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# **COMMAND AND STAFF TRAINING INSTITUTE BANGLADESH AIR FORCE**



## **Junior Command and Staff Course**

### **REINFORCEMENT MODULE**

**January - 2012**

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**SYLLABUS****REINFORCEMENT MODULE****Total = 92 Periods****Marks: 350**

<b>Ser No</b>	<b>Subj</b>	<b>Topic/Ex</b>	<b>Mode</b>	<b>Period</b>	<b>Remarks</b>
1.	English and Public Speaking	Effective Writing	Lecture	4	-
		Test-1	Assignment/ Exam	4	25 Marks
		Public Speaking	Lecture	4	-
		Test-2 (Extempore Speech)	Exam	4	25 Marks
		Preparing Presentation	Lecture	2	-
		Test-3 (Prepared Speech)	Presentation	12	50 Marks
		Précis Writing	Lecture	1	-
		Para Phrasing/ Amplification	Lecture	1	-
		Test-4	Assignment	2	25 Marks
2.	National & International Affairs	Introduction to Current Affairs	Lecture	1	-
		Test -1 (News Review)	Presentation (individual)	4	25 Marks
		Test-2 (Regional/ Conflict Studies)	Presentation (Group)	5	50 Marks
		Test-3 (Country Presentation)	Presentation (individual)	12	50 Marks
3.	Service Paper/ Analytic Paper	Research Methodology & Research Work	Lecture	10	-
		Analytic Paper/ Service Paper	Assignment (individual)	2	50 Marks
4.	Book Review	Guide to Book Review/Critique	Lecture	2	-
		Tips to Quick Reading	Lecture	1	-
		Framing Question	Lecture	1	-
		Test	Assignment/ Exam	2	50 Marks
5.	Physical Fitness	Drill	Lecture/Practical	10	-
		Games and Sports	Practical	Afternoon	-
		PER Test	Test	Afternoon	-
6.	Seminar	Seminar on Selected Topic	Workshop	8	-

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## **REINFORCEMENT MODULE**

### **English and Public Speaking**

**RFT-1**

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## **ENGLISH AND PUBLIC SPEAKING**

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## **TOPIC-1**

### **EFFECTIVE WRITING**

#### **Introduction**

1. Language is the primary means of communication between human beings, so any exercise in clear writing is an exercise in the use of clear thought. We can communicate satisfactorily only by thinking first what we wish to communicate. We must have a store of words which we understand, because they are the tools of all our thinking, and we must be able to group them into orderly statements, or sentences, which others can understand.
2. There are 2 reasons why it is important to write effective English:
  - a. The aim of all writing is to communicate ideas. If there are no ideas, or these are misunderstood, then what is written serves no purpose.
  - b. What we write reflects our thoughts at the time of writing, and so our thoughts will be judged by the words we have written. Extensive knowledge or brilliant ideas may count for little.

#### **What is Correctness?**

3. You will sometimes have been told that what you have written is incorrect. This is not the same as being badly written, which is a matter of style and clarity. The criticism implies a departure from an accepted standard based on some authority such as the 'Oxford English Dictionary', Fowler's 'Modern English Usage' or Gower's 'The Complete Plain Words'. These books record the accepted usage of most educated people of the day, so that when we talk of correctness, in this context, we mean the speech or writing of formally educated people. Rules must be a guide rather than a rigid formula because English in all its forms is fluid and constantly changing. Without rules for language there would be endless confusion of meaning.

#### **What is Clarity?**

4. People can read the most complex material if forced to do so, but the material they prefer to read is written simply. If you wish to write clearly you must be able to draw a line between simplicity on the one hand and complexity on the other. New terms are necessary, of course, but much special jargon is designed to impress rather than to express, because it rests on the assumption that complexity is the badge of wisdom. Quite the opposite is true: to write simply and well you must train your mind to cut through surface details and express your thoughts clearly.

#### **Clear Thinking**

5. Clear thinking is hard work but loose thinking is bound to produce loose writing. Clear thinking is required throughout the Staff Course not only for written work but also

for oral work, eg syndicate discussions. A knowledge of the problems and the rules will help you to argue logically, both orally and on paper. It will also enable you to detect flaws in other people's arguments.

6. **Barriers to Clear Thinking.** There are several obstacles to clear thinking and if you can identify them you may be able to avoid them. Here are some of the barriers and a few simple rules:

a. **Barrier of Language.** People only speak the same language if they use the same words with the same meaning. Concrete terms such as 'tree', 'rifle' or 'horse' are easy to use. Beware of abstract terms such as 'freedom' and 'democracy' which may mean different things to different people.

b. **The Barrier of Self-Interest.** Most beliefs are held through self-interest. Always suspect opinions or beliefs when you recognize that a person's happiness depends upon his continuing to hold them, or that he might lose by changing them.

c. **The Barrier of Habit.** Everyone has habits of thought. They are beliefs that we originally accepted without question and that we have continued to hold ever since. These are what we call our 'convictions', but other peoples' 'prejudices'. Prejudices create obstacles in our mind and make us unwilling to think straight on certain subjects. They are often strongly-held beliefs but generally they collapse when subjected to the tests of logical reasoning. Do not confuse prejudice with matters of taste or judgment.

d. **The Barrier of Emotion.** Many words appeal so strongly to the emotions that their basic meanings are obscured. Emotional words prejudice us in advance and prevent us from reaching impartial conclusions.

e. **The Barrier of Suggestion.** We are all responsive to suggestion. The psychological basis of suggestibility is simply the tendency to believe any statement that is repeated a great number of times, regardless of its accuracy. Suggestion can, therefore, constitute an insidious and formidable barrier to clear thought.

f. **The Barrier of Generalization.** Many generalizations are accurate and necessary. They are based on previous observations of at least a sample of the case in question. On the other hand, most people are guilty of using the 'sweeping statement' in argument. Very often the sweeping statement untrue, or hides an untruth. It may often be based on prejudice. To guard against the mistake of generalization one should insert such words as 'all' 'some', 'never', 'sometimes' whenever it is necessary to make the meaning of a statement or argument more precise.



7. **Logical Reasoning.** The logical form into which most arguments can be translated so that any fallacies may be detected is known as a syllogism and consists of:
- a. A major premise, which is the statement of a general law or principle.
  - b. A minor premise, which connects a particular case with the general law or principle.
  - c. A conclusion, which is a new fact validly inferred from the 2 premises.
8. The following example contains true premises followed by a valid, and therefore true, conclusion:
- a. **Major Premise.** All boggy ground is impassable to tanks.
  - b. **Minor Premise.** The ground on the left is boggy.
  - c. **Conclusion.** The ground on the left is impassable to tanks.
9. **Serial Arguments.** Arguments may be in serial form, with the conclusion of one argument becoming the premise of the next. This is commonly used in military appreciations: "If I have a preliminary fire plan I will lose surprise. If I lose surprise the enemy may be able to concentrate superior forces against me. If this happens etc, etc."
10. **Reduction ad Absurdum.** This is a method of disproving an argument by producing a statement which can obviously be deduced from the argument but which, equally obviously, is untrue.
11. **Dilemma.** The word 'dilemma' is often used incorrectly. To be in a dilemma is to be faced with 2 alternative courses of action, each of which is likely to have awkward results.
12. **Summary.** Truth may be distorted by prejudice or unfair argument. Conversely, the evidence from which conclusions are drawn may be incorrect or incomplete. Look critically at all the evidence, distinguish between statements of fact and opinion, and take account of any pressures which may be influencing the argument.

### **What is Standard English?**

13. **Definition and Characteristics of Standard English.** In the entry for "Standard English" in The Oxford Companion to the English Language (1992), Tom McArthur observes that this "widely used term ...resists easy definition but is used as if most educated people nonetheless know precisely what it refers to." For some of those people, Standard English (SE) is a synonym for good or correct English usage. Others use the term to refer to a specific geographical dialect of English or a dialect favored by the most powerful and prestigious social group. Some linguists argue that there really is

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no single standard of English. From the dozens of definitions of Standard English available in the literature on English, we may extract five essential characteristics:

- a. SE is a variety of English--a distinctive combination of linguistic features with a particular role to play.
- b. The linguistic features of SE are chiefly matters of grammar, vocabulary, and orthography (spelling and punctuation). It is important to note that SE is not a matter of pronunciation.
- c. SE is the variety of English which carries most prestige within a country. In the words of one US linguist, SE is "the English used by the powerful."
- d. The prestige attached to SE is recognized by adult members of the community, and this motivates them to recommend SE as a desirable educational target.
- e. Although SE is widely understood, it is not widely produced. Only a minority of people within a country . . . actually use it when they talk. . . . Similarly, when they write--itself a minority activity--the consistent use of SE is required only in certain tasks (such as a letter to a newspaper, but not necessarily to a close friend). More than anywhere else, SE is to be found in print.

14. **Written English and Spoken English.** There are many grammar books, dictionaries and guides to English usage which describe and give advice on the standard English that appears in writing. These books are widely used for guidance on what constitutes standard English. However, there is often also a tendency to apply these judgments, which are about written English, to spoken English. But the norms of spoken and written language are not the same; people don't talk like books even in the most formal of situations or contexts. If you can't refer to a written norm to describe spoken language, then, as we have seen, you base your judgments on the speech of the "best people," the "educated" or higher social classes. But basing your judgments on the usage of the educated is not without its difficulties. Speakers, even educated ones, use a variety of different forms of English.

### **The Principles of Effective Writing**

15. Effective written communication is a vital means of getting business done. This Guide contains the principles for effective writing and presentation, and will help you produce various types of document. Effective writing is largely about simplicity of expression, accuracy of content and brevity of style. The importance of clear writing is that it reflects clear thinking. However, standard formats, often called 'house style', help to provide structure to a document and ensure that you do not leave out key elements of information. Before any writing one should consider the following:

- a. **When do you need to write?** You need to write if:
- (1) A record has to be kept to account for expenditure or to record financial or other important decisions.
  - (2) Information or a decision has to be passed to a wide audience.
  - (3) Your message is too detailed or complex to deliver verbally or may need to be studied carefully.
- b. **Things to bear in mind.** When you write anything, bear in mind the following points:
- (1) What is the purpose of the document, who are you writing to and what is the most appropriate style?
  - (2) Accountability aligns with responsibility, so always sign off your own documents and include your job title.
- c. **The Aims of Writing.** Always aim to be accurate and brief and to make your message clear. Structure documents logically, and strive for effective, relevant and persuasive content.

### **Written Style**

16. **General Points.** Although it's important to think carefully about when and what we write, how we write is just as important. You write to communicate something, achieve an aim or get something done. If your words are not understood, fail to convince or don't have the desired effect, business may be held up or opportunities missed. Getting it 'right' means more than simply getting the layout right. **It's far more important to choose the right style and words, and express yourself clearly and concisely in a logical order.** This is something we should all do, whatever we are writing and whatever our intentions.

17. **Guiding Principles.** Clear, concise writing is a necessity, not an optional extra. It saves everyone's time and effort if work is clear, direct and easily understood:

- a. **Be Direct and Courteous (tone).** Rudeness and discourtesy have no place in correspondence. If you receive such remarks, they are best ignored. Stick to the subject in hand. The main points should stand out on first reading. You can be tactful, discreet or diplomatic, but don't obscure your meaning. If you're writing to a member of the public, use the words you and your. However, only use the first person singular, I, when putting across your own view. To express a general point, or write on behalf of someone else (eg when you sign 'For OC'), or an organization (eg an HQ or stn) use we, our and us, not I, my and me. This prevents the tone becoming over-personal.

- b. **Express Your Views Simply.** If your argument is convincing, it doesn't need dressing-up with impressive-sounding words. If your argument is not convincing, fancy language will not help. Develop your argument and build the case logically for reaching a recommendation.
- c. **Use Short, Everyday Words.** Short, everyday words and phrases help get your message across. For example, try use instead of utilize, help rather than assistance, show for demonstrate, and about or some instead of approximately. It's also very important that you understand the correct meaning of the words you choose.
- d. **Avoid Acronyms and Jargon.** Keep in mind who will read your work, and avoid using departmental or Service acronyms or jargon which the reader may not understand. Spell out any acronyms fully the first time you use them and always explain any technical terms. Your readers may not have a glossary; those who do will not thank you if they have to refer to it. On the other hand, don't insult your readers by explaining the obvious: a Service reader doesn't need you to explain NATO or UN.
- e. **Abbreviations.** You may use abbreviations, but only when the recipients will understand them. DWG, Chapter 6, Paragraphs 41 to 42 offers guidance on how to use abbreviations. Use abbreviations in the accepted sense, or your meaning will be unclear. For example, the abbreviation op means operate, operated, operates, operational, or operator but it doesn't stand for operating. Sparing use of well-known abbreviations can make work succinct and business-like. Too many abbreviations will make your work difficult to understand.
- f. **Passive verbs.** Compare 'I am sorry that I did not convince you' (active) with 'It is regrettable that my explanation was not found to be convincing' (passive). Passive verbs soften the message and it's often tempting to use them when writing something which the recipient will find disappointing or unacceptable. Too many passive verbs will make writing seem pompous, impersonal or dull.
- g. **Avoid 'Padding'.** Don't use several words where one will do. Leave out unnecessary phrases or words such as it is true that, there is no doubt that, at the end of the day, clearly and obviously. Replace by means of with by, in order to' with to, in view of the fact that with because, large-scale with big, and weather conditions with weather. Avoid any compound noun ending with situation, such as a stand-off situation. "Write to Express Not to Impress". Inexperienced writers often try to impress rather than to express. They talk with their own voice but when they write they try to be someone else. They spend time and effort in seeking long, unfamiliar words and in forming meandering sentences. The result is foggy writing which fails to communicate and irritates the receiver. This comes from 2 things: first, the writer fails to get the message clear in his mind before he tries to convey it; secondly, he fails to put his message into clear, concise and simple language.

h. **Avoid Foreign Words and Phrases.** In most cases, there is a perfectly acceptable way of saying what you mean in English, which will be readily understood. Showing off your knowledge of Latin, French or German is likely only to confuse or irritate your reader - even when you get it right. For example, use among other things instead of *inter alia*; use namely instead of *viz*; and use as written instead of *sic*.

j. **Fashionable Words or Phrases.** Many words are misused or misunderstood. Examples include capstone, underpinning, synergy, draw down and benchmark or benchmarking, and scientific terms, such as critical mass and quantum leap. If you must use them, use them correctly.

k. **Use Short Sentences.** It's difficult to understand long sentences of more than 25 words, and complex sentences with many different points. Keep sentences short and to the point, with an average length of 15 to 20 words. Using long sentences also increase the risk of making structural and grammatical errors. Sentences must vary in length and in structure if the reader is to be saved from boredom. Effective writers maintain a balance between long and short sentences. Some practical hints to keep sentences short are:

(1) Remember that you can break up any long sentence and can often save words.

(2) Be sure that each word in every sentence carries its weight. Remove unnecessary words, and where one word will do the work of 2, use that.

l. **Length of Paragraphs.** There is no general rule about the length of a paragraph. A paragraph is a unit of thought, not a unit of length. Each paragraph should deal with one topic of your argument, and deal with it fully. A good paragraph heading will help you define the topic of the paragraph. Everything in the paragraph should relate to that topic and that heading; include nothing else. However, several very short or one-sentence paragraphs will ruin your style and the flow of an argument. People will read your work more readily if they see from the start that there will be natural breaks in the text. Finding a whole page consisting of one paragraph is discouraging and what you're trying to say would be hard to understand.

m. **Prefer the Simple to the Complex.** If a short word does the job, use that. The principle does not outlaw the use of the longer word, because you need both simple and complex words for clear expression. Fowler advises anyone who wants to become a good writer to be direct, simple, brief, vigorous and lucid. This general principle means:

(1) Prefer the familiar word to the far-fetched: 'start' not 'initiate'.

(2) Prefer the concrete word to the abstract – 'crisis' not 'dangerous situation'.

- (3) Prefer the single word to the circumlocution – ‘scarce’ not ‘in short supply’.
- (4) Prefer the short word to the long – ‘go’ not ‘proceed’.
- (5) Prefer the Saxon word to the Roman – ‘many’ not ‘numerous’.

n. **Write as You Would Talk.** This principle must not be interpreted literally. The trouble with some people is that they do write just as they would talk – with unfortunate results. When you catch yourself writing a vague or complex phrase or sentence ask yourself: “How would I say that? If the reader were sitting beside me, how would I say it to him?” Usually this will suggest a simple and more direct way of writing. You cannot write exactly what you might say because most of us speak untidy English; we repeat ourselves and think aloud, searching for the right words. Nevertheless, writing based on the construction and style used in speech is usually easier to read.

p. **Use Terms Your Reader Can Picture.** One of the difficulties with long words is that so many of them are abstract and represent concepts rather than things. It is much harder to say just what they mean. The reason is that the meaning is not in the word; it is in the mind of the person who uses it, or reads it or hears it.

### **Academic Writing**

18. Academic writing is based on analysis - the process of breaking down ideas - to increase one's understanding. It uses deductive reasoning, semiformal voice, and third person point-of-view.

- a. **Use of deductive reasoning.** Stating the thesis (main idea) early and then following with supporting examples and details make complicated ideas easier to understand.
- b. **Semiformal voice.** This means no slang, colloquialism (common expressions of ordinary speech), contractions of nouns and verbs, etc.
- c. **Third person point-of-view.** Third person points-of-view (e.g., he, she, it, and they as well as their accusative, dative, and possessive forms) should be used. No first and second person points-of-view (e.g., I, you, we) are used in academic writing.

### **Characteristics of Academic Writing**

19. Academic writing has following general characteristics:

- a. **General purpose** To present information that displays a clear understanding of a subject.

- b. **Specific purpose.** Series according to the assignment.
- c. **Argument and Persuasion.** To persuade readers to accept the writer's opinion
- d. **Exposition.** To explain something
- e. **Description.** To describe something
- f. **Narration.** To tell a story

### **Structure of Academic Writing**

20. **Introduction.** The introduction (opening paragraph) basically accomplishes two goals:
- a. Gains the reader's attention.
  - b. Identifies the focus, or thesis, that is developed in the main part (body) of the essay.
  - c. There are several ways to draw the reader's attention to the subject:
    - (1) Open with a series of questions about the topic.
    - (2) Present startling or unusual facts or figures.
    - (3) Define an important, subject related term.
    - (4) Quote a well known person or literary work.
21. **Body.** Developmental paragraphs (body paragraphs) are the heart of an essay:
- a. They must clearly and logically support the thesis.
  - b. They must be arranged in the best possible way, e.g. chronologically, order of importance, etc.
  - c. The paragraphs should flow smoothly from one to the next, e.g. the first sentence in each new paragraph serves as an effective link to the preceding paragraph. In addition, minor supporting ideas are linked together within the paragraphs in a smooth manner.
22. **Conclusion.** The conclusion is the summary paragraph. It should accomplish the following:
- a. Remind the reader of the paper's thesis by paraphrasing it.
  - b. Tie together all of the important points in the essay by way of a summary and draw a final conclusion for the reader.

**TOPIC-2**

**PUBLIC SPEAKING**

**Introduction**

1. Communication is an integral instinct of all living things and it is the essence of being human. Dictionary defines it ‘as a process by which information is exchanged between individuals through a common system of symbols, signs, or behaviour’. Basic communication theory posits four basic components for the successful completion of transmitting information (in a human context); the sender (or encoder), the message, the medium by which the message/information is sent (e.g. written, oral, audio, visual), and the receiver or target of the communication information (decoder). The purpose of communication is to get your message across to others clearly and unambiguously. The efficacy of a communicated message or information is determined how clearly it was received and understood. Obviously, there is more to communication than just talk and gesture. Listening, understanding and interpreting all are integral to effective communication. Public Speaking, due to its inherent capability of mixing various elements, has become indispensable for a successful communication in today's world.

**Definition of Public Speaking**

2. Public speaking is the process of speaking to a group of people in a structured, deliberate manner intended to inform, influence, or entertain the listeners. It is closely allied to presenting, although the latter has more of a commercial connotation. In public speaking, as in any form of communication, there are five basic elements, often expressed as “who is saying what to whom using what medium with what effects?” Wikipedia states through this definition that in public speaking, one must be speaking to a group of people, one must be deliberate and finally, one must have an intention. This is the most important part of the definition. Public speaking must have a purpose.

**Communication and Leadership**

3. Communication is the primary tool of leadership. Without communication, no leader can succeed. Whether the attempt is to inspire, exhort, or inform, working with others always requires everyone involved to exchange ideas, experiences, concerns, problems, and solutions. Some people seem born with the ability to speak or write, but anyone and everyone can learn to communicate better. Good communication is focused and bidirectional. Those who just talk and don't listen aren't communicating; they're dictating. Effective communication skills are tantamount to the success of an organisation. The better you can communicate with others, and the more you can get everyone else to talk, the better a leader you can be. Luckily, proper communication doesn't require advanced oratory skills or long training in writing. You communicate effectively when you and the other person have both absorbed and understood what has been said. You can learn to use your communication skills to cultivate relationships throughout your organization. If you communicate your desire to lead or to try new things, leadership opportunities will present themselves over and over again — and you'll be able to succeed in them.



### **Purpose of Public Speaking**

4. The purpose of public speaking can range from simply transmitting information, to motivating people to act, to simply telling a story. Good orators should be able to change the emotions of their listeners, not just inform them. Public speaking can also be considered a discourse community. Interpersonal communication and public speaking have several components that embrace such things as motivational speaking, leadership/personal development, business, customer service, large group communication, and mass communication. 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.

### **The Tradition of Public Speaking**

5. Public speaking has existed since the dawn of human history. The oldest known handbook on effective speech was written on papyrus in Egypt some 4,500 years ago. Greek philosopher Aristotle in the 4<sup>th</sup> century B.C.E., wrote on the art of rhetoric into *On Rhetoric* that 'Ethos, Pathos and Logos' are three Pillars of Public Speaking and every speaker needs to understand about these three pillars. His theory on the three persuasive appeals is still considered the most important work on the subject, and many of its principles are followed by speakers (and writers) till today. In simplest terms, ethos, pathos, and logos correspond to:

- a. **Ethos**. Credibility (or character) of the speaker
- b. **Pathos**. Emotional connection to the audience
- c. **Logos**. Logical argument

Together, they are the three *persuasive appeals*. In other words, these are the three essential qualities that your speech or presentation must have before your audience will accept your message.

### **Preparing for a Presentation**

#### **Objectives**

6. Before speaking, determine the purpose of the speech. There are four basic classifications of purpose:

- a. To inform or instruct
- b. To stimulate or inspire
- c. To persuade or convince
- d. To entertain or amuse

The general purpose of the speech makes a big difference in the construction and presentation of the material. The purpose will guide you in choosing material and arranging it. It will also dictate the opening and the closing of your speech.

### **Determine what you want to achieve**

7. Before you start working on your talk or presentation, it's vital that you really understand what you want to say, whom you want to tell and why they might want to hear it. To do this, ask yourself: Who? What? How? When? Where? Why?

- a. **Who** are you speaking to? What are their interests, presuppositions and values? What do they share in common with others; how are they unique?
- b. **What** do you wish to communicate? One way of answering this question is to ask yourself about the 'success criteria'. How do you know if and when you have successfully communicated what you have in mind?
- c. **How** can you best convey your message? Language is important here, as are the nonverbal cues discussed earlier. Choose your words and your nonverbal cues with your audience in mind. Plan a beginning, middle and end. If time and place allow, consider and prepare audio-visual aids.
- d. **When?** Timing is important here. Develop a sense of timing, so that your contributions are seen and heard as relevant to the issue or matter at hand. There is a time to speak and a time to be silent. 'It's better to be silent than sing a bad tune.'
- e. **Where?** What is the physical context of the communication in mind? You may have time to visit the room, for example, and rearrange the furniture. Check for availability and visibility if you are using audio or visual aids.
- f. **Why?** In order to convert hearers into listeners, you need to know why they should listen to you – and tell them if necessary. What disposes them to listen? That implies that you know yourself why you are seeking to communicate – the value or worth or interest of what you are going to say.

### **Becoming a Better Communicator**

8. For becoming a better communicator, you need to know mixing of various elements efficiently. You have to know what your audience wants. You need to prepare good, interesting, engaging content. You have to know how to manage your environment successfully, and you need to make sure that your message has maximum impact. You must be confident in presenting the material,

9. Balancing all four elements is no easy task. And, when combined with the natural anxiety often felt before giving presentations, it's no wonder that many people struggle with this skill. In fact, fear of public speaking is extremely common. However, you don't have to remain fearful and stressed by the thought of giving a presentation. With the right tools and material, along with planning and preparation, you can present with energy and confidence. Let's now look in detail at those four key elements of effective presentations:

- a. Know your audience.
- b. Preparing your content.
- c. Delivering confidently.
- d. Controlling the environment.

### **Know Your Audience**

10. The success of most presentations is generally judged on how the audience responds. You may think you did a great job, but unless your audience agrees with you, that may not be the case. Before you even begin putting your PowerPoint slides together, the first thing you need to do is understand what your audience wants. Try following these steps:

- a. Determine who the members of the audience are.
- b. Find out what they want and expect from your presentation. What do they need to learn? Do they have entrenched attitudes or interests that you need to respect? And what do they already know that you don't have to repeat?
- c. Create an outline for your presentation, and ask for advance feedback on your proposed content.

11. When what you say is what your audience wants or needs to hear, then you'll probably receive positive reinforcement throughout your presentation. If you see nods and smiles, or hear murmurs of agreement, for example, then this will motivate you to keep going and do a great job.

12. When your audience is satisfied, it doesn't matter if your delivery wasn't absolutely perfect. The primary goal of the people listening to your presentation is to get the information they need. When that happens, you've done a good job. Of course, you want to do a great job, not just a good job – and that's where the rest of the tips can help.

### **Preparing Your Content**

13. The only way to satisfy your audience's needs and expectations is to deliver the content they want. That means understanding what to present, and how to present it. Bear in mind that if you give the right information in the wrong sequence, this may leave the audience confused, frustrated, or bored.

14. If you provide the information in a well-structured format, and you include various techniques to keep the audience engaged and interested, then they'll probably remember what you said – and they'll remember you. Best format in this regard is, tell them, what you are going to tell, tell it to them and then tell them.

15. There are a variety of ways to structure your content, depending on the type of presentation you'll give. Here are some principles that you can apply:

- a. **Identify a few key points.** To help the audience retain the messages you're giving them, use the chunking principle to organize your information into five to seven key points.
- b. **Don't include every detail.** Good presentations inspire the audience to learn more, and ask further statements to maximize their understanding of the issue.
- c. **Use an outline.** At the beginning, tell your audience what you intend to cover, and let them know what to expect. This helps build anticipation and interest from the start.
- d. **Start and end strongly.** Capture people's interest as soon as you begin, and leave them with a message they won't forget. It's tempting to put all of your effort into the main body of the presentation. However, if you don't get people's attention at the start, they'll probably lose interest, and not really hear the rest anyway.
- e. **Use examples.** Where possible, use lots of examples to support your points. A lecture is often the least interesting and engaging form of presentation. Look for ways to liven things up by telling stories, talking about real-life examples, and using metaphors to engage your audience fully.

### **Be Creative**

16. Creativity in public speaking helps to capture and maintain the attention of the audience. Through creativity, you can personalize a talk and “make it yours.” Creativity begins by selecting a catchy title for your talk. The title arouses the interest of the audience. A title should both inform and arouse interest. Following is an example of an acceptable title, and a better title:

Acceptable: “How to Groom a Steer”

Better: “Steering in the Right Direction”

Other ways to add creativity to your talk include adding posters or visuals (if permitted), and variety in your speaking style and delivery.

### **Organize Your Information**

17. Every speech is made up of basic elements of public speaking. Understanding and including each of those elements can make a bad speech good, or a good speech great. The following three basic elements and considerations one should address to organize a speech:

a. **Introduction.** Most people do not pay enough attention to the introduction of a speech. The introduction is one of the most important parts of the speech, because if you lose your audience at the beginning, getting them back can be next to impossible. The following points should contain in introduction:

(1) **Attention.** One must obtain the audience's attention. A Joke, a quote, a startling statistics, a story could be a good choice.

(2) **Purpose.** Why are you speaking to them? What will make listening worth their time? You might present your purpose implicitly rather than explicitly, but you must present it somehow.

(3) **Credibility.** Many speakers neglect this part of an introduction, but depending on your topic, it could be very important. Why are you qualified to talk on the things you are talking about? Do not be arrogant, but be certain that your audience trusts and believes in you and your knowledge.

(4) **Orientation.** Is there any essential background your audience needs to know before you get to meat of your speech?

b. **Body.** This is the main contents portion of your speech. Exactly what you need to include will depend on the purpose of your speech, but following are the few essentials:

(1) **Organization.** Your audience needs to be able to follow you. Be certain that you have some sort of pattern.

(2) **Transitions.** Do not just jump from point to point, but smoothly move from one issue to the next. Transitions are the 'bridge' of your speech. With out them, your audience will get disoriented and you might leave them behind.

(3) **Development.** Your points should build on each other, combining into one grand whole. Go from simple to more complex, ending with the most powerful.

(4) **Climax.** At some point, your speech should come to a head. Everything should come together, your audience's emotion should be peaked right alongside you, and you should largely fulfill your purpose in giving the speech. Developing climax is the hardest part of speech writing.

c. **Conclusion.** You should wrap up any loose ends. This is the final part of your speech, and also the part your audience is most likely to remember. Be certain to include:

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- (1) A final closing example. Drive your point home with one more powerful demonstration.
- (2) Call to Action. What should your audience do now? If you were not trying to persuade them to do something, what is the most important point that they should take away from your speech?
- (3) Why it Mattered. Briefly recap what you said, reminding your audience why it mattered.

### **Deliver Your Talk**

18. Effective delivery blends verbal and nonverbal communication. Consider the following ways of making your delivery more effective:

- a. **Hand gesture**. Use occasionally and with good style, such as to emphasize a point.
- b. **Facial expressions**. Look alert! Use your smile, eyebrows, and the expression on your face to show confidence, feelings, and determination.
- c. **Voice**. Vary the pitch and volume of your voice and the speed at which you speak. Speak with a sincere tone. Clearly pronounce your words and use good grammar. As you speak, use pauses for emphasis.
- d. **Eye contact**. Invite everyone into your presentation by making eye contact.
- e. **Delivery**. Show energy and enthusiasm.
- f. **Posture and poise**. Approach and leave the platform with confidence.
- g. **Stand straight**. Don't slouch! Keep your feet flat on the floor, and don't shift side to side. Keep hands comfortably at your sides or clasped naturally in front of your lower body. Practice helps you appear natural in the use of verbal and nonverbal techniques in your public speaking.

19. Even the best content can be ineffective if your presentation style contradicts or detracts from your message. Many people are nervous when they present, so this will probably affect your delivery. But it's the major distractions that you want to avoid. As you build confidence, you can gradually eliminate the small and unconstructive habits you may have. These tips may help you:

- a. **Practice to build confidence**. Some people think that if you practice too much, your speech will sound rehearsed and less genuine. Don't necessarily memorize your presentation, but be so familiar with the content that you're able to speak fluently and comfortably, and adjust as necessary.

- b. **Be flexible.** This is easier to do if you're comfortable with the material. Don't attempt to present something you just learned the previous night. You want to know your material well enough to answer statements. And, if you don't know something, just admit it, and commit to finding the answer.
- c. **Welcome statements from the audience.** This is a sign that a presenter knows what he or she is talking about. It builds audience confidence, and people are much more likely to trust what you say, and respect your message.
- d. **Use slides and other visual aids.** These can help you deliver a confident presentation. The key point here is to learn how much visual information to give the audience, and yet not distract them from what you're saying.
- e. **Keep your visuals simple and brief.** Don't use too many pictures, charts, or graphs. Your slides should summarize or draw attention to one or two items each. And don't try to fit your whole presentation onto your slides. If the slides cover every single detail, then you've probably put too much information on them. Slides should give the overall message, and then the audience should know where to look for supporting evidence.
- f. **Manage your stress.** Confidence has a lot to do with managing your stress levels. If you feel particularly nervous and anxious, then those emotions will probably show. They're such strong feelings that you can easily become overwhelmed, which can affect your ability to perform effectively. A little nervousness is useful because it can build energy. But that energy may quickly turn negative if nerves build to the point where you can't control them.

### **Controlling the Environment**

20. While much of the outside environment is beyond your control, there are still some things you can do to reduce potential risks to your presentation:

- a. **Practice in the presentation room.** This forces you to become familiar with the room and the equipment. It will not only build your confidence, but also help you identify sources of risk. Do you have trouble accessing your PowerPoint file? Does the microphone reach the places you want to walk? Can you move the podium? Are there stairs that might cause you to trip? These are the sorts of issues you may discover and resolve by doing one or two practice presentations.
- b. **Do your own setup.** Don't leave this to other people. Even though you probably want to focus on numerous other details, it's a good idea not to delegate too much of the preparation to others. You need the hands-on experience to make sure nothing disastrous happens at the real event.
- c. **Test your timing.** When you practice, you also improve your chances of keeping to time. You get a good idea how long each part of the presentation will actually take, and this helps you plan how much time you'll have for statements and other audience interactions.

**On the Day**

21. Check the following:

- a. Do you have your slides, notes, and other visual aids in the right order?
- b. Are you dressed and groomed appropriately? (Make sure that this is in keeping with your audience's expectations.)
- c. Have you left enough time for travel and setting up?
- d. Have you checked your visual aids to ensure that they're working, and that you know how to use them?
- e. Do you know how to deal with nervousness? (Presentation nerves are very common, so learn how to manage presentation nerves to use that energy to your advantage.)
- f. During your presentation, are you making and maintaining eye contact with members of your audience?
- g. Have you made sure that your audience understands everything that you've covered? (Invite them to ask questions if you're unsure.)
- h. Do you need to follow up with any of your audience?
- j. Have you asked for feedback from your audience? Is there anything that you could learn, to improve your next presentation?



### **Giving Presentation (Delivery)**

22. **Language - How We Say It.** The language you use should be comfortable for both you and the audience. It's a good idea to avoid bookish language or technical jargon. Rather use words that are natural to you and phrases that are understood by all. Remember the following important points which contribute to the understanding of the message:

- a. **Expression.** The expression 'less is more' is very relevant to public speaking. The amount of emphasis placed on particular words will focus attention on important points.
- b. **Get to the point.** It is important not to tell the audience everything you know, rather tell the audience what it is that they need to know. Being able to select the best and most relevant information to include in your speech is an invaluable skill. A good speech delivers the whole story but in a manner that is quick, clear and understandable.
- c. **Pausing.** Give the audience time to take in and digest what you are saying. Sticking to a steady pace can be challenging for some speakers, especially if they are nervous. When delivering your speech, make a conscious effort to speak slowly and clearly.
- d. **Ham It Up.** You need to use more expression than usual when talking to a large group. You have to go quite a long way before you are in danger of going over the top.
- e. **Tone of Voice and Pitch.** There is nothing more tedious than listening to a talk delivered in a monotonous tone of voice.
- f. **Speak Clearly.** Try to ensure words do not run into one another.
- g. **Speak Up.** Most people give up on a speaker they have to strain to hear. Make sure you are loud enough for everyone in the room.

23. **Body Language.** Much of communication comes through body language. How you hold yourself carries a very strong message, so when making a speech, it is important to be aware of it and use it to your advantage. The following suggestions are offered :

- a **Posture.** If there is a podium, do not use it to lean forward, this can be intimidating to an audience, however it is equally as important not to lean backwards either. It is best to maintain a relaxed but upright posture. Keep your feet firmly grounded with your legs shoulder width apart, this will help you to keep your balance. Make an effort to be aware of what you do with your hands. Hands are prone to fidgeting and have a tendency to take on a life of their own, so it is important that you keep them under control. Exactly where they should be placed is another consideration; for starters do not put your hands in your

pockets—you'll sound like a change machine and look like you have a bad attitude. Don't place them behind your back either—you will look too formal as well as feeling unnatural. It is best to leave your arms comfortably by your side allowing them the freedom to gesture.

b. **Eye Contact**. Look at the Audience. This may be hard to do but is essential to look at people in the audience as if you are addressing them personally.

c. **Smile**. Do it occasionally. Again, this is hard if you are nervous. Smiling has the added benefit of relaxing your vocal chords - it can help to make your voice sound more interesting.

d. **Stand Square**. Find a comfortable stance. The best position is standing upright with feet slightly apart.

e. **Beware of Distracting Mannerisms**. This does not mean standing rigid. The major problem with distracting mannerisms is that if the members of the audience hook on to them, they will concentrate on them rather than listening to your message.

24. **Gesture**. Try to act Natural. Easier said than done, you may say. However, if you concentrate on getting the message across and stop worrying about yourself, you will have more chance of coming over naturally. The best way of making sure you have got most of these points right is to practice. Gesturing with your head and arms is part and parcel of communicating. It is the way in which we add life and emphasis to the spoken word, so it is only natural that they play an important role in public speaking. While gestures can be useful to emphasize a particular point, it is important that they be kept natural/spontaneous. Over-exaggerated or forced gestures can work to your disadvantage, for you are in danger of distracting the audience and therefore detracting from what you are saying.

25. **Dress**. Your physical appearance can shape first impressions and so should be an important consideration before making your speech. Be sure that you are wearing something that is comfortable for both you and the audience. It is not a good idea to be standing in front of an audience dressed in a pair of jeans that are painfully small or in a hot pink tank top that is painful to look at. When it comes to clothing, simplicity is the key. Opt for neutral tones and simple cuts. After all, your audience should be focused on what you are saying not on what you are wearing.

26. **Speech Aids**. A definite "don't" for public speaking is to read from a script of your entire speech. No matter how well you know it, or how many times you have practiced, when standing in front of an audience the temptation to read it out word for word is very powerful. It is also very likely to result in a loss of eye-contact with your audience and therefore loss of their attention. If you require a speech aid, the best option is to write a skeleton of your thoughts on 3 x 5 palm cards. These cards should be filled with key points or topic sentences that jog/stimulate your memory and help to guide.

27. **Visual Aids.** A picture speaks a thousand words, so the use of visual aids such as projectors or power point can be a great technique to help you convey your message more powerfully. However a few words of caution:

- a. Make sure you speak to your audience and not to your slides.
- b. Do not swamp your audience with images, remember, the slides are there to support your speech and not the other way around.
- c. Before you begin, make sure the slides can be seen clearly from every seat in the room.

28. **Controlling Nerves.** So far as fears go, public speaking ranks right up there with the worst of them. Some people go so far as to say they would rather die than give a speech in public. If you are someone that suffers from nerves, focusing on these anxieties is unproductive. For you, the best way forward is to think up strategies to control those nerves, so that they don't control you. It is important that you find the relaxation technique that works best for you such as positive visualization or deep breathing.

29. **Some Quick Tips.** Some of the following tips will be helpful for better delivery:

- a. Don't drink too much caffeine before giving your speech—it tends to give people the shakes and nerves will make this worse.
- b. Preparation prevents panic—knowing your material well will really boost your confidence.
- c. If you make a mistake don't worry. The chances are the audience didn't notice. If it is obvious, don't apologize, simply make the correction and continue with the rest of your speech.
- d. Remember—no matter how large an audience seems—it is made up of individuals.

### **Tips for Better Presentation.**

30. Feeling some nervousness before giving a speech is natural and even beneficial, but too much nervousness can be detrimental. Here are some proven tips on how to control your butterflies and give better presentations:

- a. **Know Your Material.** Pick a topic you are interested in. Know more about it than you include in your speech. Use humor, personal stories and conversational language – that way you won't easily forget what to say.
- b. **Practice, Practice, Practice!** Rehearse out loud with all equipment you plan on using. Revise as necessary. Work to control filler words; Practice, pause and breathe. Practice with a timer and allow time for the unexpected.

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- c. **Know the Audience.** Greet some of the audience members as they arrive. It's easier to speak to a group of friends than to strangers.
- d. **Know the Room.** Arrive early, walk around the speaking area and practice using the microphone and any visual aids.
- e. **Relax.** Begin by addressing the audience. It buys you time and calms your nerves. Pause, smile and count to three before saying anything. ("One one-thousand, two one-thousand, three one-thousand. Pause. Begin.") Transform nervous energy into enthusiasm.
- f. **Visualize yourself giving your speech.** Imagine yourself speaking, your voice loud, clear and confident. Visualize the audience clapping – it will boost your confidence.
- g. **Realize that people want you to succeed.** Audiences want you to be interesting, stimulating, informative and entertaining. They're rooting for you.
- h. **Don't apologize.** Don't apologize for any nervousness or problem – the audience probably never noticed it.
- j. **Concentrate on the message – not the medium.** Focus your attention away from your own anxieties and concentrate on your message and your audience.
- k. **Gain experience.** Mainly, your speech should represent you — as an authority and as a person. Experience builds confidence, which is the key to effective speaking. A Toastmasters club can provide the experience you need in a safe and friendly environment.

### **Conclusion**

31. On many occasions, you will be required to make presentations to groups, both large and small, in a variety of situations. Your major concern will be how well you can get your point of view across the audience. To help you develop this skill you will be required to follow the guidelines discussed above and try to improve upon. There is much useful guidance on Briefings and Presentations, Public Speaking and the use of Visual Aids in various sources of which you should read at your own time. Anyone involved in public speaking should aim to make the experience a successful and hopefully, enjoyable one.

32. Members of the audience want you to respect their time. If you end your presentation on time or early, this can make a huge, positive impression on them. When speakers go over their allowed time, they may disrupt the whole schedule of the event and/or cause the audience unnecessary inconvenience. Be considerate, and stick to your agenda as closely as possible. Although the fear of speaking is common, studies show that one of the most admired qualities in others is their ability to speak in front of a group. Furthermore, other things being equal, the person who can communicate ideas clearly will be more successful. The remainder of this task is directed toward helping you be the kind of speaker others admire—the kind who gets the job done in every speaking situation.

**TOPIC-3**

**PREPARING POWER POINT PRESENTATION**

1. **Design.** The first thing that gives a professional touch to any presentation is the design. Presentation Helper has a large selection of free Power Point templates for a variety of topics. However, whether you download a free template or create your own, keep the following in mind:

a. **Compose Slides**

- (1) Don't copy & paste slides from different sources.
- (2) Keep the design very basic and simple. It shall not distract.
- (3) Pick an easy to read font face.
- (4) Carefully select font sizes for headers and text.
- (5) Leave room for highlights, such as images or take home messages.
- (6) Decorate scarcely but well.
- (7) Restrict the room your design takes up and don't ever let the design restrict your message.

b. **Use Consistency.**

- (1) Consistently use the same font face and sizes on all slides.
- (2) Match colors.
- (3) May use your Svc/Sqn/Unit logo.
- (4) Highlight headers.
- (5) Create a special frame for figures/images or the whole slide but don't overload your slides with these elements.

2. **Colors.** A poor choice of colors can shatter a presentation. Keep in the following points:

a. **Use Contrast.**

(1) Use contrasting colours, i.e light on dark vs dark on light. Black text on a white background will always be the best but also the most boring choice.

(2) If you want to play with colors, keep it easy on the eyes and always keep good contrast in mind so that your readers do not have to strain to guess what you've typed on your slide.

b. **Apply Brilliance.**

(1) Carefully use color to highlight your message!

(2) Don't weaken the color effect by using too many colors at an instance.

(3) Make a brilliant choice: match colors for design and good contrast to highlight your message.

3. **Text.** Remember that your slides are only there to support, not to replace your talk! You'll want to tell a story, describe your data or explain circumstances, and only provide keywords through your slides. If you read your slides and if you do it slow and badly, the audience will get bored and stop listening.

a. **KISS Technique.**

(1) **Keep It Straight and Simple.**

(2) No sentences!, Keywords only.

(3) The 6 x 7 rule, No more than 6 lines per slide, no more than 7 words per line.

(4) Never read your slides, talk freely.

(5) Remember that your slides are only there to support, not to replace your talk!

(6) Provide keywords through your slides.

b. **Take Home Message.**

(1) Always express a Take Home Message.

(2) It's your message, a summary of your data or story.

(3) Make it a highlight that stands out.

4. **Images.** Images are key elements of every presentation. Your audience has ears and eyes – they'll want to see what you're talking about, and a good visual cue will help them to understand your message much better.

a. **Add Images.**

- (1) Have more images in your slides than text.
- (2) But do not use images to decorate!
- (3) Images can reinforce or complement your message.
- (4) Use images to visualize and explain.
- (5) A picture can say more than a thousand words.
- (6) For very public and official presentation however, you need to keep copyrights in mind.

5. **Animations & Media.** In animations, there is a fine line between a comic or professional impression. However, animations can be rather powerful tools to visualize and explain complicated matters. A good animation cannot only improve understanding, but can also make the message stick with your audience. Remember:

- a. Use animations and media sparingly.
- b. Use animations to draw attention, for example to your Take Home Message.
- c. Use animations to clarify a model or emphasize an effect.

**TOPIC – 4**

**PRÉCIS WRITING**

**Introduction**

1. Précis is a condensed version of an original paper or papers. It may be written for one or more of the following purposes :
  - a. To give the gist of a long document.
  - b. To clarify obscure or involved argument in an original document .
  - c. To concentrate the essentials contained in a series of papers.
2. A précis must not alter the sense or argument of the original. Should a staff officer wish to comment, his views should be attached as an annex to the précis.
3. A summary is a concise statement of salient points from a file or series of papers for information, ready reference or record. It may be in note or tabular form.
4. A 3-centimetre right-hand margin is normally drawn in on the paper to enable the reader to make notes and flag.

**Précis**

5. **Principles.**

- a. **Content.** A précis should be accurate, brief and clear. It should contain only the important features of the original, presented in a readily understandable form.
- b. **Impartiality.** Impartiality is especially important and the original author's meaning must not be coloured or distorted.
- c. **Style.** A series of extracts is not a précis. The same words or terms as the original need not be used but its tone and force must be retained.
- d. **Arrangement and Length.** The essentials of the original may be rearranged to achieve brevity and clarity, and the précis should read smoothly and logically. It may not be necessary to reduce all passages in proportion to their original length; some long passages may be reduced to a sentence, while others may bear very little abbreviation. A précis should be as short as possible for its purpose. As a guide it should be between a fifth and a third of the length of the original.



6. **Method.** The writer of a précis should consider the purpose for which it is required and then :

- a. Read through the original carefully, several time if necessary, to establish the tone of the whole document and identify the essentials.
- b. List the essential points, where necessary rearrange them in a logical order and then group them under suitable headings.
- c. Write the précis from these notes in his own words, but using words or phrases from the original when they are appropriate. A précis should normally be in impersonal form. The tense of the original can usually be retained, but the past tense must be used for reported speech.
- d. Revise the précis. the questions to be answered are :
  - (1) Have all the essential points been included and are they in a logical order ?
  - (2) Does the précis read smoothly ?
  - (3) Is it impartial and does it convey exactly the meaning of the original?
  - (4) Does it preserve the original's tone and force ?
  - (5) Is it suitably brief ?

7. **Layout.** The layout of a précis conforms to that of normal rules of Service writing. The subject heading normally takes the form :

'PRECIS OF A (paper, article etc) ON (subject) BY (author of the original) FROM (source) DATED (date of original)'.

## **SUMMARIES**

### **Characteristics of a Summary**

8. The purpose of a summary is to give a reader a condensed and objective account of the main ideas and features of a text. Usually, a summary has between one and three paragraphs or one hundred to three hundred words, depending on the length and complexity of the original essay and the intended audience and purpose. Typically, a summary will do the following:

- a. **Cite The Author And Title of The Text.** In some cases, the place of publication or the context for the essay may also be included.

- b. **Indicate The Main Ideas of The Text.** Accurately representing the main ideas (while omitting the less important details) is the major goal of the summary.
- c. **Use Direct Quotations of Key Words, Phrases, or Sentences.** Quote the text directly for a few key ideas; paraphrase the other important ideas (that is, express the ideas in your own words.)
- d. **Include Author Tags.** To remind the reader that you are summarizing the author and the text, not giving your own ideas.
- e. **Avoid Summarizing Specific Examples or Data.** Unless they help illustrate the thesis or main idea of the text.
- f. **Report the Main Ideas as Objectively as Possible.** Do not include your reactions; save them for your response.

### **Summary in Armed Forces**

9. The purpose of a summary is to record or present the salient points from a file or a series of papers. It may be in tabular form. The original documents or files may be attached and reference made to the relevant sections in the summary; such sections are flagged and references to the flags are made in the text. Personal comments should be attached as an annex. An example of a summary of a file is at Annex A to this task.

Annex :

A. Example of a Summary of a File.

**EXAMPLE OF A SUMMARY OF A FILE**

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G/481/1/Air		
<b><u>SUMMARY FOR D ENGG ON THE INTRO OF THE TYPE 99 MK 1 CAMERA</u></b>		
<b><u>DT</u></b>	<b><u>SUMMARY</u></b>	<b><u>ENCL</u></b>
27 Apr 90	1. Air HQ told us that the Type 99 Mk 1 Camera was being intro for sqn use soon.	E1 (Flag 1) (1)
1 May 90	2. COAS was anxious to see picture pro by the new camera ASP. He asked this dte to arrange for all photo pers to be instr in loading and instl techs.	M3 (Flag 2) (1) E2 (Flag 3)
3-7 May 90	3. SO 2 (Tech) wrote to all bases and 4 days later, sent them instr diags.	E3 (Flag 4)
10 May 90	4. BAF BSR phoned to say that the camera shutter was defective.	M4 (Flag 5)
11-14 May 90	5. Similar reports fol form all bases in the gp.	E4 (Flags 6, 7)
15-16 May 90	6. SO 2 (Tech) called a conf of all base photo offrs at which a poss remedy was agreed upon.	E5 (Flag 8)
17 May 90	7. SO 2 (Tech) wrote a tech report on the shutter defect and incl his suggested remedy.	E6 (Flag 9)
18 May 90	8. You approved the report and it was sent to Air HQ the same day, but in the meantime .....	
<b>SULAIMAN MIA</b> Sqn Ldr SO 2 (Tech)  Jun 90		
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**Note :**

1. In this example the prefix 'E' refers to enclosures and the prefix 'M' to minutes.

**TOPIC-5**

**PARAPHRASING**

**Introduction**

1. Paraphrase is restatement of a text or passages, using other words. The term "paraphrase" derives via the [Latin](#) "paraphrasis" from the [Greek](#) <<παράφραση>>, meaning "additional manner of expression". The act of paraphrasing is also called "paraphrasis." A paraphrase typically explains or clarifies the text that is being paraphrased. For example, "The signal was red" might be paraphrased as "The train was not allowed to proceed." When accompanying the original statement, a paraphrase is usually introduced with a [verbum dicendi](#) — a declaratory expression to signal the transition to the paraphrase. For example, in "The signal was red, that is, the train was not allowed to proceed, the "that is" signals the paraphrase that follows.

2. A paraphrase does not need to accompany a direct [quotation](#), but when this is so, the paraphrase typically serves to put the source's statement into perspective or to clarify the context in which it appeared. A paraphrase is typically more detailed than a [summary](#). One should add the source at the end of the sentence, for example: When the light was red trains could not go (Wikipedia). Paraphrase may attempt to preserve the essential [meaning](#) of the material being paraphrased. Thus, the (intentional or otherwise) reinterpretation of a source to infer a meaning that is not explicitly evident in the source itself qualifies as "[original research](#)," and not as paraphrase.

3. Unlike a [metaphrase](#), which represents a "formal equivalent" of the source, a paraphrase represents a "dynamic equivalent" thereof. While a metaphrase attempts to translate a text literally, a paraphrase conveys the essential thought expressed in a source text — if necessary, at the expense of [literality](#). For details, see "[Dynamic and formal equivalence](#)." The term is applied to the genre of [Biblical paraphrases](#), which were the most widely circulated versions of the Bible available in medieval Europe. Here, the purpose was not to render an exact rendition of the meaning or the complete text, but to present material from the Bible in a version that was theologically orthodox and not subject to heretical interpretation, or, in most cases, to take from the Bible and present to a wide public material that was interesting, entertaining and spiritually meaningful, or, simply to abridge the text.<sup>[1]</sup>

**Write it in Your Own Words**

4. Learn to borrow from a source without plagiarizing. For more information on paraphrasing, as well as other ways to integrate sources into your paper, see the Purdue OWL handout [Quoting Paraphrasing, and Summarizing](#). For more information about writing research papers, see our [resource](#) on this subject. Purdue students will want to make sure that they are familiar with [Purdue's official academic dishonesty policy](#) as well as any additional policies that their instructor has implemented. Another good resource for understanding plagiarism is the Statement on Plagiarism from the Council of Writing Program Administrators.

5. **Paraphrase.** A paraphrase is :

- a. Your own rendition of essential information and ideas expressed by someone else, presented in a new form.
- b. One legitimate way (when accompanied by accurate documentation) to borrow from a source.
- c. A more detailed restatement than a summary, which focuses concisely on a single main idea.

6. **Paraphrasing.** Paraphrasing is a valuable skill because:

- a. It is better than quoting information from an undistinguished passage.
- b. It helps you control the temptation to quote too much.
- c. the mental process required for successful paraphrasing helps you to grasp the full meaning of the original.

7. **Steps to Effective Paraphrasing.**

- a. Reread the original passage until you understand its full meaning.
- b. Set the original aside, and write your paraphrase on a note card.
- c. Jot down a few words below your paraphrase to remind you later how you envision using this material. At the top of the note card, write a key word or phrase to indicate the subject of your paraphrase.
- d. Check your rendition with the original to make sure that your version accurately expresses all the essential information in a new form.
- e. Use quotation marks to identify any unique term or phraseology you have borrowed exactly from the source.
- f. Record the source (including the page) on your note card so that you can credit it easily if you decide to incorporate the material into your paper.

**Some Examples to Compare**

8. Students frequently overuse direct quotation in taking notes, and as a result they overuse quotations in the final [research] paper. Probably only about 10% of your final manuscript should appear as directly quoted matter. Therefore, you should strive to limit the amount of exact transcribing of source materials while taking notes.

**A Legitimate Paraphrase**

9. In research papers students often quote excessively, failing to keep quoted material down to a desirable level. Since the problem usually originates during note taking, it is essential to minimize the material recorded verbatim.

**An Acceptable Summary**

10. Students should take just a few notes in direct quotation from sources to help minimize the amount of quoted material in a research paper.

**A Plagiarized Version**

11. Students often use too many direct quotations when they take notes, resulting in too many of them in the final research paper. In fact, probably only about 10% of the final copy should consist of directly quoted material. So it is important to limit the amount of source material copied while taking notes.

RESTRICTED

## **REINFORCEMENT MODULE**

### **National And International Affairs**

**RFT-2**

RESTRICTED

# **NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS**

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**REINFORCEMENT MODULE**

**Service Paper/Analytic Paper**

**RFT-3**

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**TOPIC-1**

**INTRODUCTION TO RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH METHODS**

**Definition of Research**

1. From the time immemorial, mankind has always challenged unexplained, uncertain and unknown matters. Human being by nature is curious and inquisitive. They deliberately attempted to explore unknown world around them, questioned unexplained workings and peculiar incidences. In doing so, men used different indigenous methods of investigation. However, the advancement of science and civilization, logical arguments and reasoning, and concept of ethics gave birth to a new process called 'research' to seek the answers of unknown questions in a systematic manner. Research is, therefore, a systematic and refined technique of thinking, employing special tools, instruments and procedures in order to obtain a more adequate solution of a problem than would be possible by ordinary means. It starts with a problem, collects data (facts, information, evidence, experience and observations), and reaches at conclusion based on the actual evidence.

2. Research in the military makes no distinction with the research that has been explained above. The only notable point is that the purely military problems relating to operation and tactics are solved by other deliberate processes: these are 'Appreciation', 'Intelligence Preparation of Battlefield' and 'Decision Making Process'. In the day to day activities of Armed Forces, we encounter continuously different types of problems. Many of these problems are complicated and have far reaching effects on the advancement of our Armed Forces. These problems can be identified properly and solved accordingly by research process.

**Research-Aims and Features**

3. **Research Aim.** Fundamental concern of research is to find the truth. Research also attempts to scrutinize and test the extent of validity of the previously drawn conclusions, explore new facts, and draws generalizations or new conclusions. We can identify the following aims of any research pursuits. Functionally, research attempts to:

- a. Find out new dimensions and generalizations (a conclusion derived from and equally applies to a number of cases) with old data.
- b. Examine old conclusions with new data.
- c. Put forward an entirely original theory or idea, or discover unexplored horizon of knowledge.
- d. Find or resolve contradictions existing in the area of study.

4. **Features of Research.** Research process has six distinct features:
- a. As an investigative process it originates with a question. It attempts to satisfy an unanswered question in the mind of a researcher.
  - b. Research demands a clear articulation of a goal. A clear statement of the problem is a precondition to any research.
  - c. In its' due course of inquiry, research subdivides the principal problem into appropriate and more manageable sub-problems. Each sub-problem seeks answer through hypothesis. These hypotheses direct the researcher to collect and examine data.
  - d. Research looks for data directed by the hypothesis and guided by the problem. The data are collected, organized and processed in a systematic approach.
  - e. In its analysis, research endorses only solid and measurable data in attempting to resolve the problem that initiates the research.
  - f. Research, by its nature, is a circular process. It interprets the meaning of the data which leads to a resolution of the problem: thus confirming or rejecting the hypothesis and proving answer to the question which began the research cycle.

### **Types of Research**

5. There are three main types of research, these are:
- a. **Exploratory.** Exploratory research is aimed at examining a new phenomenon or area unexplored by others for the purpose of giving a better understanding of, insight into, or familiarity with its occurrence or its nature.
  - b. **Descriptive Study.** A descriptive study portrays as accurately as possible the characteristics of a phenomenon or to determine the frequency with which some thing occurs.
  - c. **Causal Study.** A causal study is one which tries to determine the casual relationship or linkage between variables. A causal relationship asserts that a particular occurrence or variable X is one of the factors which determine another occurrence or variable Y. Examples of causal studies are:
    - (1) Relationship between training and professional competency.
    - (2) Does television viewing lead to child violence?
    - (3) Does smoking lead to lungs cancer?

### **Criteria of Good Research**

6. These are:
  - a. The purpose of the research or the problem involved should be clearly defined and sharply delineated in terms as unambiguous as possible.
  - b. The research procedures used should be described in sufficient detail to permit another researcher to repeat the research.
  - c. The procedural design of the research should be carefully planned to yield results that are as objective as possible.
  - d. The researcher should report with complete frankness flaws in procedural design and estimate their effects upon the findings.
  - e. Analysis of the data should be sufficiently adequate to reveal its significance, and the methods of analysis used should be appropriate.
  - f. Conclusion should be confined to those justified by the data of the research and limited to those for which the data provide an adequate basis.

### **Qualities of Good Researcher**

7. Whatever is the type of research or types of methods used in research, a researcher in order to be successful needs following qualities:
  - a. **Open and Critical Mind**. A true researcher should have an open mind so that he can explore beyond his perceived limit. On the other hand, he should also be critical so that a data, idea or theory is accurately examined.
  - b. **Creativity**. A researcher's mind must always be intellectually alert to comprehend various challenges in the arduous work of research. Research is all about overcoming the challenge of solving a problem, and problem solving demands new idea, concept and theory. New idea, concept and theory come so easily from a creative mind.
  - c. **Professional Education**. A researcher must have meticulous understanding and thorough knowledge of his area of study. He should also have practical experiences and training to understand, analyze and tackle the problem.
  - d. **Patience and Perseverance**. Research is a tiresome continuous process. It is a unique combination of success and failure. As an intellectual exercise, therefore, a researcher requires perseverance, tenacity and patience.

### **Variables in Research**

8. In all types of research works, a researcher must carefully identify the facts that are assumed to cause the problem. In order to do this, he must select variables. Therefore we should know what a variable is. A variable is a characteristic of a person, an object or a phenomenon that can take on different values in a delineated domain or range. In many research work, researcher attempt to identify the relationship between the variables. Therefore, it is important to understand what these are.

- a. **Independent variable.** The variable or factor that is assumed to cause or at least influence the problem is called independent variable.
- b. **Dependent variable.** The variable that is used to describe or measure the problem understudy is called dependent variable.

#### **Example-1:**

**Problem:** To investigate the possible impacts of the Jamuna Bridge on the development of North Bengal area.

**Independent variable:** Jamuna Bridge

**Dependent variable:** Development of North Bengal

9. It is also important that the variables should be measurable. However, in the example-1, independent variable is clearly measurable but the dependant variable is not. Because meaning of the term 'development' is too wide, and can create considerable confusion. Therefore, a good researcher will attempt to make it more measurable. This can be done in different ways:

### **Research Problem**

10. A research problem is the situation that causes the researcher to feel apprehensive, confused and ill at ease. It is the demarcation of a problem area within a certain context involving the WHO or WHAT, the WHERE, the WHEN and the WHY of the problem situation.

11. There are many problem situations that may give rise to research. Three sources usually contribute to problem identification. Own experience or the experience of others may be a source of problem supply. A second source could be scientific literature. You may read about certain findings and notice that a certain field was not covered. This could lead to a research problem. Theories could be a third source. Shortcomings in theories could be researched.

12. Research can thus be aimed at clarifying or substantiating an existing theory, at clarifying contradictory findings, at correcting a faulty methodology, at correcting the inadequate or unsuitable use of statistical techniques, at reconciling conflicting opinions, or at solving existing practical problems.

### **Research Question**

13. Formulating research question is the most critical and perhaps the most difficult part of any research. A research question best describes the objective or purpose of the research study. The way a particular research question is worded can have a significant influence on how much and what kind of research activity will be required. Social researchers have regarded research question as the bridge between the research topic and research hypothesis.

### **Research Hypothesis**

14. Hypothesis is a projected statement subject to empirical test. It is an educated guess or a probable solution of the problem on which the research is being carried out. Therefore, validity of the hypothesis must be tested. A hypothesis is made in order to find its correctness with valid explanation. A valid hypothesis provides the basis of the research.

#### **15. Functions of Hypothesis.**

- a. It indicates the major independent variables to be included in the study.
- b. It explains all the facts connected with the hypothesis.
- c. It enables us to direct inquiry along the right line. It suggests experiments and observations. It helps researcher to collect necessary data.
- d. It limits the scope of research to a manageable area. Instead of random collection of data, it enables us to search only for relevant facts and evidence.
- e. It leads to conclusion which is very significant for the advancement of knowledge.

### **Ethics in Research**

16. Ethics are the norms or codes of behaviour that guide moral choices about our behaviour and relationship with others. The goal of ethics in research is to ensure that no one is harmed from research activities. In most research settings, three parties are involved; the researcher, the client (user) and the respondent (subject). The researcher believe that he has right to seek any information from the respondent, while the respondent believe he has right to privacy. On the other hand, the user also preserves some rights. His primary right is to expect objective and data from the researcher.

17. To make a study ethically acceptable, the following points must be adhered during data collection:

- a. Do not deceive a respondent about the true purpose of the research.
- b. Do not ask embarrassing question to respondent.
- c. Do not ask respondent a question that can cause emotional turmoil.
- d. Do not ask question that can invade his privacy.
- e. Do not threat or compel the respondent to participate.
- f. Do not violate a promise of confidentiality.

18. A researcher can also act unethically when analyzing data. These are:
- By revealing only a part of the fact.
  - Presenting fact out of the context.
  - Falsifying findings to please the client.
  - Offering misleading presentations.

## Research Process

### Research Process

19. There are number of ways available to conduct a research. However, despite variation all researchers generally follow few distinct steps in research process. These steps are as follows:

- Identifying research problem and question/s.
- Review of the literature.
- Setting objectives/purpose and hypothesis.
- Choosing research design and approving research proposal.
- Data collection.
- Data analysis.
- Formulating conclusions.
- Writing research report.

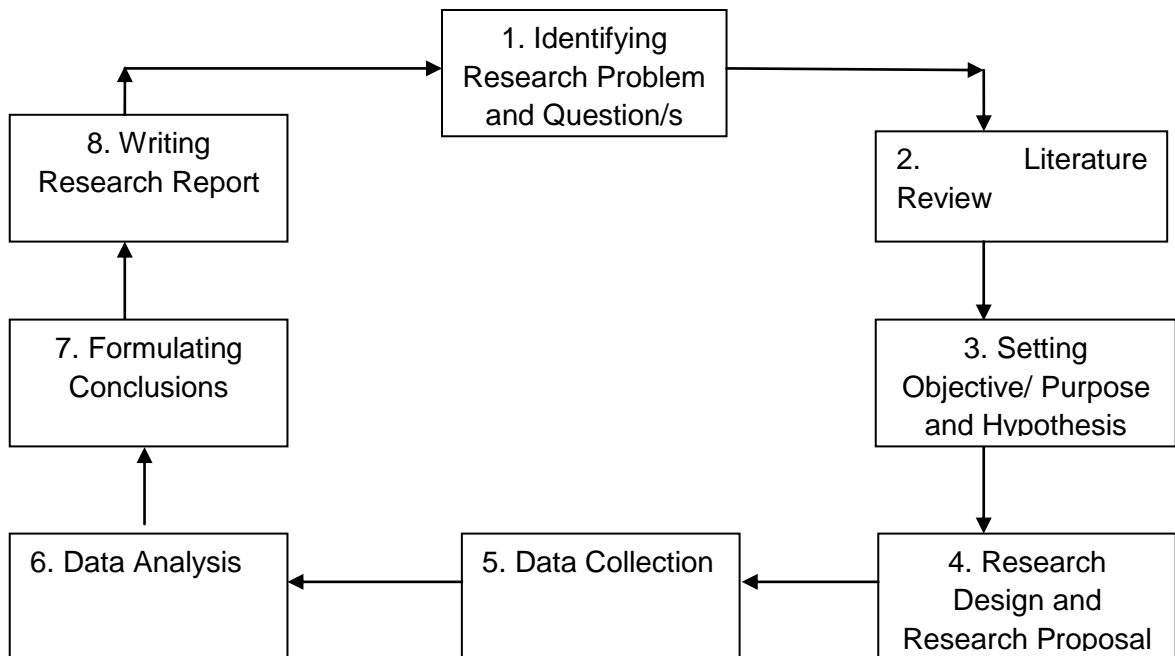


Diagram-1: A schematic diagram showing full cycle of a research process.



## **STEP 1 - IDENTIFYING RESEARCH PROBLEM AND QUESTIONS**

### **Identifying Research Problem**

20. **General.** Identifying a problem can be an extremely difficult mental task. Students of previous courses have invariably reported this to be the most difficult phase of research. A mechanical method for locating a research problem cannot be outlined. However, there are certain things you can do. First, decide tentatively upon a topic area, and then think about it. Put your mind to work imaginatively. Get down on a piece of paper as many aspects and ramifications of the area as you can imagine. Try then to picture which of these aspects seem to contain barriers to efficient and effective functioning of Armed Forces, or to the attainment of national objectives. These barriers may well be likely topics for your research.

21. Next, with these tentative ideas in mind, go to the library and read. Read selectively in an attempt to determine if your ideas represent actual problems. Locate other special studies, these's or reports written in your selected area. Take advantage of the thought and effort they put into their investigations.

22. Talk to your fellow officers and to your Directing Staff about the area and problems you have selected tentatively. Use them as sounding boards for your ideas. Ask them to suggest aspects of the area which may not have occurred to you. Try the 'brainstorming' technique with your group members (in a group project) during lunch hour - let them help you find a research problem.

23. **Criteria in Evaluating a Problem.** Assuming that you recognize some unsolved theme/topic and decide upon a research problem, how can you be sure it is suitable? The following criteria may help you in evaluating your selection:

a. **Is the Problem of Interest to Me?** Nothing is more deadening than to select a problem in which you have no real interest and then try to force yourself to investigate and report upon it. If possible, pick a problem which sparks your interest and enthusiasm, one which you will sincerely like to solve.

b. **Is the Problem Unsolved?** Your study cannot make a real contribution to knowledge if the problem or important elements of it have already been solved.

c. **Is the Problem Worthwhile?** Will it repay you for the efforts you expend, or is it only a chance to collect data? Will your knowledge be increased as a result of having investigated the problem? Will the problem stimulate imaginative and original thinking? Keep in mind that research should produce something new which did not exist before the research was undertaken.

d. **Is the Scope Satisfactory?** If you choose a problem which is too broad, you will never be able to complete it in the time allotted. On the other hand, if you choose too narrow a problem, you will not profit from your investigation. You are the best judge of your capabilities and know whether you

can handle your problem intelligently. Give your problem careful consideration to decide if the scope is suitable. Review of the literature help you decide.

e. **Does the Problem Have Emotional Content for Me?** Do not attack your study with the idea of 'proving a point'. Far too many officers hold a strong conviction on some point and regard their study as simply a convenient vehicle which they can use to convince others. You must be absolutely impartial in working on your study.

f. **Are Adequate Data Available?** You must make sure that sufficient data exists or can be made available to permit you to do a comprehensive job on your study. If you have selected a research problem which you believe will contain classified information, check with the librarian and the Directing Staff to see whether classified documents in the general category of your study can be made available to you. Check first, If you cannot locate enough information, select another topic.

24. **Formulating a Problem.** It is very important to understand the essential contents of a problem statement. Following information should ideally be included in problem statement:

- a. A brief description of the socio-economic and cultural characteristics and an overview of the issue at the macro level.
- b. A concise description of the nature of the problem (the discrepancy between what is and what it should be), and of its size, distribution, and severity (who is affected, where, when, how etc).
- c. An analysis of the major factors that may influence the problem and a convincing argument that the available knowledge is insufficient to solve it.
- d. A brief description of any attempt in the past to solve the problem, outcome thereof, and why further research is needed.
- e. A description of the type of information expected to result from the study and how this information will be used to help solve the problem.

### **Identifying Research Question**

25. By selecting questions, and paying attention to their wording, it is possible to determine what is to be studied, why it is to be studied, and how it is to be studied. Therefore, research questions can be grouped in three main types; 'what questions', 'why questions' and 'how questions'. What questions require descriptive answer; they are directed towards discovering and describing of and patterns in some phenomenon. Why questions ask for either the cause or the reasons for the existence of the characteristics in particular phenomenon. They are directed towards understanding and explaining the relationship between the events. How questions are concerned with bringing about changes in practical outcomes and interventions. Follow this example below:

**Example:**

Research Problem: “It is noticed with great concern that in recent times, most young people have become prone to drug addiction in the country, which is unprecedented.”

The ‘what’, ‘why’ and ‘how’ questions can be formed as follows:

- What is the socio-economic background of the people involved in the incidence?
- Why have this habit developed?
- How can this habit be changed?

**Step 2 - Review of the Literature**

26. You have made a tentative decision as to the problem you will investigate, and have written down a problem statement. Still you may not be sure how to begin the investigation even though you already have some knowledge of the problem. This is why the review of literature is so necessary and helpful. Remember that, others have had experience with problems similar to yours. Consult their works to find the best techniques to use in attacking your problem and to suggest solutions.

27. Efforts should be made to acquire a wide and deep understanding of the nature of the problem to be studied. This knowledge can be gained by reading the available literature on the topic, interviewing persons knowledgeable about it, and conducting exploratory studies. Review of the literature generates several benefits:

- a. It reveals investigations similar to the proposed study and shows how the other researchers handled the research problem.
- b. It suggests a method of dealing with a problematic situation that may also suggest avenue of approach to the solution of similar difficulties.
- c. It reveals to the researcher the sources of data that the researcher may not have known existed.
- d. It can help the researcher to see his study in historical and associational perspective, and in relation to earlier and more primitive attacks on the same problem.
- e. It provides the researcher with new ideas and approaches that may not have occurred to him.

### **Step 3 - Setting Objective/Purpose and Hypothesis**

#### **Research Objective/Purpose**

28. The way you attack your problems will be determined by the purpose of your study. For example, in trying to decide how to state the problem, you must ask yourself certain questions. What is the purpose of my research? Why do I want to investigate the problem? The answers to these questions will tell you the purpose of your study.

29. Do not confuse the purpose with the problem statement. These two elements are entirely different. Also, keep in mind that there can be only one purpose of your study. Perhaps these hypothetical examples will help you see the difference between the various elements of a special study.

#### **Example:**

Problem Statement: To investigate the possible impacts of the Jamuna Bridge on the economic development of North Bengal area.

Purpose: To recommend various measures by which the economic condition of North Bengal can be improved by constructing the bridge.

30. **Formulation of Hypothesis.** The formulation of hypothesis presumes some problem for which inquiry is necessary. If there is no problem, no research is necessary, and there is no necessity of a hypothesis. A satisfactory solution of a problem requires the irrelevant facts be eliminated from the relevant facts. The hypothesis is the focal point of any research and must be so formulated that it can be tested. Following guidelines are suggested for the formulation of hypothesis:

a. **Simple and Clear Concept.** Concepts used in the hypothesis should be clearly defined and easily communicated. If a concept contains vague and complex elements, people will have different meanings from it. For example, consider this hypothesis "Modern warfare demonstrated that there is no alternative to combined arms operation". What is the definition of "Modern Warfare"? Unless a time line is mentioned, it can create confusion in the mind of reader. Therefore, a researcher should bear in mind the following while formulating a simple and clear hypothesis:

- (1) Researcher should have absolute and complete understanding of the concepts that is being proposed.
- (2) Researcher should understand the connotation and significance of the concept clearly, precisely and fully in the context of their usage.
- (3) If concepts are ambiguous, they must be illustrated.
- (4) Vague and highly generalized concepts, such as 'function', 'modern warfare', 'ancient warfare' etc are to be translated into more concrete terms.

- b. **Specific and Testable.** Often the hypothesis is expressed in very general terms that it cannot be tested. A too general hypothesis can be divided into numbers of sub-hypothesis.
- c. **In Line With Research Method.** Hypothesis should be formulated according to the availability of research methods. If a hypothesis cannot be tested by available methods, it will be a waste of time.
- d. **The Hypothesis Must be Related to Existing Theory.** A tested hypothesis should question, qualify or confirm one or more existing theories.
- e. **Empirically Verifiable.** The most important condition of valid hypothesis is that it should be empirically verifiable. A hypothesis should be compared with the facts of experience directly or indirectly. A hypothesis, if not confirmed, will be recognized as a mere supposition.

## **Step 4 – Research Design and Research Proposal**

### **What is a Research Design**

31. Research design precisely means drawing systematic approach and establishing a plan of action to carry out the research. A research design is based more or less on a well defined methodology. The research design should be developed only when the topic and problem are selected or identified, objectives are set and hypothesis is framed. A research design answers to the following questions:

- a. What the study is all about?
- b. What type of data is required and what are the sources of data?
- c. What is the purpose of research?
- d. What should be the place or area of study?
- e. What should be the amount of resources needed for the study?
- f. How much time is actually required?
- g. Which method of data collection should be appropriate?
- h. How should the data be analyzed?
- j. What would be the methodology of the study?

32. A research design is a tentative plan. It may change as the study progresses, and as new facts, new ideas and condition appear. Research design is not a highly specific plan to be followed without deviation, rather a series of guide posts to keep one headed in the right direction.

### **Conceptual Framework**

33. Now is the time to draw up a conceptual framework for your research using the data available to you and the hypothesis which has grown logically from your knowledge of the problem. This framework represents your initial concept of the problem and the manner in which you may develop it. It serves as a road map of the research work and your plan for additional data gathering. The original framework will undoubtedly have gaps in it indicating a need for research in certain areas. As you gather material, you can

fill in these gaps, revise and change the conceptual framework as you proceed with your investigation. For example, new material may indicate that your original conceptual framework was incomplete, and that you had overlooked an important aspect of the problem. Be flexible and revise the framework as you find it necessary to do so.

### **Research Proposal**

34. When a research design is submitted in a form of proposal either to an academic institution or a sponsor, following format is generally used:

- a. Problem Statement
- b. Research Question/s
- c. Review of the literature
- d. Objectives/purpose and Hypothesis
- e. Illustration of conceptual framework.
- f. Research Methods.
  - (1) What methods are to be used?
  - (2) Rational of such methods.
  - (3) How data will be collected?
- g. Analysis Plan.
  - (1) How the data will be analyzed?
  - (2) What quantitative/qualitative tools will be used?
  - (3) Will there be any expert consultation-if so, who are they?
  - (4) What will be the nature of consultation?
- h. Resource and time schedule.
  - (1) How much material resources are needed?
  - (2) How much intellectual support is wanted?
  - (3) What time schedule will be followed?

## **Step 5 – Data Collection**

### **General**

35. Data are the raw materials for research. This chapter discusses the various methods of data collection. While collecting data, a researcher must remember following:

- a. What information we want to collect to answer our research question? This refers to selection of variables.
- b. What approach we should follow to collect this information?
- c. What techniques and tools will be used for data collection?
- d. Where you want to collect the data?

### **Data Collection Technique**

36. Data collection techniques allow us to systematically collect information of the objects of the study like people, phenomenon etc. There are mainly two types of data collection techniques: quantitative data collection and qualitative data collection techniques.

### **Quantitative Data Collection**

37. **Personal Interview.** A personal Interview is one that employs a standard structured questionnaire (or interview schedule) to ensure that all respondents are asked exactly the same set of questions in the same sequence. It is a two-way conversation initiated by an interviewer to obtain information from a respondent. The questions, the wording, and their sequence define the structure of the interview and the interview is conducted face-to face. Studies that obtain data by interviewing people are called surveys. If the people interviewed are a representative sample of a larger population, such studies are called sample surveys. Thus, a sample survey is defined as a method of gathering primary data based on communication with a representative sample of individuals. The number of questions and the exact wording of each question incorporated in a questionnaire is identical to all respondents and is specified in advance. The interviewer merely reads each question to the respondent and usually restrains from providing explanations of the questions if the respondent asks for clarification.

38. **Self-administered Questionnaire Method.** A self-administered questionnaire (also referred to as mailed questionnaire) is a data collection tool in which written questions are presented that are to be answered by the respondents in written form. A written questionnaire can be administered in different ways, for example:

- a. Sending questionnaires by mail with clear instructions on how to answer the questions and requesting for mailed responses.
- b. Gathering all or part of the respondents in one place at one time, giving oral or written instructions, and letting the respondents fill out the questionnaires.
- c. Hand-delivering questionnaires to respondents and collecting them later.
- d. Computer-delivered self-administered questionnaires use organizational intranets, the Internet or on-line services to reach their respondents.

39. **Telephone Interview.** Telephone interviewing may be regarded as a semi-personal method of information collection. It has become much more popular in recent years because of the diffusion of telephone services worldwide. The increase in the use of telephone interviewing in the last few years has been so dramatic that it has prompted wide applications in survey research during the past few years. The chief reasons are the rapid increase in the number of households having telephones, and the widespread use of computer aided technologies all over the world. Many people are hesitant to admit strangers especially at night for face to face interview. Same is the case with the interviewer who also remain hesitant to approach an unknown person. All these factors plus others have helped the telephone survey to make inroads on the dominance of the face-to-face interview and mailed questionnaire.

### **Qualitative Data Collection**

40. **Unstructured Interviews.**

a. In contrast to structured interviews, unstructured interviews permit open-ended responses to questions. Such interviews are often called in-depth interviews. Instead of reading formal questions from a structured interview schedule, the interviewer in an unstructured, interviewer has an outline of schedule, topics or a set of general questions to serve as a guide to the kind of information required. By nature, the unstructured interview differs from traditional structured interviewing in several ways:

- (1) In unstructured interview, there is no formal structured instrument.
- (2) The interviewer is free to move or change the conversation in any direction of interest that may come up during the interview. This is not the case in a structured interview.
- (3) Details that are not brought out initially are sought through follow-up questions, called probes.
- (4) It is particularly useful for exploratory studies.

b. The chief drawbacks of unstructured interviews are:

- (1) The responses are difficult to quantify.
- (2) The interviews require highly skilled and experienced interviewers.
- (3) The analysis is exceedingly time-consuming.

41. **Focus Group Discussion.**

a. A Focus Group Discussion (FGD) is a discussion of a group of persons guided by a facilitator, also called moderator, during which group members talk freely and spontaneously about a certain topic fixed in advance in a group environment. Focus group generally includes 6-12 persons selected by the researcher, who are knowledgeable about a specific subject. The focus group strategy is often used as a starting point for developing a survey. The researcher



is able to get a better idea of how respondents talk and think about topics. Focus group also helps when a researcher needs to get background information on a topic. Such group interviews can stimulate new ideas and concepts, reveal potential problems in a research design, and help interpret evidence generated from a quantitative study.

b. There are several advantages to using focus groups. These include, among others, the following:

- (1) They provide quick and inexpensive sources of information from a diverse range of respondents.
- (2) The researcher has the opportunity to talk directly to the respondents in order to clarify and understand ideas and views.
- (3) Respondents have the chance to develop their reactions to, and build upon the responses of other participants in the group.
- (4) Successful focus groups can be carried out through teleconferencing even when the individuals in the group cannot be physically drawn together in a specific place.

42. **Observational Method of Data Collection.** Observation is a technique that involves systematically selecting, watching, listening, reading, touching, and recording behavior and characteristics of living beings, objects or phenomena. The technique qualifies as a scientific method of data collection when it is specially designed to answer a research question and is systematically planned and executed with proper control. The versatility of the method makes it an indispensable primary source of data, and a supplement to other methods.

43. **Document Study.**

a. Among the non-survey data collection methods, document study occupies a central position owing to its several advantages. By document we mean any written materials that contain information about the phenomena we are interested to study. These documents are available generally in two forms: **primary documents** and **secondary documents**. Primary documents are the eye witness accounts written by people who experienced the particular event or behavior. Secondary documents are those compiled by people who were not present on the spot but received the information necessary to compile the document by questioning eyewitnesses or by examining primary documents.

b. Most documents are written primarily for some purpose other than research. Primary documents are generally written for personal reasons. These include diaries, letters to friends or relatives, autobiographies and letters of confession. In addition to personal writing and business records, a third major area of documents is printed mass media, specifically newspapers, journals, magazines, newsletters, books and periodicals.

c. **Advantages and Disadvantages of Document Study.**

(1) One of the basic advantages of a document study is that it allows research on subjects to which researcher does not have easy physical access. It is also free from reactivity, particularly when the document is written for some other purposes. The documents incorporated in a diary, for example, are in most cases spontaneous and thus reflect the author's instant feeling and observation. A document is more likely to record the confession of the author. A person is more likely to confess in a document, particularly one to be read only, after his or death, than in an interview or mailed questionnaire study.

(2) Among the disadvantages are the bias stemming from the fact that the document was written for some other purposes (primarily for making money) rather than social research. Thus the documents tend to be exaggerated and often fabricated to make good story. Some documents are generally written on papers; they do not withstand the elements well unless care is taken to preserve them. Many documents are incomplete, un-standardized, and thus researchers encounter difficulties in coding and analysis.

44. **Content Analysis.**

a. As defined by Berelson, content analysis is a research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication. Others view content analysis as any technique for making references by systematically and objectively identifying specific characteristics within text. It includes observation as well as analysis. The unit of analysis may be words (different words, or types of words in the message), characters (individuals or objects), themes (proportions), a space and time measures (length and duration of the message). In business research, one can content analyze the messages in advertisements, newspaper articles, television, or radio programs. For example, the frequency of appearance of tribal women and members of other minority groups in mass media may be studied using content analysis.

b. The primary goal of content analysis is to take a verbal, non-quantitative document and transform it into quantitative data. The results of content analysis can generally be presented in tables containing frequencies of percentages. Thus it appears that content analysis is a marvelous approach that can turn words into numbers.

c. Content analysis is the same sort of structured analysis applied to documents rather than to observation of nonverbal behavior. In other words, it is a structured document-analysis technique in which the researcher first constructs a set of mutually exclusive categories that can be used to analyze documents and then record with which each of these categories is observed in this document studied.

d. **Limitations.**

- (1) Difficult to gain access to the records or reports required.
- (2) Information may be incomplete.
- (3) Information may be out of date.
- (4) Definitions and methodologies may vary.

**Step 6 – Data Analysis**

**Deciding Methods of Analysis**

45. The researcher of any discipline is confronted with the problem as to what to do with the data after those have been collected. The quantity of data may be so great that the researcher cannot put all of it in his report. The much of the data must be reduced to some suitable form for analysis so that a succinct set of conclusions or findings can be reported. In an attempt to analyze the data, we must first decide:

- a. Whether the tabulation of data will be performed by hand or by computer.
- b. How the information can be converted into a form that will allow it to be processed efficiently?
- c. What statistical tools or methods will be employed?

**Data Preparation**

46. **Editing.**

a. The customary first step in analysis is to edit the raw data. Editing detects errors and omissions, corrects them whenever possible, and certifies that minimum data quality standards are achieved. The editing should guarantee that data are (1) accurate, (2) uniformly entered, (3) complete, and (4) arranged to simplify coding and tabulation.

b. Editing of data may be accomplished in two ways: field editing and in-house also called central editing. Field-editing is preliminary editing to data by a field supervisor on the same day. Its purpose is to identify technical omissions, check legibility, and clarify responses that are logically or conceptually inconsistent. In central or in-house editing, all the questionnaires undergo thorough editing. It is a rigorous job performed by the researcher and his staff.

47. **Coding.** Coding is the process of assigning numbers or other symbols to answers so that the responses can be grouped into a limited number of categories. Coding helps the researcher to reduce thousand replies to a few categories containing the critical information intended for the question asked.

48. **Data Entry.** After coding is over, the next step is to enter the coded information into a file, which can be stored on a computer disc, diskette or tape.

### **Data Analysis Method**

49. Data analysis is particularly necessary for testing hypothesis. Needless to say that the data may be interpreted and presented in entirely verbal terms, particularly in observational studies and document studies. However, when dealing with quantitative data, we prefer to employ statistical techniques to analyze our data. Widely accepted method of Data analysis SWOT analysis. SWOT analysis is a framework for generating strategic alternatives from a situation analysis. It serves as a simple but powerful technique for understanding and evaluating the strengths and weaknesses and for looking at the opportunities, and threats involved in a situation. SWOT (sometimes referred to as TOWS) is an acronym for Strengths (S), Weaknesses (W), Opportunities (O), and Threats (T).

## **Step 7 - Conclusions and Recommendations**

### **General**

50. The end product of your research is a generalization or a series of generalizations that sum up the results of your analysis of the research data. These are your conclusions. You remember that you started your research with a hypothesis which should have been believable, not contrary to known facts, capable of being substantiated by deductive reasoning and stated simply. The same characteristics must apply to your conclusions since these are the hypothesis supported by proven facts. Check your conclusions against these characteristics:

a. **Each Conclusion Should be Believable.**

(1) The conclusions must agree with the facts discovered during the investigation. This may seem obvious, but many research papers fail to meet their aims simply because the conclusions are not drawn from the data interpreted in the study. There are several reasons for this. A researcher who has strong preconceived notions may go so far as to list a generalization which is contrary to fact. To him, the collection of data appears to be a formality; it has little influence in changing his preconceived convictions.

(2) Another pitfall which must be avoided by the investigator is assuming that a rule which applies under certain conditions is applicable under all conditions.

(3) To be certain that your generalizations are believable, you must constantly ask the questions: Are the data complete? Are they accurate? Each generalization you make must be checked repeatedly to be certain that it is logical, and is in accord with the data.

b. **Conclusions should be stated in simple terms.**

(1) Your generalizations should be stated in the clearest and simplest terms possible. In all your writing, the need for clear and direct statements cannot be emphasized too much. But this need is more important in the formulation of your conclusions than anywhere else. Carefully study the statement of each conclusion to see that it is accurate, clear and simple.

(2) There is a need to limit the number of your conclusions. If you try to reach too many conclusions, you are sure to exceed your evidence. List only those conclusions that you have actually proved.

**Common Errors in Reasoning**

51. In stating your conclusions, be sure to avoid some of the common fallacies for reasoning such as the following:

- a. Generalizing from insufficient data.
- b. Arguing from a single or limited number of instances.
- c. Arguing from positive instances to the neglect of negative instances.
- d. Omitting evidence contrary to one's own opinion.
- e. Depending too much upon subjective judgement, estimates, and guesses.
- f. Arguing from analogy.

**Recommendations Should be Practical**

52. The value of your conclusions can often be measured by their application to a practical situation. Your study will probably not be so abstract that your conclusions cannot be applied to practical experience. Thus, the next step in your research is to suggest practical applications of your conclusions. You may recommend positive action to change, modify, or replace concepts, methods of operation, tactics for strategies; or you may suggest areas requiring further investigation. From those conclusions you have supported fully, you can develop positive recommendations. From those which, for one reason or another, you are unable to verify completely, you can make recommendations for further research or experimentation.

53. In making your recommendations, you should ask yourself how well these conform to current concepts. If these give way to contradictions or raise questions, you may make a note of these possibilities in your recommendations. You should use as much care in writing the recommendations as you do in formulating the statements of your conclusions.

**Elements of the Conclusions and Recommendations**

54. Finally, there are many ways in which conclusions and recommendations can be stated. The nature of your study will determine the best for the purpose that you

decided. Whatever plan you follow, it should include these elements in some form or other:

- a. Concise answers to the questions posed in the statement of the problem. (These are your conclusions).
- b. Statements indicating the limitations of your conclusions due to incomplete or unverifiable data (These are the qualifications of your conclusions).
- c. Suggestions for applying your conclusions indicating a need for further investigation (these are your recommendations).

## **Step 8 - Writing the Research Report**

### **General**

55. When you have satisfactorily completed your research and note taking, you are ready to write the first draft of your paper. Follow the process mentioned in the subsequent paragraphs.

### **Revising the Outline**

56. Before beginning to write, check your outline once more. If your research confirmed your original hypothesis, only minor revisions of the outline should be needed. If research proved the original hypothesis to be incorrect, you must revise the outline to fit the findings of your investigation.

57. Once the outline is completed, the notes should be laid out to correspond to the final outline. You probably find that you have taken some notes that you cannot use. On the other hand, you will probably find that certain facts are missing and that you must go back and look them up. The more thorough your research, the fewer will be the gaps that you must fill in later.

### **Continuity**

58. The most important principle to remember in composing is to maintain a continuity of thought. Arrange to set aside a large block of time free of any kind of interruptions so that you can allow your ideas to flow along smoothly. If you divide your paper into 3 to 5 parts, wherever the divisions come naturally, you can assemble your outline and all the notes that you need for one part at a time and then complete writing it at one sitting. In this way you can maintain continuity of thought. Then you can go on to the next section and handle it as a unit in the same way.

### **Making a Beginning**

59. Usually the most difficult part of writing is to make the start. You, no doubt, have at some time or other experienced difficulties in making a beginning. You jotted down several sentences, surveyed each of them critically and then crossed them out and waited before making another attempt. It is better to make a poor start than to sit and wait too long for ideas. After you have written a paragraph or two, you will find that your ideas are becoming better and you are composing with much more ease. You are capitalizing on some of the outlining, checking and planning that you have done. Later, when you have completed the paper, it will be a simple matter to go back and rewrite the introductory passages that you had to struggle with at first. Some experienced writers rewrite the introduction to a paper after they have completed the conclusions. By doing this they also check to see that their conclusions apply directly to the problem.

### **Style**

60. As you write the first draft do not be overly critical. Later you should certainly check all doubtful spelling and look up questions of grammatical usage in a reliable handbook if you plan to get full benefits from writing your paper. Such things can be taken care of when you are revising. As you compose, put a question mark in the margin opposite all doubtful matters and keep going. You are not likely to be seriously ungrammatical if you allow yourself to write naturally.

61. Research writing should be objective, impersonal, and done in the third person. You should avoid using any remarks without any substantiation. It is necessary to make this perfectly clear. You speak of yourself as 'the writer'. But writing in the third person does not presuppose ambiguous phrasing. If you view your findings impersonally throughout the whole investigation, you will find that it is only natural to phrase your ideas in the third person.

### **Quotations**

62. When a quotation is needed to establish precise authority i.e. when it expresses an idea much better than you can, you should use a direct quotation. Many authors use quotations to inject flavour and variety into their writing. Detailed instruction about quotation should be followed.

### **Illustrations**

63. As you write your first draft, illustrations may cause you more concern than footnotes. If you can show some of your findings through charts, graphs and tables, it certainly is to your advantage. They will help you immeasurably in your writing by doing away with the need for long explanations. But do not include any illustrations without some clear brief explanation. All illustrations and tables, as well as the legends that explain them, should be noted in separate annexes.

### **Editing**

64. Since you must allow yourself freedom in writing, you will find that you include in your first draft much more than you want to keep. The best way to write is to get down all the facts as you see them at the time and then later cut out everything that is unnecessary. To write a short paper well, you must first write a long paper and then cut it down ruthlessly. In your first draft you are apt to leave gaps in thought that will not be

obvious to you until you read the paper over later. Editing is really a leveling-off process during which you take out the humps of unnecessary material and fill in the valleys where there are gaps in thought. When you prepare the final draft of your paper, you edit the first draft as well as check on mechanical matters like spacing, minor SD etc.

### **Abbreviations**

65. In general, you should avoid the use of abbreviations in the text. However, if certain group of words appear frequently in the text, it may be abbreviated first and used later throughout the text wherever needed e.g. 'low-intensity conflict (LIC)' used early can be used as LIC in all later usage. Over and above this, if you feel that you must use some abbreviations, you may include a list of abbreviations. Finally as far as possible, use of full stops in all abbreviations will be avoided for consistency and convenience.

### **Abstract**

66. When you have completed writing and editing your study, you have one remaining task. This is to write the abstract, or summary of the study. Ordinarily an abstract consists of 3 main parts: The first describes the problem; the second outlines the procedures you used; the third describes your conclusions and recommendations. You should be able to write the abstract in one brief, descriptive paragraph. Keep it under 250 words.



**TOPIC-3**

**FORMAT OF RESEARCH REPORT**

**General**

1. A research study will be judged primarily by its content. Proper format, however, or lack of it, can add to or detract from its readability. Each writer should strive, therefore, to make his report as nearly correct in format as possible.

**Preliminaries**

2. **Title Page.** The College will furnish front and back covers for your report. Put the title of your report on the cover page. The title should be written in bold capital letter and underlined.

3. **Preface or Acknowledgement.** Its purpose is to permit you to address the reader directly and explain your personal reasons for making the study. It also enables you to acknowledge any special or non-routine assistance from persons or institutions. The help given by your guide is part of his work and requires no acknowledgment. Remember that the preface is not the formal introduction to your report.

4. **Abstract.** Brief consideration of the entire work. Abstract must mention the hypothesis. No definite limit can be set. However, for staff course, it should be within 250 words in length.

5. **Table of Contents.** List of important parts of the paper.

6. **List of Tables.**

a. If possible, tables should be inserted in the text. If insufficient room remains on a page to accommodate an entire table, fill out the page with a straight text and put the table on the next page. Long tables are generally put on separate pages, inserted and numbered. If more than one table is used, number each table with an Arabic numeral as 'Table 1' etcetera.

b. If you include tables, list them in the 'List of Tables' as per the existing rules. If a table is continued from one page to the next, number only in the page where the table begins. Also enter in the 'List of Tables' any tables placed in the annexes.

7. **List of Illustrations.** If illustrations, charts, or maps are included in your study, prepare a list of them in the same way as for the tables.

8. **Table of Abbreviations.** To be listed alphabetically.

## **Introduction**

9. The Introduction should include the following:
- Problem Statement.** Brief statement of the problem .
  - Research Question/s.** The research questions should clearly illustrate the significance of carrying out the research.
  - Definitions.** Important definitions which have been used and on which common understanding of the researcher and reader is required.
  - Limitations and Assumptions.** Conditions and circumstances that prevented the study from being as perfect as desired. Mention the interrupting elements that appeared which may have influenced the results as well as explained and unexplained factors. Also mention assumptions those are considered during the research.
  - Research Objective (purpose) and Hypothesis.** Describes the research objective and hypothesis.
  - Review of the Literature.** Reviews very briefly related research works on the same topic. It should not be more than two pages.
  - Methods of Data Collection.** Describes the methods used for data collection.

## **Main Discussion**

10. While writing the main discussion, concentration should be given to one section at a time. You may need to do some or all of the followings in each section:
- State data obtained and indicate sources.
  - Analyze the data.
  - State the conclusions based on them.
  - Refer to or summarize matter fully presented in various tables, illustrations and annexes.

## **Conclusions**

11. This chapter is considered as the mirror of the report. The reader wants to get everything in one go. Remember that you have already found out the conclusions (findings) and mentioned those in various corners of your main discussion. It is now time to gather all conclusions in single place. Conclusion should cover followings:
- Summary of the main discussions as context for writing the summary of conclusion. Remember that the focus here is the next point.
  - Summary of all findings. Be specific in describing the findings.
  - No new findings can appear in the conclusion.

## **Recommendations**

12. This part contains a statement of the future actions, which in your opinion, may be worth pursuing. These are known as recommendations. Recommendations concern future research, the development of theory or the practise of management in relation to the problem. You should include suggestion for future research as well as the applications of findings to any relevant matters. The conclusions and recommendations may appear in the same chapter, or may be divided into two chapters.

## **Bibliography and Referencing**

13. **Bibliography.** A bibliography is a list of sources that have been used in writing a paper. It will include all books, chapters in edited books, journal articles, magazine articles, newspaper articles, official publications, conference papers and website materials that have been read in planning and writing a paper, regardless whether or not a reference has been cited in the paper. The bibliography is always presented at the end of the paper using single line-spacing. References should be placed in alphabetical order by surname of author/s. If there are two or more references to the same author, they should be presented in chronological order with the earliest reference presented first; and if there are two or more references to the same author in the same year, they should be distinguished by adding a, b, c etc. after the year of publication. The style of presenting a bibliographic reference varies according to the type of reference (e.g. book, edited book, journal article etc.). General sequence of writing bibliography- Name of author/s or editor/s (Ed/s.). (Year of publication). *Title of Book*. Place of publication: Publisher. Below are details of how to present books, chapters in edited books, journal articles, magazine articles, newspaper articles, official publications, conference papers and website material as bibliographic references.

- a. **Books.** Hoffmann, S. (1998). *World Disorders: Troubled Peace in the Post-Cold War Era*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- b. **Chapters in Edited Books.** Evans, T. (1997). Democratization and human rights. In A. McGrew (Ed.), *The Transformation of Democracy?* Cambridge: Polity Press.
- c. **Journal Articles.** Foster, C. D. (2001). The civil service under stress: the fall in civil service power and authority. *Public Administration*, 79(3), 725-749.
- d. **Magazine Articles.** Hobsbawm, E. (1998, November/December). The death of neo-liberalism. *Marxism Today*, 4-8.

- e. **Newspaper Articles.** Cowan, R. (2001, October 23). Adams asks IRA to disarm. *The Guardian*, p. 1.
- f. **Official Publications.** Prime Minister's Office & Cabinet Office. (1999). *Modernizing Government*. London: The Stationery Office.
- g. **Conference Papers.** Newman, J. (2001, September). *New Labour and the Politics of Governance*. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the European Group of Public Administration, Vaasa, Finland.
- h. **Website Material.** Commission of the European Communities (2001). *Governance in the European Union: a White Paper*. Retrieved August 21, 2001, from [http://europa.eu.int/governance/white\\_paper/index\\_en.htm](http://europa.eu.int/governance/white_paper/index_en.htm)

15. **Referencing a Paper.** It is very important that references are provided in a paper to indicate the sources of arguments, data, ideas, information, quotations etc. **Failure to provide references may constitute plagiarism, which is a serious academic offence.** Referencing should be used to cite and credit all sources of material (and not only quotations). There are several ways in which references can be presented, but Harvard APA-style of referencing may be used. Below are few examples of Harvard APA-style of referencing:

**Example 1: Quoting and Paraphrasing**

Fairclough (2000) stated that language 'has always been important in politics and in government' (2000, p. 3).

*Or this quotation can be paraphrased as follows:*

Fairclough (2000) argued that language plays a significant role within government and politics (2000, p. 3).

Education 'is permanently near the top of the political agenda in France' (Cole, 2001, p. 707).  
*Or paraphrased:*

Cole (2001) argued that education is a constant issue on the French political agenda (2001, p.707).

16. The same reference is cited regardless of whether quoted or paraphrased. The surname of the author/s need not appear in the cited reference if the surname/s appear in the text preceding the cited reference. It is important when paraphrasing that your

words are sufficiently different from the original words you have read, while conveying the same point of the author/s you have read. However, if quoting, it is important that you place the quoted words within “double-quotation marks” to distinguish the quoted words from your own words; ‘single-quotation marks’ should be used for your words, and not someone else’s.

### **Example 2: Quoting Long Passages**

About the Islamic renaissance in Spain, Karen Armstrong wrote (2000, p.83):

Cordova also experienced a cultural florescence, even though the Umayyad caliphate in Spain had eventually collapsed in 1010 and disintegrated into a number of rivals independent courts. The Spanish renaissance was particularly famous for its poetry, which resembled that of the French troubadour courtly tradition. The Muslim poet Ibn Hazam developed a simpler piety, which relied solely on Al-hadith, Fiqh and metaphysical philosophy. (2000, p.83).

17. Quotations of a sentence or more should be separated from but introduced in the preceding text of the paper and should be indented. Single-line spacing should be used in presenting quotations of a sentence or more, as opposed to one-and-a-half-line spacing or double-line spacing used for the main text of the paper. The above quotation does not have to be presented in full if parts of it are irrelevant to the point being made in the paper. By inserting three full-stops this signifies to the reader that some of the original text has been omitted from the quotation. Furthermore, it is possible to insert own words into the quotation by using the parentheses, [...], as a way of shortening a long quotation. The quotation presented above can be re-presented as follows:

About the Islamic renaissance in Spain, Karen Armstrong wrote (2000, p.83):

Cordova also experienced a cultural florescence...[and]...The Muslim poet Ibn Hazam developed a simpler piety, which relied solely on Al-hadith, Fiqh and metaphysical philosophy. (2000, p.83).

### **Example 3: Quoting non-English Language Passages**

18. When quoting (or paraphrasing) from a publication written in a language other than English, the quotation should be faithfully translated into the English language, but the reference appearing in the bibliography should appear in the language that it was written. However, the reference to this book in the bibliography needs to be presented in the Bengali language.

### **Example 4: Primary and Secondary Sources**

19. When referencing it is important to cite the source of the material used in writing the paper. It may be that the source of the quotation is not the primary source (that is, the original text) but a secondary source (another text citing from the original text). If so, you must cite the secondary source of the material, and may cite the primary source only if significant, as follows:

Hayek (1994) believed that 'the intellectual foundations of socialism have all collapsed' (taken from Gamble, 1994, p.34).

Fox and Miller (1997) argued that there are no agreed criteria for ascertaining claims of truth (taken from Rhodes, 1997, p.185).

#### **Example 5: Citing from the Internet**

20. You must cite sources gleaned from the internet in your paper, as follows:

The period after Bakhtiar Khilji's death in 1206 devolved into infighting among the Khiljis - representative of a pattern of succession struggles and intra-empire intrigues during later Turkic regimes. (Wikipedia, n.d.).

21. Even if the material used is available in another format, such as a newspaper article or report, the reference should still cite it as an internet-based source if that is where the material was found. When citing from internet-based sources, you should download and keep a copy of the material used for the paper to protect against any charges of plagiarism. If the date is not mentioned, write n.d.

#### **Example 6: Citing Page-numbers in References**

22. The key rule in referencing is to state precisely the sources of material used in writing papers. For example, you must specify the precise page-number/s of your sources in your references, unless you are either referring to a general argument contained in a book, chapter in an edited book, journal article, magazine article, newspaper article, official publication or conference paper, or referring to an internet-based source. Four relevant examples are shown below:

It has been calculated that the Labour Party spent £7.4 million in the general election campaign of 1997 (Russell, 2000, p. 20).

Harris (1999) charted the Nazi roots of many extreme right political organizations in Europe (1999, pp. 8-9).

Globalization is having significant domestic effects upon Britain under New Labour (Oxford, 2000; Krieger, 1999).

23. The first two examples above of a figure and a specific point being taken from a source require page numbers in their references; whereas the third example of a general point taken from a source does not require any page-numbers in its reference as it is referring to the argument outlined in the whole book. The third example also cites two sources; in cases where more than one source is cited, each reference is presented in alphabetical order and separated by a semi-colon. From the above, it can be seen that the abbreviation, p. (meaning 'page'), denotes a single page (e.g. p. 89); whereas the abbreviation, pp. (meaning 'pages'), denotes more than one page of a book, etc. referred to in the paper (e.g. pp. 23-25, 148).

### **Example 7: Referencing and Latin Terms**

24. You should not use Latin terms such as etc. (meaning 'and so on'), *ibid.* ('the same as cited immediately beforehand'), *op. cit.* ('as previously cited beforehand'), and *passim* ('mentioned throughout the cited reference') in bibliographic references. However, you can use the term, *et al.* (meaning 'and others'), in references, although not in the bibliography in which the names of all authors need to be cited. This term is used when there are three or more authors, as follows:

It has been argued that the reform of public services in the United Kingdom over the last twenty years 'involved the development of processes designed to scrutinize, evaluate and regulate the performance of agencies involved in service provision' (Clarke *et al.*, 2000, p. 250).

25. When quoting, it is vital to quote word-for-word from the sources. Sometimes this reproduction of someone else's words may mean replicating grammatical errors, spelling mistakes and clumsy phrases. You cannot correct the text by substituting it with what you thought the original author meant to write or ought to have written. However, you can insert the term *sic* (meaning 'thus used or spelt'), after the offending piece of quoted text, as follows:

Parsons (1995) noted that 'Bower's [*sic*] study of environmental pollution compares and contrasts two models used in the analysis of environmental decision-making: the pluralist view and the political economy/Marxist view' (1995, p. 271).

26. The term, *sic*, indicates to the reader that you know the academic cited has been spelt wrongly in Parsons' book; it should read 'Blowers'. It is vital that you faithfully record what the author of the passage quoted actually wrote. The term, *sic*, allows you to disassociate yourself from any problematic text written by others.

### **Plagiarism and Referencing**

27. The key principle of referencing is that you must inform the reader of the exact source of information which were used in writing a paper, whether it is an argument, numerical data, an idea or a quotation. Incorrect referencing may lead to charges of plagiarism leveled at authors of the paper. Plagiarism is academic theft, in that authors are passing off someone else's words as their own. It is a serious academic offence. Plagiarism is not condoned. Anti-plagiarism software and search engines can be and are used to detect plagiarism. Plagiarism is a serious disciplinary offence. It is important that authors do not cheat by plagiarizing, whether it is intended or not. It is vital that authors, when making notes from material, such as books and journal articles, record accurately the precise reference of material they have read. Also it is vital that they distinguish any quoted text, by using quotation-marks, from their own words in their notes to be used in writing papers.

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**ANNEX A TO**  
**CHAPTER-3**

**FORMAT SAMPLES**

1. **Sample Cover Sheet (Title Page)**

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**COMMAND AND STAFF TRAINING INSTITUTE**

**TITLE OF THE PAPAER**

by

Squadron Leader Abu Taleb Md Gaznabi

89 Junior Command and Staff Course

December 2011

**DIRECTING STAFF GUIDE**

Wg Cdr Mir Md Shah Amanat Ali, psc

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A-1

RESTRICTED



RESTRICTED

3. **Sample Abstract Page**

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**ABSTRACT**

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RESTRICTED

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RESTRICTED

3. **Sample Table of Contents**

RESTRICTED

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

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b. Research Questions.....	3
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4. **Sample List of Tables**

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**LIST OF TABLES**

<b><u>Tables</u></b>	<b><u>Page</u></b>
1. Statistics of Roads and Tracks – 1990. . . . .	4
2. Major Products of North Bengal Area. . . . .	9
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RESTRICTED

RESTRICTED

4. **Sample List of Illustrations**

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**LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS**

<b><u>Figure</u></b>	<b><u>Page</u></b>
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2. Major Routes of River Communication . . . . .	27
3. Major Economic/Trading Centres . . . . .	30

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RESTRICTED

6. Sample Page of Main Discussion

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**CHAPTER II: EFFECT OF JAMUNA MULTI-PURPOSE BRIDGE ON ROAD  
COMMUNICATION SYSTEM OF NORTH BENGAL AREA**

1. Jamuna multipurpose bridge project is the largest and most expensive project that Bangladesh government has undertaken.....

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## **REINFORCEMENT MODULE**

### **Book Review**

#### **RFT-4**

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## **BOOK REVIEW**

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#### **RFT-4**

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**TOPIC-1**  
**BOOK REVIEW**

**Introduction**

1. A book review is a description, critical analysis, and an evaluation on the quality, meaning, and significance of a book, not a retelling. It should focus on the book's purpose, content, and authority. A critical book review is not a book report or a summary. It is a reaction paper in which strengths and weaknesses of the material are analyzed. It should include a statement of what the author has tried to do, evaluates how well (in the opinion of the reviewer) the author has succeeded, and presents evidence to support this evaluation.

**Characteristics of a Good Review**

2. The review should introduce the reader to the book's content and focus on the subject of the book being reviewed. It should justify the following:

- a. Include an exposition of how the book fits into the current thinking on the subject (e.g., a novel approach, an introduction, a magisterial review, the finest book on the subject ever written, etc.).
- b. Avoid repeating its table of contents; rather, give the reader some idea of the author's thesis and how he or she develops it.
- c. If the book is an edited collection of essays, or chapters by different individuals, give some idea of the overall theme and content, but be free to focus on specific chapters you consider particularly significant or worthwhile.
- d. Inform the reader about what is happening in the area of academic activity the book addresses; what the state of knowledge is in the subject; and how this new book adds, changes, or breaks new ground in our knowledge of this subject. The review should be fair to the author.
- e. Tell readers why the author took many months to write the book, who the intended audience is, and how the author handles his or her material.
- f. Convey the content of the book, not chapter by chapter so much as the entire book.
- g. Add flavor to the review by including pungent or revealing quotations from the book or notable facts or findings.
- h. Be specific. Give details. Try not to be too abstract or vague (e.g., avoid writing "interesting observations," "lots of arresting data," or "a strange view of campus design" unless you complement this with specific examples). You should submerge your own opinions or reaction.
- j. Write the review about the book and its contribution to the subject, not about the reviewer's feelings on having read the book.



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- k. Do not tell the author what book you feel he or she should have written.
- l. The reviewer's appraisal is valuable, but this should be quite secondary. You should establish your authority to write the review.
- m. Do not point out the author's flaws, but display in a detailed and instructive way your expertise on the subject.
- n. Strive to make your review richly informative, even insightful.
- p. The finest reviews are extraordinarily understanding and moderately generous (but not uncritical), and they are enlightening little essays in their own right.
- q. There is no substitute for a careful reading of the book itself. Judgments about a book's usefulness and scholarly value based on a close reading of the text make the heart of a good review.

### **Components of the Review**

- 3. A review should consist of the following components:
  - a. **Introduction**. An introduction to the author(s), including the author's title and place of work, and some indication of who the author is (e.g., the renowned authority on campus finance; a bold, young architect-scholar of campus design; a frequent critic of academic administration).
  - b. **Summary**. A summary of the intended purpose of the book and how it contributes to improving academic life and operations and to the discipline of college planning generally.
  - c. **Description**. A description of the way the author approaches his or her topic, the rigor of the research and scholarship, the logic of the argument, and the readability of the prose.
  - d. **Comparison**. A comparison with earlier or similar books in the field to place the book in the existing literature.
  - e. **Evaluation**. An evaluation of the book's merits, usefulness, and special contributions, along with shortcomings you think are necessary to point out.

### **Guide to Write a Good Review**

- 4. There is no right way to write a book review. Book reviews are highly personal and reflect the opinions of the reviewer. A review can be as short as 50-100 words, or as long as 1500 words, depending on the purpose of the review. The following are standard procedures for writing book reviews; they are suggestions, not formulae that must be used.

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a. Write a statement giving essential information about the book: title, author, first copyright date, type of book, general subject matter, special features (maps, color plates, etc.), price etc.

b. State the author's purpose in writing the book. Sometimes authors state their purpose in the preface or the first chapter. When they do not, you may arrive at an understanding of the book's purpose by asking yourself these questions:

(1) Why did the author write on this subject rather than on some other subject?

(2) From what point of view is the work written?

(3) Was the author trying to give information, to explain something technical, to convince the reader of a belief's validity by dramatizing it in action?

(4) What is the general field or genre, and how does the book fit into it? (Use sources to familiarize yourself with the field, if necessary.) Knowledge of the genre means understanding the art form. and how it functions.

(5) Who is the intended audience?

(6) What is the author's style? Is it formal or informal? Evaluate the quality of the writing style by using some of the following standards: coherence, clarity, originality, forcefulness, correct use of technical words, conciseness, fullness of development, fluidity. Does it suit the intended audience?

(7) Scan the Table of Contents, it can help understand how the book is organized and will aid in determining the author's main ideas and how they are developed - chronologically, topically, etc.

(8) How did the book affect you? Were any previous ideas you had on the subject changed, abandoned, or reinforced due to this book? How is the book related to your own course or personal agenda? What personal experiences you've had relate to the subject?

(9) How well has the book achieved its goal?

(10) Would you recommend this book or article to others? Why?

c. State the theme and the thesis of the book.

(1) **Theme.** The theme is the subject or topic. It is not necessarily the title, and it is usually not expressed in a complete sentence. It expresses a specific phase of the general subject matter.

(2) **Thesis.** The thesis is an author's generalization about the theme, the author's beliefs about something important, the book's

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philosophical conclusion, or the proposition the author means to prove. Express it without metaphor or other figurative language, in one declarative sentence.

Example

Title: We Had it Made

General Subject Matter: Religious Intolerance

Theme: The effects of religious intolerance on a small town

Thesis: Religious intolerance, a sickness of individuals, contaminates an entire group

d. Explain the method of development-the way the author supports the thesis. Illustrate your remarks with specific references and quotations. In general, authors tend to use the following methods, exclusively or in combination.

(1) **Description**: The author presents word-pictures of scenes and events by giving specific details that appeal to the five senses, or to the reader's imagination. Description presents background and setting. Its primary purpose is to help the reader realize, through as many sensuous details as possible, the way things (and people) are, in the episodes being described.

(2) **Narration**: The author tells the story of a series of events, usually presented in chronological order. In a novel however, chronological order may be violated for the sake of the plot. The emphasis in narration, in both fiction and non-fiction, is on the events. Narration tells what has happened. Its primary purpose is to tell a story.

(3) **Exposition**: The author uses explanation and analysis to present a subject or to clarify an idea. Exposition presents the facts about a subject or an issue as clearly and impartially as possible. Its primary purpose is to explain.

(4) **Argument**: The author uses the techniques of persuasion to establish the truth of a statement or to convince the reader of its falsity. The purpose is to persuade the reader to believe something and perhaps to act on that belief. Argument takes sides on an issue. Its primary purpose is to convince.

e. Evaluate the book for interest, accuracy, objectivity, importance, thoroughness, and usefulness to its intended audience. Show whether the author's main arguments are true. Respond to the author's opinions. What do you agree or disagree with? And why? Illustrate whether or not any conclusions drawn are derived logically from the evidence. Explore issues the book raises. What possibilities does the book suggest? What has the author omitted or what problems were left unsolved? What specific points are not convincing? Compare it with other books on similar subjects or other books by the same as well as different authors. Is it only a reworking of earlier books; a refutation of previous positions? Have newly uncovered sources justified a new approach by the author?

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Comment on parts of particular interest, and point out anything that seems to give the book literary merit. Relate the book to larger issues.

f. Try to find further information about the author - reputation, qualifications, influences, biographical, etc. - any information that is relevant to the book being reviewed and that would help to establish the author's authority. Can you discern any connections between the author's philosophy, life experience and the reviewed book?

g. If relevant, make note of the book's format - layout, binding, typography, etc. Are there maps, illustrations? Do they aid understanding?

h. Check the back matter. Is the index accurate? Check any end notes or footnotes as you read from chapter to chapter. Do they provide important additional information? Do they clarify or extend points made in the body of the text? Check any bibliography the author may provide. What kinds of sources, primary or secondary, appear in the bibliography? How does the author make use of them? Make note of important omissions.

j. Summarize (briefly), analyze, and comment on the book's content. State your general conclusions. Pay particular attention to the author's concluding chapter. Is the summary convincing? List the principal topics, and briefly summarize the author's ideas about these topics, main points, and conclusions. Use specific references and quotations to support your statements. If your thesis has been well argued, the conclusion should follow naturally. It can include a final assessment or simply restate your thesis. Do not introduce new material at this point.

### **Conclusion**

5. When you have been assigned to write a book review, also called a critical review essay, you will find it helpful to recall the words of William of Baskerville in Umberto Eco's *The Name of the Rose*: "Books are not made to be believed, but to be subjected to inquiry. This is what distinguishes a book review from a book report: the purpose of a review is not simply to report on the contents of a book (although this will comprise a small part of the review), but rather to evaluate it and provide a critical commentary on its contents."

**TOPIC-2**  
**SPEED READING**

**Introduction**

1. As adults we have great demands put upon our time. There is work, families and social activities that take out huge portions of our waking hours. It is no surprise that many adults, outside of an academic situation, find that they do not have any time to read. Many adults would list reading as a frivolous activity in which they have no inclination due to the amount of time it takes them to get through a single book. Even students feel the pressure of time as they are faced with tons of homework and required reading. How can there be enough time to study, work and live? Some people have found the answer through speed reading. If you are lucky enough to be gifted with this amazing talent, then it is certain other people have commented on how quickly you are able to consume reading material. If you are unfamiliar with this technique, this article is of the common questions about speed reading and hopefully set you on the path to picking up a good book to read.

**What is Speed Reading?**

2. Speed reading is the act of quickly absorbing written information. The goal is to read quickly but still retain comprehension of the material. The rate at which people read material is not a constant and varies greatly depending on several factors. Some material, such as school work or manuals, may require more contemplation and fewer distractions in order to process and still understand what is being conveyed. Being able to read ten books in a single day is useless if the reader is unable to retain comprehension of the material.

**Features of Speed Reading**

3. Speed reading does absolutely no good if the material is not remembered. That is one thing all software and instructional methods have in common. There must be at least 50% comprehension rate of the read material. Anything less is considered a failure. The goal is to read quickly yet still understand what the material and author is presenting. Even slow readers face this problem. Many learning disabilities involve reading without overall comprehension of the material.

**Measuring of Speed Reading**

4. Speed reading is measured by timing the reader as he or she reads through a selection of material. After the time is up the reader will be tested on his or her overall comprehension of the material. If they make less than 50% of the questions then that test is considered a failure. Speed reading is difficult to test because a large part of the comprehension depends on the reader's interest. A text book may be difficult to quickly read as there is strange terminology or a lack of interest on the participants' behalf. The

**Learning Speed Reading**

5. Not everyone can speed read. There are no tried and true methods that work for everyone. The best way to learn how to speed read is to practice and study the different

methods that speed readers employ. You may be able to learn how to skim through the material for key words and phrases. You can also try to learn how to read the material without silently pronouncing each word in your mind. Some software programs boast that their methodologies can double a person's rate of reading and comprehension. Most programs utilize different methods of reading such as chunking or skimming the text. It teaches the reader how to identify key words and to skip unimportant words such as "and" in order to increase their reading speed.

### **Methods are used in speed reading**

6. There are a few different methods that some speed readers use in order to increase their reading speed. It is important to note that most speed readers use a variety of...methods. Some simply skim the words and the information is simple there. You can think of it in terms of a computer scanner. You lay the book or sheet of paper on the scanner. The image is then sent via a connection to your computer where you process the information. Some of the different methods used in speed reading are chunking, skimming, and eliminating sub-vocalization. Readers will not "read" the words aloud in their minds. Their eyes skim through the material and comprehension is formed within the brain processes. Most speed readers use a variety of methods to increase their speed and comprehension level. A speed reader may not read every word on the page. They may skip some sections as it has little overall consequence to the meaning. Most people can read a selection much faster if they read silently. Reading each word aloud takes time for the information to make a complete circuit in your brain before being pronounced. Some researchers believe that as long as the first and last letter is in place, the arrangement of the ...other letters in the word can't still be understood by the brain because it logically puts each piece into place.

7. Following steps would give a comprehensive guideline for a comfortable speed reading. These steps could be chronological or at an own tailored order. The steps could be as follows:

- a. Have your eyes checked. Many people who read particularly slowly do so because they have an undiagnosed vision problem. Even if you think you have perfect vision, if you haven't had an eye exam recently, there's no time like the present.
- b. Time your current reading speed. It is important to find out how fast you read now so that you can track your improvement through subsequent timings. Not only will timing help you to tell if you're improving, but it will also keep you motivated.
  - i. You can break out a book and a stopwatch and either time how long it takes you to read a certain number of words on a page or find out how many words you read in a given amount of time.
  - ii. An easier way to time yourself is to take an online reading speed test. There are a plethora of these available: just enter "reading speed test" in your search engine. Many of these have reading comprehension tests, as well, so you can see how well you're understanding what you're reading.

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iii. Regardless of how you decide to time yourself, be sure to read at your normal speed during the timing, and time yourself on a few different pages - the average of your times should approximate your average reading speed.

c. **Get rid of distractions.** Even if you think you read better when you have music playing or when you're in a crowded coffee house, you can probably increase your speed if you reduce distractions to a bare minimum. Try to find a solitary place to read, and turn off the TV, radio and cell phone. Even being in a room of people talking is distracting. If no solitary place is available, try using earplugs to block out any distractions around you. In order to maximize comprehension while reading quickly, you will need to focus on the material at hand as closely as possible.

d. **Adjust reading speed depending on the material.** Often, we must trade off comprehension for speed, so an important part of increasing reading speed is deciding how thoroughly you need to comprehend a particular piece of writing. So before you even start reading, decide how fast you intend to go. If you're reading a newspaper article, chances are you just want to get the main ideas, and you can skim through the passages quite rapidly. If, however, you're reading a mathematics textbook or a demanding philosophical treatise - and you need to fully understand the material - you do not want to rush.

e. **Learn to separate the wheat from the chaff with pre-reading.** No matter what you are reading, there is frequently a lot of "filler" that you can read quickly through or even skim over. With practice, you will be able to identify the most important parts of a book as you skim through it. When you get to such a passage, slow down. Before you begin a chapter or book, look over the entire piece very quickly. Try to find patterns of repeated words, key ideas, bold print and other indicators of important concepts. Then, when you actually do your reading you may be able to skim over large portions of the text, slowing only when you come to something you know is important.

f. **Train yourself not to reread.** Most people frequently stop and skip back to words or sentences they just read to try to make sure they understood the meaning. This is usually unnecessary, but it can easily become a habit, and many times you will not even notice you're doing it. One exercise to help you avoid rereading is to take a sheet of paper or index card and drag it down the page as you read, covering each line once you've read it. Try to drag the card in a steady motion; start slowly, and increase your speed as you feel more comfortable.

g. **Stop reading to yourself.** As you read you probably subvocalize, or pronounce the words to yourself. Almost everybody does it, although to different degrees: some people actually move their lips or say the words under their breath, while others simply say each word in their heads. Regardless of how you subvocalize, it slows you down. (You are concerned with speed reading here, not reading to practice communicating the material verbally, which can be done later if you find it necessary.) To break the habit, try to be conscious of it. When you notice yourself pronouncing words to yourself, try to stop doing it. Practice

visualizing a word at the moment you see it, rather than confirming the word in your mind and then visualizing it. It may help to focus on key words and skip over others, or you may want to try humming to yourself or counting "1,2,3,4" repeatedly in order to prevent subvocalizing. One exercise to stop your lips from moving is to put a finger on your mouth and keep it there while you read.

h. **Read with your hand.** Smooth, consistent eye motion is essential to speed reading. You can maximize your eyes' efficiency by using your hand to guide them. One such method is to simply draw your hand down each page as you read. You can also brush your hand under each line you read, as if you are brushing dust off the lines. Your eyes instinctively follow motion, and the movement of your hand serves to keep your eyes moving constantly forward. Note, however, that many speed reading instruction books warn off using a tracking member in speed reading as it inhibits the process.

j. **Practice reading blocks of words.** Nearly everyone learned to read word-by-word or even letter-by-letter, but once you know the language, that's not the most efficient method of reading. Not every word is important, and in order to read quickly, you'll need to read groups of words - or even whole sentences or short paragraphs - instantaneously. The good news is you probably already do this to some extent: most people read three or four words at a time. Once you make an effort to be aware of your reading style, you'll discover how many words you read at a time. Now you just need to increase that number. Using your hand as a guide may help, as may holding the book a little further from your eyes than you usually do.

k. **Practice and push yourself.** While you may see some gains in speed the moment start using these tips, speed reading is a skill that requires a lot of practice. Always push yourself to your comfort level and beyond - if you end up having to reread a section, it's not a big deal. Keep practicing regularly.

l. **Time yourself regularly.** After a week or so of practice, time yourself as in step two. Do this regularly thereafter, and keep track of your improvement. Don't forget to pat yourself on the back every time your reading speed increases!

### **Disadvantages of Speed Reading**

8. Speed reading may offer few disadvantages to the reader. Few of the disadvantages are highlighted below:

a. While faster reading can actually improve your comprehension by making you a more active, focused reader, reading too fast can also lead to decreased comprehension. You read in order to get important information; if you're reducing your comprehension dramatically, you might as well not read at all.

b. Beware of expensive speed reading products. Try the tips above before you spend money on a speed reading book or kit. If you're still not making progress after a few weeks of regular, serious practice, you may want to consider paying for a product, but do some research and compare your options before you do.



- c. Sleep well! You won't be able to have a good understanding of the text if you don't. It will make you spend a lot more time on reading, and even like that, the comprehension isn't going to be as high as you may wish.

### **Tips to Quick Reading**

- 9. Following tips will be helpful to develop a good speed on quick reading:

- a. Try books with large font to start. A book with small letters might be hard at first because it is easy to skip lines by mistake.
- b. Start by reading a book or article that you have already read. It will be easier to skip words and keep up a smooth flow if you're familiar with the material.
- c. When using your hand or finger to guide your eyes, start slowly, but at a challenging pace. Even if you don't think you're keeping up with your hand, keep going for a page or two and then test your comprehension. With practice, you'll be able to move your hand and read faster that way.
- d. Take frequent breaks. Your comprehension and focus will be better if you take a five-minute break every hour or half-hour. Taking breaks is also important to keep your eyes healthy and avoid eye strain.
- e. You may not want to read some things quickly, even if you can. Fiction for example, is usually relatively easy to read quickly, but you can miss out on a lot of the nuance and beauty of the fiction writer's craft, even if you understand everything that's going on in a story. The same is doubly true for poetry. If you're reading for enjoyment, it may be best to savor the words.
- f. An index card, bookmark, or other page-width item might help increase speed more than a finger. By obscuring surrounding text, a card prevents your eyes from wandering.
- g. A great trick while using an index card is to put caret symbols (^) every inch along your index card. This helps to read groups of words rather than individual words. As you improve use a new card with the carets further apart so you read more words in each burst.
- h. Read every day at least 10 minutes.
- j. Read early in the day. Many people can double their reading speed and improve their concentration by reading the material that's important to them early in the day.
- k. Prioritize your reading. Create three piles for your reading materials - important, moderately important, and least important. Then read the material in their order of importance. You'll improve your reading speed by doing this, and improve your reading comprehension by getting to the important material first, when your mind is clear and sharp.

l. Avoid Highlighting. Although readers believe that highlighting in yellow (or any other color, for that matter) improves their reading speed and comprehension, the reverse is actually true. Highlighting simply means they don't want to bother learning the material right now. The result: They end up reading the material twice, and possibly not understanding or remembering it either time!

m. Use a flexible reading speed. Some reading material must be read slowly and carefully: legal contracts, mathematical equations, and poetry are a few examples. Other reading material can be read at much faster speeds: newspapers, magazines, and novels. Adjust your reading speed to the type of reading material and your reading purpose.

### **Conclusion**

10. Finally, remember that speed-reading is not some magical secret you can pick up in ten minutes by reading this article. It takes practice and time to develop. However, you *can* learn to read faster; anyone following the method and guideline describe above can increase their present speed of reading shortly. To become a life-long rapid reader (like becoming an expert race car driver) will take more time. To help you develop rapid reading skills consider getting books on rapid reading. You only need one to start with, since most all articles, books and courses on speed-reading basically cover similar techniques.

**TOPIC-3**

**FRAMING QUESTION**

**Introduction**

1. To question and find out is a human attribute which has been the key to all knowledge. It is a thirst to know, to find and to discover; it can rightly be considered the fundamental for the vast reservoir of scientific learning that man has accumulated over the years. Questioning is a useful device that a good teacher can deploy to stimulate students' thinking capacity and to secure their active cooperation in building up the lesson and in ensuring speedy and effective learning. A teacher well-versed in the art of questioning can make his teaching more interesting and lively. It is one of the essential weapons in the teacher's armoury and it ought to be used skillfully to optimize the effectiveness of teaching or learning.

**What Do Questions Achieve?**

2. Questions play a vital role in enhancing the teaching because they serve the following purposes:

- a. Keep the students alert and attentive in anticipation of a possible question from the teacher.
- b. Make them think in framing an answer to a question. The pupil applies his mind and knowledge and as a result he achieves better assimilation of the subject matter.
- c. Develop class participation and maintain class contact. The class remains active and so does a teacher, in the teaching/learning process.
- d. Arouse interest.
- e. Aid in the assimilation of knowledge.
- f. Break the monotony of mere passive listening.
- g. Develop verbal skill by making the students speak. When to put Questions?

**When to Put Questions?**

3. There are a number of occasions when questions prove very effective and a teacher aware of this can put it to appropriate use. Some occasions where questions can be asked are:

- a. At the beginning of the lesson:
  - (1) To test or revise and review previous knowledge of the students,
  - (2) To arouse interest in the current lesson,
  - (3) To get over the initial "warming-up" phase.

- b. During the progress of the lesson:
  - (1) To make the students think and use their power of deduction and observation.
  - (2) To maintain the tempo of class instruction.
- c. At the end of the Lesson:
  - (1) To recapitulate the main points of the lesson.
  - (2) To consolidate learning by testing the level of assimilation of the subject matter.

### **Types of Questions**

- 4. Depending on the use to which it is put, questions can be of the following types:
  - a. Revisionary Questions. These type of questions help to recall relevant information and previously learnt knowledge to the pupil's mind and satisfy the teacher that his lesson will be followed properly because the students have adequate background.
  - b. Reasoning Questions. Such questions encourage the pupil to think for himself on the basis of knowledge acquired thus enabling him to have a better grasp on the subject.
  - c. Testing Questions. Testing questions are asked to test understanding of the lesson being imparted by the teacher.
  - d. Clarification Questions. These help to clarify complicated points of the lesson that the students find difficult to understand.

### **Framing of Questions**

- 5. In order to serve a useful purpose a teacher must be aware of the method of framing questions; when improperly handled questioning becomes a hindrance to learning and creates a lot of confusion, instead of being a potent tool of learning and teaching. The following points must be borne in mind:
  - a. Question must be framed so that they are:
    - (1) Relevant
    - (2) Purposeful
    - (3) Definite
    - (4) Simple worded
    - (5) Designed to discourage guessing and to make the students observe and think.

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b. The teacher should take care to avoid:-

- (1) Leading and all such questions which encourage guessing.
  - (2) Elliptical questions which lead monosyllabic and unintegrated answers.
  - (3) Repeating pupil's answers unless special emphasis is required.
- Management of Questions

6. A teacher must be skilful in the management of questions so that this technique can produce the desired results. The following points are noteworthy:-

- a. Direct the question to the whole class, pause, and then select a student to answer it. This sequence prompts all the students to think of an answer and in the process to apply their minds productively thus promoting learning.
- b. Distribute the questions equitably all over the class rather than always asking the good or weak students.
- c. Accept only individual answers and discourage chorus answers.
- d. Ensure that the whole class hears and understands the answers.
- e. Avoid interrupting answers, even if the answer is wrong unless absolutely necessary.
- f. Indicate whether the answer is correct or not.
- g. Express approval of good answers.
- h. Do not ridicule or condemn wrong answers as this discourages the students.
- j. Discuss serious misconception with the whole class. Questions by Students.

7. In a productive learning environment students should be positively encouraged to ask questions and a teacher ought to know how to handle these questions without either discouraging them or impeding the progress of the class. Some useful tips for the teacher are:

- a. Encourage the class to ask questions at an appropriate time.
- b. Avoid answering questions which will be dealt with later in due course of the lesson but make sure that the students do not feel discouraged.
- c. Reply even the irrelevant or out of scope questions, either at the end of the lesson or in the spare time.

- d. Do not bluff the students if you are unable to answer their questions. No one is expected to know all the answers; promise that you will look up the answer and make sure you do so.

### **Characteristics of Good Questions**

8. There are a number of pre-requisites that must be met in order that a question gives the desired result. Some of these features are listed below:

- a. **Clarity.** The meaning of the question must be understood by pupils without any ambiguity.
- b. **Challenge.** It must inspire the students to think, apply knowledge and develop a sense of achievement.
- c. **Specific Nature,** It must elicit specimen and precise answers.
- d. **Simple.** It must be simple and easy to understand without any catch.
- e. **Concise.** It must be brief and yet clear both in language and meaning.

### **Questions to be Avoided**

9. Questions which fail to deliver the goods and often create confusion must not be put. Some of the categories that must be avoided are listed below:

Type	Form
a. Tagged Question	It is true, isn't it?
b. Vague Question	What about the medical care?
c. Wide Question	What shall we find at sea side?
d. Pumping Question	A series of questions to get an information. "Who was Columbus? what did he do and with what results?"
e. Tricky Question	How far does a runner go when running a mile race?
f. Elliptical Question	The colour of a robin's egg is-----?
g. Leading Question	Is not Allama Iqbal the poet of the East

### **Psyche of Questions**

10. **Students' Question.** It is well known fact that children are endowed with an instinct of curiosity and one way in which this instinct obtains expression is the form of questions that children put to the elders. However, when these children start going to school the role is reversed and most of the questions are asked by the teachers. There are several reasons why pre-school children ask more questions than school going

children. In the first place, children of this age group are inevitably confronted with a large number of novel situations for the obvious reason that their experience has been relatively limited. When they feel puzzled, they satisfy their natural impulse by asking questions, for unlike older children, they have not learnt to control this impulse and to think for themselves. Another type of question that is closely connected with the impulsive question is one that seems to be promoted not so much by curiosity as by a desire to be sociable: questioning is one of the methods used by young children for making conversation. Finally, we must remember that in early childhood many questions are promoted by irrational childish fears, some of which are operating below the level of consciousness. But when allowances have been made for these facts, the feeling remains that an average school pupil displays far less curiosity than he ought to. Large classes and examination pressure are two of the causes for this. An important test of the educational atmosphere of a classroom is whether its pupils feel free to ask questions; an important test of the educational efficiency of a teacher is afforded by the way in which he treats the question that his pupils ask.

11. **Handling Students' Question.** A wise teacher will not merely welcome questions; he will encourage them by positive action and attitude. He will pause occasionally during oral lessons and invite questions; and far from showing annoyance, he will express pleasure, if his oral exposition is interrupted by a sincere questioner; he will make a collection of specially interesting questions; he will institute a question book in which pupils can write down questions that they have been unable to ask orally. Some questions may be trivial and thoughtless, and the best treatment may be to turn the question back to the pupil for answer. Some questions may reveal a misconception and may necessitate a restatement of part of a lesson. Some questions may reveal a difficulty that can best be cleared up by putting one or two questions to the questioner. Some questions may be of interest to only few members of a class such questions are best answered in private. Generally speaking, however, a sincere question deserves a sincere answer, and the answer should be given directly and promptly.

12. **Teacher's Question.** Although under modern conditions and with modern methods there is less need than formerly for teachers to be continually asking questions, the art of questions remains an important part of teaching technique. Questions may serve a variety of purposes in teaching; they provide a ready method of testing the results of teaching; of finding whether explanations have been understood; of determining whether it is safe to proceed to the next step. Sometimes questions are used to start a line of thought provided to their curiosity. Some questions are used to develop a line of argument.

13. **Examination Questions.** It is generally assumed that written questions can be satisfactorily formed on the spur of the moment. Recent research into examinations reveals, however, that it is by no means easy to frame questions that have only one meaning for a large number of students. It is a good plan, therefore, to make up written questions as a course proceeds so that, when the time comes for an examination paper to be set, there is a reservoir of questions that has been given over a period of time. If it is difficult to set perfect questions it is still more difficult to find perfect method of assessing the answers. If one essay written by a student is marked independently by few teachers, the marks may vary from 30 to 70%. In order to get rid of this ambiguity, the best plan is probably a comprehensive examination paper which might well contain a variety of questions, some requiring answers of one word, others calling for one sentence or a

short paragraph, together with one or two questions to be answered at greater length. The following are some details of examining technique with which teacher should be conversant:

- a. The questions should be graded to meet the needs of pupils of varying ability.
- b. The paper should be long enough to keep the best pupils busy all the time.
- c. After an examination the distribution of the marks obtained should always be considered.

14. **Diagnostic Tests.** When discussing examination it is suggested that their results should be helpful to the teachers as a basis for subsequent improvement in teaching. A diagnostic test is framed in such a way as to make a systematic survey of the students' ability. For example, if a teacher knows vaguely that arithmetic in his class is weak he may make a test in which all the fundamental operations are tested, and by a careful statistical scrutiny of results he is able to determine the roots of difficulties.



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## **REINFORCEMENT MODULE**

### **Physical Fitness**

**RFT-5**

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## **PHYSICAL FITNESS**

### **RFT-5**

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## **REINFORCEMENT MODULE**

**Seminar**

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**SEMINAR**

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