

Lecture - 1 Communication – Definition, models of communication process- Aristotle, Shannon-Weaver, Berlo, Schramm, J.P.Leagans, Rogers and Shoemaker, Litterer, Westley – Macleans, and extension communication system; functions of communication:

What is communication? It is the process of transferring an idea, skill or attitude from one person to another accurately and satisfactorily. In other words, it is the sharing of ideas, attitudes or skills, between two or more persons. The main purpose of communication is to influence the behavior of people exposed to the communication. Needless to say, a good extension worker should be a good communicator.

Definitions

Hovland defines Communication is the process by which an individual -- the communicator -- transmits stimuli to modify the behavior of other individuals -- communicatees. In other words, the communicator's *expression* should make the intended *impression* on the communicatee.

According to Leagans, Communication is the process by which two or more people exchange ideas, facts, feelings or impressions in ways that each gains a common understanding of the meaning, intent and use of messages.

The word communication is derived from Latin word 'Communis' which means establishing 'commonness'. Communication therefore, is a conscious effort to share information, ideas, attitudes, skills etc., with others.

The success of extension worker depends largely on his ability in effective communication. He should, therefore, be familiar with the key elements of the communication process to be fulfilled by each of the elements if the communication is to be successful.

Models of Communication:

Different models have been developed by writers on communication to illustrate the key elements of the communication process.

Source: Some person / group of persons with a purpose

Message: The purpose of the source is expressed in this form called message.

Code : System of signals for communication

Encode : To put the message into code or cipher.

Encoder: Takes ideas of source and put them in a code; thus, the source's purpose is expressed as message

Channel: A medium / a carrier of message through which signals move.

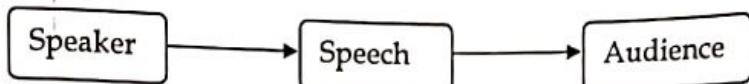
Decoder : Converts message in the code into ordinary language which may be easily understood

Receiver: The target of communication.

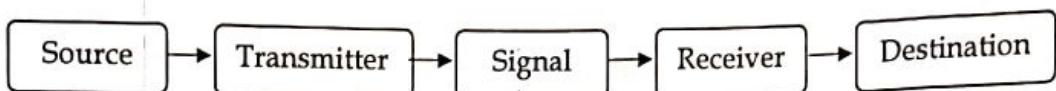
A few important models are illustrated as follows:

I. ARISTOTLE MODEL: According to Aristotle Model, communication process has three elements

1. Speaker – Person who speaks
2. Speech – The speech that the individual produces
3. Audience – The person who listens

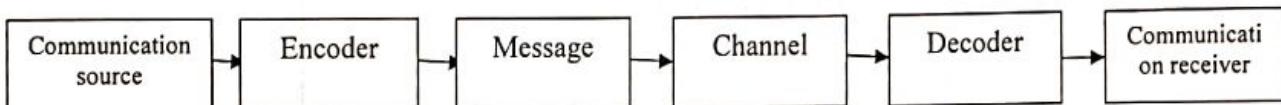


II. SHANNON-WEAVER MODEL (1949): model is consistent with Aristotle's proposition. According to them, the ingredients of communication are-



Compared with the Aristotelian model, the source is the speaker, the signal is the speech and the destination is the audience, plus two added ingredients, a transmitter which sends out the source's message and a receiver which catches the message for the destination.

III. BERLO'S MODEL (1960) OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS CONSISTS OF :



Code is a system of signals for communication. Encode means to put the message into code or cipher. Channel means the medium through which the signals move, the decoder means which converts the message in the code into ordinary language which may be easily understood.

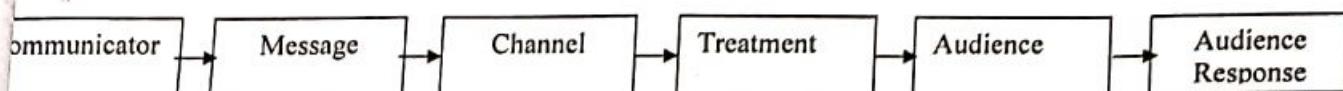
He further elaborated that all human communication has some source, some person or group of persons with a purpose. The purpose of the source has to be expressed in the form of message. The communication encoder is responsible for taking the ideas of the source and putting them in a code, expressing the source's purpose in the form of a message. A channel is a medium, a carrier of message. For communication to occur there must be somebody at the other end, who can be called the communication receiver, the target of the communication.

IV. SCHRAMM (1961), MODEL OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS involves



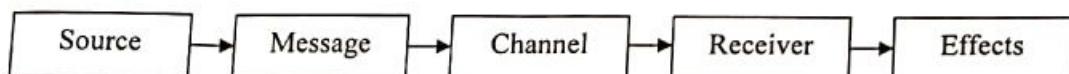
This model of communication is particularly relevant for the mass media. In human communication it is most important whether the people can properly encode or decode the signal i.e., message and how they interpret it in their own situations.

V. LEAGANS (1963) OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS has the following elements



The task of communication, according to him, is to provide powerful incentives for change. Success at this task requires through understanding of the six elements of communication, a skilful communicator sending useful message through proper channel, effectively treated, to an appropriate audience that responds as desired.

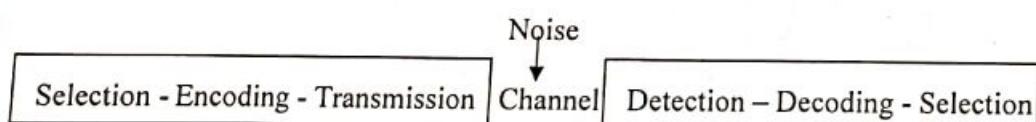
VI. ROGERS AND SHOEMAKER (1971) THOUGHT OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS IN TERMS OF S-M-C -R-E MODEL, THE COMPONENTS OF WHICH ARE



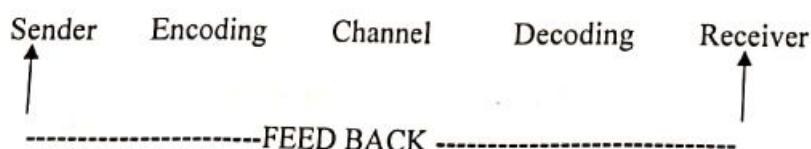
According to them a source (S) sends a message (M) via certain channels (C) to the receiving individual (R), which cause some effects (E) i.e. changing the existing behavior pattern of the receiver.

Communication in extension may also be thought of as two-way stimulus-response situation in which the necessary stimulus is provided by the communicator, the extension agent, in the form of a message, which produces certain response on the audience, the farmers and vice-versa. A favourable response by the audience reinforces learning.

VII. LITTERER'S MODEL OF COMMUNICATIN PROCESS

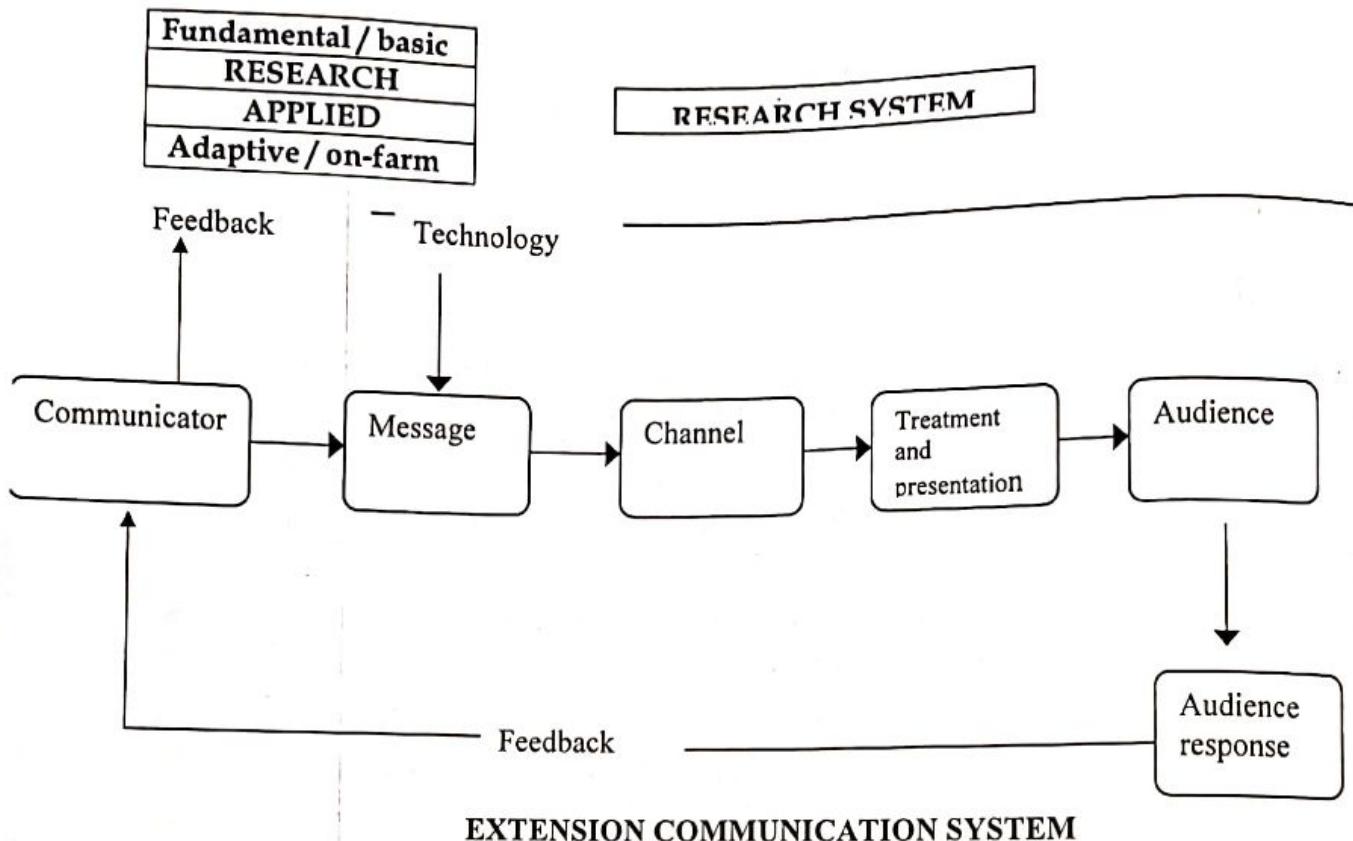


VIII. WESTLEY-MACLEAN'S MODEL OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS:



IX. LEAGAN'S MODEL (1963) OF EXTENSION COMMUNICATION SYSTEM.

A diagrammatic representation of the extension communication system on the basis of the model suggested by Leagans (1963) is presented as



Communication in Extension, may also be thought of as two – way Stimulus-Response (S-R) situation in which the necessary stimulus is provided by the communicator, the extension agent in the form of a message, which produces certain response on the audience, the farmers and vice-versa. A favourable response by the audience reinforces learning. A diagrammatic representation of the extension communication system on the basis of the model suggested by Leagans (1963) is presented above.

FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNICATION:

Communication has four basic functions-

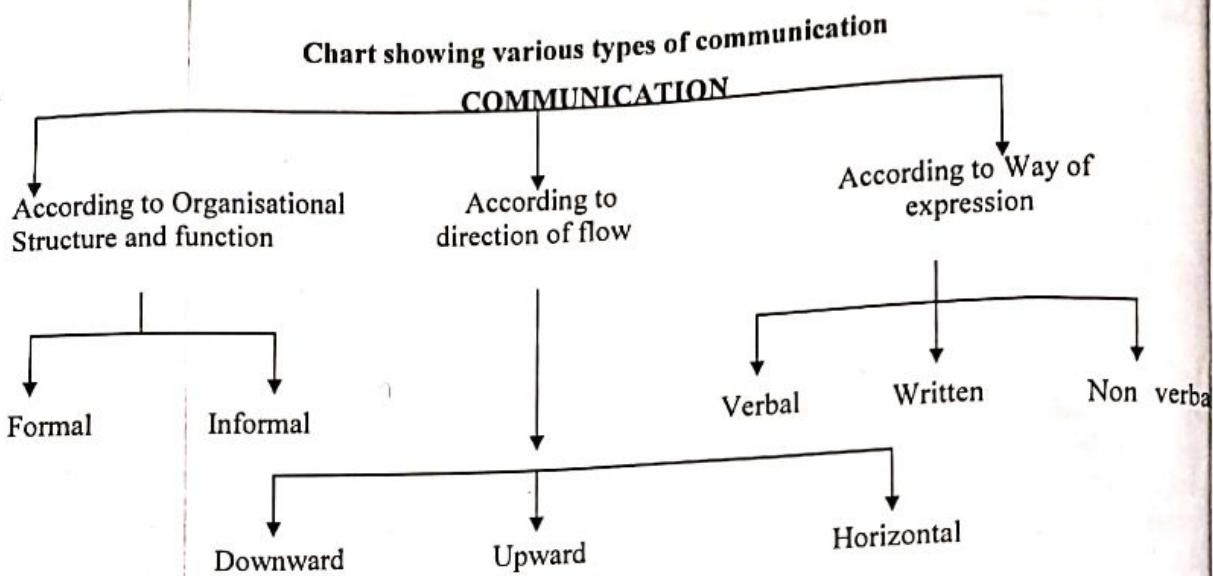
1. **Information function:** The basic requirement of adapting and adjusting oneself to the environment is information. There must be some information about what is going on in the environment which concerns the people. The getting or giving of information underlies all communication functions, either directly or indirectly.

2. Command or instructive function: Those who are hierarchically superior, in the family, society or organization, often initiate communication either for the purpose of informing their subordinates or for the purpose of telling them, what to do, how to do, when to do etc. The command and instructive functions of communication are more observable in formal organizations than in informal organizations.

3. Influence or persuasive function: According to Berlo (1960), the sole purpose of communication is to influence people. Persuasive function of communication i.e. to induce people is extremely important for extension in changing their behaviour in the desirable direction.

4 Integrative function: A major function of communication is integration or of continuously offsetting any disintegration at the interpersonal or at the organizational level. This helps to maintain individual, societal or organizational stability and identity.

c. Non-verbal communication



ACCORDING TO ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

A. FORMAL COMMUNICATION

When information is transmitted by virtue of one's status, placement in the organization it is termed as formal communication. It flows through officially prescribed route in which there are officially recognized positions.

E.g.: Executive instructs his subordinates.

It is a two way communication

B. Informal or grapevine communication

When an informal channel is used to communicate it is termed as grapevine or informal communication.

It is information communication network formed out of personal relationship, social and group relations but not out of position of line of authority, superior and Subordinate or based on organisational hierarchy.

IT IS A QUICK VEHICLE FOR MESSAGE. E.g.: RUMOURS

Informal communication may be conveyed by a simple glance, gesture, smile or mere silence.

II. According to direction of flow

a. Down ward communication

When information comes from higher level to a lower level in the orgnisation structure, it is termed as downward communication.

E.g. Information passes through written orders, reports, rules, Instructions, manuals, policy directives etc,

Down ward communication is needed

- To get things done
- To prepare for changes
- To discourage misinformation and suspicion
- To let the people feel the pride of being relatively well informed.

b. Up ward communication

Whenever information moves from a lower level to a higher level in the organization it is named as upward communication. Through this, executives can know the activities and progress achieved by their subordinates.

c. Horizontal communication / side ways / lateral / crosswise /inter scalar communication

A communication is said to be horizontal when it takes place between two subordinates of the same superior.

III. According to the way of expression

a. Verbal or oral communication

The process is a face to face conversation through oral words or words of mouth. It is the most widely practiced medium of communication

b. Written Communication

The process involves sending message by written words. Media for written communication are letters, circulars, notes, explanation and memorandum.

c. Non – Verbal communication

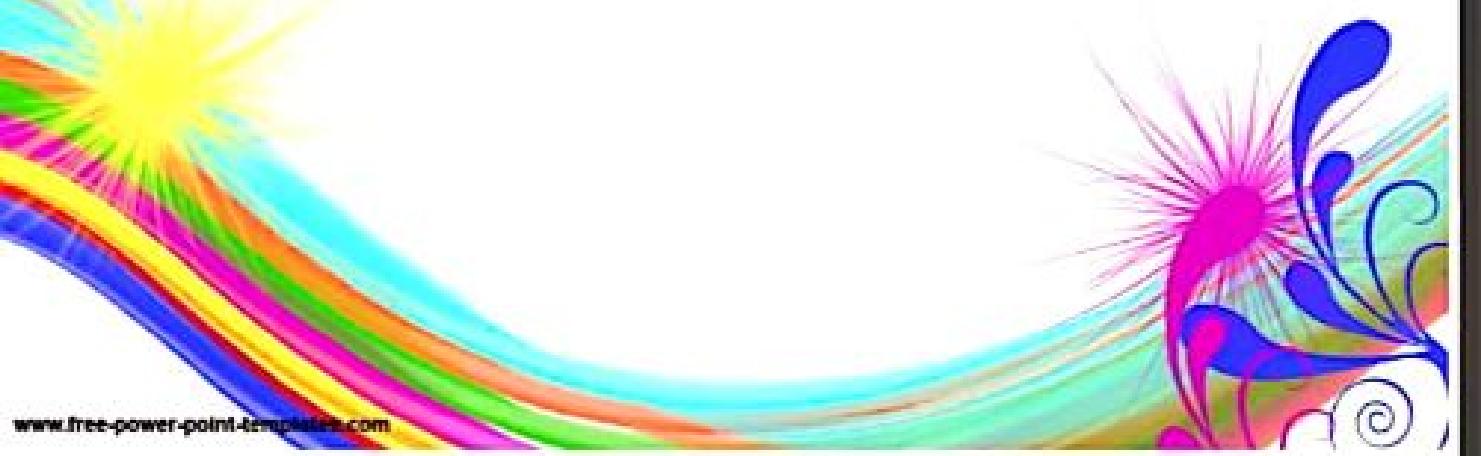
One of the multimedia of communication is non-verbal communication or communication by implication. Communicating a message without using arbitrary symbols i.e., words or meaning of words is termed as ‘non-verbal communication or word-less communication.

Non – verbal messages consists of hidden messages. It is the **cues** which convey message. These messages are necessarily wordless or non-verbal, conveyed through without resorting to words or meaning of words, but conveyed through other media like spatial, Kinesics, oral cues, objective language, action etc., Kinesics is the most generally used medium of non-verbal communication.

Non – Verbal communication includes all messages other than those expressed in oral or written words. Smile symbolizes friendliness, in much the same way as cordiality is expressed in words.

“Verbal Communication.”

- Verbal communication means communication through spoken and written words. It implies use of words which makes language.
- It is the ability to communicate by using words.



Verbal Communication

**Oral
Communication**

**Written
Communication**

Oral Communication

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

Disadvantage

- → Poor Retention
- → No Records
- → Time Consuming
- → Misunderstanding
- → Unsuitable for Lengthy messages
- → Lack of Responsibility

Verbal Communication

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- → Time Saving
- → Economical
- → Personal Touch
- → Secrecy
- → Group Communication

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Forms of Oral Communication

- Face to face communication
- Interviews
- Telephone conversations
- Grapevine
- Negotiations
- Meetings
- Lecture / speech
- Presentation
- Conferences / seminars / workshops

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Written Communication

- A medium for communication that entails the written word. Letters, emails, and manuals are forms of written communication. Need for written communication, the old style of communication did not have public relationship, advertising, technology and many aspects of modern day communication.

Advantages

- → Wide Access
- → Accuracy
- → Lengthy Messages
- → Permanent Record
- → Legal Evidence
- → Fixed Responsibility
- → Convenience

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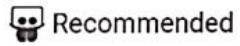
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Disadvantages

- → Time Consuming
- → Costly
- → Lack of Secrecy
- → Rigidity
- → Impersonal
- → Delayed Feedback

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Forms of Written Communication

- Email (Electronic mail)
- Website
- Memorandums
- Letters
- Reports (both business and academic reports)
- Notices
- Minutes
- Circulars
- Manuals
- Handbooks
- Orders
- Enquiries
- Complaints
- Quotations
- Others like sales contracts, newsletters, bulletin-board notices etc.

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Verbal Communication

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Non-Verbal Communication

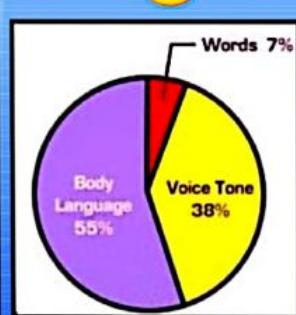
'Nonverbal communication (NVC) is usually understood as the process of communication through sending and receiving wordless messages.'



Nonverbal Communication

Information that is communicated without using words.

- 93% of communication is nonverbal
- 55% through facial expression, posture, gesture
- 38% through tone of voice



Non Verbal Communication

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Nonverbals Can Include

- Shaking hands
- Posture
- Facial expressions
- Appearance
- Voice
- Tone
- Hairstyle
- Perfume
- Clothes
- Expression in your eyes

- Smile
- How close you stand to others
- How you listen
- Confidence
- Your breathing
- The way you move
- The way you stand
- The way you touch people
- Color choice
- Silence



Types Of Non Verbal Communication

1. Paralanguage
2. Kinesics
3. Occulesics
4. Appearance/Artifacts
5. Proxemics
6. Haptics
7. Olfactics
8. Chronemics
9. Facial Expressions



Paralanguage

"Not only *what* you say, but *how* you say it also matters."

Paralanguage consists of:

- Rate
- Pitch
- Volume
- Vocal Fillers
- Quality-Made up of tempo, resonance, rhythm, and articulation



Which one would you recruit ??

Kinesics

(Body movement)



Olfactics

What would you prefer smelling ?



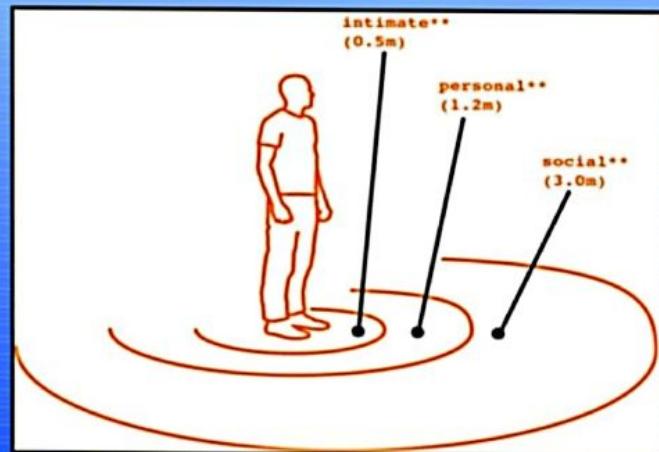
Occulesics

(Eye behavior)



Proxemics

(The nonverbal study of space and distance.)



Haptics

(Study of touch)

"Feel" the difference....



Non Verbal Communication

31.889

Chronomics



Facial Expressions



Lesson 7
LISTENING AND NOTE-TAKING

7.1 Introduction

In this lesson, the students would be provided some kind of orientation vis-à-vis *Listening and Note-taking*, wherein the students of this course will be getting some basic ideas and approaches pertaining to these two afore-said skills which happen to be the integral components of *Basic Communication Skills*.

7.2 The Hearing-Listening Distinction

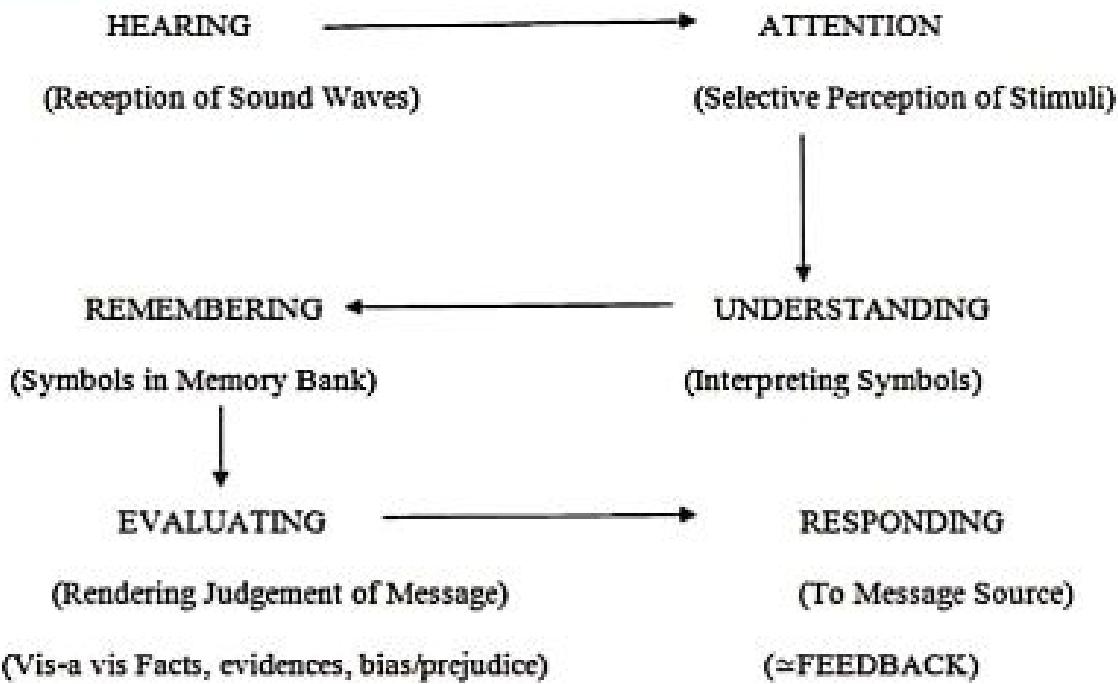
Hearing, which is only one part of the listening process, refers to the physical act of receiving sounds. It is a passive process that occurs when we are in sleep. Listening on the other hand is work. It means not only hearing but also paying attention and understanding.

7.3 Types of Listening

- ACTIVE Listening
- PASSIVE Listening
- APPRECIATIVE Listening (e.g. Musical/Cultural Programmes)
- CONVERSATIONAL Listening (It implies a constant exchange in the roles of SPEAKER & LISTENER)
- COURTEOUS Listening
- CRITICAL Listening (In the term of analysis and evaluation w.r.t. LOGIC, TRUTH, etc.)
- DISCRIMINATIVE Listening(e.g. Students taking NOTES in a class)

7.4 Stages of Listening Process

There are six stages of listening given as below:



7.4.1 Hearing

It refers to the response caused by sound waves stimulating the sensory receptors of the ear. Therefore, the reception of sound waves, which we know as hearing, does not mean that there is any conscious perception of what is being heard.

7.4.2 Attention

Our senses are constantly bombarded by countless stimuli from the world around us. However, your brain screens these stimuli and permits only a few to come into focus. This selective perception is known as attention.

7.4.3 Understanding

Hearing and perceiving a sound are not enough to enable meaningful messages to be received. The next step understands the symbols we have seen and heard. To do this, we must analyze the meaning of the stimuli we have perceived.

7.4.4 Remembering

Remembering is important to the listening process because it means that an individual has also added it to the mind's storage bank.

7.4.5 Evaluating

It is at this point that the active listener weighs evidence, sort fact from opinion, and determines the presence or absence of bias or prejudice in a message.

Communication Skills

7.4.6 Responding

This stage of the process requires that the receiver complete the process through verbal and/or nonverbal feedback.

7.5 (A) Factors Affecting Listening

- Environmental Setting
- The Message Source (vis-à-vis Speaker's Image/Reputation/Credibility, etc.)
- The Message
- Channel
- The Listener: (a) Listener's Attitude (b) Listener's Needs (c) Listening Habits

7.6 (A) Tips for Effective Listening

- Look for Benefits/Opportunity from your point of view
- Judge the content(not the appearance or delivery-style of speaker)
- Avoid making a judgement until the message is complete
- Listen for Central Themes or Ideas
- Take fewer notes
- Work hard to Listen
- Resist Distractions
- Seek out difficult material rather than avoid it
- Keep an open mind when incorporating an emotional word with which you are comfortable
- Listen "between the lines" (by remembering that THOUGHT is FASTER than SPEECH!)

7 (B) NOTE-TAKING

Note-taking is the practice of recording information captured from a transient source, such as an oral discussion at a meeting, or a lecture. Notes of a meeting are usually called minutes. The format of the initial record may often be informal and/or unstructured. One common format for such notes is shorthand, which can allow large amounts of information to be put on paper very quickly. Note-taking is an important skill for students, especially at the college level. Many different formats are used to structure information and make it easier to find and to understand, later. There are a number of different ways to take notes, and it is desirable that you use the method you feel most at ease with.

7.1 (B) General Guidelines

Communication Skills

- Use white space to separate major ideas.
- Try to limit your notes to one concept or section per page.
- Use abbreviations and/or symbols wherever possible to avoid long sentences.
- Write down the information in your own words.

7.2 (B) Methods of Note-Taking

The Cornell Method: The Cornell Method is based on two columns: one containing the keyword or concept, and the other containing the description or notes associated with the keyword or concept. This method can be used while listening to the lecturer. In the right hand column, you can list the main ideas or write a paragraph and then on the left hand side note the keyword or concept that relates to your section of notes. At the bottom of the page you should write paragraphs summarizing the information contained in the notes.

The Outlining Method: This method involves writing a series of topics and sub-topics, and identifying them by indenting the text, numbering the lines, or using a dash or bullet point.

Mind Mapping: A mind map is a diagram in which ideas, concepts and images are linked together around a central concept, keyword or idea. The sub-concepts may be organized into sub-groups or branches with more important concepts closer to the central core.

Charting Method: Charting is effectively a table of rows and columns. The top row normally classifies the concept with descriptions or keywords listed in the row below. This method enables you to quickly identify facts and their relationships with other information.

The Sentence Method: With this method, you simply write every new concept or topic on separate line. You can also number the information if you wish. It is recommended that you use some form of visual aid to group related points together.

7.3 (B) Note-Taking Tips for Students:

Taking notes in class is one of the most effective ways to understand the material being presented in class. Unless you have a photographic mind, you'll need to learn this important skill. Follow these general guidelines mentioned as below;

Come to class prepared: Always bring enough paper and a writing instrument of your choice to class.

Start a new page for each new class: Put the date on the top of the first page. This way, you will know where the notes for each class begin, which will help you keep the material organized. Consider keeping your notes organized in their own binder.

Don't try to write down every word your teacher says: You will not be able to, even if you can write very fast. More importantly, in trying to do so, you will miss the overall point your teacher is trying to make.

Communication Skills

Write down the big ideas: Listen for facts, connections, and main ideas. This may take a while to get used to, because you will need to divide your attention between listening to the teacher (or other students) and writing your notes. Don't get frustrated. In time, this will become easier.

Use abbreviations for commonly occurring names and words: You can develop your own abbreviations, so long as you don't forget what they stand for.

Leave lots of room on the page: When writing, leave ample space between ideas. This is like pausing before you begin a new sentence. Your notes will much easier to read, and you'll have space to add information later on, if needed. Don't try to crum everything onto one piece of paper.

Use diagrams and pictures wherever necessary: Sometimes it is helpful to draw pictures that illustrate the connections between ideas, sequences, or events. Don't be afraid to draw pictures that will help you understand the material.

Write down corresponding page numbers from your textbook: Teachers often use the textbook to refer to ideas you're learning in class. Recording the page number of corresponding ideas and homework assignments can come in handy later on.

Review your notes for accuracy: It's a good idea to look over your notes sometime after class for accuracy and completeness. Consider doing this just before doing your homework to get yourself back in the mindset of the material.

Obtain notes for missed classes: Sometimes it's unavoidable to miss class, but that shouldn't stop you from getting notes for it. Consider forming a partnership with another student at the beginning of class on whom you can rely (and, who can rely on you too !) for notes when a class is missed. Your teacher may also be willing to share his or her notes with you.

Lesson 6**ORAL PRESENTATION SKILLS****6.1 Introduction**

An individual has to interact with other members of the society throughout the life; and, herein lies the importance of possession of communication skills. These communication skills may range from oral to listening; writing to reading and note-taking. The details of *oral presentation skills* have been discussed in this lesson.

6.2 Oral Presentation Skills

Oral presentation is one of the instructional methods of teaching. Effective speaking demands a high level of skill in oral presentation of material and fullest compression on the part of instructor. Presentation is the practice of showing and explaining the content of a topic to an audience or learner. Presentations come in nearly as many forms as there are life situations. In the business world, there are sales presentations, informational and motivational presentations, first encounters, interviews, briefings, status reports, image-building, and of course, the inevitable training sessions.

6.2.1 There are some effective tips for oral presentation:

6.2.1.1 Make your speech purposeful

Any speech you make must have some purpose to entertain, amuse, instruct, interact, sell an idea or product, or ask for some action.

6.2.1.2 Give brief introduction

In case audiences are strange, then introduce yourself, but avoid unnecessary information.

6.2.1.3 Know the audience

Make your presentation to audience's level of knowledge about the subject of your presentation, what they need to know, and their interest. There are far more types of audiences because audiences have innumerable flavors. They may ask you as an individual to address a room full of factory operations, managers who have no choice but to attend their talk, you then may go before a congressional committee looking into various environmental issues. When an individual stands up to deliver a presentation before an audience, it's essential that the audience know who the presenter is, why they are there, what specifically they expect to get from your presentation, and how they will react to your message.

Communication Skills

6.2.1.4 Be prepared

Develop good command over language as well as the subject. Practice your presentation until you feel comfortable. Make sure you can present your information within limited time frame. Anticipate questions you may be asked and prepare answers to these.

6.2.1.5 Don't read your presentation

Talk to your audience. Use your notes as prompts as needed. Reading a speech is never preferred. It is better not to speech at all than to read a speech, regardless of how useful, well prepared and eloquent it may be.

6.2.1.6 Don't make excuses

Many-a-times, we may notice, a speaker making a beginning by saying, "I am sorry, I have not come prepared to speak on the topic, because.....". Really, you are not prepared, no need to announce it in public speaking, because audience never notices it.

6.2.1.7 Arouse the interest of the audience

Always speak in terms of what the audience wants and what you want. Opening should be effective for making your presentation a success.

6.2.1.8 Maintain eye-contact

Shift your eye-contact around the room, so that everyone feels that you are talking to them.

6.2.1.9 Use of proper gesture, posture and body movement

Nonverbal communication plays a vital role in transfer of message. So, for effective presentation your gesture, posture and body movement should match with your verbal communication.

6.2.1.10 Be fluent

Fluency is one of the most important parameter for effective communication. Without a smooth flow of speech, you are handicapped as a speaker.

6.2.1.11 Be positive

Make it clear that you are knowledgeable and enthusiastic about your subject.

6.2.1.12 Provide Examples

Try to make your presentation as concrete and "down to earth" as possible. Add appropriate examples and humor for effective understanding.

Communication Skills

6.2.1.13 Use visual aids

Supplement what you say with visual aids such as handouts, charts, transparencies, and slides. Make sure that everyone can easily see the visual aids. Don't use visual aids that are so complex that the audience will spend its time trying to read them instead of listening to you. Visual aids are supplements to what you say, not replacements for what you say. Skillful use of properly selected visuals makes your presentation easier and more effective.

6.2.1.14 Actively involve your audience

People can only listen so long without their attention wandering. Making your presentation interesting will help you to capture and keep your audience's attention for a while, but you must do more. Build in some simple and quick activities for your audience so that they are actively involved in your presentation. Ask questions that you are confident your audience will be able to answer.

6.2.1.15 Use repetitions, pauses and variation in voice

Vary the tone of your voice and be careful not to talk too quickly. Repetition pauses and variations in voice for emphasis are desirable in oral presentation.

6.2.1.16 Stop before your audience wants you to stop

You must come to an early and appropriately end after reaching the climax. Make it a point to stop at a time, when audience feels you should stop.

6.2.1.17 Have a smooth ending

Do not end your speech suddenly and abruptly. At the end, conclude your talking.

Lesson 8
WRITING SKILLS

8.1 Introduction

For effective communication among various factors communication skills of both source and receiver are important. Communication skills encompass verbal and non-verbal communication skill. Writing skills are of prime importance in written communication.

8.2 Characteristics of Good Writing

- Appropriate and Need-based from intended audience's view-point.
- Use of simple language.
- Use of shorter sentences.
- Use of comprehensible words, phrase etc.
- Accuracy/Correctness.
- Clarity & Brevity.
- Use of relevant/appropriate EXAMPLES for making things clear.

8.3 Writing of Field-Diary and Laboratory Records

8.3.1 Field-Diary

The study of plants and animals in their natural environment requires observations at all levels of organization from an individual organism to the ecosystem, and includes behaviour, life history, traits, distribution, abundance, habitat, landscape and all kinds of interrelationships. The field diary is the naturalist/ecologist's record of all of these matters as they present themselves to the observer.

A field-diary is a permanent record of observations and, if it is to fulfill its purpose, it should be useful and comprehensible to others, perhaps long after the author is dead. The field-diary is also a workbook in which your observational skills are repeatedly and continuously tested and sharpened.

8.3.1.1 A standard field-diary

The standard field-diary consists of three components:

Communication Skills

a) *Diary*

The field-diary is the nucleus of your field-records. It is a precise daily account of your many observations, and it should be given high priority, even when you are short of time or exhausted. A narrative diary of daily observations, including locality information, weather and conditions and species lists.

b) *Species accounts*

"Species accounts" are organized, so that:

- i) All references to, and notes about, a particular species appear in one place, and
- ii) There are not long accounts and details of species scattered & virtually inaccessible, in the journal.
- If you want to know everything you noted about a particular species you don't have to wade through pages of daily journal to find the reference; each species will have a page to itself.

Catalogue

A systematic and sequential list of all captures and collections, including reference numbers. The standard field-diary is written up directly, without transcribing field notes, but this requires a discipline and a life-style which is not reasonable to expect on a trip like ours. You should, therefore, take rough notes during the day in a **FIELD NOTEBOOK**, and organize and transcribe those notes in the evening.

8.3.1.2 Equipment

The field - diary and species accounts should be written in black, water-proof, fade-proof pigment ink on one side of good quality paper. An ideal size is about 8.5" x 5.5" (8.6 x 14 cm), or about half the size of a regular letter sheet, but you may use a slightly larger format if you prefer. The paper should be ruled with horizontal blue lines about 7 mm apart. You will need a left margin, but it is better to rule this yourself. Loose leaf sheets have the advantage that can be sorted and appropriately ordered in a binder (and you can easily discard your mistakes), but if you use a bound notebook the sheets won't get lost or blown away. The journal pages are consecutive, and each page must be numbered.

8.3.2 Laboratory Records

Laboratory-records & notebooks, if used properly, can serve as the basis of conception of ideas. They can also serve to help in patent prosecution by enabling the scientists to swear behind a cited reference.

8.4 General Guidelines for Keeping Lab-records & Notebooks

- Do use a bound notebook.
- Do explain acronyms, trademarks, code or unfamiliar jargon.
- Do attach to your lab notebook loose notes, e-mails, letters, graphs, figures and charts containing any part of conception of an idea or result of an experiment.
- Do title, sign and date each attachment, as well as each laboratory notebook page.
- Do record the objective of an experiment as well as the results obtained in as much detail as possible.
- Do record thoughts, conversations, lab meeting discussions, oral reports and discussions, as well as wild speculations and future plans.
- Record all the original data in the bound laboratory notebook and NOT on scratch paper. Be sure to include what is being measured as well as the correct units. Any data that appears to be useless or wrong, draw a single line through so it is still readable. After careful analysis, you may find that the measurement is valuable.
- Anything that is calculated should be documented along with the method of calculation and the formula used to obtain the answer. Make sure that you pay close attention to significant figures.
- Do write in the active voice.
- Do report completed experiments in the past tense.
- Do give cross references to previous experiments and/or projects.
- Do use a table of contents to provide cross references.
- Do keep your lab notebook under lock and key when you are not in the lab.
- Do track and save completed lab notebooks.
- Do not use binders, loose leaf or spiral notebooks.

Communication Skills

- Do not blot out or erase mistakes.
- Do not modify the data.
- Do not rip pages out.
- Do not skip pages.
- Do not leave a page blank.
- Do not use words such as "obvious" or "abandoned" as they have tremendous legal significance.

8.5 Some Tips for Electronic Notebooks

- Do clearly define what you/your laboratory mean by electronic notebooks. To some, data generated on a computer and affixed to a paper notebook is an electronic notebook. To others, saving data on the desktop or hard drive of their computer is an electronic laboratory notebook.
- Do adopt an official procedure for electronic record keeping. Who will be the custodian of the electronically stored data? Is there a back-up?
- Do back-up and write-protect all electronic data.
- Do retain all electronic copies for the duration of the appropriate document retention period.
- Do store your electronic notebook contents on unchangeable mediums, e.g.,CD-R, or in an electronic archive that cannot be modified.
- Do restrict access to the electronic notebook using key and screen locks, and/or passwords.
- Do associate the identity of each author and/or witness with each record automatically.
- Do not create and store records randomly on disks, desktops, or hard drives.
- Do not store records on media that have limited shelf-life.
- Do not allow access to the electronic records by unauthorized personnel.
- Do not rely on methods of dating your entries that can be altered.
- Do not alter any portion of an electronic document.

12.3 Footnotes

Footnotes have a pronounced effect on style, general tone and clarity. Every footnote is a digression from the main stream of thought. It interrupts the reader. If he reads it, his eyes must make an excursion to the bottom of the page; and when he is through, he must find the place where he departed from it. Lengthy footnotes can cause the reader to lose the thread of your message, to miss what you are trying to tell him.

12.3.1 Reference footnotes

Communication Skills

When we borrow the words or ideas of somebody else, we must give credit for them. Reference footnotes are convenient to fulfill this obligation.

12.3.2 Explanatory footnotes

Explanatory Footnotes can practically never be justified on the grounds of necessity. Explanatory Footnotes should be evaluated carefully. Explanatory Footnotes should either be integrated into the main text or put in parenthesis, if they are of secondary importance. Some of the information, if really of some use for record purposes, can be given in the appendix. As far as possible, explanatory footnotes should be avoided.

12.4 Indexing and Bibliographic Procedures

We keep a list of books, articles, and other sources that seem promising for our paper. Such a record is called a **working bibliography**. Our preliminary reading will probably provide the first titles for this list. Other titles will emerge when we consult the library catalog, as well as indexes, bibliography, and other reference works. We discover additional important sources also through the bibliography and notes of each book and article consulted by us.

The working bibliography will frequently change as new titles are added and those that do not prove useful are eliminated. The working bibliography will eventually evolve into the list of works cited that appears at the end of the research paper.

- Many instructors recommend that students use index cards to compile the working bibliography.
- Writing each source on a separate index card allows greater flexibility than does listing sources on a sheet of paper.
- These cards can be arranged and rearranged as per the need. (e.g. in alphabetical order, in chronological order by date of publication, in order of relevance to your topic)
- Index cards also allow us to divide sources into groups (e.g. those already consulted and those not yet consulted, those most useful and those less so).
- Similar results can be achieved with a personal computer.

Communication Skills

- A computer file is created for the working bibliography, and titles are entered as we proceed with the research. The file can be revised by additions or deletions as per the requirements and then saved for the future use.
- As with index cards, we are able to arrange, rearrange, and group sources. At any point, the file can be printed to review it or to use it for research.
- When we add sources to the working bibliography, we have to be sure that we have all the publication information needed for the works cited list. The information to be recorded depends on the kind of sources used. It could be :
 - Books
 - Articles in a Scholarly Journal
 - Newspaper or Magazine Article

12.5 Format for Citing a Reference Book

1. Author's full name (last name first)
2. Full title (including any subtitle)
3. Editor or translator (if there is one)
4. Edition (if the book is a second or later edition)
5. Number of the volume and the total number of volumes (if the book is a multi-volume work)
6. Series name (if the book is part of a series)
7. City of publication (note only the first city if several are listed)
8. Publisher
9. Year of publication

Example: Budden, Julian. *The Operas of Verdi*. Trans. Thomas Colchie. Rev. ed. 3 vols. Oxford: Clarendon, 1992.

Chaucer, Geoffrey. *The Works of Geoffrey Chaucer*. Ed. F. W. Robinson. 2nd ed. Twayne's World Authors Ser. 679. Boston: Twayne, 1957.

Indexing

- Easy location of files
- Ensures cross-referencing
- Improves the efficiency of the record administration and reduce costs
- A good indexing system should be
 - ① Simple to operate and use
 - ② Flexible in expansion
 - ③ Suitable for the organisation.

Type of indexing

- ① page index:- A page index consists of a page for each letter of the alphabet filled with a tab showing the letter, and on each letter are written the names beginning with that letter and quoting the relevant page number.

Teacher's Signature.....

② loose or vertical card index :- it is used to overcome the drawbacks of the page index: A card index consists of a number of small size (Cards (12cmx7cm) each concerned with one item of the index.

Heading is on the top edge of the card.

③ Visible card index :- Cards, under this system, are laid flat in transparent covers in a shallow tray or in a metal frame. Each card is fitted into a metal hinge so that it overlaps the one before it in such a way that a narrow strip at the bottom containing the name or title remains visible.

④ Automatic card index :- Visible books and staggered card index are some of its variations.

⑤ strip index :- Strip index is designed for maintaining a list of the names, addresses and telephone numbers of the correspondents.

Teacher's Signature.....

wheel indexing :-

It is a sort of modern method of Visi indexing. Here cards are arranged at the Circumference of a wheel, which may be portable or set in a Cabinet or c

Lesson 13**PRÉCIS WRITING /ABSTRACTING/SUMMARIZING****13.1 Introduction**

Précis Writing /Abstracting/Summarizing is the one of the most useful skills for both the student and the professional for reporting purpose. It is the art of shortening a document to extract the maximum amount of information, then conveying this information to a reader in the minimum number of words. But, it is necessary at the same time to be very careful not to lose or distort the original meaning. The goal is to preserve the core essence of the original report in a manner which is both clear and concise.

13.2 Précis Writing

Précis is a French word and concerned with the English word *precise*. A précis is a summary and précis writing means summarizing. This is an exercise in compression. It is the gist or main theme of a passage expressed in as few words as possible. It should be lucid, succinct and full (including all the essential points so that anyone, on reading it, may be able to grasp the main points and general effect of the passage summarized).

- It is not paraphrasing. A paraphrase should reproduce not only the substance of a passage, but also all its details. It will, therefore, be at least as long as, and probably longer than, the original.
- A Précis should not contain more than a third of the number of words in the original passage.
- It is an exercise to grasp the gist of the passage and to read the material with full concentration. So summarizing is an excellent training in concentration of attention. It teaches us to read with the mind, as well as with the eye, on the page.
- It's a good exercise in writing a composition.
- It teaches us to express our thoughts clearly, concisely and effectively.
- It corrects our common tendency to be vague, disorderly and diffused in our thinking and written expressions.

Communication Skills

- It is an exercise to choose our words carefully and to construct our sentences with an eye to fullness combined with brevity and to put our matter in a strictly logical order.
- In other words, it is an ability to grasp quickly and accurately what is read, or heard and to reproduce it clearly and concisely.

13.1.1 Method or procedure

- Reading carefully for comprehending clearly its main theme or general meaning.
- Think of some word, phrase or short sentence that will sum up briefly the main subject of the passage. Sometimes this is supplied by what we call key sentence.
- Key sentence may be found at the beginning or the end of the passage.
- We are required to supply a title for the précis.
- Sift the essential from the inessentials. Leave out superfluous details. Omit repetitions, illustrations and examples. Important ideas should find place in the précis.
- Jot down brief notes, title and the essential details.

13.1.2 Final draft

- The précis should be all in your own words.
- It must be a connected whole. The ideas must be joined together in such a way to read continuously.
- The précis must be complete and self-contained.
- It must convey its message fully and clearly without requiring any reference to the original to complete its meaning.
- The language should be simple and it should be grammatically correct.
- A suitable title should be provided to the passage.

13.3 Abstract Writing

An abstract is a very important portion of an article. Abstract is best placed before the text of the manuscript so that the reader might comprehend the essence of the report. The formulation of an abstract into a short paragraph forces the author to express precisely the most important information of the technical report.

- The abstract should be informative, give a succinct condensation of the article, and complete in itself and intelligible without reference to the text, figures or tables. It generally appears at the beginning and written in the past tense.
- Always begin the abstract with rationale and objective statements; never jump directly into the materials and methods. It should include:
 - Principal objectives and scope of investigation.
 - Methodology/technique(s) employed/but not mega emphasis on techniques but on results.
 - The main and important findings of the experiment.
 - The contribution of this particular piece of work towards new knowledge
- The abstract is not needed in a short report though it is required in a long report. The busy technocrat or an over busy executive may read only the abstract and refer to the relevant parts of the report only if it is absolutely necessary.
- The abstract is placed on the separate page or immediately after the title.

13.4 Abstract and Summary

- Abstract is generally restricted to 250 words or even less, but a summary may be somewhat longer.
- If a summary is the précis of a report, an abstract is a précis of the summary.
- Long reports, sometimes has a summary as well as an abstract; in short reports the abstract tends to coincide with the summary.
- A **synopsis** is a summary with some particulars, especially of the results, given in greater detail than in a summary.

13.5 Extract, Summary

- Extract is one or more portion of a document selected to represent the whole (an excerpt).
- Summary is a brief restatement within the document (usually at the end) of its salient findings and conclusions and is intended to complete the orientation of a reader who has studied the preceding text.

13.6 Synoptic

- A **Synoptic** is a concise first publication in a directly usable form of key results selected, from an available but previously unpublished paper. It differs from an abstract (which it contains) in that it is often a combination of text, tables, and figures, and may contain the equivalent of 2000 words.

Abstracting :- An abstract is a concise and accurate representation of the content of a document in a style similar to that of the original document.

Purpose of abstracts :-

- As an aid to the reader. It helps the reader assess the contents of a document without having to read the whole document.

The reader can narrow the selection of documents based upon their abstracts. It increases the efficiency of searching.

Value of an abstract

- Abstract length
- Abstract orientation.
- Abstract quality.
- Nature of the original document

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Type of abstract

Informative abstracts :- Represent as much of the information from the document's content as possible.

Indicative abstracts :- indicates general content without trying to describe it all. Usually a list of topics but no detail.

→ Critical abstracts

Does more than just describe Content.

Evaluates work and places it in context, so write of abstract is adding personal opinion to abstract

Summarizing: What is it?

- Summarizing is taking a large selection of text and then reducing it to smaller pieces.
- Summarizing is finding the main idea of a text.
- Summarizing is also finding the supporting details of the main idea.
- In other words, summarizing is retelling only the important parts of the story in YOUR WORDS.

The Basic Outline

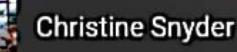
Summarizing: What are we doing when we summarize?

- We are taking all the "extra words" out of the story or text.
- We look for key words or phrases that will still tell someone about what you have read.
- A summary should never be longer than the story!
- Summaries are a lot shorter than the original story or text.

The Basic Outline

Summarizing

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Summarizing: Example?

- Here is a summary of The Three Little Pigs:
- The Three Little Pigs is about three pigs and a wolf. The wolf blows down two of the pigs' houses because he wants to eat them. He doesn't blow down the brick house, because it is too strong. He doesn't get to eat the pigs.



Summarizing: What should happen?

- Students should pull out the main idea.
- Students should focus on the key details about the main idea.
- Students should use key words or phrases.
- Students should write down just enough to tell someone about what they have read.

The Basic Outline

Lesson 16

INDIVIDUAL & GROUP PRESENTATIONS

16.1 Introduction

The practice of showing and explaining the content of a topic to an audience or learner is known as presentation. There are as many forms as the life situations. A presentation is a process of offering for consideration or display. It can be a social introduction, as of a person at court, or a demonstration, lecture, or welcoming speech, or a manner or style of speaking, instructing, or putting oneself forward. The manner of presenting, especially the organization of visual details to create an overall impression is a presentation. It may be the formal introduction of a person, as into society or at court. In the business world, there are sales presentations, informational and motivational presentations, first encounters, interviews, briefings, status reports, image-building, and the inevitable training sessions. Presentations can also be categorized as vocational and non-vocational. In addition, they are expository or persuasive. They can also be impromptu, extemporaneous, written, or memorized. But it's more important to focus on their purpose. There are three basic purposes for giving oral presentations:

1. To Inform
2. To Persuade
3. To Build Goodwill

Now-a-days, it has become increasingly common for individuals especially for the employers to request job applicants who are successfully shortlisted to deliver one or more presentations at their interview, debut, or other important event that needs to be highlighted in a more official way. The purpose of the presentation in this setting may be to either demonstrate candidates' skills and abilities in presenting, or to highlight their knowledge of a given subject. It is common for the presenter to be notified of the request for them to deliver a presentation along with their invitation to attend the event. Usually presenters are only given a title for their presentation and a time limit which the presentation should not exceed. Be sure to hone up on current presentation etiquette before preparing slide presentations. How you use this visual aid can make or break the presentation.

16.2 Types

16.2.1 Informative Presentations

Include talks, seminars, proposals, workshops, conferences, and meetings where the presenter or presenters share their expertise and information is exchanged.

Communication Skills

16.2.2 Persuasive Presentations

Sometimes called transactional, are often motivational. Persuasive Presentations are designed and delivered to come out with a specific goal in mind.

16.2.3 Goodwill Presentations

Goodwill presentations, which often take the form of after dinner speeches, are often designed to be entertaining-for example by sharing video highlights of a football season or anecdotes based on some past experiences.

16.2.4 Multipurpose Presentations

Presentations usually have more than one purpose. A presentation to employees may be announced as an informative session on new regulations but in reality may also be an all-out effort to persuade workers to buy into the new rules.

16.2.5 Sales

Sales techniques are complex and require two essential items for success in sales presentations which are knowing and understanding your audience, and building rapport.

16.2.6 Political

Presentations in the political arena are primarily grouped in the persuasive category. To be effective they must include lots of information and also build goodwill.

16.2.7 Motivational Presentations

Motivation is another form of persuasion, but one that somehow takes on a more fervent, highly charged tone.

16.2.8 Interviews

A "Job Interview" is yet another presentation form, one where the presenter should make an effort to identify his or her immediate audience, but also take great pains to know as much as possible about the larger audience.

Audiences can be classified into *four* basic categories:

- 1. Captives**
- 2. Pragmatists**
- 3. Socially Motivated**

4. Committed

When an individual stands up to deliver a presentation before an audience, it's essential that the audience know who the presenter is, why they are there, what specifically they expect to get from your presentation, and how they will react to your message. You should try to gather as much background information as possible before your presentation. There will be times, especially with presentations that are open to the public, when you will only be able to guess.

It has been found that audiences believe presenters who use visuals are more professional and credible than presenters who merely speak. Some research indicates that meetings and presentations reinforced with visuals help participants reach decisions and consensus in less time.

A presentation program, such as Microsoft PowerPoint, is often used to generate the presentation content. The development of information technology has made the use of these solutions possible, but 'Liquid Crystal Display (LCD)' Projectors as well as overhead transparencies are still used widely for the purpose of presentations.

Helpful Presentation Tips

- Easy Format
- Organize Your Thoughts
- Know Your Material
- Prep Time
- Outline Your Presentation

16.3 Three Ingredients of Group Presentations

16.3.1 Clarity

Clarity means clearness of purpose, thought or style. Developing clarity within your group will help you develop a clear message for your audience.

16.3.1.1 Clarity of purpose

Just as your presentation will have a clear purpose, your group should create a Charter Statement that explicitly captures the group's desired outcome. This Charter Statement becomes the test of everything that will go into the presentation and help guide the efforts of the team. For example, if your group agrees that your general purpose is to sell your product, and, more specifically, you know that the key decision maker in the audience is doubtful about cutting checks to companies like yours, build that into your Charter Statement. The purpose of our presentation is to sell our Product to ABC Company by overcoming the objections of the

16.5 Group discussion

Group Discussion is a modern method of assessing the students' personality. It is both a technique and an art and a comprehensive tool to judge the worthiness of the student and his appropriateness for the job. The term suggests a discussion among a group of 8& 12 members who will express their views freely, frankly in a friendly manner, on a topic of current issue. The abilities of the members of the group are measured within a time limit of 20 to 30 minutes.

Group Discussion is a very important round in any selection process, be it for an MBA course, campus recruitment or for any graduate/post graduate degree. The selection committee conducts GD to gauge whether the candidate has certain personality traits and/or skills that it desires in its members, say for example: ability to work in a team, communication skills, leadership skills, reasoning ability, imitativeness, assertiveness, creative, flexibility, ability to think and act independently.

Normally groups of 8-10 candidates are formed into a leaderless group, and are given a specific situation to analyze and discuss within a given time limit. The group may be given a Case Study and asked to come out with a solution for a problem. The group may be given a topic and asked to discuss on the same. A panel will observe the proceedings and evaluate the members of the group.

16.5.1 Prerequisites of a Group Discussion

- Topics given by panelists
- Planning and preparation
- Knowledge with self-confidence
- Communication skills/ power of speech
- Presentation
- Body Language and personal appearance
- Being calm and cool
- Extensive knowledge base related to state, country and globe
- Areas are politics, sports, science & trade commerce, Industry and Technology, MNC, etc
- Analyze the social, economical issues logically

Communication Skills

- Listening skills
- Co-operation

16.5.2 Salient features of Group Discussion

- Topic may be given to judge your public speaking talent.
- Discussion revolves around a specific subject.
- The examiner does not interfere once he announced the topic.
- Maintain cordiality and free expression of thought and opinion.

16.5.3 Main objectives of the participants in a Group Discussion

1) The first thing is that the panel should notice you. Merely making a meaningful contribution and helping the group arrive at a consensus is not enough? Ensure that the group hears you. If the group hears you, so will the evaluator. You need to be assertive. It depends on you how you steer the group in the right direction, once it gets stuck to something. This gives you the chance to showcase your leadership skills. Most importantly, you have to make your chances. Many group discussion participants often complain that they did not get a chance to speak. The fact is that in no group discussion will you get a chance to speak. There is nothing more unacceptable in a GD than keeping one's mouth shut or just murmuring things which are inaudible.

2) The second most essential thing is that your contribution to the group should be meaningful. For that you need to have a good knowledge base. You should be able to think logically and hence put forth your ideas cohesively. The quality of what you said is more valuable than the quantity. It doesn't help if you shout at the top of your voice and speak at great length, what matters most is what you speak and how it creates an impact on the group as well as the evaluators.

3) The last most important thing is that you must be clearly seen to be attempting to build a consensus. This shows your ability to work in a team, your ability to adjust yourself in new surroundings and help others in your team to reach a definite conclusion amidst difference of opinions. After all this is what all Group Discussions aim at: To be able to discuss and arrive at a consensus.

Group discussion

Group discussion

Group discussion is a method by which two or more persons meet, express or convey their ideas, clarity and bring about a solution to the commonly felt problems by their own efforts.

Objectives

1. Democracy in action involves group functioning.
2. Systematic discussion among representative persons promotes the analysis of commonly felt needs.
3. We can solve many important problems or meet the needs only through group action.
4. Group discussion provides opportunity to the members of the group to exchange their experience or their points of view.

5. It promotes the habit of group thinking, group planning, group action and expression.
6. Most of the problems in many villages could be solved by group action which means that there should be organized group in the village with a group leader.
7. Organised group may not always be available in a village. Lack of organized group by itself is a challenge for the extension worker. The village group must be identified first that the public interest should be focused on a problem to mobilize the villagers to action.
8. Group discussion is a miniature democracy giving equal rights, privileges and opportunities to every members to discussing issue.

How to conduct a group discussion

- identify the individual interested in a particular problem through individual contact
- time, date, place and the topic should be informed
- seating arrangements should be in a circular or semicircular fashion
- receive the member with a welcoming smile
- atmosphere of the meeting should be kept friendly and informal
- group leader should be elected democratically

Advantages

1. Every participant shares the pride of having helped in solving the problem.
2. Helps in deciding the debatable issues.
3. Leaders, group interests and problems are discovered.
4. Group planning and group action results.
5. Fairly large numbers can be reached.

Limitations

1. Group factions in the village might hinder the effective working of the method.
2. 'Traditional leaders', who are not functional, come in the way of group activities.
3. Possibility of creating rivalries.
4. Difficult to avoid unconnected persons' attendance.

Lesson 17

ORGANIZING SEMINARS& CONFERENCES

17.1 Introduction

The popularity of conferences and seminars results from the distinct benefits they offer. Attendees pre-qualify themselves as prospects; if they weren't interested in the issue being discussed, they wouldn't come. You get to talk with them face-to-face, both formally during presentations and informally during breaks, meals, and receptions. As a speaker, you are automatically classified as an expert. Outside speakers can add credibility and drawing power. Because seminars can run from a few hours to several days, they can be adapted to a wide array of subject matter and contexts. In combination with outbound telemarketing, the offer of a quality seminar is an effective tool for multiplying the number of qualified prospects for your products and services.

17.2 Benefits of Seminar/Conference

It is better to address the benefits of a seminar/conference before going through the first steps of conference organization. A conference is the broadest of the three kinds of meetings (Seminar, Workshop, and Conference) can provide, among others, the opportunity to:

- Meet students, researchers, professors etc. from other linguistics departments of your own or other countries
- Become aware of other cultures and ideas related to linguistics
- Familiarize yourself with other research work, projects etc.
- Promote your association, university / department within the field
- Attract new and active students in your association, university / department
- Build connections and create a network of co-workers and institutions
- Travel and get to know the hosting country (geographically, culture, religion etc.)
- Promote your own research and get feedback
- Gain and train management skills
- Trained interpersonal skills
- Learn how things are behind the scenes
- Become an active member of the academic community

Communication Skills

17.2.1 Seminars can be of the following types

- A half-day seminar on your products and services.
- A one-day or two-day conference, featuring multiple tracks and noted speakers, run by a professional conference organizer on highly technical issues, attracting participants from across the country.
- A series of half-day or one-day seminars offered at several locations across the country to teach the fundamentals of a specific application to those just beginning to work in that area.

Each of these programs will result in new business for the sponsor or for the speakers. Unlike most forms of marketing, you can sometimes charge for seminars, covering your marketing costs and even making a profit. However, with these benefits come associated risks and costs, especially if you plan a large conference for which you will charge a fee. If it is a one-time event, a conference is a high-fixed-cost, low variable cost enterprise. The time speakers must invest to prepare remains constant regardless of audience size. Marketing costs are also usually fixed, consisting of a large mailing. This leaves the duplication of handouts as the major variable cost. A two-day conference can cost you a bundle if too few participants attend to defray the hotel charges. By forecasting your costs, you can easily run a breakeven analysis to calculate how many participants you need at a given price to recoup your costs. The fee from every additional attendee is almost all profit.

A small seminar, over a breakfast or at the end of the day, can be set up and run by one person if time is available over an extended period, but it is a method that lends itself more to an organization. A large conference requires many hours of preparation from many people. This differs from many of the other marketing techniques that can be done by a single individual.

17.2.2 Optimizing the seminar's success

The subject for a business conference must:

17.2.2.1 Be educational

People come to conferences to learn. Entertainment is a plus, but promotion of your business is acceptable only if it is heavily disguised. There has to be something worth learning.

17.2.2.2 Be urgent

There must be a need to know now. A conference on "New Genomic Tools" is not likely to draw as many people as one entitled "Speeding Your Drugs to Market". The term "urgent" here means that there is value to learning something now rather than later.

17.2.2.3 Provide solutions

Communication Skills

The conference must offer attendees solutions or progress toward solutions, because people attend conferences in order to solve problems better.

You should test seminar content against these criteria. A brainstorming session with your staff can usually provide you with a good assortment of subjects to pick from that will ensure good attendance.

17.2.3 Length

Next you must decide on the conference's length. You can determine length by asking yourself the following questions:

- a) **How much time and support do I have to set it up?** A two-day conference requires much more work than a half day seminar. You must adjust the length to the level of effort you can put into setting it up.
- b) **How much content do I have to offer?** There is simply not enough material for a lengthy conference on some subjects.
- c) **Is my audience willing to pay?** A two-day conference gets expensive, and most firms expect to be paid for them. The audience, in turn, is faced with not just a fee but a substantial opportunity cost in time invested away from other duties. A longer conference must therefore deal with a particularly weighty, urgent, or complicated subject. Generally you must also have a longer mailing list to find people with budgets and schedules that will allow them to attend.
- d) **How many speakers can I attract?** Many conferences use only one speaker, but the speaker had better be good. Using three or four speakers a day diversifies your risk. Some of the time the audience will be listening to some exceptional speakers, even if not all are of equal quality.
- e) **How geographically scattered is my market?** Few people will drive more than an hour to attend a half day seminar. Assuming that very few of the intended clientele respond to your invitations (an optimistic target, unless outbound telemarketing is utilized), you will need to invite two hundred prospective buyers of your services to attract a twenty-person audience. Identifying so many prospects within a one hour travel time is easy in some businesses but impossible in others, even when more than one person is invited from the same organization. The wider the geographic area you need to draw people from, the longer your conference will have to be to justify longer travel times. Alternatively, you need to repeat your half day seminar in several locations to meet the travel time criterion.

17.2.4 Timing

Timing will also affect attendance. Most are scheduled to avoid summer vacations and end-of-the-year holidays. Longer conferences tend to be scheduled for either the beginning or end of the week, allowing participants to travel on the weekend and perhaps enjoy a short vacation at the city where the conference is being held. In the suburbs, short seminars should run in the late afternoon, allowing attendees to leave work a little early and avoid rush-hour traffic. Center-city seminars often fare better over breakfast or lunch, allowing attendees to leave before rush-hour. If charging a fee, don't schedule late in the year, as most travel budgets are already used up.

17.2.5 Location

Possible locations for your seminar or conference include your own offices, a hotel, a corporate or privately operated conference center, or space borrowed or leased from another organization. If your office has adequate meeting space and is close to the market you are trying to reach, holding the conference there provides you the opportunity to show the place off and introduce other members of the firm. The location serves as a subtle advertisement for your firm.

Hotels and conference centers offer logistical support unavailable at many offices for conferences of a day or more, including full audio visual support, eating space separate from meeting space, and almost enough telephones for everyone to use during breaks. Most hotels will provide meeting spaces free if you guarantee a minimum number of room rentals. Room rates are negotiable if you expect a large number of participants. More importantly, you will want to negotiate the cost of meals and break-time refreshments. This is because participants pay for rooms themselves, while you pay for meals and refreshments either out of conference fees or out of your own budget. Talk to several hotels, see the space they plan to give you, look at rooms, taste the food, check out logistical support such as photocopying and audio visual equipment, request rates, and ask for references from others who have held meetings there. You will then be in a position to negotiate with several hotels to get the mix of service and cost that suits your needs.

17.2.6 Seminar marketing

Most seminars are marketed by direct mail. The longer the seminar and the more you plan to charge for it, the longer the list will have to be to identify an adequate number of candidates. A breakfast or evening seminar can get by with a much shorter list.

Seminar attendance can be increased dramatically through effective telemarketing. Scripts and training are the key, and only qualified professionals that can represent you effectively should be used. Telemarketing should be coordinated with mail drops, timed so the prospect has the invitation on their desk no more than a week. Outbound scripts should include topic and product interest and referral questions. Interviewees can also be asked if they would post invitations on bulletin boards, or e-mail the announcement to their colleagues. An e-mail version should be available to facilitate this.

PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Meaning - The real meaning of personality development is to enhance self-esteem, improving social skill and developing potential.

In a larger

Social Sense, the definition or meaning of personality development includes the sum total of human happiness by fostering self-awareness and self-esteem by developing talents by facilitation.

Definition : Personality development is the development of the organized pattern of behaviors and attitudes that makes a person distinctive.

Personality development occurs by the ongoing interaction of temperament, character and environment.

Importance of personality in organizational behaviour : The word personality is derived from a Greek word "Persono" which means "to speak through".

→ Major personality Attributes or characters or importance that have an influence in organizational behaviour are:

- Locus of control
- Machiavellianism
- Self-esteem

anand

- Self monitoring

- Risk taking

* Locus of Control: Locus of Control is the Center of Control of an individual Code of Conduct, people can be grouped into two categories i.e. Internal and external respectively.

People who consider themselves as the masters of their own forces are known as internal while those affirm that their lives are controlled by outside forces known as external.

* Machiavellianism \Rightarrow Machiavellianism is being practical emotionally distant and believing that end justify means machiavellians are always wanting to win and are great persuaders.

Here are the significant features of a high-machiavellian individual.

- High Machs prefer precise interactions rather than beating about the bush.
- High mache tend to improvise, they do not necessarily abide by rules and regulation all the time

End

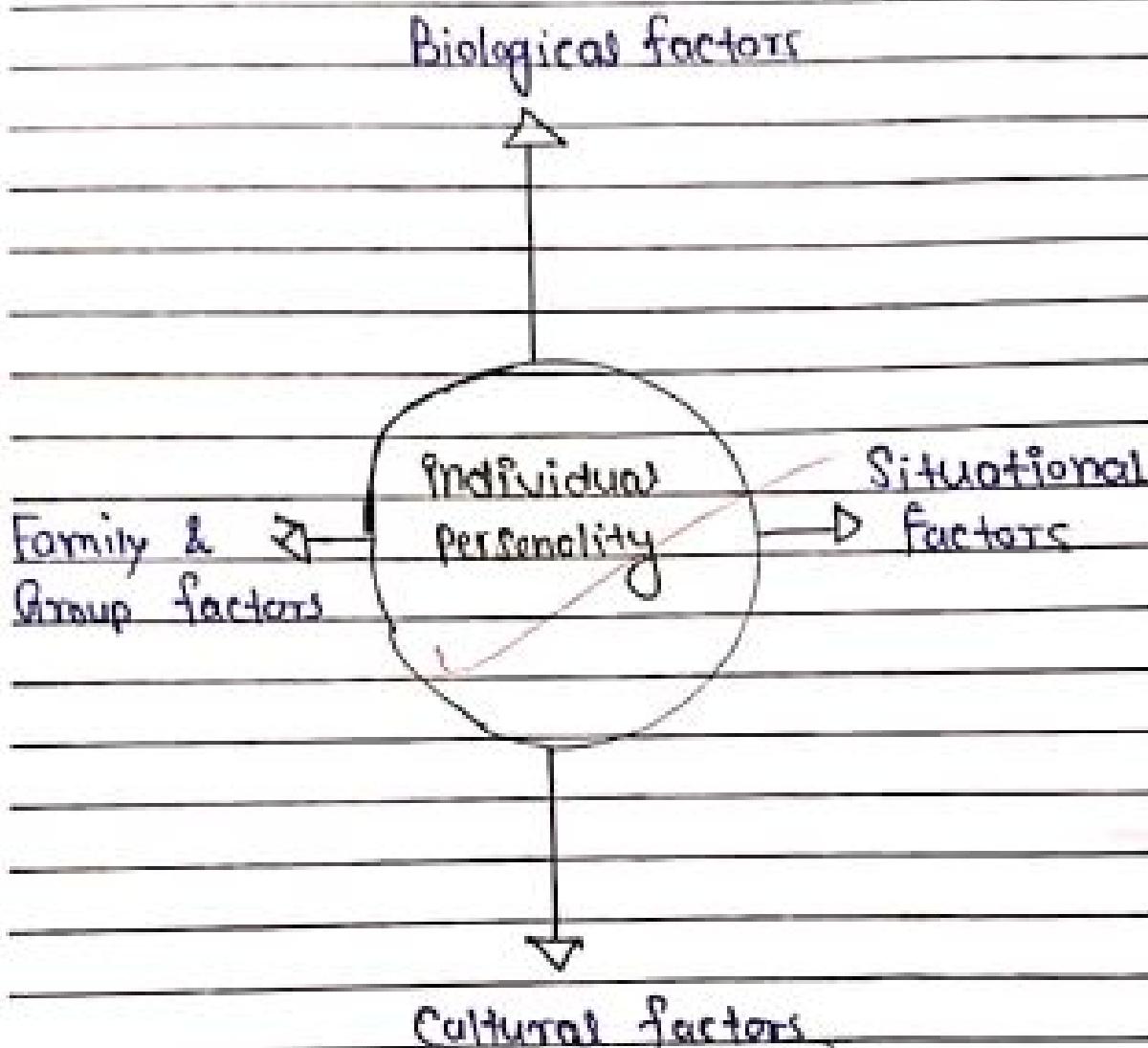
* Self-esteem \Rightarrow It is the extent up to which people either like or dislike themselves. Self-esteem is directly related to the expectations of success and in the job satisfaction. individuals with high self-esteem think that they have what it takes to succeed. So they take more challenges while selecting a job

* Self-monitoring: - Self monitoring is the capability of regulating one's behaviour according to social situations. individuals with high self-monitoring skill easily adjust their behaviour acc to external situational factors. their impulsive talents allow them to present public persona which are completely different from their private personalities.

* Risk-taking: - Generally managers are reluctant on taking risks. However individual risk-taking inclination affects the bulk of information required by the managers and how long it takes them to make decisions.

End

Determinants of Personality



Biological factors: The general characteristics of human biological system influence the way in which human being tends to sense external event also interpret and respond to them.

It can be divided into

three major categories

- Heredity
- Brain
- Physical features

Family and Group factors - the development of the individual

processes under the influence of many socializing forces from nuclear family to more distant or global groupings there group impact through

- Socialization process
- Identification process

Cultural factors - Culture is the underlying determinant of human decision making. It generally determines attitudes towards independence.

End

Situational factors - According to Mairgram's research situation exerts an important pressure on the individual to exercise constraints or provide power.

In circumstances it is not so much the kind of person a man is as the kind of situation in which he is placed, that determines his actions.

Personality traits: personality can also be defined as the traits exhibited by a person during their interactions. These personality traits are very significant to the study of organisational behaviour.

From organisational behaviour point of view following classification of personality trait is relevant.

Personality traits

↓
Big 5
Personality traits

↓
other personality traits

* Big five personality traits : Researchers have

identified five

fundamental traits that are specially relevant
to organization .

* Agreeableness - Agreeableness refers to person's ability to get along with others . Highly agreeable people are better in developing good working relationship with coworkers .

* Conscientiousness → Conscientiousness refers to the number of goals on which a person focuses his attention .

* Negative Emotionality → Emotions means moving of the feelings or agitation of mind . Person with less negative emotionality are relatively poised , calm , resilient and secure .

* Extraversion : This refers to the extent to which a person comfortable with other people . People who have high degree of extraversion are social , talkative and friendly .

Ques

Q. Openness :- Openness refers to person's rigidity of beliefs and range of interests.

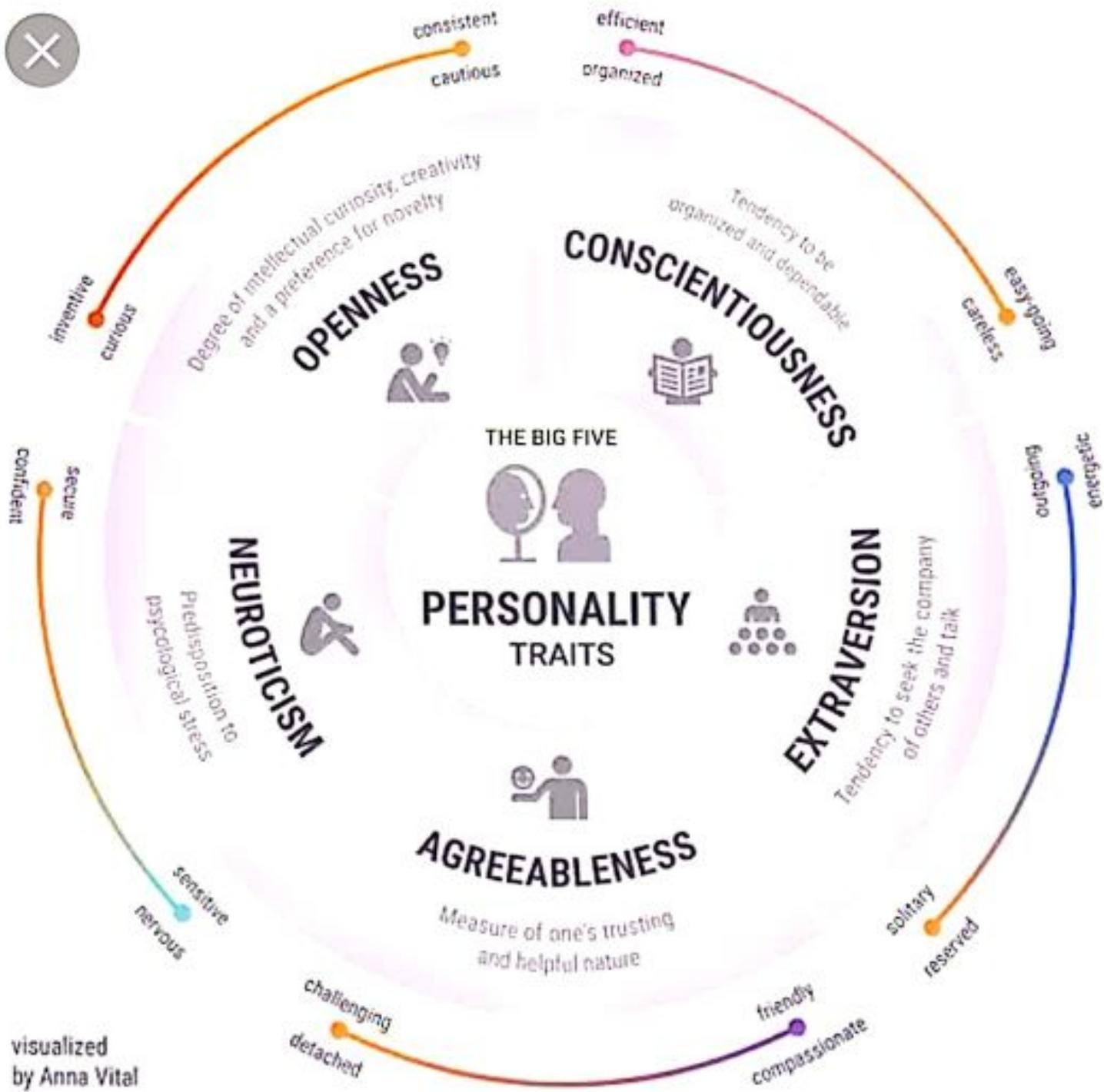
Other personality traits:-

① Self-esteem

② Machiavellianism

③ locus of control

④ Risk-taking



visualized
by Anna Vital

X Types of Personality traits :

There are many different personality types & it is difficult to classify a person into a single type as there are many different personality traits :

Positive Personality Traits

Cultured
Fearless
Impartial
Independent
Optimistic
Intelligent
Confident
Encouraging
Helpful
Humble
Obedient

Negative Personality Traits

Laziness
Picky
Dishonesty
Arrogant
Cowardly
Rude
Self-centered
Unfriendly
Thoughtless
Bossy
Vulgar
Malicious
Pessimistic
Short tempered

PUBLIC SPEAKING

18.1 Introduction

The process of speaking to a group of people in a structured, deliberate manner intended to inform, influence, or entertain the listeners is known as public speaking. It is closely allied to "presenting", although the latter has more of a commercial connotation. In public speaking, there are five basic elements, often expressed as "*who* is saying *what* to *whom* using *what medium* with *what effects*?" The purpose of public speaking ranges from simply transmitting information, to motivating people to act, to simply telling a story.

Public speaking can be a powerful tool to use for purposes such as motivation, influence, persuasion, informing, translation, or simply entertaining. A confident speaker is more likely to use this as excitement and create effective speech, thus increasing their overall ethos.

Importance of Good Public Speaking

Good public speaking skills also work at the time of the interview. It is compulsory to face an interview before getting a new job. Interviewer will not only judge your personality but also your communication and fluency in general. In this technology-savvy world, your presentation skills and public speaking skills are also counted along with your basic qualification.

It is not that we only require public speaking skills to speak in front of audience or to give lectures. Public speaking skills are an asset that is worth millions. These skills are counted not only in our professional life but are also useful when a person is college go-getter.

Tips for Public Speaking

- } Know the needs of your audience and match your contents to their needs.
- } Know your material thoroughly.
- } Put what you have to say in a logical sequence.
- } Ensure your speech will be captivating to your audience as well as worth their time and attention.
- } Practice and rehearse your speech at home or where you can be at ease and comfortable, in front of a mirror, your family, friends or colleagues.

- › Use a tape-recorder and listen to yourself. Videotape your presentation and analyze it.
- › Know what your strong and weak points are. Emphasize your strong points during your presentation.
- › When you are presenting in front of an audience, you are performing as an actor is on stage. How you are being perceived is very important. Dress appropriately for the occasion.
- › Be solemn if your topic is serious. Present the desired image to your audience.
- › Look pleasant, enthusiastic, confident, proud, but not arrogant.
- › Remain calm. Appear relaxed, even if you feel nervous.
- › Speak slowly, enunciate clearly, and show appropriate emotion and feeling relating to your topic.
- › Establish rapport with your audience.
- › Speak to the person farthest away from you to ensure your voice is loud enough to project to the back of the room. Vary the tone of your voice and dramatize if necessary. If a microphone is available, adjust and adapt your voice accordingly.
- › Body language is important. Standing, walking or moving about with appropriate hand gesture or facial expression is preferred to sitting down or standing still with head down and reading from a prepared speech. Use audio-visual aids or props for enhancement if appropriate and necessary.
- › Master the use of presentation software such as *PowerPoint* well before your presentation. Do not over-dazzle your audience with excessive use of animation, sound clips, or gaudy colors which are inappropriate for your topic. Do not torture your audience by putting a lengthy document in tiny print on an overhead and reading it out to them.
- › Speak with conviction as if you really believe in what you are saying. Persuade your audience effectively.