “antecedent, behavior, and consequence” when asked, “What is the three-term contingency?” The intraverbal repertoires of typical adult speakers include hundreds of thousands of such relations. The intraverbal operant occurs when a verbal discriminative stimulus evokes a verbal response that does not have point-to-point correspondence with the verbal stimulus. That is, the verbal stimulus and the verbal response do not match each other, as they do in the echoic and textual relations. Like all verbal operants except the mand, the intraverbal produces generalized conditioned reinforcement. For example, in the educational context, the reinforcement for correct answers usually involves some form of generalized conditioned reinforcement such as “Right!” or points, or the opportunity to move

to the next problem or item. An intraverbal repertoire facilitates the acquisition of other verbal and nonverbal behavior. Intraverbal behavior prepares a speaker to respond rapidly and accurately with respect to further stimulation, and plays an important role in continuing a conversation. For example, a child hears an adult speaker say “farm” in some context. If the stimulus farm evokes several relevant intraverbal responses, such as “barn,” “cow,” “rooster,” or “horse,” then a child is better able to react to other parts of an adult’s verbal behavior that may be related to a recent trip to a farm. One might say that the child is now thinking about farms and now has relevant verbal responses at strength for further responses to the adult’s verbal behavior. An intraverbal stimulus probes the listener’s repertoire and gets it ready for further stimulation.

Collectively, mands, tacts, and intraverbals contribute to a conversation in the following ways: (a) A mand repertoire allows a speaker to ask questions, (b) a tact repertoire permits verbal behavior about an object or event that is actually present, and (c) an intraverbal repertoire allows a speaker to answer questions and to talk about (and think about) objects and events that are not physically present.

Textual behavior is reading, without any implications that the reader understands what is being read. Understanding what is read usually involves other verbal and nonverbal operants such as intraverbal behavior and receptive language (e.g., following instructions, compliance). For example, saying “shoe” upon seeing the written word shoes textual behavior. Understanding that shoes go on a person’s feet is not textual. Understanding is typically identified as reading comprehension. Skinner chose the term textual because the term reading refers to many processes at the same time. The textual operant has point-to-point correspondence, but not formal similarity, between the stimulus and the response product. For example, (a) the verbal stimuli are visual or tactual (i.e., in one modality) and the response is auditory (i.e., another modality) and (b) the auditory response matches the visual or tactual stimuli. Table 25.2 presents a

diagram of the textual relation. Textuals and echoics are similar in three respects (a) They both produce generalized conditioned reinforcement, (b) both are controlled by antecedent verbal stimuli, and (c) there is point-to-point correspondence between the antecedent stimulus and the response. The important difference between textuals and echoics is that the response product of textual behavior (e.g., the spoken word) is not similar to its controlling stimulus (e.g., the written word evokes a spoken response or auditory response product). The textual operant does not have formal similarity, meaning that the SDs are not in the same sense mode and do not physically resemble the textual response. Words are visual and comprised of individual letters, whereas the reading response produces an auditory response product (which often is covert) comprising phonemes. The echoic response product, however, does have formal similarity with its controlling verbal stimulus.

Transcription consists of writing and spelling words that are spoken. Skinner also referred to this behavior as taking dictation, with the key repertoires involving not only the manual production of letters, but also accurate spelling of the spoken word. In technical terms, transcription is a type of verbal behavior in which a spoken verbal stimulus controls a written, typed, or finger-spelled response. Like the textual operant, there is point-to-point correspondence between the stimulus and the response product, but no formal similarity. For example, when asked to spell the spoken word “hat,” a response h-a-t is a transcription. The stimulus and the response product have point-to-point correspondence, but they are not in the same sense mode or do not physically resemble each other. Spelling English word is a difficult repertoire to acquire. Because many words in the English language are not spelled the way they sound, shaping an appropriate discriminative repertoire is often difficult.

### **1.3. Functional features and intercultural aspects of verbal behaviour**

Theories come in all forms and styles. Skinner’s theory of the primary

processes underlying behavioral phenomena was a sprawling affair. He constructed it over many years. He added data and insights as he went along. Driven by what he encountered in his laboratory experiments, by and large he theorized inductively. What he encountered changed his experimental efforts. He altered apparatus. He modified contingency requirements. Only later did he change species, from rats to pigeons, but the contingency processes producing similar behavioral properties proved to be the same. The theory of behavior that resulted was cast over many articles starting with *The Generic Nature of the Concepts of Stimulus and Response* (1935), essentially a rewriting of his thesis, and finding expression in book form such as *The Behavior of Organisms* (1938), *Schedules of Reinforcement* (1957), and *Contingencies of Reinforcement, A Theoretical Analysis* (1969). These touched on every topic dealing with behavior. But the shape of the theory was never really completed. The manner of presentation of the theory was never a unitary one. The interpretation of verbal behavior also was constructed over many years, but in contrast had a single inclusive expression. In his autobiography Skinner describes working inductively, arranging and rearranging both facts and categories. But the conceptual frame was by and large taken from the experimental analysis of his laboratory work. Obtained from the actions of organisms dealing with their physical surroundings, these established relations were altered to fit the new requirements posed by a social datum. Though behavioral, language is a cultural phenomenon not a biological or physical one. The fact that language requires a biological and physical substrate is not its crucial distinction. These substrates may be necessary but not sufficient, just as it is necessary to have a pair of legs to walk to the store but that does not provide the sufficient reason why one did so. Without a social community that generationally transmits the behavior acquired by others in the group, no language is possible. Verbal behavior, the individual speaker's voicing of language, develops through its contact with the behavior of others whose behavior, in turn, developed through its contact with its social, biological, and physical world. Skinner therefore dealt with a second

order type of behavior mutually and concurrently controlled by surrounding physical and biological events, internal and external, and by an ambient culture, socially conveyed. In this overlaid intersect of nature and culture, the behavioral processes discovered in the laboratory turned out to be applicable. Since culture is an extensive elaboration of behavioral relations, verbal behavior exhibited a labyrinthine complexity perhaps greater than its nonverbal counterpart. But the same processes were at work. What was required was to interpret this communal complexity within the framework of his theory.

In the singular setting of *Verbal Behavior*, Skinner provided that interpretation. Built inductively, it presents its propositions deductively. With respect to Skinner's "reputation" as a non theorist, such a format is ironic. It should not have been unanticipated for there is a touch of the deductive mode in *The Behavior of Organisms*, the book establishing the experimental foundations of his theory. In *Verbal Behavior* there is no such commentary of such laws or even of the basic experimental work with tables, graphs, and equations that underlies the analysis of language to follow. Grammatical form is especially important in writing where the reader quite often does not observe, much less contact, the contingencies over the writer's verbal forms.

In conversation, the mediator picks up cues from facial, vocal, and body expressions as well as from immediate events. The requirements of proper verbal form are therefore not as stringent. When we have achieved a functional analysis can we fairly insist upon the behavioral nature of linguistic processes. Merely to point to the physiological substrate is not enough, since as we have seen all the old explanatory fictions may still be brought in. But in a functional analysis the fictions are dispossessed. The independent variables are the "causes" of verbal behavior in lieu of which meanings and ideas have served. This fact has been recognized by those who have wished to convert a theory of meaning into a causal science. Certain liberal theories have attempted to embrace the empirical field by an enlargement of definition. If meaning is

defined, for example, as "all the conditions which are responsible for an utterance," it will cover the present formulation. But it is questionable whether "meaning" then has any meaning at all. In any case it has the objectionable effect of suggesting that a unitary and coherent entity is at work. And there is always the danger that older definitions will come to life. It is safer to drop the term altogether. To undertake to predict and control verbal behavior is a much more ambitious program than to characterize it by applying general principles. If the program can be carried out, it will apparently leave no question in the field unanswered. In accounting for the emission of verbal behavior, we shall at the same time have accounted for its more general characteristics. But we do not, of course, undertake to predict the verbal behavior of an individual in its entirety.

We are never in possession of the relevant information, and could not handle it if we were. But this is the case in any science, no matter how exact. Physicists do not predict trajectories while playing tennis, nor does the chemist at dinner account for the surface tension of his soup. Science eventually compels us to believe that events are lawful, whether the lawfulness is proved in a particular case or not, by demonstrating lawful relations, usually under controlled conditions, in the case of a sufficient variety of events which we accept as typical.

A similar program is not implausible in the verbal field. There are instances in which we are able to predict the form of a verbal response or its probability of occurrence with satisfactory precision. This may be done by manipulating certain variables to force the behavior or by analysing variables which we can measure but not control. Some of our predictions may hold for single cases. In less favorable circumstances, they may be statistical. We may often make a reasonable use of relations which merely seem plausible from our everyday experience. This will be especially true in the early stages where the task is to discover the basic structure of the science. The value of the verbal response which asserts is demonstrated by the enormous collection of the

records of such assertions. Human knowledge, apart from the behavior of the individual, is almost entirely in this from copybook maxims to theoretical physics. It is one of the tasks of a science of verbal behavior to clarify the nature of such material, as we shall see next week.

### **Conclusion**

To sum up, then, whenever a verbal stimulus acts upon a speaker we expect some measure of control. Some of his responses may show a point-to-point correspondence with verbal stimuli, when the behavior is echoic or textual, or they may be formally unrelated but nonetheless determined, when they are intraverbal. Verbal stimuli do not have an all-or-none eliciting effect; they simply make certain forms of response more likely to occur. This is the fact which we use either to control verbal behavior, as when we wish to generate a particular response, or to interpret behavior which we have merely observed under verbal circumstances. Verbal behavior is verbal behavior, whether audible or not. In accounting for it, we shall at the same time be accounting for much of what has previously been dealt with as thought. But we must not make the mistake of supposing that thinking is therefore necessarily verbal. This supposition has followed as a natural consequence of the assumption that thinking goes on inside the organism. When one begins to look inside, to see what one is doing even when motionless, one is

likely to hit upon verbal behavior, because it is successful in the covert form. We cannot easily turn a cartwheel or drive a car "silently," because these behaviors depend upon the participation of the physical environment. Verbal behavior, when it does not use a medium, can be emitted under any circumstances. Moreover, we are likely to discover the verbal case during our inner explorations because it is easy to report. The description of verbal behavior is unique among scientific practices because of the strict point-to-point correspondence between "terms" and "things." It is easier to report I said to myself "That's ridiculous" than to describe covert non-verbal behavior which

may have been evoked under the same circumstances. Perhaps another reason why thought is so often discovered to be verbal is that many problems are solved by precurent verbal steps even when

the final overt response is nonverbal. But any response can be reduced in scope until it is by definition covert. Most people can turn some sort of elliptical cartwheel privately, and we discover that we are driving from the back seat when, in an emergency, we break into overt form and press our feet against the floor to stop the car. The layman's use of I think covers this kind of behavior. I think I shall be going can be translated I find myself going, I seem to be going, or I am on the point of going. It would be awkward to interpret this by saying that the behavior of going gives rise to the verbal response I am going and that this is qualified by the response I think. It seems to be the nonverbal behavior which is described. The layman also uses I think to describe overt behavior. I thought he was listening can be translated I acted as if he were listening. And the admirable expression noted several weeks ago, exemplified by the thought occurred to me to try the door. It was unlocked reports in non committal terms the appearance in the speaker's behavior of the nonverbal act trying the door.

## CHAPTER II. THEORETICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE INVESTIGATION

### 2.1. Properties of nonverbal behaviour and form of language

Many negotiators think of communication only as oral or written verbal exchanges. But verbal exchanges account for only a fraction of the messages people send and receive. Research has shown that between 70 and 90 percent of the entire communication spectrum is nonverbal. Consequently, you should be aware of the different forms of nonverbal communication that you are likely to encounter during negotiation conferences. Although we continually send and receive nonverbal messages, most of us are not fully aware of the ways that we communicate nonverbally. Still, if you watch carefully, you will see that most leading professionals (e.g., doctors, lawyers, politicians, corporate chief executive officers, and contract negotiators) are excellent nonverbal communicators. Some people call it charisma. Others call it style. Whatever it is, they have it.

If you are only aware of a negotiator's verbal message, you will likely miss the major portion of the overall communication. Being aware of both nonverbal and verbal messages will give you an important edge.

Skills in interpreting nonverbal communications will help you glean useful information from others involved in the negotiation.

An awareness of nonverbal communication may also prevent you from harming your own negotiation position by inadvertently sending nonverbal signals that disclose confidential information or weaknesses in your position. Areas of Nonverbal Communication.

Nonverbal communications include all forms of communication that are not part of the language that we speak or write. There are many ways that we reveal ourselves nonverbally. This text will concentrate on the three areas of nonverbal communication that will most likely affect contract negotiations:

Body language (kinesic communication) using facial expressions, body movements, gestures, and posture; Physical environment (proxemic communication) using available space, distance from or proximity to other people, and territorial control; and Personal attributes such as: Physical appearance (artifactual communication) including all options that communicators use to modify their appearance; Vocal cues (auditory communication); and Touch (tactile communication) particularly the handshake.

Nonverbal communications can involve conscious or subliminal messages. Conscious nonverbal communications. Senders of conscious nonverbal communications are aware that they are sending a message and the general meaning of that message. For example, the individuals extending a hug know that they are embracing someone and that action is normally perceived as indicating affection. Receivers of conscious nonverbal communication are aware that they received the message and the meaning intended by the sender. The receiver of a hug, for example, generally realizes that the message is a sign of friendship.

Subliminal messages are communicated to the subconscious mind of the receiver. Receivers of subliminal messages are not consciously aware of the message. However, these messages are important. Gut reactions are frequently based upon your subconscious reading of subliminal nonverbal communications. Police and military uniforms subliminally communicate the authority of those wearing them. Well-dressed executives project success and credibility. Poor dress transmits messages of failure and a lack of credibility. Although subliminal messages do not create awareness on a conscious level, they still influence the receiver. In fact, subliminal messages are often more powerful than conscious messages. The advertising world is replete with examples of the value of subliminal nonverbal

messages. Young, beautiful people are often seen in advertisements to communicate the subconscious message that the advertised product is associated

with youth and beauty. Companies pay large sums of money to have their products appear in movies. While these appearances are not typical product advertisements, the mere association of the product with the movie transmits subliminal messages that will influence viewers. Voluntary or Involuntary Messages. Conscious and

subliminal messages can both be transmitted voluntarily or involuntarily.

Most nonverbal messages are involuntarily. In fact, many negotiators are not aware that they communicate nonverbally. Body language is one area where the involuntary nature of nonverbal communication is particularly evident. Every day, people unintentionally convey nonverbal signals by their facial expressions, gestures, and body postures. For example, people telling falsehoods often involuntarily send a telltale nonverbal message to listeners by frequently blinking their eyes. Because involuntary nonverbal communications represent unplanned physical responses, this communication form tends to be particularly revealing and more honest than verbal communication or even conscious nonverbal communication.

Nonverbal communication can also be controlled by a knowledgeable person. A person who knows that people telling falsehoods often blink their eyes can take special care not to blink when telling a falsehood. A person who knows that a hug indicates friendship can consciously hug his/her worst enemy as trick to put the person off guard or as part of an effort to improve their relationship. Interpreting Nonverbal Messages. You must interpret nonverbal messages as part of the overall communication system. Typically, an individual nonverbal message is difficult to accurately interpret in isolation because most messages have several possible meanings. For example: A yawn might indicate a lack of interest, physical fatigue, or both. Rapid eye blinking might indicate deceit or just poor fitting contact lenses.

A nonverbal message is easiest to interpret when it is consistent with other communications that you are receiving at the same time. For example, you might be more likely to interpret rapid eye blinking as indicative of dishonesty if the person also avoids eye contact while speaking. An inconsistent nonverbal message may be impossible to interpret. However, an apparently negative nonverbal message should raise a red flag indicating that you should look more carefully for related verbal or nonverbal clues. Look for messages that correlate with each other so that you can make a more accurate interpretation. There are several types of Non verbal communication: Kinesics, Proxemics, Chronemics, Oculistics, Haptics.

Kinesics movement of the body (head, arms, legs, etc.). For example, the gesture of slitting one's throat in America means "I've had enough" or "I'm in trouble" in Swaziland means "I love you".

Proxemics is the use of interpersonal space. For example Greeks and South Americans find it comfortable to stand, sit or talk to people at a distance which seems to North Americans and some Europeans intolerably close. [19:83] The closeness of Greeks and South Americans is unusual to Europeans and North Americans and it causes them to have the feelings of hostility, discomfort and intimidation. However if Americans back away to their distance of comfort they'll be perceived as cold, unfriendly and distrustful.

Chronemics is the timing of verbal exchanges during conversation. Americans expect their partner to respond to their statement immediately. But, for example in eastern cultures, in Japan or China, they leave silence between each statement.

For Americans this silence is unsettling and the person might seem shy, inattentive or nervous. In intercultural situation, it might be best for the visitor to tolerate the silence and wait for a response.

Oculistics is eye-to-eye contact or avoidance. Eye contact is very important in

communication. People use their eyes to show interest. It is considered impolite to fix one's eyes on somebody but some eyecontact is necessary to show that your interest and attention.

Haptic is the tactile form of communication. Where, how and how often people can touch each other while having a conversation are culturally defined patterns. [11:162]. Italians and people in Latin America touch each other more often than Americans and the English. It also depends on the kind of communication situation one is in. For example, in Russia among close friends and the family touching is quite common, whereas at work it is not appropriate at all.

According to such scholar as Ahmed A. Khan "nonverbal communication means communication which is independent of a formal language, communication whereby ideas and concepts can be expressed without the use of coherent labels." [23:47]. Professor G.E. Kreidlin in his book "Men and women in non-verbal communication" (2005) considered it as: "... a real and not an illusive contact between people". In his another book "Nonverbal Semiotics" he states that: "non-verbal communication is one of the most important field of signs functioning and information, it plays a significant role in a man's life". G.A. Miller gives the following definitions of it: "nonverbal communication consists of all the messages other than words that are used in communication. In oral communication, these symbolic messages are transferred by means of intonation, tone of voice, vocally produced noises, body posture, facial expressions or pauses. D. Leathers in his book "Successful Nonverbal Communication: Principles and Applications" (1997) defines non-verbal communication "as the process by which nonverbal behaviors are used, either singly or in combination with verbal behaviors, in the exchange and interpretation of messages within a given situation or context." [27:56] He views the communication as a type of some matrix and distincts between verbal and non-verbal behaviors that can be divided into vocal and non-vocal

behaviors. Such researchers of non-verbal communication as M. Wiener, S. Devoe, and Geller J. view it as “the most basic form of communication”. According to their studies, non-verbal communication differs from verbal in fundamental ways – “it is less structured and thus it makes it more difficult to study”. And what is worth mentioning is that the researchers stated the main difference of non-verbal communication – “it differs in terms of intent and spontaneity”[11:153]. Indeed when we say: “please open the door”, we have a conscious purpose. We think about the message, if only for a moment. But when we communicate nonverbally, we sometimes do so unconsciously. We do not mean to raise an eyebrow or blush. Those actions come naturally; without our consent, our emotions are written on our faces.

## **2.2. The role of culture in the nonverbal communication process**

With verbal communication, culture influences nonverbal behaviors in profound ways. By far the largest research literature on this topic is related to facial expressions of emotion, which I review later in this chapter. In this section, I highlight briefly the role of culture on other types of nonverbal behaviors before turning to the larger discussion of culture and emotional expressions. Culture and Gestures. The study of culture and gestures has its roots in the study by David Efron [24:256], who examined the gestures of Sicilian and Lithuanian Jewish immigrants in New York City. Efron found that there were distinct gestures among traditional Jews and Italians but that the traditional gestures disappeared as people were more assimilated into the larger American culture.

This work was followed initially by that of Ekman and his colleagues [34:67], who documented cultural differences in emblematic gestures between Japanese, Americans, and New Guineans. Morris and his colleagues [14:126] have also well documented many cultural differences in gestures. The American OK sign, for example, is an obscene gesture in many cultures of Europe, having sexual implications. Placing both hands at the side of one’s head and pointing upward with the forefingers signals one is angry in some cultures; in others,

however, it means that one wants sex. Culture and Gaze. Research on human and nonhuman primates has shown that gaze is associated with dominance, power, or aggression and affiliation and nurturance. Fehr and Exline suggested that the affiliative aspects of gazing begin in infancy, as infants attend to adults as their source of care and protection. Cultures create rules concerning gazing and visual attention, however, because both aggression and affiliation are behavioral tendencies that are important for group stability and maintenance. Cross-cultural research has documented differences in these rules. Arabs, for example, have been found to gaze much longer and more directly at their partners than do Americans. [7:91] Watson (1970), who classified 30 countries as either a “contact” culture (those that facilitated physical touch or contact during interaction) or a “non contact” culture, found that contact culture engaged in more gazing and had more direct orientations when interacting with others, less interpersonal distance, and more touching. Within the United States, there are also differences in gaze and visual behavior between different ethnic groups. Culture and Interpersonal Space. Hall [7:9] specified four different levels of interpersonal space use depending on social relationship type: intimate, personal, social, and public. Whereas people of all cultures seem to make these distinctions, they differ in the spaces they attribute to them. Arab males, for example, tend to sit closer to each other than American males, with more direct, confrontational types of body orientations (Watson & Graves, 1966). They also were found to use greater eye contact and to speak in louder voices. Arabs, at least in the past, learned to interact with others at distances close enough to feel the other person’s breath [7:13] Furthermore, Latin Americans tend to interact more closely than do students of European backgrounds and Indonesians tend to sit closer than Australians. Italians interact more closely than either Germans or American and Colombians were found to interact at closer distances than did Costa Ricans. Culture and Other Nonverbal Behaviors. Other studies have documented cultural differences in other nonverbal behaviors as well, such as in the semantic meanings attributed to body postures and vocal characteristics and

hand and arm movements. Collectively, the evidence provides more than ample support for the contention that culture plays a large role in molding our nonverbal behaviors, which comprise an important part of the communication process. The largest research literature in the area of culture and nonverbal behavior, however, concerns facial expressions of emotion. In the next section, I review the most relevant research in this area of study, illustrating the universal and culture-specific aspects of both the encoding and decoding of facial expressions of emotion.

### Cultural Differences.

Always consider cultural differences when you send or receive nonverbal messages. A message that has a particular meaning in one society can have a completely different meaning in another society. For example, in the United States we encourage eye contact as an indicator of honesty and interest. People in some other societies believe that they should look down when talking to another person to indicate deference and respect. For them, direct eye contact might be considered offensive and disrespectful.

### Body Language and Attitudes.

Body language research has catalogued 135 distinct gestures and expressions of the face, head, and body. Eighty of these expressions were face and head gestures, including nine different ways of smiling. These gestures and expressions provide insight into the attitude of the originator. Simultaneous physical signals often reinforce each other and reduce the ambiguity surrounding the message. For example, eagerness is often exhibited with the simultaneous physical displays of excessive smiling along with frequent nodding of the head. Common attitudes communicated nonverbally during negotiations can be grouped into two broad classifications: positive attitudes and negative attitudes.

Despite the existence of universal facial expressions of emotion, people around the world do express emotions differently. The first evidence for cultural differences in expression was Friesen's [8:98] study, in which the spontaneous expressions of Americans and Japanese were examined as they viewed highly

stressful films in two conditions, first alone and then a second time in the presence of an older, male experimenter. In the first condition, the American and Japanese participants were similar in their expressions of disgust, sadness, fear, and anger; in the second condition, however, cultural differences emerged. Whereas the Americans continued to express their negative emotions, the Japanese were more likely to smile. Other researchers have also examined cultural differences in emotional expression [25:98]. A recent study from my laboratory extended Ekman and Friesen's original findings. In this study European American females were classified as either individualistic or collectivistic based on their responses to an individual difference measure[27:35] and were then video-taped unobtrusively as they watched films designed to elicit positive and negative emotion, first alone and then in the presence of an experimenter. They self rated their emotional responses to both films in both conditions, and samples of their emotional expressions were judged by a separate group of decoders. Both individualists and collectivists experienced the films as intended, and there was no difference in their expressions when they be alone. However, the collectivists attenuated their negative expressions and more often masked them with smiles.

This finding is the same that Ekman and Friesen [4:56] reported previously, and the remarkable thing about this study is that the entire sample was of European American females who were classified based solely on their responses to a questionnaire assessing individualism and collectivism. The collectivists also attenuated their expressions of positive emotion when in the presence of the experimenter (Ekman and Friesen's studies did not test positive emotions); thus, the effects of culture on expression were not limited to negative emotions. Ekman and Friesen coined the term cultural display rules to account for cultural differences in facial expressions of emotion. These are rules learned early in childhood that help individuals manage and modify their emotional expressions depending on social circumstances. Ekman and Friesen used the

concept to explain the American Japanese cultural differences in expression they observed, suggesting that in the first condition of their experiment there was no reason for display rules to modify expressions because the participants were alone and their display rules were inoperative; in the second condition display rules dictated that the Japanese mask their negative emotions in the presence of the experimenter [4:98]. After the original inception and documentation of display rules, published cross-cultural research was dormant until Matsumoto's study examining display rules in Americans and Japanese. Participants saw faces portraying seven emotions and rated the appropriateness of each in eight social situations involving people of varying intimacy and status. Americans rated negative emotions more appropriately than did the Japanese in groups, whereas the Japanese rated negative emotions more appropriately than Americans in out groups; the Japanese also rated negative emotions more appropriately than Americans toward lower status individuals. Matsumoto used the same methodology to document differences in display rules among four ethnic groups within the United States. When the concept of display rules was proposed originally as a mechanism of expression management, Ekman and Friesen [4:99] noted six ways in which expressions may be managed when emotion is used. Of course, individuals can express emotions as they feel them with no modification. But individuals can also amplify (exaggerate) or deamplify (minimize) their expressions; for instance, feelings of sadness may be intensified (amplification) at funerals or minimized (deamplification) at weddings. People can mask or conceal their emotions by expressing something other than what they feel, as when nurses or physicians hide their emotions when speaking with patients with terminal illness, or when employees in service industries (e.g., flight attendants) interact with customers. Individuals may also learn to neutralize their expressions, expressing nothing, such as when playing poker (poker face) and to qualify their feelings by expressing emotions in combination, such as when feelings of sadness are mixed with a smile, with the smile commenting on the sadness, saying "I'll be OK." All these behavioral

responses have been found to occur when spontaneous expressive behaviors have been studied [33:87]. Recently, my colleagues and I created the Display Rule Assessment Inventory (DRAI), in which participants choose a behavioral response when they experience different emotions in different social situations. The emotions were those that previous research has shown to be universally expressed and recognized: anger, contempt, disgust, fear, happiness, sadness, and surprise; these were selected because universality served as a basis by which to examine display rules initially and by which comparisons across cultures would be meaningful. To build internal consistency, a synonym for each emotion label was also included in the initial DRAI: hostility, defiance, aversion, worry, joy, gloom, and shock, respectively resulting in a total of 14 emotion terms.

Participants are asked to consider what they would do if they felt each emotion in four social situations: with family members, close friends, colleagues, and strangers. These categories were chosen because they represent a broad range of social categories within which people interact, and because previous research has demonstrated considerable variability in cultural values and attitudes across these social situations [23:45]. Our results showed that Russians exerted the highest control over their expressions, followed by South Koreans and Japanese; Americans had the lowest scores. Significant sex differences were also found, with females exerting more control on anger, contempt, disgust, and across all emotions when with family members, and male exerting more control on fear and surprise. The findings also indicated that expression regulation occurs in the various ways discussed earlier, and not on a simple expression suppression dimension. Additionally, there were consistent and predictable cultural differences among American, Russian, and Japanese participants. For instance, Americans and Russians both expressed anger and contempt more than Japanese. Americans expressed fear and disgust more than Russians, and Americans expressed happiness more than did Russians and Japanese. The

Japanese participants de amplified more than both the Americans and the Russians. Americans amplified more than Russians on sadness and disgust, whereas Japanese amplified surprise and fear more than Russians. Japanese qualified sadness more than Russians, but the Russians qualified their happiness more than both Japanese and Americans.

### **2.3 Gender aspects of nonverbal communication**

Before considering gender aspects we will first define the term in the following definition is representative of the current literature: Whereas sex is generally the term used to indicate biological difference, gender is the term used to indicate psychological, social and cultural difference. Gender is determined by social practice and social practice is historically located. As our understandings develop over time, research findings are interpreted differently depending on current ideologies, attitudes and viewpoints. Gender and sexual identities are constantly in a process of change in response to wider social and familial transformation.. Therefore femininity and masculinity should be seen as historically mutable [27:84]. Postmodern authors warn that "to separate the two, regarding sex as reflecting natural anatomical differences and gender as a matter of cultural identity, is ultimately inadequate and overly simplistic". The concepts of sex and gender are not fixed and static but always in process. One of the areas to which gender has been widely applied is language. Gender, language and the relation between them are all social constructs or practices, under constant development by a group of individuals united in a common activity, e.g. a family, a sports team, colleagues, etc. It is important to note that although many researchers have highlighted linguistic variations in male and female speech patterns [22:34] differences in speech patterns may be attributable also to status, age, ethnicity, geographic location and education. Both similarities and differences may be found between groups and within groups; the complexity means that overly simplistic gender attributions may be wide of the mark. Davis (cited in Claes, 1999) reminds us that generalizing about language use on the

basis of socio-cultural constructs such as gender or ethnicity is problematic and can perpetuate a stereotype based on the assumption of group homogeneity.

There are multiple interpretations of femininity and masculinity and behaviors can vary across time and context. For example, a woman in senior management may adopt a more masculine management style in order to 'fit in' with the dominant culture, sometimes becoming an 'honorary male' in the process. In addition, this co-option process may have its impact on men who may feel pressured to conform to the dominant image of an existing managerial model. Other women survive using their own communication styles in more female friendly sections of the organization, while there are others who continue to 'rock the boat' [25:134] eventually deciding to leave in search of a more supportive environment. There are currently two approaches to perceived gender differences in conversation styles: one stresses the dominance factor; the other, the cultural factor. The former focuses on the unequal distribution of power in society: men have more social power, which enables them to define and control situations. The latter stresses socialization: men and women learn different communication strategies and develop distinct conversational styles because they belong to different subcultures. As with most debates, the boundaries are blurred, and issues of power and culture intersect. There are currently two approaches to perceived gender differences in conversation styles: one stresses the dominance factor; the other, the cultural factor. Many researchers and writers agree that masculinity and femininity are not opposites, but mutually overlapping constructs with multiple masculinities and multiple femininities.

In every known body language there exist typical masculine postures, hand and head gestures (which include facial and eye gestures). According to R. Connell these are “to lean back on an easy chair, to scratch the back of the head, to rub hands, to slam fist on the table. Masculine gestures can also be the following emblem – to stroke beard or to rub one’s chin” He also specifies that it a true masculine gesture to platform one’s chin on one’s pal, when a man is

thinking; or pulls earlap, rubs forehead, cheeks or the backside of his neck. (Connell, 1995:30)

The most indicative masculine gestures we may find during flirtation. R. Connell emphasizes the following gestures: "If a man wears a tie, he would straighten it for sure. If he does not have any, he would produce many others instead. He would touch his cuff links, start smoothing his collar, adjust the lapels, and shake the dust off his shoulder. He would tidy his hair or even take a brush and start combing his hair. All this proves the fact that a man wants to look more attractive." Author considers that there are also certain aggressive masculine gestures during flirtation. Thus, showing the hands and hiding the thumbs behind the belt is an attempt to attract a woman's attention towards his genitals. The same aim a man pursues subconsciously when he leans against the wall or sits with his legs wide. Men also tend to keep greater distances between themselves and others and exhibit weaker nonverbal communication skills than do women. A man expresses his interest towards a woman when he sets his leg forward, bends his body or gives a long intimate look. If his hands are on his hips, therefore he wants to look broad and strong.

There are some other typical masculine gestures professor Kreidlin points out in behaviour of pupils. He concludes that using the following gestures boys express their strength, independence and adult. They have their hands in pockets; raise their chins with a proud posture. They show their disregard and the absence of interest towards the girls by turning away or standing half-turn when the latter come up to them. On the other hand boys always address girls but very often in aggressive way. D. Tannen defines five types of ducking that are characteristic of many cultures and nationalities during the greeting: a) a straight head; b) a head bent forward; c) a head thrown back; d) a head bent aside; e) Advanced chin. [28:111] According to their research, men prefer the first and the last way. It is typical of male behaviour to rub chin or nose to express the embarrassment; they accompany the phrase "Never!" with a shake of the head. Also we may find

in his works such male gestures as kissing hands, hand push. Sometimes people from different cultures misread an intentional signal, and sometimes they overlook the signal entirely or assume that a meaningless gesture is significant. For example, an Arab man indicates a romantic interest in a woman by running a hand backward across his hair; most Americans would dismiss this gesture as meaningless.

On the other hand, an Egyptian might mistakenly assume that a Westerner sitting with the sole of his her shoe showing is offering a grave insult. The most indicative masculine gestures we may find during flirtation. There are five types of masculinities characteristic of many cultures and nationalities during the greeting. f) a straight head; g) a head bent forward; h) a head thrown back; i) a head bent aside; j) advanced chin.

Feminine style of kinetic behaviour, as well as masculine, reflects in special gestures, postures, gaits and manners. Females' typical gestures are, for example, to do up hair, to bend one's head a bit, to walk swinging the hips, to slap in the face, to clamp one's knees, to swing one's foot.[7:89]. On his opinion the most typical combinations of feminine gestures can be seen in postures. "A woman's posture has a definite frontal orientation towards the person whom she likes and side orientation towards the person whom she dislikes. If she is interested in a person her hands are open and a bit detained from her body, there is a smile on her face. It is quite on the contrary when she dislikes the person her hands are pressed against her body, no smile on the face." Professor Kreidlin notices that it is a true feminine gesture to incline the head aside expressing her feeling towards the person she is sitting or standing with at the moment. In his books he emphasizes tempting feminine gestures and "push away" gestures.

Thus, professor Kreidlin specifies such feminine "push away" gestures as – to yawn, to frown, to shake one's head, to cross one's arms. To make a man

stop looking at her a woman often uses a gesture like to look closely at. But the most effective way, as explained by professor Kreidlin, is to use the combination of gestures. For instance, if a woman with her arms cross, turns away towards other people and crosses her legs, looks around the room or stares at the ceiling; frowns or gives the man a cold look this leaves no doubt about her intentions. As outlined in some researches most of the motion with the help of the neck can be submitted as a feminine gesture. The statistics shows that women use such gestures several times more than men. In works we come across a great deal of feminine gestures directed towards the interaction between a woman and a man. She states that the number of gestures while flirting exceeds the one men have. Gestures very often are more sophisticated and subtle therefore it causes misunderstanding. Women as well as men use almost the same gestures to attract attention they do up hair, put their thumbs behind the belt. But some gestures obtain another sense. Thus, they use the posture “hands on hips” to draw the attention to their slim body or suit. M. Argyle verifies several typical feminine gestures. Thus, to smooth one’s clothes is one of the gestures that women use to attract men’s attention. If a woman is interested in a man she will leer at him. There are such gestures as to stir one’s hair, to tidy one’s hair or to touch a necklace on one’s neck all these gestures are pointed to show a wrist. [35:106]. The author is sure that a bigger part to flirtation refers to leg gestures. To cross one’s legs slowly is directed to attract men’s attention, but clench one’s legs usually used to estrange men. Allan Pease defines the following gestures that are typical for women only. He points out that a woman sets her legs wider if there is a man near her. While walking a woman uses such gesture as to shake her hips or to rouge. He also states another feminine gesture to rub one’s nose. The meaning of it is that she is telling lies at the moment or does not trust your words. L. Carli, S. LaFleur, C. Loeber, F. Connell, R. Geiser’s study of material from newsgroups and special interest groups revealed that women used more smiles than men. Unexpectedly this study found that challenges and flaming were more common in females than in males.

## Conclusion

There are currently two approaches to perceived gender differences in conversation styles: one stresses the dominance factor; the other, the cultural factor. Many researchers and writers agree that masculinity and femininity are not opposites, but mutually overlapping constructs with multiple masculinities and multiple femininities. The most indicative masculine gestures we may find during flirtation. There are five types of masculinities characteristic of many cultures and nationalities during the greeting: k) a straight head;l) a head bent forward; m) a head thrown back;n) a head bent aside; o) advanced chin. Feminine style of kinetic behavior, as well as masculine, reflects in special gestures, postures, gaits and manners. Females' typical gestures are:a) to do up hair,b) to bend one's head a bit,c) to walk swinging the hips,d) to slap in the face,e) to clamp one's knees, f) to swing one's foot. One must be careful to keep this area in perspective and to consider nonverbal elements as only a part of the total communication effort while the nonverbal may be important, it is not always the whole story. If a person frowns while listening to you speak, it may indicate doubt or disagreement; on the other hand, the person may have a headache or the light may be bothersome. It is important for you to remain alert to nonverbal signals, but it is also essential that you decode them accurately.

Gestures can be either ambiguous or unambiguous. Point at water and then point to your mouth. This is an example of an unambiguous gesture. Another person watching you is almost certain to understand that you want to drink water. There is hardly any chance of misinterpretation here. In our everyday life, we frequently use a combination of words, gestures, and facial expressions to express our full meaning. Calling someone an "idiot" with an accompanying smile is different from saying it without a smile. In addition, gestures often have different meanings in different circumstances, depending upon various factors: cultural, geographical, social and so on [Seegerstrale,

1997:80]. For instance, if you nod by moving your head up and down, in India it means a concurrence, a "yes," whereas the same gesture in, say, Kuwait would mean the exact opposite, a dissent, a "no." In the Indian subcontinent, a woman sometimes uses the gesture of touching her forefinger to her nose to express astonishment. In the Middle East, the same gesture stands for "at your service," and can be employed by either sex, but is used predominantly by men. In Iran the gesture that stands for "at your service" is to put the palm of one's right hand over one's right eye. So differences in body language are a major source of misunderstanding.

We may also make the mistake of assuming that a non American who speaks English has mastered the body language of our culture as well. It therefore pays to learn some basic differences in the ways people supplement their words with body movement. Take the signal for no. For instance: North Americans shake their heads back and forth; the Japanese move their right hands; Sicilians raise their chins. [33:280]. We must underline the great meaning of taking eye contact. North Americans read each other through eye contact. They may assume that a person who won't meet our gaze is evasive and dishonest. But in many parts of Latin America, keeping your eyes lowered is a sign of respect. It's also a sign of respect among many black Americans, which some schoolteachers have failed to learn. When they scold their black students, saying "Look at me when I'm talking to you," they only create confusion for the children. What is polite in one country may be considered rude in another. But there are also certain patterns common with many different cultures.

## CHAPTER III. PRACTICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE INVESTIGATION

### 3.1. Extra linguistic factors of nonverbal communication

Nonverbal and verbal communication are normally inseparable, which, for example, is why it may seem so difficult to use the telephone in a foreign language. It needs to be taught and practiced situationally, in the right contexts, and with plenty of cultural input and awareness. In Arab countries, for example, it is impolite to take gifts to a man's wife but acceptable to take gifts to his children.

In Germany, giving a woman a red rose is considered a romantic invitation, inappropriate if you are trying to establish a business relationship with her. In India, you might be invited to visit someone's home "any time." Being reluctant to make an unexpected visit, you might wait to get a more definite invitation. But your failure to take the Indian literally is an insult, a sign that you do not care to develop the friendship. Wherever you are, you should not look out of place. It is necessary to wear something you look natural in, something you know how to wear and something that fits in with your surroundings. For example, a woman dressed in a tailored suit, even with high heels and flowery blouse, looks startlingly masculine in a country full of diaphanous saris. More appropriate attire might be a silky, loose-fitting dress in a bright color. With few exceptions, the general rule for business is that you should be very buttoned up: conservative suit and tie for men, dress or skirt suit for women. The different cultures an individual is involved with influence each other. When for instance a person is both a Dutchman and a rock singer, his Dutchness (language, ethics, etc) will affect his execution of his job as a singer within rock-culture and vice versa [23:13].

Nonverbal communication in business contacts is restricted by verbal means of contacts. Gestures just help to clarify confusing messages.

Among the skills necessary for successful business communication you need to learn are the following:

1. Showing respect. Learn the ways in which respect is communicated - through gestures, eye contact, and so on - in various cultures.
2. Tolerating ambiguity. Learn to control your frustration gestures when placed in an unfamiliar or confusing situation.
3. Looking beyond the superficial. Don't be distracted by such things as dress, appearance, or environmental discomforts.
4. Sending clear messages. Make your verbal and nonverbal messages consistent.

The ways of nonverbal communication differ from culture to culture. We should be aware of those differences in order not to be misunderstood and to properly understand other people. It's impossible to find pure forms of business communication. A culture has to be completely isolated and sheltered from external influences, to be able to exist in a pure form. But also within a specific culture we would find differentiation through, for example, gender, class and age. Because of these characteristics, non-verbal business communication has to be defined as 'hybrid'. The use of non-verbal means of communication by both genders during job interview:

**The general method.** The most appropriate methodology of this research was focused observation schedule with which I made a qualitative analysis based on gender and the non-verbal communication patterns observed. 2 hours long the job interview of applicants at the company "Baltic" were attended. The correspondents consisted of 10 females and 10 males. The data were analyzed according to the aforementioned nonverbal communication categories: proxemics, kinesics, haptics and artifactual communication. However, due to time constricts attention has been focused on the first two categories, proxemics

and kinesics. It is estimated that less than 10 % of interpersonal communication during the interview involved words, the remainder being made up of voice tone, sounds and a variety of devices such as kinetics (movement), haptics (touch), oculosics (eye-contact), proxemics (space) and chronemics (time) as well as posture, sound symbols and silence, which either replace or accompany words. Nonverbal communication is the unspoken communication that goes on in every face to face encounter with another human being. It tells us their true feelings towards us and how well are our words being received. Nonverbal communication remains the neglected part of teaching learning system particularly in Pakistan. By neglecting it, effective communication in the classroom is not possible which is considered essential for better understanding of classroom instructions. In the process of education Teaching is an important factor and is done by the teachers. Effective teaching is where teacher transfers subject matter to the students effectively.

The most comprehensive review of elements of teaching effectiveness was completed by Walberg [19:124], using the techniques of statistical meta-analysis, he compiled more than 3,000 studies, compiled a list of weighted factors which included engaged academic learning time, positive reinforcement utilization and cues including the feedback, co-operative learning activities, classroom atmosphere, morale, higher order questioning, and use of advance organizers. To understand how these factors fit together more clearly, Flanders clustered teacher's talking behavior into seven categories (and student's talk into two). These categories represent the most commonly observed teaching behaviors. The system of instruction proposed by Flanders not only ties seven teaching techniques into a well-knit system but it also serves as a 'bridge' between the specific teaching skills and general teaching models. Studies have shown that teachers who have positive attitudes toward the world actually employ an important set of facilitating nonverbal cues to encourage student participation and involvement. Those with negative attitudes display nonverbal

behavior designed to discourage and inhibit student involvement (Smith, 1981). Researchers could predict what type of nonverbal behavior a teacher would use if they knew the teacher's attitude set. Galloway and his colleagues (1977) developed non-verbal version of Flanders' system of instructional analysis that serves a useful frame work for analyzing teacher's nonverbal behavior. Few studies appear to have been conducted in Pakistan to investigate nonverbal behavior of teachers so as to verify its impact on students' learning. The results of research in this vital area of interest may generate useful knowledge about present status of teachers in this pedagogically important aspect that may serve as a valuable input for teacher education programmes, especially during teaching practice. However, to an ironic degree, nonverbal aspects of teaching are overlooked, though 75to 90 percent of messages are transmitted nonverbally.

As a matter of fact, words turn out to be far less important than tone of voice, face expressions, eye contact, gestures and posture of the teacher as they are strongly associated with speech information which is being imparted to students. The real meaning of the words is conveyed in the way they are actually expressed or presented. In other words, medium becomes the message. Effective teachers, like good artists, use body language and facilitate their verbal behavior, leading to better understanding and learning of the subject matter by the students. [7:99]

Verbal communication itself does not create that impact upon students' minds and hearts as does the nonverbal communication that complements the verbal message. Same verbal message may create opposite meaning and interpretation by students, the way the message is communicated through the medium of nonverbal communication. Although both the frameworks are quite old but these served as a base for the ongoing research. Flanders' work is based on direct instruction or teacher centered instructions. Similarly, Kodakos & Polemikos [20:27] conducted an experimental study on nonverbal communication at kindergarten level just to observe nonverbal relation of the

teacher and children and most importantly its relationship to their verbal behavior. Learning is a central focus of educational psychology. In the words of Santrock [20:27] learning is a relatively permanent influence on behavior, knowledge and thinking skills, which comes about through experiences. Another research by Alberts was conducted on the nearness or nonverbal immediacy within the classroom environment with the objective of finding a relationship between nonverbal communication usage and the keenness of the audience participating in discussion. A premise was made indicating that the students keenness to discuss things with a teacher within the classroom environment actually helps them improve their performance and understanding.

Galloway's work is still important frame work for description of nonverbal behavior. Although there is a paradigm shift and a movement away from direct teaching to instruction and inquiry based instruction. Teacher centered nonverbal intention is still important. While analyzing effective teaching, more emphasis in teaching effectiveness was given to the verbal aspects of teacher behavior. This is supported by Sprint hall and Sprint hall [20:27] who remarked that teaching practice and research on teaching effectiveness mainly focused on analysis and improvement of verbal behavior of teachers.

### **3.2. Base of using verbal and nonverbal units in the learning process**

#### **Verbal vs. Nonverbal communication**

We communicate with much more than words: when we interact with someone, our body has a language of its own. The way we sit, the gestures we make, the way we talk, how much eye contact we make all of these are non-verbal ways of communicating that impact the messages our words are sending. Managers who are adept at dealing with negative emotions in the workplace are mindful of how and what they communicate verbally and non-verbally. They are also receptive to the verbal and non-verbal messages of others. Perceptive

managers can go beyond the words to discover the fuller meaning of a statement by observing non-verbal communication. Our verbal messaging is communicated via the words that we use. The verbal message is of course an important part of our communication, but the way we communicate nonverbally is equally, and sometimes more, important. Nonverbal communication includes the following:

- Tone of voice
- Rate and volume of speech
- How we articulate our words
- Rhythm, intonation and stress placed on words
- Facial expression
- The amount of eye contact we make
- Gestures/touch
- Body language and posturing

Research shows that when we communicate feelings and attitudes, only a small percentage of our overall message comes from the words we use.

-55% of our message comes from body language (especially from movements of the small muscles around the eye which can convey shock, disbelief, doubt or disgust)

-38% of our message comes from tone of voice

-Only 7% of our message is conveyed by the words we use (Mehrabian, 2007)

It's not what we say, but how we say it that often matters most, especially when we communicate feelings and attitudes. Tone of voice alone can convey anger, frustration, disappointment, sarcasm, confidence, affection or indifference.

Often our verbal and non-verbal messages are consistent, but they can sometimes be inconsistent. If someone's words conflict with their tone of voice and/or non-verbal behaviours, we often mistrust the words and tend to believe the nonverbal clues instead. It's not very convincing, for example, when someone tells you they're not angry at you, but they avoid eye contact, have an angry expression on

their face, can barely force out the words, and slam their fist on the table while saying it. **Barriers to Sending Consistent Messages** We sometimes send confusing or negative non-verbal signals without knowing it. Many things can compromise our ability to communicate effectively:

**-Our stress level:** When we are experiencing personal or work related stressors, we may be more likely to misread other people's messages and to send inconsistent or negative nonverbal signals. This may make it more likely for us to display inappropriate behaviours (e.g., yelling, blaming or impatience).

**-Our well-being (psychological and/or physical):** If we are not feeling well physically or emotionally, we can be more likely to focus on the negative aspects of a conversation and we may be more likely to send negative or uncaring non-verbal signals.

**-Distraction:** If we are distracted by thoughts or our environment (e.g., looking at emails on our computer screen while speaking to a worker) our non-verbal signals almost certainly convey disinterest. We may give people the impression that we don't care or are not listening, even when this may not be true.

To be able to communicate effectively (and accurately), we must be aware of our own emotions and also understand the non-verbal signals we're sending to others. Here are some tips that can help you communicate more effectively:

If you're feeling stressed or unwell, defer having important conversations. Reducing your own stress levels can help you interact more positively and

effectively with others. Be aware if your mind is jumping to conclusions or if your face may be giving away your thoughts. To keep yourself from being distracted by or reacting to your own thoughts, try keeping your mind focused on being open and curious about what is being said, and may be said next by the person in front of you. This can prevent some of the eye movements that give away your doubt or discomfort with what is being said.

Be attentive to inconsistencies. Your nonverbal signals should reinforce what you're saying. Make sure your verbal and nonverbal messages match.

Give full attention to your communication partner. Show people you speak to that you are 'present' and eager to understand them. Convey attentiveness by:

- 1) Leaning slightly toward the other person
- 2) Facing the other person squarely
- 3) Keeping eye contact
- 4) Maintaining an open and relaxed posture (with arms uncrossed).

Give signals that express understanding. Indicate that you understand, acknowledge and care with the following non-verbal signals:

Appropriate head nodding and facial gestures; Sounds such as "ah", "hm", "oh," expressed with matching eye and facial gestures. The ability to use nonverbal signals appropriately can create trust and transparency, and therefore can have a powerful influence on the quality of our relationships at work.

One of the many challenges managers encounter in the workplace is denying workers' requests, whether the requests are unreasonable or simply infeasible, in a way that minimizes negative outcomes. It can take courage for a worker to make a request, and many workers don't do so unless they are firmly convinced their request is necessary and reasonable. Denying their request can be a blow to their ego, make them feel undervalued, and lead to a range of

negative emotions.

And yet, it would be next to impossible to say “yes” to every worker request, especially since some of their requests are bound to contradict each other (e.g., two workers want the same office). A better solution may be to find a way to meet the fundamental need or needs upon which the request was based (you may also find the exercise Understanding Basic Human Needs helpful). This can be accomplished by asking why a certain request is being made, rather than jumping to the answer ‘no’. The following two examples of how to ask why (rather than simply saying no) are adapted from Preventing Workplace Meltdown: An Employer’s Guide to Maintaining a Psychologically Safe Workplace, [20:11]. When an individual asks for something like the corner office with the window, rather than just telling them that those offices are reserved for workers with more status and seniority, try asking why they want the corner office. You may find that they have seasonal affective disorder (SAD) and require as much sunlight as possible to feel healthy and productive. By exploring the request instead of simply refusing it, you are now able to find another way to help meet their underlying need. You could, perhaps, approve the purchase of a small full spectrum light box for the worker. You may have turned a potentially negative situation into a great chance to prove that you care about the worker’s welfare. Another common example occurs when a worker asks to be transferred to another unit. If the transfer is not possible or prudent (or even if it is) you may want to ask their reason for wanting to leave, and inquire what they find unsatisfactory about their current unit. Again, this is a great opportunity to demonstrate your commitment to the worker’s well-being. Managers often note the lack of value of moving people from unit to unit in an attempt to “solve” problems. If the problem is an individual’s coping strategies, for example, their problems are highly likely to resurface after a brief honeymoon period in the new unit. If the problem happens to be the way the unit operates or interacts, it is very likely that the same problem will reappear for

another worker when the first one is gone. In either case, the problem is not “solved” by a transfer; it is just delayed or relocated. By denying the transfer and addressing the reason underlying the request, on the other hand, a manager may not only enhance the worker’s job experience and loyalty, but also resolve a problem that may have been bothering others, also. Always keep in mind that it’s best not just to say “no,” but rather to explore the request with the worker and try to find an alternative solution that will help meet his or her needs. Remember also that meeting the need can be much better than fulfilling the request. It may be easier for a worker to request a corner office than to express an unsatisfied need for recognition in the workplace. The office may be just a stand-in for a need the worker does not want to express, or possibly can’t even properly express. When a truly talented manager is able to discern workers’ unmet needs and respond to them, workers may be more content and there may be far fewer negative emotions in the workplace.

### **3.3. Impact of teacher’s nonverbal behavior on student achievement**

The statement of the problem is to “Investigate and explore the existing relationship between teachers’ nonverbal behavior and the students’ academic achievements”.

The objectives of the study were to identify, measure and compare nonverbal behavior of the teachers’ both male and female working in Federal Government Cantt Garrison schools, Army public schools and Private schools, to find out the relationship between teachers’ non-verbal behavior and students’ academic achievement and draw recommendations for teachers to develop their nonverbal behavior compatible with their verbal behavior.

Following were the research hypotheses of the study:

H1. There is significant relationship between teachers’ mean nonverbal behavior scores and their students’ achievement scores.

H2. There is significant difference between the mean non verbal behavior scores of teachers' serving in private and public sector.

H3. There is significant difference between mean nonverbal behavior scores of male and female teachers'.

H01. No significant relationship between teachers' nonverbal behavior scores and their students' achievement scores.

H02. No significant difference between the mean nonverbal behavior scores of teachers' serving in private and public sector.

H03. No significant difference between nonverbal behavior scores of male and female teachers'

Communicating effectively can be challenging when dealing with a distressed worker. You may find your own emotions interfere, making communication more complex and demanding than in calmer or more neutral situations. There are a few basic techniques or tips you can use while speaking and listening to improve your communication style when dealing with workers' negative emotions. They are easy to understand, but require some practice before you may feel that you are mastering them.

When speaking to a worker, paying attention not just to your words but also to how the overall conversation is proceeding may help you convey your message more effectively. The following tips can be helpful to keep in mind when you are the "speaker":

**Speak attentively:** Just as one listens attentively, one should also speak in the same manner, maintaining appropriate and direct eye contact and looking for body signals (facial or posture) that indicate that the other person is engaged. If the worker seems disengaged or seems to not be listening, you may need to modify your approach and also pause to inquire if you are making sense.

Phrase meaningful questions: One way to shorten a conversation (and therefore make it unproductive) is to ask questions that can be answered with “yes” or “no.” Instead, try to ask open ended questions, as this may elicit more helpful, accurate information that may help you understand the worker’s perspective.

Avoid monologues: Stick to the point and avoid overly lengthy or repetitive statements. We sometimes repeat ourselves when we feel we have not been understood. Instead of repetition, which may seem condescending, pause and allow the worker to clarify and reflect on what they hear from you.

Accept silence: Sometimes one of the best ways to make a point is to pause or leave a period of silence after speaking. This can allow you and the worker to digest what has been said. Don’t cross-examine: Avoid firing questions at the worker when attempting to gather information during a conversation. Tact and diplomacy express respect and may be far better means for learning what you need to know.

Many people listen to others, but only in the narrowest sense...they may hear the words, but they do not actually hear what others are saying. Good listening skills involve gaining a clear understanding of what is being said as well as what is intended by the speaker. The following tips may be helpful when you are in the role of “listener”:

Listen attentively: Maintain good eye contact with the worker and acknowledge that you are hearing them.

Don’t interrupt: It’s difficult to hear when you are talking yourself. It is natural to feel that you want to ‘fix’ things or that you have an effective answer. The problem is that if you have not heard all of what the person needs to say, your ‘fix’ may be for the wrong issue.

Clarify what you hear: Regularly summarize or otherwise clarify your understanding of what is being said. This may help make sure you are obtaining

the correct message. It is also important to admit if you don't understand something.

Reflect on what you hear: This differs from clarification. Reflection involves showing the worker that you are aware of or understand what they are feeling. You hold up a metaphorical mirror so the worker can see more clearly what he or she is saying and what reactions it is eliciting. It can be helpful for both parties to attempt to summarize their conversation so that no loose ends remain and both can have a clear understanding of what has been discussed. A summary can also allow you to set a direction for constructive follow up.

### Verbal Behavior and Properties of Language

1. Verbal behavior is defined as behavior that is reinforced through the mediation of another person's behavior.
2. The formal properties of verbal behavior involve the topography (i.e., form, structure) of the verbal response.
3. The functional properties of verbal behavior involve the causes (i.e., antecedents and consequences) of the response.
4. Skinner's analysis of verbal behavior was met with strong opposition from the field of linguistics, and with indifference within the field of behavior analysis. However, Skinner predicted in 1978 that Verbal Behavior would prove to be his most important work.
5. Verbal behavior involves a social interaction between speakers and listeners, whereby speakers gain access to reinforcement and control their environment through the behavior of listeners.
6. The verbal operant is the unit of analysis of verbal behavior and is the functional relation between a type of responding and (a) motivating variables, (b) discriminative stimuli, and (c) consequences.

7. A verbal repertoire is a set of verbal operants emitted by a particular person.

#### Elementary Verbal Operants.

8. The mand is a verbal operant in which the form of the response is under the functional control of motivating operations (MOs) and specific reinforcement.

9. The tact is a verbal operant under the functional control of a nonverbal discriminative stimulus, and it produces generalized conditioned reinforcement.

10. The echoic is a verbal operant that consists of a verbal discriminative stimulus that has point-to-point correspondence and formal similarity with a verbal response.

11. Point-to-point correspondence between the stimulus and the response or response product occurs when the beginning, middle, and end of the verbal stimulus matches the beginning, middle, and end of the verbal response.

12. Formal similarity occurs when the controlling antecedent stimulus and the response or response product (a) share the same sense mode (e.g., both stimulus and response are visual, auditory, or tactile) and (b) physically resemble each other.

13. The intra verbal is a verbal operant that consists of a verbal discriminative stimulus that evokes a verbal response that does not have point-to-point correspondence.

14. The textual relation is a verbal operant that consists of a verbal discriminative stimulus that has point-to-point correspondence between the stimulus and the response product, but does not have formal similarity.

15. The transcription relation is a verbal operant that consists of a verbal discriminative stimulus that controls a written, typed, or finger-spelled response. Like the textual relation, there is point-to-point correspondence between the stimulus and the response product, but no formal similarity.

## Role of the Listener

16. The listener not only mediates reinforcement, but functions as a discriminative stimulus for verbal behavior. Often, much of the behavior of a listener is covert verbal behavior.

17. An audience is a discriminative stimulus in the presence of which verbal behavior is characteristically reinforced.

18. Classifying verbal responses as mands, tacts, intraverbals, etc., can be accomplished by an analysis of the relevant controlling variables.

## Analyzing Complex Verbal Behavior

19. Automatic reinforcement is a type of conditioned reinforcement in which a response product has reinforcing properties as a result of a specific conditioning history.

20. Automatic punishment is a type of conditioned punishment in which a response product has punishing properties as a result of a specific conditioning history.

21. In generic tact extension, the novel stimulus shares all of the relevant or defining features associated with the original stimulus.

22. In metaphorical tact extension, the novel stimulus shares some, but not all, of the relevant features of the original stimulus.

23. In metonymical tact extension, the novel stimulus shares none of the relevant features of the original stimulus configuration, but some irrelevant but related feature has acquired stimulus control.

24. In solistic tact extension, a stimulus property that is only indirectly related to the tact relation evokes substandard verbal behavior.

25. Private events are stimuli that arise from within someone's body.

26. Public accompaniment occurs when publicly observable stimulus accompanies a private stimulus.
27. Collateral responses are publicly observable behaviors that reliably occur with private stimuli.
28. Common properties involve a type of generalization in which private stimuli share some of the features of public stimuli.
29. Response reduction is also a type of generalization in which kinesthetic stimuli arising from movement and positions acquire control over the verbal responses. When movements shrink in size (become covert), the kinesthetic stimuli may remain sufficiently similar to those resulting from the overt movements.
30. Convergent multiple control occurs when a single verbal response is a function of more than one controlling variable.
31. Divergent multiple control occurs when a single antecedent variable affects the strength of many responses.
32. The thematic verbal operants are mand, tact, and intraverbal, and involve different response topographies controlled by a common variable.
33. The formal verbal operants are echoic (and imitation as it relates to sign language and copying a text), textual, and transcription, and involve control by a common variable with point-to-point correspondence.
34. Multiple audiences consist of two or more different audiences that may evoke different response forms.
35. Impure tacts occur when an MO shares control with a non-verbal stimulus.

#### Autoclitic Relation

36. The autoclitic relation involves two related but separate three-term

contingencies in which some aspect of a speaker's own verbal behavior functions as an SD or an MO for additional speaker verbal behavior.

37. Primary verbal behavior involves the elementary verbal operants emitted by a speaker.

38. Secondary verbal behavior involves verbal responses controlled by some aspect of the speaker's own ongoing verbal behavior.

39. The autoclitic tact informs the listener of some nonverbal aspect of the primary verbal operant and is therefore controlled by nonverbal stimuli.

40. The autoclitic mand is controlled by an MO and enjoins the listener to react in some specific way to the primary verbal operant.

#### Applications of Verbal Behavior

41. The verbal operants can be used to assess a wide variety of language deficits.

42. Mand training involves bringing verbal responses under the functional control of MOs.

43. Echoic training involves bringing verbal responses under the functional control of verbal discriminative stimuli that have point-to-point correspondence and formal similarity with the response.

44. Tact training involves bringing verbal responses under the functional control of nonverbal discriminative stimuli.

45. Intraverbal training involves bringing verbal responses under the functional control of verbal discriminative stimuli that lack point-to-point correspondence with the response.

Researchers in social communication note that nonverbal skills are actually much more important in communicating one's emotions than verbal skills. People pay attention not just to the words that are said, but also to the way

they are said. Some children are very skilled at nonverbal communication. They intuitively know how to convey their feelings by their nonverbal communication and how to “read” the feelings of others. Other children are very poor at nonverbal communication. Some psychologists think that up to 10% of children may have a nonverbal learning disability, which may be associated with serious social, emotional, and behavioral problems. With severe deficits in both the expressive and receptive components of nonverbal language, these children may seem inappropriate or strange, even to a casual observer. Such children will benefit from more intensive training in nonverbal communication and other social skills. Nonverbal skills are divided into two main areas: body language and paralanguage. Body language consists of gestures, eye contact, posture, facial expression, an awareness of physical distance (referred to as proxemics), and even physical appearance. Paralanguage consists of everything about the way children communicate orally, except for their actual words. It includes voice tone, voice volume, voice inflection, accent, and any unusual articulation differences. Each element of a child’s nonverbal behavior sends a visual message to other children, as well as to adults. Like spoken communication, nonverbal communication is a two-way street. To improve their social success, children must learn to be aware of the nonverbal messages they send others and to read the emotional meaning behind the messages they receive.

As you go through the activities in this section, you may find that some children need more practice in certain areas than others. Make sure that children get the help that they need. As children learn better nonverbal skills, many aspects of their social and emotional development can improve.

**Tone Of Voice ACTIVITY** Learning Objective: To teach children the importance of using appropriate voice volume Skill: Emotional communication, self-control Ask the group why it’s important to use the appropriate volume, or loudness, of voice in different situations. Brainstorm ideas and write them on the blackboard or a large sheet of paper.

Tell them: Controlling your voice volume is a very important skill for getting along with other people. It means making your voice softer or louder, depending on the situation you are in. There are three basic voice volumes—soft, normal, and loud—and each is appropriate for different situations. When you use the best voice for a situation, you are also using self-control. Using the wrong voice volume—like talking loudly in a quiet place, or so softly that no one can hear you—can make other people feel uncomfortable, and it can make you feel as though you don't fit in. That's why you should first think about the situation you are in. Then, think about different voice volumes and choose the one that is most appropriate.

Distribute Activity Sheet. After the children fill it out, ask them to think of other situations in which different voice volumes are appropriate. Then, have them discuss the reasons behind their answers.

Recommendations: It is recommended that a curriculum of human communication be developed for teacher training programmes to make nonverbal behavior of teachers highly consistent with their verbal behavior. A policy for the teachers training covering maximum elements of non verbal communication should be developed and implemented. Nonverbal teaching behavior should be given central place in important techniques of teaching. As the research study showed no difference in the nonverbal behavior of male and female teachers, therefore both male and female teachers be made conscious of the intelligent use of their body language during teaching so as to make their body language more compatible with their verbal communication. As less research work appear to had been conducted on Galloway's framework, a variety of research studies be launched based on Galloway's framework of nonverbal communication e.g in order to explore effect of nonverbal behavior on student achievement experimental studies can be launched in which the experimental group may be exposed to specially trained teachers in nonverbal communication but the control group is exposed to routine teaching.

Observation and recording being the tool used to see the impact of nonverbal communication, one way mirror recording techniques could be used for gaining better results. The instrument developed for present study can be used by the supervisory staff of teacher education institutions. However, in the light of Flanders and Galloways' system, an observational form be developed for the training and observation of teachers during teaching practice.

### **Positive Attitudes.**

Positive attitudes indicated by body language may signal a sincere effort to achieve win/win results. Key indicators of positive attitudes are listed below.

Speakers indicate respect and honesty by keeping their eyes focused on the eyes of the listener(s). Confidence is often exhibited by:

- Hands in pockets with thumbs out;
- Hands on lapel of coat;
- Steepled fingers or hands;
- Good body posture (e.g., square shoulders and a straight back); or Hands on hips.

Interest may be exhibited by one or more of the following:

- Tilted head toward speaker;
- Sitting on edge of chair;
- Upper body leaning in sprinter's position; or Eyes focused on speaker.

Careful evaluation of what is being said is frequently indicated by one or more of the following:

- Peering out over eyeglasses;
- Chin cupped between thumb and fingers;

- Putting hands to bridge of nose; or
- Stroking chin.

Eagerness is often demonstrated by:

- Rubbing hands together;
- Smiling excessively; or
- Frequent nodding of the head.

### **Negative Attitudes.**

Negative attitudes indicated by body language may signal a deceitful nature or a win/lose approach to negotiation. Common indicators of negative attitudes are listed below. Deception or dishonesty is often demonstrated by:

- Frequent eye blinking;
- Hand covering mouth while speaking;
- Frequent coughing;
- Looking away while speaking; or
- Quick sideways glances.

Defensiveness may be indicated by the following:

- Arms crossed high on chest;
- Crossed legs; or
- Pointing an index finger at another person.

Insecurity is often exhibited by:

- Hands completely in pocket;

- Constant fidgeting;
- Chewing on a pencil;
- Frequent coughing;
- Biting fingernails; or
- Hand wringing.

Frustration is frequently shown by:

- Tightness of a persons jaw;
- Rubbing back of neck; or
- Drawing eyebrows together.

Listener boredom or indifference is generally indicated by:

- Eyes not focused at speaker or looking elsewhere;
- Head in hand;
- Sloppy or informal body posture; or Preoccupation with something else.

Be particularly careful when interpreting or using gestures. A gesture that means one thing in one society can mean something completely different in another. There is a good chance that you will encounter differing interpretations whenever you are negotiating with someone from another part of the world. Even if the other party is from the United States, some of these differing interpretations may remain as part of the person's heritage. Shaking your head up-and-down means "yes" in the United States and left-to-right means "no." In some parts of the world the meanings are just the opposite.

- The hand signal for O.K. in the United States is an obscene gesture in some societies.
- The thumbs-up gesture is a positive sign in most of the world, but in some

cultures it considered a rude gesture.

-The V-shaped hand gesture with the index finger and middle finger may mean victory or peace in the United States, but in some countries it could be interpreted

as an obscene gesture. Body Language Application. In contract negotiation, you can use a knowledge of body language in several ways:

-As you prepare for the negotiation conference, you should briefly review key elements of body language with members of the Government team.

-Exhibiting positive attitudes will make them more believable as they present support for the Government position.

-Exhibiting negative attitudes will bring their support into question and may raise questions about the entire Government position.

-A questioning look by a team member as you make a statement may bring your credibility into question.

-A lack of interest exhibited by a team member may convince the contractor's negotiator that the issue being addressed is not important to the Government.

-During the negotiation conference, you can use your knowledge of body language in several ways. You can:

-Gain greater insight into the attitude of the contractor's negotiator.

-Do not take one element of body language and make grand assumptions. Remember that: Similar types of body language can have substantially different meanings. Body language can be controlled by a knowledgeable negotiator.

Look for confirming communications either verbal or nonverbal.

-Concentrate on using body language that supports your verbal communications (e.g., eye contact will support your truthfulness). Unless you are very good, you

will not be able to completely suppress your natural body language. However, unless your natural body language indicates a negative attitude, your use of positive body language should strongly support your position. Consider body language as you listen to the positions taken by other Government team members. If they appear uncertain, you might interject support. If they appear negative, you might ask for a brief caucus to remind them of the importance of positive body language.

### **Nonverbal Communication Exercise - DIALOGUE**

Students work in pairs on a scripted dialogue.

First, student B replies silently to half of the dialogue read by student B, then A replies to the other half of the dialogue. Both students become familiar with the dialogue then act out the whole dialogue using expressions, gestures and posture. Give plenty of time for thought and rehearsal, remind students to stand up to practise posture and whole body language.

Dialogue:

A Excuse me. Can you take a picture of me?

B Yeah, sure.

A Just press that button.

B Er, which one?

A The one on the top.

B OK, right. Er.... can you move back a bit.

A Is this OK?

B Fine, now smile. That's it. Very nice.

A Thanks.

B Not at all. You've got a lovely smile. Er... fancy a drink?

A OK, but I've got no money on me.

B That's OK. I'll pay.

### **Nonverbal Communication: In-Class Activity**

Purpose: To give you first-hand experience in how communication may occur nonverbally.

Procedure:

#### **In-Class Activity**

1. Choose a partner or one will be assigned to you.
2. Choose a subject that you both feel you can talk about. You will be talking to each other for a while, so either choose a good topic or have back-up topics. (Movie preferences? Restaurant options? Major?)
3. While talking to each other, take the following positions (about 2-3 minutes each):
  - a. Standing far apart
  - b. Standing very close together, face to face (almost touching)
  - c. Both of you sitting down
  - d. One person standing up, the other person sitting down (change places so that each person fulfills both roles)
  - e. One person talking while the other person nonverbally communicates that he/she is not listening (change places so that each person fulfills both roles)
  - f. One person talking while the other person nonverbally communicates that he/she is actively listening (change places so that each person fulfills both roles)

## Processing/Discussion Questions

We may do this in class, or you may have to write (type) up your answers to the following questions. If the latter, you need to thoughtfully answer all parts of each question, using

examples, at least one paragraph in length.(If we are turning this in, please remember to put the Name of the Assignment at the top of your paper, as well as your name and the class meeting days/time in the upper right corner of your paper.)

1 Was there any position that you felt very uncomfortable communicating in? Why (or why not)?

2. Specifically, how did you feel when you were sitting down while talking to your partner, who was standing up? Do you think other people would have felt the sameway? Why or why not?

3. When you tried to communicate that you were not listening to your partner, what nonverbal cues did you use? Do you think they effectively communicated your(feigned) disinterest?

What did your partner do during this time that caused you to believe your nonverbal communication of disinterest was effective (or ineffective)?

4. When you tried to communicate that you were actively listening to your partner, what nonverbal cues did you use? Do you think they effectively communicated your (genuine) interest? What did your partner do during this time that caused you to believe your nonverbal communication of interest was effective (or ineffective)?

5. What did you learn from this experience? Did you find it helpful to you in your personal or professional life? Why or why not?

## Conclusion

We have described our research findings in this summary rather than all of the literature on verbal behavior because that would be beyond the scope of a single article. Interested readers are encouraged to review issues of *The Analysis of Verbal Behavior* for other research findings and theoretical analyses in verbal behavior. In addition, space prohibited us from detailing the specifics of the tactics that have proved useful. However detailed operations can be found in the sources that we have cited and a book in progress.

In considering cultural influences on nonverbal behavior, it is first important to recognize the universal bases of those behaviors, and to realize that culture's influence on nonverbal behaviors occurs above and beyond the universal bases of those behaviors that we are all born with. With regard to emotion communication, we all start with the same base of universal, pan-cultural expressions. We learn rules about how to modify and manage these expressions based on social circumstance (cultural display rules), and we learn rules about how to manage our judgments of them (cultural decoding rules). Whereas we all recognize universal emotions at levels well beyond chance, there are cultural influences on the absolute levels of recognition accuracy and on judgments of external intensity and internal subjective experience.

Most of our knowledge concerning culture and nonverbal behaviors comes from studies of facial expressions of emotion. The few cross-cultural studies on other nonverbal behaviors that do exist suggest considerable cultural differences in these. Yet there may be universal aspects to these other nonverbal behaviors that research has just not yet uncovered. Examples include the raising of one or both arms in achievement or clapping as a sign of approval. Future research will not only continue to unravel the influence of culture on facial expressions but will also need to delve into these other possibilities for other nonverbal behaviors. On the basis of the findings of the study, it was concluded

that Nonverbal behavior of the teachers was found to be highly consistent with their verbal behavior while accepting students' feelings, ideas, while asking questions, while lecturing, while giving directions, while criticizing. Male and Female teachers did not differ in their nonverbal behavior. Both male and female teachers praised and encouraged students action to avoid any tension in the class.

Similarly, No difference was found between nonverbal behavior of teachers working in Private, Federal Government Cantt Garrison and Army Public schools. A Strong association was found between nonverbal behavior of teachers and academic achievement of their students. Careful directions, lecturing, and criticizing students for misbehavior, yet for the most part, employ questioning, reinforcing, cueing and responding to feelings produced academic gains to a better degree. Research in many settings indicates that non verbal communication can serve a wide range of functions in human interaction.

The results of the present study may help the teacher to supplement, reinforce, or regulate verbal messages with appropriate nonverbal messages.

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## **Appendix**

### **Worksheets**

Put a check under the voice volume that is appropriate for each situation.

	Soft	Normal	Loud
Studying at the library	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cheering at a basketball game	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Shopping in a store	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Playing outdoors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Playing indoors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When someone is taking a nap	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When someone is on the phone	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When you are on the phone	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
On the school bus	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Talking in the lunchroom	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Watching a movie	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



Choose two of the situations above and tell why you would use a soft, normal, or loud voice.

---



---

Tell your partner everything you did from the moment you got up this morning until now. While you are talking, your partner should never take his eyes off your face—he should actually stare at you.



While you were talking, how did you feel about the eye contact your partner was making with you?

---

---

Tell your partner everything you are planning to do when you get home from school until you go to sleep. While you are talking, your partner should never look at your face.



While you were talking, how did you feel about the eye contact your partner was making with you?

---

---

Tell your partner everything you are planning to do this weekend. While you are talking, your partner should look at you some of the time.



While you were talking, how did you feel about the eye contact your partner was making with you?

---

---

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_



What is this girl's facial expression saying?

\_\_\_\_\_

Why do you think she feels that way?

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_



What is this boy's facial expression saying?

\_\_\_\_\_

Why do you think he feels that way?

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_



What is this girl's facial expression saying?

\_\_\_\_\_

Why do you think she feels that way?

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_



What is this boy's facial expression saying?

\_\_\_\_\_

Why do you think he feels that way?

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_



What does this gesture mean?

Describe a time this gesture might be used:

---

---



What does this gesture mean?

Describe a time this gesture might be used:

---

---



What does this gesture mean?

Describe a time this gesture might be used:

---

---



What does this gesture mean?

Describe a time this gesture might be used:

---

---

What does the body language of these children tell you about how they feel?



This child feels \_\_\_\_\_



This child feels \_\_\_\_\_



This child feels \_\_\_\_\_



This child feels \_\_\_\_\_



Here's the beginning of a conversation you and your partner can have. After you have read your parts, keep the conversation going by making up three more questions and answers.

<b>You:</b> I have a dog.	<b>Your partner:</b> What's his name?
<b>You:</b> Dusty	<b>Your partner:</b> What kind of dog is he?
<b>You:</b> A golden retriever	<b>Your partner:</b> _____
<b>You:</b> _____	<b>Your partner:</b> _____
<b>You:</b> _____	<b>Your partner:</b> _____
<b>You:</b> _____	

Next, your partner should tell you everything he learned about Dusty, beginning with "You have a dog named Dusty..."

Now, switch the order. Your partner starts the conversation by saying, "I have a friend." When five questions have been asked and answered, it's your turn to tell your partner what you learned about his friend, beginning with "You have a friend..."

Think of a recent situation in which you were angry and didn't manage your anger well. What happened? How did you react? Write about it here:

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Now choose a sign that would have helped you deal with your anger in a more constructive way, and fill in the blank.

**IT'S  
NO BIG DEAL  
BECAUSE**

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**I'LL TAKE A DEEP  
BREATH AND I'LL FEEL**

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**I CAN KEEP  
CALM BY**

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**I'M WALKING AWAY,  
AND THAT MAKES  
ME FEEL**

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**I CAN  
THINK OF  
SOMETHING  
ELSE, LIKE**

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**I  
CAN TALK  
ABOUT MY ANGER  
WITH**

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Answer these questions any way you would like, keeping "thinking before acting" in mind.



How does Emily know this? \_\_\_\_\_

Does it sound like Emily is accusing Brian? \_\_\_\_\_

Why would Emily think Brian did it? \_\_\_\_\_

Do you think Emily thought before she spoke? \_\_\_\_\_



How does Owen know Paolo hit him? \_\_\_\_\_

Did he actually see Paolo hit him? \_\_\_\_\_

Why would he think Paolo did it? \_\_\_\_\_

What would be the best thing for Owen to do? \_\_\_\_\_

How can these children work out a compromise? In each example, write your answer on the lines between the children.

I need that crayon.

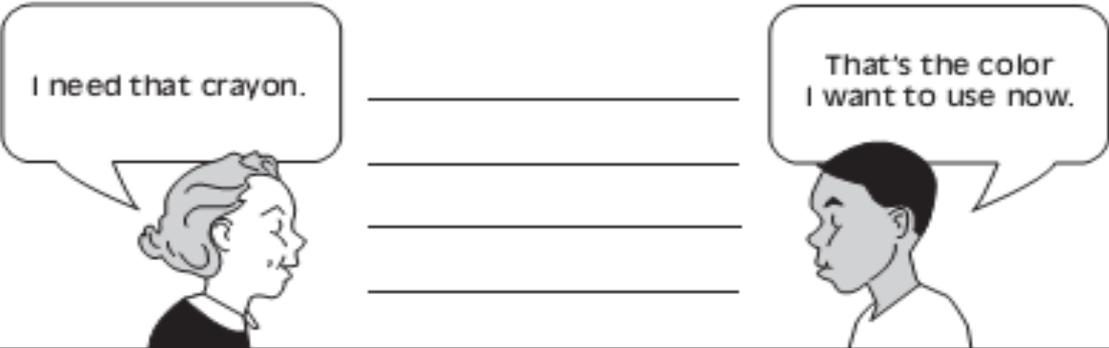
\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

That's the color I want to use now.



There's hardly any cereal left in the box.

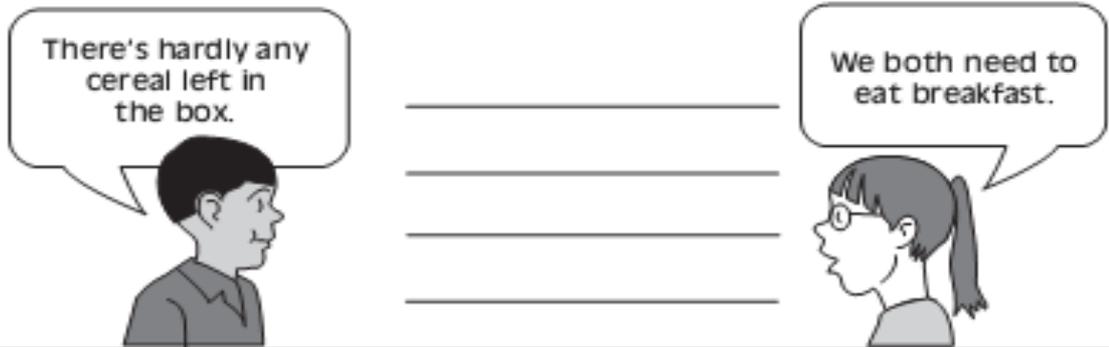
\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

We both need to eat breakfast.



I want to watch Monster Mountain.

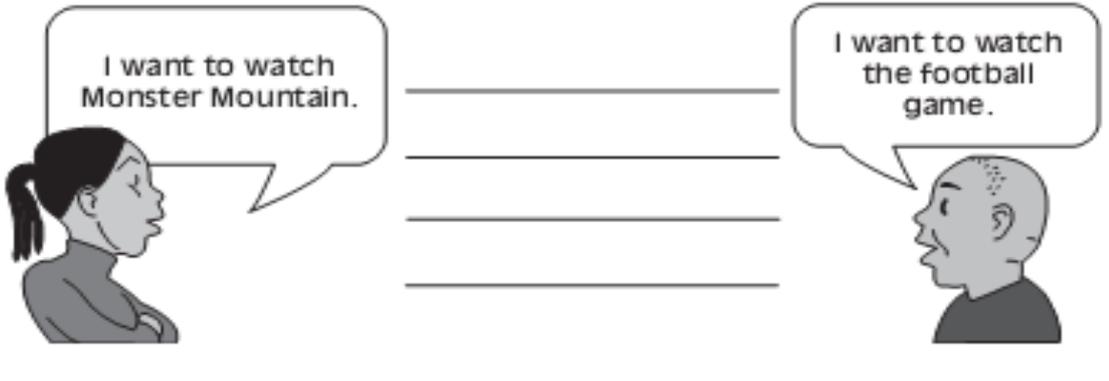
\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

I want to watch the football game.



Under each picture, write a possible win-win solution for the situation.



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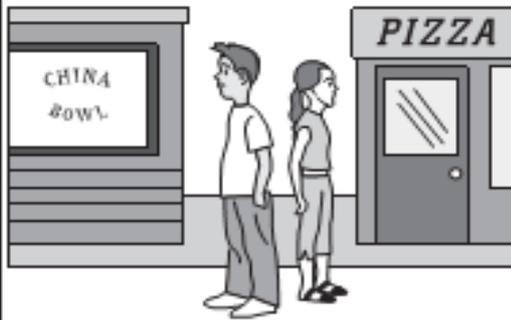
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