



**BLOCK 4**  
**REPORT WRITING AND**  
**PRESENTATION**

**Jignou**  
**THE PEOPLE'S**  
**UNIVERSITY**



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## **BLOCK 4 REPORT WRITING AND PRESENTATION**

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Block 4 on Report Writing and Presentation consists of four units.

**Unit 11** on Ethics in Research has provided detailed information regarding research ethics and the principles involved in research ethics. The researcher should follow the research ethics so that their research should be unique. The researcher needs to see that it should be free from plagiarism and that the idea is not copied. Proper citations and references must be added whenever necessary in the research manuscript.

**Unit 12** on Substance of Reports explains various types of reports. The unit also discusses how to prepare a proposal for a report and review the draft of a report.

**Unit 13** deals with formats of reports. It distinguishes between and explains various parts of a report. The unit also gives guidelines for typing a report and also for its editing by using copyreading and proofreading symbols.

**Unit 14** on presentation of a report discusses the various components of presentation skills and also lists out the suggestions for preparation of AV aids, the usefulness of AV aids, and the care a presenter has to take while presenting a report.



# **UNIT 11 ETHICS IN RESEARCH**

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## **Objective**

After reading this unit, you should be able to:

- To understand research ethics.
- The principle of research ethics.

## **Structure**

- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Principles of research ethics
- 11.3 Advantages of research ethics
- 11.4 Limitations of the research ethics
- 11.5 Steps involved in ethics
- 11.6 What are research misconducts?
- 11.7 Summary
- 11.8 Self-assessment exercises
- 11.9 References

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## **11.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Ethics are the standards or the norms of behaviour which guide the moral choices about relationships and behaviour concerning others. Ethics in research aims to ensure that nobody is suffering or harmed from the research activity and its consequences. Nevertheless, unethical activities are everywhere, including non-disclosure agreement agreements violations, participating member confidentiality misconduct, misinterpreting results, misleading people, invoicing irregularities to prevent legal liability, etc. Surveys continually reveal that financial organizations recognize ethics as a problem. Responsible research anticipates ethical difficulties and attempts to modify the configuration, procedures, and guidelines during the planning process rather than after the fact. Integrity from the researcher, project manager, and research sponsor is needed for ethics in research.

Research ethics controls the codes of behaviour for research scientists. It acts as a reference for conducting research responsibly. Human subjects or contributors are involved in the study, raising unique and multidimensional ethical, legal, communal, and managerial concerns. Ethical considerations are unambiguously involved in investigating ethical issues arising when individuals participate in a study. The research ethics committee or the Institutional Review Board (IRB) determines whether the researcher one by researcher is unique and free from plagiarism.

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## **11.2 PRINCIPLES OF RESEARCH ETHICS**

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The principles of research ethics are as follows:

- a) **Honesty** is termed to be being truthful with recipients and participants and

honest about the study results and research methods. Being truthful with the other stakeholders, both directly and indirectly.

- b) **Integrity:** This means assuring sincerity and truthfulness and keeping promises and agreements. Make no broken promises or raise unrealistic hopes.
- c) **Objectivity:** Attempting to avoid bias in experimental design, data analysis, interpretation of data, critical analysis, and other data analysis aspects.
- d) **Informed consent:** Informed consent happens when a person is permitted to participate in a study intentionally, voluntarily, and sensibly. Informed consent is linked to the individual's personal, independent right to participate in research. Trying to inform the participant about the study objectives, their involvement, potential advantages, etc.
- e) **Beneficence** refers to maximizing the respondents' benefits—a morally acceptable obligation to maximise potential benefits and minimize possible harm to participants.
- f) **Protecting the subjects:** This means minimizing the research's risk or harm. Privacy and autonomy need to be maintained.
- g) **Responsible publication:** The publications need to be the responsible ones, where there will be no duplications or plagiarism. The submitted research should not be presented or published earlier anywhere.
- h) **Confidentiality:** Keeping confidential information and personnel records protected. It contains information such as:
  - The research's initiation and goal
  - The discussion's goal
  - The research procedure
  - The research's expected benefits and drawbacks (if any)
  - Utilization of studies
  - Their function in investigation
  - The ability to refuse or withdraw
  - Methods that will be used to protect the user's anonymity and privacy.
- i) **Non-discrimination:** Avoid discrimination based on age, caste, sex, religion, race, or ethnicity. Everyone should be treated as equal, and there should not be human rights violations.
- j) **Openness:** The researchers should be open to getting feedback, comments, or suggestions.
- k) **Carefulness and respect for intellectual property:** Be cautious of potential errors and biases. Give credit to others' intellectual property. When referring to someone else's article or writing, always paraphrase. Don't ever, ever plagiarise.

- l) **Justice:** This refers to equality among all the respondents and participants. No respondents should be given partiality for the providing the response. Everyone should be treated equally.

**Activity 1:** What ethical factors one should consider during the publication?

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**Activity 2:** Explains the methods for respecting respondents.

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### **11.3 ADVANTAGES OF RESEARCH ETHICS**

- The goals of the research are encouraged by research ethics.
- It builds trust between both the researcher and the respondent.
- To safeguard study participants' dignity, rights, and well-being, it is critical to follow ethical principles.
- For their behaviour, scientists can be made responsible and answerable.
- Ethics encourages the development of social and moral values.
- Promotes study objectives such as the ability to comprehend, integrity, and error avoidance.
- Ethical benchmarks uphold values essential to collaborative work, such as belief, accountability, mutually respectful, and objectivity.

### **11.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH ETHICS**

- a. Psychological risks: The questionnaire given to the respondents should create a change in the behaviour of the participants.
- b. Social, legal, and economic risks: for example, respondents may face decision and stigma if personal information gathered during research is accidentally released.
- c. Certain ethnic or indigenous groups may experience discrimination or stigma due to research, especially if members of those groups are identified as having a higher-than-usual risk of catching a specific disease.

**Activity 3 :** How can social risk affect the research?

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## 11.4 STEPS INVOLVED IN ETHICS

- Collect facts and explain intellectual property freely.
- Outline the moral considerations.
- Ascertain who is affected (stakeholders)
- Establish the forfeitures
- Recognize your obligations
- Consider your style and honesty.
- Constantly innovate about possible actions.
- Confidentiality and privacy must be respected.
- Determine the most appropriate ethical action and be prepared to deal with opposing viewpoints.

## 11.5 WHAT ARE RESEARCH MISCONDUCTS?

- a) **Fabrication:** This refers to creating a fake data for getting the adequate results. The data collected should be from genuine sources and the respondents should have agreed to provide the responses.
- b) **Falsification:** This means the researcher should create false research according to his or her wish. The research needs to create some impact on the society.
- c) **Plagiarism:** It refers to copying the text or pictures from some articles which are already published and have copyright. It should be avoided as this may lead to legal issues for the researcher. The researcher may rephrase the texts and give reference to the article.

## 11.6 SUMMARY

This unit provided detailed information regarding research ethics and the principles involved in research ethics. The researcher should follow the research ethics so that their research should be unique. The researcher needs to see that it should be free from plagiarism and that the idea is not copied. Proper citations and references must be added whenever necessary in the research manuscript.

## 11.7 SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

1. Explain the various research ethics principles giving an example.
2. How can plagiarism in the article be avoided?
3. How do we build trust among the respondents that the information gathered won't be misused in future?

## 11.8 REFERENCES

1. Cooper, D. R., Schindler, P. S., & Sun, J. (2006). *Business research methods* (Vol. 9, pp. 1-744). New York: McGraw-Hill.
2. Greener, S. (2008). *Business research methods*. BookBoon.
3. Quinlan, C., Babin, B., Carr, J., & Griffin, M. (2019). *Business research methods*. South-Western Cengage.



# **UNIT 12 SUBSTANCE OF REPORTS**

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## **Objectives**

After reading this unit, you should be able to:

- Discuss the subject matter of various types of reports.
- Prepare a proposal for any type of report.
- Review and edit the draft of a report.

## **Structure**

- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Proposal
- 12.3 Categories of Report
- 12.4 Reviewing the Draft
- 12.5 Summary
- 12.6 Self-Assessment Exercises
- 12.7 Further readings

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## **12.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Report writing is common in both academic and managerial situations.

In academics, reports are used for comprehensive and application-oriented learning. Student reports are called term papers, project reports, theses, and dissertations depending on the nature of the report, the time and effort expected of the student, and the curriculum design. Further, researchers put out their initial findings in a research report, paper, or monograph, which is later condensed into an article or expanded into a series of articles or a book.

In organizations, reports form the basis for decision-making. These reports are expected to be brief but comprehensive and reflect the thinking of the manager, the management committee, or the consulting group that has been given the terms of reference for fact-finding or decision making.

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## **12.2 PROPOSAL**

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Preparation of reports is time-consuming and expensive. Therefore, reports have to be very sharply focused on purpose, content, and readership. And to control the final outcome of the product—whether it is a research report, committee/consulting administrative report, or student report—it is often preceded by a proposal and its acceptance or modification and periodic interim reports and their acceptance or modification by the sponsor.

A proposal gives information on the following items:

1. Descriptive title of the study
2. Names of authors and their background
3. Nature of the study

Problem to be examined

Significance and need for the study

Background information available

Scope of the study-extent and limitations

To whom will it be useful

4. Hypothesis, if any, to be tested

5. Data

Sources

Collection procedure

Methodology for analysis

6. Equipment and facilities required

7. Schedule target dates for completing

Library research

Primary research °

Data organization and analysis

Outlining the report

First draft

Final draft

8. Likely product or tentative outline

9. Cost estimates

10. Bibliography

### **Activity 1**

Decide on a topic on which you would like to do a report, do a preliminary library survey on the topic, write a proposal, and check whether it answers all the questions indicated under the information to be given in a proposal.

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## 12.3 CATEGORIES OF REPORT

Reports fall into three major categories:

1. Information oriented
2. Decision oriented
3. Research oriented

The substance and focus of the content determine the category. However, a report may contain characteristics of more than one category.

### Information Reports

In describing any person, object, situation, or concept, the following seven questions (6 Ws+ 1 H) help to convey a comprehensive picture:

Subject/Object	Action	Reason
WHO?	WHAT?	WHY?
WHOM?	WHEN?	
	WHERE?	
	HOW?	

Therefore, the comprehensiveness of information or descriptive report can be checked by iteratively asking:

WHO does WHAT to WHOM  
WHEN, WHERE, HOW?  
and WHY?

Information reports are the first step to understanding the existing situation (for instance, business, economic, technological, labour, market, or research scenario reports) or what has been discussed or decided (for instance, the minutes of a meeting) form the foundation for subsequent decision reports and research reports.

### Decision Reports

Decision reports adopt the following steps of the problem-solving approach:

- 1) Identifying the problem
- 2) Constructing the criteria
- 3) Generating and evaluating the options
- 4) Making a decision
- 5) Drawing up an action plan
- 6) Working out a contingency plan

### Problem

The problem is the beginning and the end of decision-making. A start with a wrong problem, a wrong hypothesis, or a wrong assumption will only solve a non-existing problem or create a new problem.

In defining the problem, identify the following elements:

- 1) What *is* the situation, and what *should* it be? This question sets the overall objective for the problem.
- 2) What are the *symptoms*, and what are the *causes*?
- 3) What is the *central* issue, and what are the *subordinate issues*?
- 4) What are the *decision areas*, and what needs to be done immediately, in the short term, medium term, or long term?

For analysing a problem, Kepner and Tregoe (See under suggested readings) recommend sorting out the information under *what, where, when* and *extent across* what is and what *is not*, the *distinctiveness in the situation*, and *changes which may have taken place* as follows:

	Is	Is not	Distinctiveness in Is	Change
What?				
Where?				
When?				
Extent?				

After this analysis, compare the deduced causes with the actual or observed ones.

### Constructing the Criteria

Words like aim, goal, objective, intention, purpose, and criterion are used sometimes synonymously or with different meanings. Here the first five words are treated as synonymous and are recognized at the problem definition stage itself while identifying what the situation is and *should be*.

However, to bring the *existing* situation to what it *should be*, criteria or yardsticks are used to evaluate options. Criteria link the problem definition with the option generation and evaluation.

In constructing the criteria, SWOT analysis is useful. Recognize the *strengths and the weaknesses* of the decision maker and the organization and the *opportunities* available and *threats* confronting the decision maker and the organization in a given situation. This analysis helps in constructing the criteria which in turn helps in evaluating the options against the feasibility of implementation.

Further, ensure and explicitly clarify the following:

- 1) The criteria arise out of the problem definition and are not independent of it.
- 2) They are measurable or observable as much as possible. However, non-quantifiable criteria are not ignored merely because they cannot be quantified.
- 3) They are prioritized and tradeoffs are recognized.

- 4) They encompass a holistic view-economics, personal, organizational, and societal considerations.
- 5) They are not loaded or one-sided. Both pro and con aspects are considered.

### **Generating and Evaluating the Options**

In generating options, creativity is required. Sometimes the options are obvious. But one can look beyond the obvious.

Once a set of options have been generated, they are shortlisted and ranked by priority or their probability of meeting the objectives, identified in the problem definition.

Then the options are evaluated against the criteria and possible implications in implementation without losing track of the main objective of what the situation *should be*. The evaluation process demands logical and critical thinking.

The presentation of evaluation is structured by criteria or options depending upon which structure is easy to understand. For instance, if the criteria are few and options are many, the presentation will be easy to understand if it is structured by criteria. But if the options are few and the criteria are many, the presentation will be effective if it is structured according to options.

### **Making a decision**

The decision or recommendation flows out of the evaluation of the options, provided the thinking process has been logical so far.

The recommendation should be an adequate response to the problem and implementable.

### **Drawing up an action plan**

Even the best analysis can go waste if attention is not paid to the action plan. The action steps and their consequences should be visualized to avoid being caught unawares. Be clear of who does what, when, where, and how. Even at this stage we have to go through the problem-solving steps in futuristic scenario-what problems do we anticipate, what objectives and criteria would we like to pursue, what options would be open to us, and what choices can we make under what circumstances?

### **Working out a contingency plan**

Administrators, executives, and managers thrive on optimism and confidence to get things done. Yet, if something can go wrong, it is likely to go wrong. They should have the parachute ready to bail out. The contingency plan must emerge from the action plan. There is a need to think of how to achieve the second-best objective if the first one is not feasible.

### **Conclusion**

The problem-solving approach helps only when one can question oneself again and again at every stage and bring to bear various' thought processes to do a comprehensive analysis and synthesis. Then only will the administrator, executive, or manager be able to genuinely share his/her thoughts with the reader.

If the problem-solving approach and steps are used merely as a form filling exercise, a superficial analysis and report will result. An attractive package does not necessarily mean a good product.

An executive report is not a summary of the view and information that a decision maker has elicited but an analysis and synthesis of an integrated decision or recommendation. Thinking through a decision-making situation is an iterative act.

A good decision report is structured sequentially but reflects comprehensively the iterative thinking process of the decision maker(s).

### **Research Reports**

Research reports contribute to the growth of subject literature. They pave the way for new information, significant hypotheses, and innovative and rigorous methods of research and measurement. They broadly have the following organization.

- 1) Literature survey to find gaps in knowledge.
- 2) Nature and scope of the study, hypothesis to be tested, and significance and K utility of the study.
- 3) Methodology for collecting data, conducting the experiment, and analysing the data.
- 4) Description and analysis of the experiment and data.
- 5) Findings.
- 6) Conclusions.
- 7) Recommendations.
- 8) Suggestions for further research.
- 9) Backup evidence and data.

### **Activity 2**

Describe a strike or any other serious incident that has recently occurred in your organisation and check whether your description answers all the questions indicated under descriptive reporting.

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### **Activity 3**

Take a report of your organisation and check whether the problem-solving approach or descriptive approach has been used. If you were to rewrite the report, what will be your contents outline and what stages would you do to improve the report?

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## 12.4 REVIEWING THE DRAFT

The report should be thoroughly reviewed and edited before the final report is submitted. The following questions will help to review the draft:

- 1) Author's purpose?
- 2) Reader's profile?
- 3) Content?
- 4) Language and tone?
- 5) Length?
- 6) Appearance?

### **Author's Purpose**

The lack of clarity and explicitness in the communication purpose leads to two major problems: (1) confusion in determining the mix of content, language and tone, length, and looks and (2) misinterpretation of the message.

### **Reader's Profile**

The readership may consist of one or more persons or one or more groups. If more than one person or segment is involved, check whether all of them are on the same wavelength. If not, segregate the common interest areas from the special interest ones. Then decide on the types and parts of the report which can satisfy various reader groups.

Think of the organization and social membership and hierarchical level of the reader. An executive writing a report, for instance, should know whether the reader is an insider or an outsider to the organization or the cultural system, an immediate boss or a boss who is two or three rungs removed, a colleague or a subordinate. An understanding of the reader on these lines helps the author to modulate the content, language, and tone to suit the reader.

The major discriminating features of the reader's profile are cultural, social, religious, ideological, educational, economic, and age.

Also, pay attention to the reader's interest and familiarity with the subject and the language. Otherwise, you may be pitching the communication either too high or too low.

### **Content**

The content is the crucial communication axle between the author and the reader. Attention should be given to the content's focus, its organization, the accuracy of facts, and the logic of arguments. These are discussed below:

**Focus:** Failure to prune and polish the content's focus makes the report as diffused as an amateur's photograph. All the wisdom of an author cannot be wrapped up in a few pages. Only the essentials required for the purpose can be covered.

The focus should be clarified right in the first few paragraphs to attract the reader's attention and hold it. This is the first and last chance to catch the reader's attention.

The main theme, presentation scheme, author's purpose, and intended readership should be indicated right in the beginning. The appropriate style and tone of the language should be set into motion right from the first sentence and be kept up till the end.

**Organization:** The focus is the foundation for the rest of the content. If any material is added or deleted in the text, check the focus delineated in the beginning to see whether any changes are required in the foundation. If needed, change either the focus or the text to get consistency. Otherwise, different messages may emerge from the communication and confuse the reader.

Then ensure that:

- 1) the discussion is organized step-by-step into parts, sub-parts, and paragraphs,
- 2) the arguments of each section and paragraph flow smoothly into the next one, and
- 3) too many ideas are not crammed into one section.

To check that the various parts of the report and ideas are sequenced effectively, constantly ask whether a different sequence would be easier for the reader's comprehension.

Examine the structure of paragraphs. The most recommended structure for paragraphs in recent years has been the "inverted pyramid" style.

First, this style calls for putting forward the most important point first and then going down in priority. The idea is to put forward as much essential information as possible to the readers before their attention wavers or is lost.

Second, the style calls for putting forward the conclusion first or the main topic or theme in the very first sentence of the paragraph and then substantiating or supporting it with information and evidence in the order of priority beginning with the most essential or important at the top. The idea is that even if the reader skims through the first sentences of paragraphs, he/she should be able to get the gist of the content.

**Accuracy of Facts:** Authors can lose their credibility if they fail to check the accuracy of facts, figures, quotations, and references. A discerning reader can easily check the internal consistency of the report by comparing information across pages and sections.

**Evaluation of Information:** Decision makers often lack data or information. Not all that they want is available. Therefore, they have to constantly ask: What is the minimum data required for the decision, what is available, what can be got within the available time and money, and what cannot be obtained? Sometimes they have to make assumptions to fill up the gaps.

Facts, figures, and opinions have to be interpreted to become evidence for throwing light on an issue. Facts and figures do not speak for themselves. Only their interpretation makes an argument.

For effective communication, logic is a dependable tool in convincing the reader of the reasonableness of the points of view. But *how* can we make sense of

confusing and constantly changing situations? How can we recognize the unreasonableness of the seemingly reasonable arguments? We can do it by

- Analysing the situation.
- X-raying the facts through their smoke screens-words, opinions, and assumptions.
- Examining the inference process.
- Capsulizing and concretizing the ideas.

**Situational Analysis:** What is good in one situation may not necessarily be so in another and that one situation may appear to be similar and yet be different. We have to list and arrange (either mentally or on paper) *the elements and the actors of a situation* to understand the dynamics of the situation. We can map out the territory on the basis of who *did* and said what to whom.

*Elements*, which shape a situation, could be of various kinds. The decision to buy or not to buy a new machine; the decision to postpone the decision on the new machine; installing or not installing the new machine; decision to buy from one and not the other; X, Y, Z companies quoting different prices for the same product; the government's decision to make a statutory requirement of giving X amount of bonus; the company's offer of Y amount of bonus to its employees; workers threatening to go on strike; the boss having a poor opinion about the subordinate; X having certain image in the company; X being granted leave while Y has been refused leave; X telling Y that Z is a fine fellow-all such elements shape a situation.

*Actors* in a situation also matter. The managing director's request often get treated as an order. A colleague's request remains a request. And a subordinate's request remains in the basket for consideration in due course of time. If two or three workers ask for a change in timings, the manager may not consider the event as serious. If 80 per cent of the workers ask for it, the significance drastically changes; the manager will hasten to find a solution.

In arranging the elements and actors, we can try to understand-the rules of the game- *opportunities and threats* inherent in the situation. If a strike is on, for example, we can identify the areas of agreement and disagreement, items on which the management 'will bend its back to avoid a strike, items on which the management's tail will be up, and power that the management can and cannot draw from the government and the situation within the country or the timing of the happening. It is such opportunities and threats which help the management to form the strategy for solution.

In arranging the elements of a situation, we must *check whether the element is relevant to the situation*. If it is, we consider it in ordering the elements. If not, we ignore it. For example, at the year end when the financial statements are being prepared, the death of the chief accountant may contribute to a serious situation; but the death of a worker will be inconsequential. However, if a company has launched a family planning programme for its workers, the death of even a worker due to an operation can jeopardize the whole programme; but the death of even the managing director in such a situation will be inconsequential.

*The elements of a situation can be structured along the following dimensions depending on the situation: a) time, b) space, c) quantity, d) quality, e) cost, and f) hierarchy.*

Each dimension offers a two-pronged fork - a) the relationship of the element to others and b) the magnitude of the element itself.

The *time sequence* among elements helps in understanding the situation. If production has been going down, for instance, it is possible to attribute its cause to a new procedure that has been introduced. But if production drop was noticed even before the procedure was introduced, the latter cannot be the cause for the former-at the most it could have aggravated the problem. Moreover, finding out the events at the starting point of the production may help in focussing attention on the causes of the problem.

An understanding of the *spatial arrangement* of elements adds to the understanding of the situation. For example, if three plants A, B, and C in that order are in a straight line at different distances, we know that plant B is between plant A and plant C. If they are located in a triangle, plant A could be at equidistance from plant B and plant C. If we are planning for a common processing facility at a central plant, we know that we can locate the facility in plant B in the first case and in plant A in the second case. Moreover, the information about the space available in each plant helps us to check whether it matches the space required for the new facility.

Similarly, each element can be ranked according to *quantity* and *quality*, and each element's available quantity and quality can be checked against the requirement.

The *cost dimension* help, like the earlier four dimensions, in ranking elements and comparing each element against the requirement. But it has the third fork. *It can also provide an all-inclusive comparative picture of various elements.* The cost dimension can include within it the time, space, quantity, and quality dimensions when they are quantified in money terms.

Finally, the *hierarchical dimension* is the most difficult one to understand and pinpoint. The elements and actors in this dimension are constantly changing. Today's colleague may be tomorrow's boss. Hierarchical positions within the company will broadly indicate the authority, power, influence, and responsibility each actor wields. Moreover, the secretary to the boss sometimes commands power which is not reflected by his/ her position in the organizational chart.

The structuring of elements and actors across different dimensions helps in examining various elements and their relationships and in focusing on the decision-making area or the problem.

**X- Rating of Facts:** *Facts often get shaded by three smoke screens-words, opinions, and assumptions.*

The hazy picture of facts that we get at first sight gives us the feeling that we have understood the facts. Yet the real shape of the facts eludes us unless we x-ray the facts through the smoke screens. Unless we understand the facts in their real form, our conclusions may be way off the reality.

The Meaning of the same *word* for the writer and the reader may be different. If a company says that its staff is “disciplined”, what does it mean? Does it mean that they have “a high commitment to work, a task, or a cause”? Does it mean that they are “obedient yes-men”? Does it mean that they are “punctual”? Does it mean that they are “faithful and loyal”? Does it mean that they are “polite”? It could mean some of these, all of these, or something else that the company considers a discipline. Can we break through this smoke screen of “discipline” to find out what the reality is?

*Opinion* is another smoke screen which envelops facts. When a personnel manager, for example, says that Mr. X is 58 years old and he will be retiring in another two years, the statements can be checked. One can cross-check from Mr. X’s personnel file whether he is 58 and from the company policy whether the retirement age for the employee is 60. But when the personnel manager writes about Ms. Y, who is being considered for a training programme, that she is “too old to learn”, the age of Ms. Y can be anywhere say between 21 and 60. In fact, the opinion of the personnel manager may have been based on observations other than age. Therefore, facts and observations on which this opinion has been based need to be ascertained before agreeing or disagreeing with the personnel manager’s recommendation.

The third smoke screen is made up of *assumptions*. When there is a gap in the information or uncertainty about future events, we make assumptions, which if they are not recognised as assumptions, escape the scrutiny, and pass off as facts.

*Assumptions can be of two kinds: illustrative and critical: An illustrative assumption helps to describe a process or a result concretely so that further arguments can be built. For example, if the price of product X is Rs. 10 per piece and an excise levy of 10 percent *ad valorem* is assumed, the effective price to the customer is Rs. 11. If the taxes are 20 percent, the effective price is Rs. 12. Here, the assumptions about the percentage of excise duty are made to explain how the effective price to the customer will vary depending on the percentage of tax.*

However, if a company feels that the demand of its product will remain unchanged at a price of Rs. 11 but will fall drastically at Rs. 12, it will seriously think before the budget session of Parliament about the impact of change in the tax structure. If it assumes the rate at 10 per cent, it has no cause for worry. If it assumes that the rate will be 20 per cent or between 10 per cent and 20 per cent, it has to examine the impact of tax on the demand for the product. Therefore, the assumption in this situation about the likely tax rate is *critical* because it affects the decision.

*Then how can we penetrate the smoke screens to see the facts as they are? A three-pronged attack may be useful. First, concretize all general statements. Second, check against the actual. Third, examine contradictions in the evidence.*

Statement qualified by general words like “all”, “almost all”, “most”, “the majority”, “the minority”, “few”, and “some” can distort the picture of the actual situation. When a company says that the majority of its employees are satisfied workers, it may mean that 251 workers out of 500 are happy. The arithmetic is correct, but the representation of the gravity of the situation is doubtful. When a company says that only a few of its employees are disgruntled and does not

reveal that these few are the opinion leaders, it may not be projecting the true picture.

*General adjectives or qualifying words hide facts.* When a manager says that X is a *good* employee or an *average* employee, it is not clear what X is capable of doing or not doing. We can arrive at the actual profile of X only when the manager spells out concretely what is meant by good and whether X has been actually rated against those criteria. However, labels like “*good*”, “*average*”, and “*bad*” keep floating unchallenged.

Having concretized the generic words to understand what is actually meant, *check whether the so-called facts are real facts.* When someone, for example, claims that he/she belongs to X, Y, Z category and hence eligible for a certain privilege, ascertain first whether he/she really belongs to the privileged category or not. Often rules and procedures are quoted by memory to help or hinder someone. Check whether such a rule or procedure really exists, or had existed and changed over time, or is being anticipated to be introduced, or never existed except in the mind of the person quoting it.

Often, we come across *contradictory observations* about an item when only one of them can be true. For example, X may report that machine Y has broken down. But Z may report that machine Y is in working condition. The contradiction needs to be examined. Maybe X and Z are talking about two different machines. Or X and Z are talking of two jobs of which the machine at present can do one and cannot do the other. Or X and Z are picking on each other. Unless such contradictions of facts are recognized **and** challenged, facts will continue to elude and delude us.

**Inference Process:** *The first step in examining the inference process is to understand the cause-and-effect relationship.*

When a company, for example, begins to lose its market share, the marketing manager investigates with the assumption that there is a cause or a set of causes underlying the loss of market share. Unless the cause(s) is clearly understood, the attempt to change the effect is likely to be a shot in the dark.

*The next step is to draw conclusions from facts and observations through deductive (general to specific) and/or inductive (specific to general) reasoning processes.*

**Deductive Inference:** If a universal or general principle is known or has been proved to be true, conclusions can be drawn from it about individuals falling in that universe. Let us take an example:

- 1) No leave was granted to the employees of company X on a certain date.
- 2) Y is an employee of company X.
- 3) Therefore, Y was not granted leave on that date.

In using this kind of reasoning, we should make sure that the universal principle is true and the linkage between the universal principle and the individual is relevant; otherwise, the conclusion drawn in a particular situation may or may not be valid. If some employees were granted leave and some were not, we cannot be sure into which category Y falls. Much worse will be the situation if Y is not an employee of the company; the universal principle stated will then have

no relevance to Y, and, therefore, it cannot be concluded definitely whether Y was granted leave or not.

**Inductive Inference:** When universal or general principles are not available, conclusions are drawn on the basis of observations of individual units in a universe. The basic assumption in inductive reasoning is that the particular units partake of the universal character.

If a company, for example, wants to find out the customer reaction to a new product or service, one method is to ask all the customers about it. But the number of customers may be so large that the company has to resort to sampling. From the sample reaction, it can then generalize or interpret the likely response to the new product or service.

When inductive inference is being drawn from sampling, we must guard against some loopholes:

First, is the sample relevant?

Second, is the method right?

Third, the existence of causes other than the ones identified cannot be ruled out without careful scrutiny. For example, a manager may generalize that the employees want job security because some of them had left the company for lower wages. Another manager may conclude from talking to the same workers that they left because they lived in far-off places from the plant.

Fourth, opinions may change. Therefore, feedback collected today may not necessarily hold good tomorrow when the action is taken.

**Capsulization and Concretization:** Capsulization involves both a) miniaturization of the main theme and identification of the high points of evidence and arguments and b) chewing ideas bit-by-bit. It dispels the fog or impression that long-winded arguments or lengthy reports create. By understanding the main ideas and the main points in a nutshell or a skeleton form, we can map out the territory and identify the traps.

Concretization involves the use of a) specific words and b) visualization. The statement that plant A is “10 km away” from plant B is more specific than plant A is “very far” or “quite close” to plant B. Instead of saying that the new policy of the government is “generally favourable” or “generally unfavourable” to the organization, we can specify the implications—say in rupees and paise. We can translate the favourableness or unfavourableness through the balance sheet and the income statement. We can specify in implementation terms the new opportunities and threats to our business.

**Traps of Logic:** In playing the trap detection game, we should recognize the following common traps:

- 1) Avoidance
- 2) Diversion
- 3) Stacking the deck
- 4) Either-or

The avoidance trap can be recognized when one begins by saying, "I am not concerned with..." or "How am I concerned with..." Another form of avoidance is what is commonly known as "pass the buck". The buck could be passed upwards, downwards, or sideways. All of us play it to avoid taking the decision or applying ourselves to the problem on hand. The more sophisticated form of avoidance is the much-can-be-said-on-both-sides technique used when one has to make a choice.

The diversion trap operates mainly by diverting the attention from the main theme or argument.

One diversionary technique is to side-track the main issue. If the general manager is discussing a strike on hand with the plant manager, the latter may fritter away the time by talking about the general climate or history of unionism in the country, or general absenteeism of the workers or the promotion of a person in another plant, or for that matter, he may talk about the weather.

Another kind of diversion can be provided by emotional appeal. Both the management and the union use the technique by appealing to fairness, prestige, and prejudice. Appeals and insinuations on both sides divert attention from the real issue. If a case of reinstatement of an employee who has been fired for malpractice is discussed, the real issue of whether the employee has been guilty or not is wrapped up in emotional terms of victimization.

Another diversionary tag is to project self-confidence-a tool often used by salesmen. The way the salesman talks or carries himself may numb the purchase manager from examining whether the selling company can provide after-sales service or some critical issues before making the purchase.

One more diversionary technique is to cite an authority. The chairman or the managing director wants it done this way, or all the world over it is done that way, or the Bible-whatever book you swear by-says so are common indicators of this technique.

Stacking-the-deck trap is sprung by citing only facts that support an argument and ignoring unfavourable ones. A manager who is interested in promoting subordinate X may quote facts which help to build X's case and suppress the weak points. Moreover, the weak points of other contenders may be highlighted, and their plus points blanked out. Similarly, a purchase manager, who is interested in helping a supplier, may stack up all the plus points of the favoured supplier and all the minus points of other suppliers. Moreover, the manager may gloss over contradictions in the recommendation. Supplier X may be rejected for inability to provide after-sales service. But in the same breath, supplier Y may be recommended without telling his inability also to provide the expected after-sales service.

The either-or trap (i.e., either this or that only) is aimed at limiting the thinking to only two choices without proving that only two choices are feasible in a given situation. The attention is fixed only to black or white and is not allowed to examine the possibilities of grey areas or any other colour. Either one is a friend or an enemy. All other possibilities are ruled out. When a manager argues that product A is to be bought from supplier X or supplier Y, the mind is closed

to the choice of a mix or a supplier Z. Of course, such an argument becomes valid if it is proven that neither grey nor any other colour exists in the given situation.

### **Language and Tone**

Since the purpose of communication is to make the reader understand the message, use the vocabulary, and sentence structures which the reader understands. The terminology and language structures of a subject specialist are not familiar to non-specialist. Even among the specialists, sometimes there are differences in the usage of terminology and language structures. For effective communication, the author has to climb down or climb up to the reader's level—a difficult adjustment for many of us to make.

Abstract phrases are difficult to comprehend. Concrete phrases are easy to understand. For example, a word like "freedom" is abstract unless it is followed by a definition or an example. "This is better" or "that is good or bad" are often-made judgements. But the reader finds it difficult to understand "better than what" or "good or bad by what criteria". Generic adjectives and adverbs sabotage the effectiveness of communication. For example, instead of merely stating that XYZ company is a *large* company, the author can also indicate the various dimensions (e.g., sales, profits, and employees) which lead to the conclusion that the company is large.

Finally, the tone of the language also matters. It can make the reader receive, ignore, or reject the message. Executives have to differentiate and modulate the tone of writing to superiors, peers, and subordinates.

### **Length**

How long should the report be? This is a matter to be judged by the author keeping in mind the purpose, the subject, and the reader's interest. The shorter the content, the more attractive it is to the reader. But it cannot be so brief as to miss the essential points and the linkages in the flow of arguments and force the reader to ask for more information. If the length does not match with the reader's interest and patience, the author has to rework and scale down the purpose, the focus, or the content.

Check the readability of paragraphs. As a thumb rule, paragraphs should not exceed eight typed lines, sentences should not exceed more than three typed lines, and punctuated pauses should not go over two typed lines.

In short, communication should be like a capsule. It should be small enough to swallow but powerful enough to act.

Here are a few suggestions to save words:

- 1) Cut out repetitions unless they are meant for sharpening the message.
- 2) Take out redundancies. (Instead of "takes 10 minutes of time", write "takes 10 minutes". Instead of "The profit increased to the tune of Rs. 50 lakh", write "The profit increased to Rs. 50 lakh".)
- 3) Use active voice. (Instead of "The balance sheet is given in Exhibit 1", write "Exhibit 1 gives the balance sheet".)

- 4) Use shorter and direct verbs. (Instead of “They had done investigations in the matter”, write “They had investigated the matter”. Instead of “To make a comparison of these two divisions”, write “To compare these two divisions”.)
  - 5) Eliminate weighty expressions. (Instead of “The demand will fall in the event of price going up”, write “The demand will fall if the price goes up”.)
  - 6) Make concrete adjectives. (Instead of “The company incurred a loss of Rs. 20,000”, write “The company incurred Rs. 20,000 loss” or even better “The company lost Rs. 20,000”.)
  - 7) Strike out it and there. (Instead of “There was no machine available”, write “No machine was available”.)
  - 8) Use abbreviations which are more familiar than their expanded forms. (Instead of “United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization”, write “UNESCO”.) (See 7.5)
  - 9) Use pronouns wherever possible. If confusion arises, clarify the pronoun by name or by words like “former” or “latter”. (Note the difference between “former” and “farmer” and between “latter” and “later”.) Note the modern trend of avoiding the use of “he” alone as a generic pronoun unless it suits the context. If a generic pronoun is needed, use “he/she”, or rephrase the sentence to drop it, or use plural nouns and pronouns.
  - 10) Use the full name of a person at the first reference. Then use only the short name, preferably the last name in a formal report.

## Appearance

The novelty or presentation is as important as the originality of ideas. Both are products of creativity and criticalness. Presentation attracts the readers, and the content holds their attention. Both the product and the package are equally important.

## Activity 4

Take one of your recent reports. Analyse it by going through the steps indicated for reviewing a draft. Write down what improvements and where you would make in your report.

## 12.5 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have discussed the steps involved in the preparation of a proposal for a report. Three categories of reports namely Information reports, Decision reports and Research reports have been explained. The steps involved in writing various types of reports are also discussed. Before a final report is submitted, the report should be thoroughly reviewed and edited. The unit concludes by answering certain questions for reviewing the draft of a report.

## 12.6 SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

- 1) Take a paragraph at random from any report and analyse whether the first sentence contains the conclusion or announces the topic and the rest of the paragraph substantiates the first sentence. If not rewrite the paragraph in the inverted pyramid style.
- 2) Write a performance report on any of your subordinates. Check whether you have qualified and explained all the general adjectives like “sincere” and “hard working” you have used to describe the person.
- 3) Take a management case and analyse it. Write a report using the format suggested for decision making reports. Identify the mental process you have gone through using creative, logical, and critical thinking at different stages of solving the problem and writing the report.
- 4) Take any managerial decision that was taken in your organization and of which you are aware of the information and the process through which it has gone through. Analyse the problem solving steps that have gone through and the improvement that you would suggest if the same situation has to be faced all over again.

## 12.7 FURTHER READINGS

- Gallagher, J. William, “Report Writing for Management”, Addison-Wesley
- Golen, P. Steven, “*Report Writing for Business and Industry*”, Business Communication Service
- Kepner H. Charles and Benjamin B. Tregoe, “*77ie Rational Manager*”, McGraw-Hill Book Company (1965)
- Sharma, R.C and Krishna Mohan, “*Business Correspondence And Report Writing*”, Tata McGraw-Hill.
- Wright, C., “*Report Writing*”, Witherby & Co. England.

# **UNIT 13 FORMATS OF REPORTS**

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## **Objectives**

After going through this unit, you should be able to:

- Distinguish between various parts of a report
- Explain the different parts of a report
- Instruct the typist as to how he/she should go about typing the report
- Edit any report by using the copy reading and proofreading symbols.

## **Structure**

- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 Parts of a Report
- 13.3 Cover and Title Page
- 13.4 Introductory Pages
- 13.5 Text
- 13.6 Reference Section
- 13.7 Typing Instructions
- 13.8 Copy Reading
- 13.9 Proof Reading
- 13.10 Summary
- 13.11 Self-Assessment Exercises
- 13.12 Further Readings

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## **13.1 INTRODUCTION**

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In the last unit, we have explained the steps one should follow while writing a proposal for any type of report. The subject matter of various types of reports was also discussed. It was also explained as to how one should go about editing the draft of a report. The next stage is understanding the Formats of Reports which is the subject matter of this unit. It explains the contents of the Cover and the Title Page. We should also understand what goes into the Introductory pages, Text, and Reference Section of a report. Once this is known there is a standard format in which the report should be typed. Therefore, a few pages are devoted in this unit on typing instructions. Once the report is typed, it should be edited by using the copy reading and proof-reading symbols. This forms the concluding section of this unit.

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## **13.2 PARTS OF A REPORT**

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The different parts of a report are:

- 1) Cover and the title page

- 2) Introductory pages
  - a) Foreword
  - b) Preface
  - c) Acknowledgement
  - d) Table of contents
  - e) Lists of tables and illustrations
  - f) Summary
- 3) Text
  - a) Headings
  - b) Quotations
  - c) Footnotes
  - d) Exhibits
- 4) Reference section
  - a) Appendices
  - b) Bibliography
  - c) Glossary (if required)

### **13.3. COVER AND THE TITLE PAGE**

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The cover and the title page of a report contain the following information:

1. Title of the subject or project
2. Presented to whom
3. On what date
4. For what purpose
5. Written by whom

If there is any restriction on the circulation of the report, it is indicated (e.g., “For Official Use Only”) in the top right corner of the cover and the title page. Examples of the cover and the title page for research reports, conference papers, committee/consulting/administrative reports, and student reports are given below.

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*Example of the Cover and the Title Page  
for a Research Report*

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Research Monograph No. 10

**CRISIS IN THE SUGAR INDUSTRY**

S. Ramesh Chander  
Professor  
School of Management  
Regional University, Ahmedabad

Council of Management Research  
New Delhi  
1 January 1986

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*Example of the Cover and the Title Page  
for a Conference Paper*

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## CRISIS IN THE SUGAR INDUSTRY

A Paper  
Presented to the National Economic Conference  
held at the  
School of Management  
Regional University, Ahmedabad

on  
1 January 1986  
by  
Ramesh Chander  
Professor  
Institute of Business  
National University, Jaipur

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*Example of the Cover and the Title Page  
for a Committee/Consulting/Administrative Report*

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*For Official Use Only*

## WORKING CAPITAL REQUIREMENTS OF RAJPUR TEXTILE MILL

Presented to the  
Managing Director  
Rajpur Textile Mill

on  
1 January 1986  
by  
Professor Ramesh Chander  
and  
Professor Ramesh Kumar

School of Management  
Regional University, Ahmedabad

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*Example of the Cover and the Title Page  
for a Student Report*

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## CRISIS IN THE SUGAR INDUSTRY

on  
1 January 1986  
in Partial Fulfilment  
of the Requirements for the  
Managerial Economics Course in the  
Master of Business Administration Programme  
by  
Ramesh Kumar

### Activity 1

Take any report which has been recently prepared in your organization and check whether the cover and title page contain all the essential information. If not, prepare a new cover and title page.

## 13.4 INTRODUCTORY PAGES

The introductory pages are given lower case Roman numerals (e.g., i, ii, iii). Arabic numerals (e.g., 1, 2, 3) are used from the first page of the introduction. The introductory pages contain the following:

- 1) Foreword
- 2) Preface
- 3) Acknowledgement
- 4) Table of contents
- 5) Lists of Tables and Illustrations
- 6) Summary

### 1) Foreword

The first page of the foreword is not numbered, but it is counted among the introductory pages. Usually, a foreword is one page or even shorter. If a foreword is more than a page, subsequent pages of the foreword are numbered in lower case Roman numerals.

The foreword is written by someone other than the author. It is written by an authority on the subject or the sponsor of the research *or* the book and introduces the author and the work to the reader.

At the end of the foreword, the writer's name appears on the right side. On the left side, the address and place of writing the foreword, and date appear. Name, address, place, and date are put in italics.

## 2) Preface

The first page of the preface is not numbered, but it is counted among the introductory pages. Subsequent pages of the preface are numbered in lower case Roman numerals.

The preface is written by the author to indicate how the subject was chosen, its importance and need, and the focus of the book's content, purpose, and audience.

At the end of the preface, the author's name is given on the right side. On the left side, the address and place of writing the preface, and date appear. Name, address, place and date are put in italics.

## 3) Acknowledgement

If the acknowledgement section is short, it is treated as a part of the preface. If it is long, it is put in a separate section.

The first page of the acknowledgement is not numbered, but it is counted among the introductory pages. Subsequent pages of the acknowledgement are numbered in lower case Roman numerals.

At the end of the acknowledgement, only the author's name appears in italics in the right-hand corner.

## 4) Table of Contents

In writing the table of contents, great care should be taken. The contents sheet is both a summary and a guide to the various segments of the book. The table of contents should cover all the essential parts of the book and yet be brief enough to be clear and attractive.

The first page is not numbered, but the subsequent pages are numbered in lower case Roman numerals.

The heading TABLE OF CONTENTS or CONTENTS in all capital letters appears at the top. On the left side, the foreword, preface, acknowledgement, and numbers and titles of sections, chapters, centre heads, centre subheads, and side heads are listed. On the right side, the corresponding page numbers are given. The page numbers are aligned on the right.

The section and chapter titles are put in all capital letters. The centre head is put in capital and lower case letters. The centre subheads and side heads are put in lower case letters, except the first letter of the first word and proper nouns.

The classification of the headings can be done in the traditional or decimal system in the declining order as follows:

Traditional Classification	Decimal Classification
I.	1.
A.	1.1
I.	1.1.1
a.	a.

The headings of the text can be indented in a step form to visually highlight the classification.

At the end of the headings of the text, references to appendices, bibliography, glossary, and index appear. These references are put in all capital letters from the margin.

Samples of contents sheet in traditional and decimal classification follow.

---

*Example of the Contents Sheet in Traditional Classification*

CONTENTS	
Foreword	v
Preface	vii
Acknowledgement	ix
<b>SECTION (PART) A (I)</b>	
<b>I. CHAPTER TITLE</b>	1
A. Centre Head	3
1. Centre subhead	3
a. Side head	10
a. Side head	12
<b>SECTION B</b>	15
<b>II. CHAPTER TITLE</b>	17
A. Centre Head	17
1. Centre subhead	18
a. Side head	19
B. Centre Head	20
1. Centre subhead	21
a. Side head	22
b. Side head	25
<b>SECTION C</b>	27
<b>III. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION</b>	29
A. Summary	29
B. Conclusion	35
<b>APPENDICES</b>	37
A. Questionnaire	39
B. Interview	45
<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b>	51
<b>GLOSSARY</b>	55

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*Example of the Contents Sheet in Decimal Classification*

CONTENTS	
Foreword	v
Preface	vii
Acknowledgement	ix
<b>SECTION (PART) A (I)</b>	1
<b>1. CHAPTER TITLE</b>	3
1.1 Centre Head	3
1.1.1 Centre subhead	10
a. Side head	12
<b>SECTION B</b>	15
<b>2. CHAPTER TITLE</b>	17
2.1 Centre Head	17
2.1.1 Centre Subhead	18
a. Side head	19
2.2 Centre head	20
2.2.1 Centre Subhead	21
a. Side head	22
b. Side head	25
<b>SECTION C</b>	27
<b>3. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION</b>	29
3.1 Summary	29
3.2 Conclusion	35
<b>APPENDICES</b>	37
1. Questionnaire	39
2. Interview	45
<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b>	51
<b>GLOSSARY</b>	55

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## 5) Lists of Tables and Illustrations

Formats of Reports

Lists of tables and illustrations follow the table of contents. Each list starts on a separate page. If the items in each list are few, both the lists are put on the same page but under different headings. The headings for these lists may be in all capital letters-LIST OF TABLES, LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS, TABLES, or ILLUSTRATIONS, and they follow the format of the heading that is used on the contents page-TABLE OF CONTENTS or CONTENTS.

Only the first letter of the main words is capitalized in writing the titles of tables and illustrations.

The second and subsequent lines of an item are indented. The page number appears against the first, second, or third line where the item's description ends.

Tables and illustrations are numbered continuously in serial order throughout the book in Arabic numerals (e.g., 1, 2, 3,) or in the decimal form (e.g., 1.1, 2.1, 2.2., 3.1). In the latter classification, the first number refers to the chapter number and the second one to the serial order of the table or illustration within the chapter.

### Example

TABLES		
1)	Growth of Consumer Goods Production	10
2)	Index Number of Excise Duties Rates on Capital and Consumer Goods	30

## 6) Summary

A report invariably carries an abstract or an executive summary in the initial pages as a help to the busy researcher or executive. The summary is positioned immediately before or after the contents sheet. The summary and the contents together provide an overview to the reader. The length of the summary may vary from 100 words to 1,000 words.

In a short report, the preface itself becomes the summary. In a long report, the summary is given in the first chapter of the text.

The summary should highlight the following essential information:

- 1) What is the study about?
- 2) What is the extent and limitation of the coverage?
- 3) What is the significance and need for the study?
- 4) What kind of data has been used?
- 5) What research methodology has been used?
- 6) What are the findings and conclusions?
- 7) What are the incidental findings, if any?
- 8) How can the conclusions be used and by whom?
- 9) What are the recommendations and the suggested action Plan?

## Activity 2

Take a report you have recently written and examine whether the introductory pages contain all the sections indicated in this unit. If not, put in these sections if they are necessary for the report.

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

## 13.5 TEXT

The subject matter of Text is divided into the following:

- 1) Headings
- 2) Quotations
- 3) Footnotes
- 4) Exhibits

### 1) Headings

The following types of headings are common:

- 1) Centre Read (All caps, without underlining)
- 2) Centre Subhead (Caps and lower case, underlined)
- 3) Side Head (All caps, without underlining)
- 4) Side Head (Caps and lower case underlined)
- 5) Paragraph Head followed by a colon (caps and lower case, underlined)

Which combination of headings to use depends on the number of classifications or divisions that a chapter has.

**Centre Head:** A centre head is typed in all capital letters. If the title is long, the inverted pyramid style (i.e., the second line shorter than the first, the third line shorter than the second) is used. All caps headings are not underlined; underlining is unnecessary because capital letters are enough to attract the reader's attention.

#### Example

CHALKING OUT A PROGRAMME FOR  
IMPORT SUBSTITUTION AND  
EXPORT PROMOTION

**Centre Subhead:** The first letter of the first and the last word and all nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs in the title are capitalized. Articles, prepositions, and conjunctions are not capitalized.

Chalking out a Programme for  
Import Substitution and  
Export Promotion

**Side Heads:** Words in the side head are either written in all capitals or capitalized as in the centre subhead and underlined.

**Example**

Import Substitution and Export Promotion

**Paragraph Head:** Words in a paragraph head are capitalized as in the centre subhead and underlined. At the end, a colon appears, and then the paragraph starts.

**Example**

Import Substitution and Export Promotion: The Seventh Five-Year Plan of India has attempted .....

## 2) Quotation

**Quotations Marks:** Double quotation marks (" ") are used. A quotation within a quotation is put in single quotation marks (' '). *Example:* He said, "To the selfish, 'freedom' is synonymous with licence."

**Punctuation and Quotation Marks:** The quotation mark is put *after* the comma and the full stop. (*Example:* To the selfish, he said, "freedom is synonymous with licence.") But the quotation mark is put *before* the semi-colon and colon. (*Example:* The following are methods of "realistic learning": case method, tutorial method, group discussions and business games.) The quotation mark is put *before or after* the question mark or the exclamation mark depending on the sense. *Examples:* 1) He asked, "Did you write to Ramesh?" 2) What do you mean by "freedom"?

,"           ";           "??"  
      ";           ":           ";,"

**When to Use Quotation Marks:** Quotation marks are used for 1) a directly quoted passage or word, 2) a word or phrase to be emphasized, and 3) titles of articles, chapters, sections of a book, reports, and unpublished works.

**How to Quote:** a) All quotations should correspond exactly to the original in *wording, spelling, and punctuation.* b) Quotations up to three typewritten lines are run into the text. c) Direct quotations over three typewritten lines are set in indented paragraphs. Quotation marks are not used for indented paragraphs.

### Five Ways of Introducing a Quotation:

- a) *Introduction:* He said, "The primary test of success in a negotiation is the presence of goodwill on both sides."
- b) *Interpolation:* "The primary test of success in a negotiation," he said, "is the presence of goodwill on both sides."

c) *End Reference*: “The primary test of success in a negotiation is the presence of goodwill on both sides,” he said

d) *Indented Paragraph*: He said:

For the workers no real advance in their standard of living possible without steady increase in productivity because any increase in wages generally, beyond certain narrow units, would otherwise be nullified by a rise in prices.

e) *Running into a Sentence*: He recommended that “joint management councils be set up in all establishments in the public as well as the private sector in which conditions favourable to the success of the scheme exist”.

### Omission in a Quotation

a) Omission of a word or words from the quotation is indicated by ellipsis, i.e., *three dots ( . . . )*

b) *Omission, of a whole paragraph is indicated by a line of dots.*

### Author's Comments in a Quotation

a. Comments of the author in a quotation are separated by brackets [ ].

b. If there is an obvious error in the original source, it is quoted as in the original source. The author can indicate that he is doing so by [sic].

## 3) Footnotes

**Types of Footnotes:** A footnote either indicates the source of the reference or provides an explanation which is not important enough to include in the text.

In the traditional system, both kinds of footnotes are treated in the same form and are included either at the bottom of the page or at the end of the chapter or book.

In the modern system, explanatory footnotes are put at the bottom of the page and are linked with the text with a footnote number. But source references are incorporated within the text and are supplemented by a bibliographical note at the end of the chapter or book.

**Rationale of Footnotes:** Footnotes help the readers to check the accuracy of the interpretation of the source by going to the source if they want to. They are also an acknowledgement of the author's indebtedness to the sources. They lend authority to the work and help the readers to distinguish between the author's own contribution and that of others.

**Where to Put the Footnote:** Footnotes appear at the bottom of the page or at the end of the chapter or report (before the appendices section).

### Numbering of Footnotes

a) For any editorial comment on the chapter or title, an asterisk is used.

b) In the text Arabic numerals are used for footnoting. Each new chapter begins with number

- c) The number is typed half a space above the line or within parentheses. No space is given between the number and the word. No punctuation mark is used after the number.
- d) The number is placed at the end of a sentence or, if necessary to clarify the meaning, at the end of the relevant word or phrase. Commonly the number appears after the last quotation mark. In an indented paragraph, the number appears at the end of the last sentence in the quotation.

### **Footnotes at the Bottom of the Page**

- a) After the last line of the text, three spaces *are* given, and a 15-space line is drawn to separate the footnotes from the text. Then three spaces are given, and the first footnote is typed.
- b) Each footnote is typed in a single space. Between two footnotes, two spaces are given.
- c) The first line of each footnote is indented five spaces, and the rest of the lines are started from the regular margin
- d) Footnotes should not overflow from one page to another. If the last footnote of a page has to be carried over to the next page, the carry-over portion is typed at the bottom of the next page before the footnote references of that page begin. The footnote of the first page is broken in the middle of a sentence so that the reader is made to turn to the next page to read the rest of the footnote.

### **Separated Reference Notes and Explanatory Notes**

Within the text, immediately after a quotation or a paraphrased statement, the last name of the author, year of publication, and page number (Rao, 1981, p. 101) are indicated within parentheses. If more than one publication of the author in the same year is referred to, a letter is added after the year of publication (Rao, 1981 (a), p. 101).

If the author's name is mentioned in the text in introducing the quotation or the paraphrased statement, the reference to the name in the parentheses is dropped. If the year is also mentioned in the text, the reference to the year in the parentheses is also dropped.

The source references are elaborated in notes at the end of the article, chapter, or book. The reference notes are presented in a bibliographical form.

The explanatory notes are presented in the traditional footnote form with a number at the appropriate place in the text and the explanatory footnote at the bottom of the page.

### **Examples of Footnote Entries**

Comparative examples of footnote and bibliographical entries are given under the bibliography section.

Comparative examples of traditional and modern footnoting forms follow.

### ***Example of Traditional Footnoting***

#### **HISTORY OF CORONET**

The first issue of *Coronet* put out by Esquire, Inc., was dated November 1936. It appeared “with a five-colour cover, [carrying] drawings, etchings, and colour reproductions of Raphael and Rembrandt in addition to fiction, articles, and photographs.” (1)

*Esquire* described the contents of *Coronet* in an advertisement as follows:

The book-size magazine of popular culture is a “believe-it-or-not” of money’s worth, for the many-sided CORONET is truly four magazine in one: It’s a magnificently illustrated journal of the fine arts; it’s a breath-takingly beautiful “picture magazine” of unforgettable photographs; it’s a full-strength satire and humour magazine; and a distinguished general magazine... Each issue is an entertaining education in “things you never knew till now”—a liberal culture course in capsule form -a little college in your coat pocket:(2)

Within 48 hours, according to its first publisher, David A. Smart, the 250,000 copies of the first issue were sold out. (3)

1. Theodore Peterson, *Magazines in the Twentieth Century* (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1964), pp. 342-3.
2. *Esquire*, December 1936, p. 322. For a complete discussion on the format and contents of the magazine, see Chap. IV.
3. Peterson, *op. cit.*, p. 343. For the names of all the editors and publishers of the magazine, see Chap. III.

### ***Example of Modern Footnoting***

#### **HISTORY OF CORONET**

The first issue of *Coronet* put out by Esquire, Inc., was dated November 1936. It appeared with a five-colour cover, [carrying] drawings, etchings, and color reproductions of Raphael and Rembrandt in addition to fiction, articles, and photographs (Peterson, 1964, pp. 342-3).

*Esquire* (December 1936, p. 322) described the contents of Coronet in an advertisement as follows:

The book-size magazine of popular culture is a “believe-it-or-not” or money’s worth, for the many-sided CORONET is truly four magazines in one: It’s a magnificently illustrated journal of the fine arts; it’s a breath-takingly beautiful “picture magazine” of unforgettable photographs; it’s a full-strength satire and humor magazine; and a distinguished general magazine... Each issue is an entertaining education in “things you never knew till now”—a liberal culture course in capsule form-a little college in your coat pocket: (1)

Within 48 hours, according to its first publisher, David A. Smart, the 250,000 copies of the first issue were sold out (Peterson, 1964, p. 343). (2)

1. For a complete discussion on format and contents of the magazine, see Chap. IV.

2. For the names of all editors are publishers of the magazine, see Chap. III.

## NOTES

[At the end of the Chapter]

Peterson, Theodore, *Magazines in the Twentieth Century*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1964.

## 4) Exhibits

### TABLES

#### Reference and Interpretation

Before a table is introduced, it is referred in the text (e.g., see Table 1.1; refer to Table 1.1; as in Table 1.1; Table 1.1 indicates). A table is meant only to expand, clarify, or give a visual explanation rather than stand by itself. The text should highlight the table's focus and conclusions.

An example of a good match between the text and the table is quoted below from Anne Anastasi's *Fields of Applied Psychology* (New York: McGraw-Trull Book Company, 1964); page 146:

*The Communication Process:* Industrial psychologists have investigated the communication process from many angles. Some have been concerned with the relative effectiveness of different media. In one such study (11) information was transmitted by five different methods in various departments of an industrial plant. Later, tests were administered to determine how much the individual employees had actually received and retained. The results are shown in Table 10. It will be noted that the combination of oral and written communication gave the best results but that oral only was more effective than written only. Bulletin board and grapevine yielded the poorest results.

**Table 10 Mean Information Test Scores of Employees Receiving communication through Different Media (From Dahle, 11, p. 245)**

Medium	No. of Employees	Mean Test Score*
Combined oral and written	102	7.70
Oral Only	94	6.17
Written only	109	4.91
Bulletin board	115	3.72
Grapevine only (control group)	108	3.56

\*All differences are significant at the 5 per cent level or better except that between the last two means in the column.

## Identification

- a) Each table is given a number, title, and, if needed, a subtitle. All identifications are centred.
  - b) Arabic numerals, instead of Roman numerals or capital letters, are recommended for numbering the tables. Usually, technical monographs and books contain many tables. As the number increases, Roman numerals become unfamiliar to the reader. Roman numerals also occupy more space than Arabic numerals. If there are more than 26 tables, capital letters will not be sufficient to identify them.
- Tables can be numbered consecutively throughout the chapter as 1.1, 1.2,
- 1.3.... wherein the first number refers to the chapter and the second number to the table.
- c) For the title and subtitle, all capital letters are used.
  - d) Abbreviations and symbols are not used in the title or subtitled

## Body

- a) Column headings are typed vertically, and abbreviations are used as space-savers. If uncommon abbreviations are used, they are explained in footnotes. The main words of column headings are capitalized and underlined if column rules are not used.
- b) Identifications of measurement units (e.g., Rs., S) are put in column headings.
- c) Column numbers are usually avoided. But they are used if references are made to columns (e.g., Col. 1, or the total of Cols. 1 and 4) either in the text or in the table.
- d) The row captions are aligned on the left. But the numbers are aligned on the right. If there is a sub-caption, it is indented three spaces inside. Single space is used throughout. Between the caption and the sub-caption double space is given. If the captions run into two or more lines, the serial numbers corresponding to the captions are aligned.

---

### Example

**Table 1.1**  
**Changes in Indices of Industrial Production**  
(Base : 1956=100)

Period	General Index	Basic Industries	Capital Goods	Intermediate Goods	Consumer Goods
Plan I*	+26.0 (+5.0)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Plan II	+30.8 (+5.9)	+67.2** (+11.9)	+50.1 (+11.3)	+21.3 (+5.0)	+14.7 (+3.5)
Plan III	+38.7*** (+6.8)	+55.0 (+7.1)	+98.1 (+14.8)	+36.0 (+6.4)	+28.7 (+5.2)

Source : Reserve Bank of India Bulletin, June 1957.

Abbreviation : n.a. = not available.

Symbol : ( ) Figures in parentheses represent annual rate of increase.

\* Data for Plan I are estimated.

\*\* . . . . .

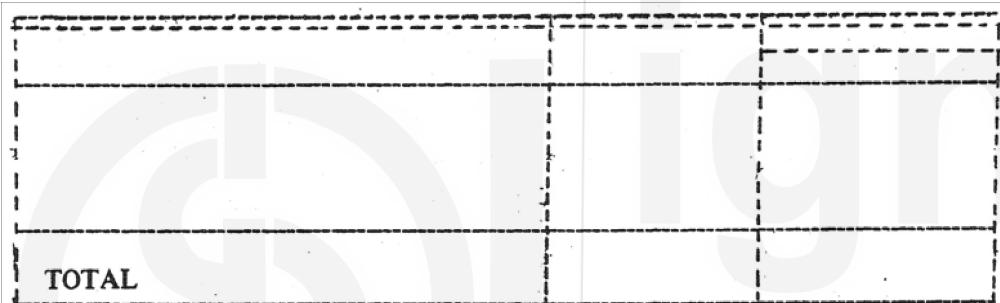
\*\*\* . . . . .

**Example**

<i>Expenditure Heads</i>	<i>Amount (Rs.)</i>
1) Miscellaneous Expenses	
a. Training Programme	1,83,770.31
b. High Yielding Varieties Project	16,593.44
c. Chair for Management Practices	18,000.00
d. Subsidized Programme	31,230.67
2) Amount Transferred to Reserve or Specific Funds	
a. Fund for conveyance advance to officers and staff	1,00,000.00
b. Fund for scholarships	1,75,000.00
<i>Total</i>	<u>5,24,594.42</u>

**Column Rules**

- a) Column rules are used only if they increase legibility. The white space between columns is sufficient to act as a divider.
- b) If rules are used, the following box format may be followed:



The diagram illustrates a table structure with three columns. The first column contains two rows of data, and the second and third columns contain one row each. A horizontal line separates the body of the table from a final row labeled 'TOTAL' at the bottom. The entire structure is enclosed in a dashed rectangular border.

**References**

- a) Immediately after the table, the source of the table is indicated.
- b) After the source, abbreviations and symbols are explained.
- c) Then the footnotes to the table are given.
- d) For footnote sequencing, the order from top to bottom (column) and from left to right (row) is followed.
- e) No text matter appears between the table's body and its references.

**Paper**

- a) If the table occupies more than one-half space of a page, it is typed on a separate sheet.
- b) If the table is typed in continuation with the text on one page, three spaces are given between the text matter and the table both at the top and the bottom of the table to visually separate the table from the text.
- c) Tables are usually typed lengthwise. If the number of columns cannot be accommodated, the table is typed widthwise on a separate sheet.
- d) If the table is typed widthwise; the top of the table will be on the binding side.

- e) If the table cannot be accommodated within the size of the paper used for the text matter, a bigger paper is used. The sheet is then folded in from the right-hand side and up from the bottom. The fold, on either side, should be one inch inside the right and bottom edge of the text paper. Otherwise, trimming the report after binding will be very difficult.
- f) The page numbers are typed consecutively with the text page. Even if the table is typed widthwise, the page number is typed vertically on the top where it would have been if the page was typed lengthwise. Otherwise, the page number will disappear in the binding edge.

### Continuation Page

- a) If the table is continued on the second page, only the identification mark TABLE 1.1 **Continued** is enough. There is no need to repeat the title and subtitle.
- b) On the continuation page, column and row captions are repeated to facilitate quick reference.
- c) The totals of the previous page are repeated at the top within the columns of the second page. In the row captions, indications such as **Carried forward** and **Brought forward** are given.

### Checklist

*Relevance, accuracy, and clarity are of utmost importance in tables. When entering the table, check the following:*

- 1) Have the explanation and reference to the table been given in the text?
- 2) It is essential to have the table for clarity and extra information?
- 3) Is the representation of the data *comprehensive and understandable*?
- 4) Is the table number correct?
- 5) Are the title and subtitle clear and concise?
- 6) Are the column headings clearly classified?
- 7) Are the row captions clearly classified?
- 8) Are the data accurately entered and represented?
- 9) Are the totals and other computations, correct?
- 10) Has the source been given?
- 11) Have all the uncommon abbreviations been spelt out?
- 12) Have all footnote entries been made?
- 13) If column rules are used, have all rules been properly drawn?

### Illustrations

Illustrations cover charts, graphs, diagrams, and maps. Most of the instructions given for tables hold good for illustrations.

Illustrations are identified as FIGURE, CHART, MAP, or DIAGRAM. The identification marks (i.e., number title, and, if any, subtitle) are put at the bottom, because an illustration, unlike a table, is studied from the bottom upwards.

**Activity 3**

Take a report that you have recently written and examine the following:

- a) Check the presentation of quotations and footnotes. Rewrite the references both in a traditional and modern format.

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.....  
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- b) Go through the exhibits in the report and compare them against the checklist given in this unit. Improve the presentation of exhibits and prune them down to the bare minimum required. Rewrite the explanation to them in the text.

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.....  
.....

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## 13.6 REFERENCE SECTION

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This section follows the text. First comes the appendices section, then the bibliography and glossary. Each section is separated by a divider page on which only the words APPENDICES, BIBLIOGRAPHY, or GLOSSARY in all capital letters appear.

All reference section pages are numbered in Arabic numerals in continuation with the page numbers of the text.

### 1) Appendices

#### What Goes into an Appendix

- a) Supplementary or secondary references are put in the appendices section. But all primary reference material of immediate importance to the reader is incorporated in the text. The appendices help the author to authenticate the thesis and help the reader to check the data.

- b) The material that is usually put in the appendices is indicated below:

- 1) Original data
- 2) Long tables
- 3) Long quotations
- 4) Supportive legal decisions, laws, and documents
- 5) Illustrative material

- 6) Extensive computations
- 7) Questionnaires and letters
- 8) Schedules or forms used in collecting data
- 9) Case studies/histories
- 10) Transcripts of interviews

### **Numbering of Appendices**

The appendices can be serialized with capital letters (Appendix A, Appendix B) to differentiate from the chapter or table numbers.

### **References to Appendices**

- a) In the text, the reader's attention is drawn to the appendices as in the case of tables.
- b) All appendices are listed in the table of contents.

## **2) Bibliographies**

### **Positioning of the Bibliography**

The bibliography comes after the appendices section and is separated from it by a division sheet written BIBLIOGRAPHY. It is listed as a major section in all capital letters in the table of content.

A bibliography contains the source of every reference cited in the footnote and any other relevant works that the author has **consulted**. It gives the reader an idea of the literature available on the subject and that has influenced or aided the author.

### **Bibliographical Information**

The following information is given for each bibliographical reference:

#### **Books**

- 1) Authors
- 2) Title(underlined)
- 3) Place of publication
- 4) Publisher
- 5) Date of publication
- 6) Number of pages

#### **Magazines and Newspapers**

- 1) Author(s)
- 2) Title of the article (within quotation marks)
- 3) Title of the magazine(underlined)
- 4) Volume number (Roman numerals)
- 5) Serial number (Arabic numerals)
- 6) Date of issue
- 7) Page numbers of the article

### **Types of Bibliographies**

The title of a bibliography should indicate what type of items are listed.

Some common varieties of bibliographies are given below:

- a) **Bibliography of Works cited** lists only those items which have been referred to in the text.

- b) **Selected Bibliography** contains only those items which the author thinks are of primary interest to the reader and indicates the criteria used for selecting the items.
- c) **Annotated Bibliography** gives a brief description of each item to help the reader to find out the usefulness of the book.

### Difference between Bibliographical and Footnote Entries

The formats of the bibliography and footnote differ in the following respects:

- a) In a bibliography, the first line of an item begins at the left margin and the subsequent lines are indented. But in a footnote, the first line is indented and the subsequent lines of the item begin at the left margin.
- b) In a bibliography, the last name of the author is given first (Kumar, Arvind), but in a footnote the first name is given first (Arvind Kumar).
- c) A bibliography is arranged within a section in the alphabetical order of the last name of the author or in the alphabetical order of the title of the work, or in the chronological order of publication. But footnotes are arranged in the sequence in which they have been referred to in the text.
- d) Punctuation, marks in a bibliography and in a footnote are different.
- e) In a bibliography the total number of pages of a book (205 pp.) or page numbers of the article (1-21) are given, while in a footnote only the specific page (p. 21) or pages cited (pp. 3-5) are given.

### How to Make a Bibliography Formats of Reports

Solutions to some of the difficulties commonly faced in writing a bibliography are given below:

- a) When the bibliography is long, items are classified for easy reference according to 1) format like books, periodicals, and newspapers, 2) subject or theme, or 3) chronological order.
- b) If the name of the author is not given, the title of the book or the article appears first. "A", "An", and "The" in the beginning of the title are ignored for determining the alphabetical order; however, the article appears in the listing if it is a part of the title.
- c) An author's works written in collaboration with others are listed after the works which he has written alone
- d) If there are more than three authors, the symbol *et al.* is used after, the first author's name and other names are omitted.
- e) If two or more works of an author are listed, the author's name is written for the first time, and for subsequent items a 10-space line is drawn where the author's name should appear.
- f) Within the works of an author, the order is determined by the alphabetical order of the title of the work or the date of publication.
- g) If two or more persons have written the book, the names are listed in the order mentioned in the book or article.

ONE AUTHOR

*Bibliography*

Basu, Amrendra. *Consumer Price Index : Theory, Practice and Use in India*. Calcutta: Modern Book Agency, 1963. 175 pp.

*Footnote*

I Amrendra Basu, *Consumer Price Index : Theory, Practice and Use in India* (Calcutta: Modern Book Agency, 1963), p. 10.

TWO AUTHORS

*Bibliography*

Singh, Mohinder, and Pandya, J.F. *Government Publications of India*. Delhi: Metropolitan Book Co. Pvt. Ltd., 1967. 270 pp.

*Footnote*

I Mohinder Singh and J.F. Pandya, *Government Publications of India* (Delhi: Metropolitan Book Co. Pvt. Ltd., 1967. p. 21.

THREE AUTHORS

*Bibliography*

Mote, V.L.; Malya, M. Meenakshi; and Saha, Jahar. *Tables for Capital Investment Analysis*. Ahmedabad: Indian Institute of Management, 1986. 36 pp.

*Footnote*

I V.L. Mote, M. Meenakshi Malya, and Jahar Saha, *Tables for Capital Investment Analysis* (Ahmedabad: Indian Institute of Management, 1986) p. 10.

MORE THAN THREE AUTHORS

*Bibliography*

Desai, D.K., et al., *Studies in Block Development and Cooperative Organisation*. Ahmedabad: Indian Institute of Management, 1966. 382 pp.

*Footnote*

I D.K. Desai, et al., *Studies in Block Development and Cooperative Organisation*. (Ahmedabad : Indian Institute of Management, 1966) p. 10

EDITED BOOK

*Bibliography*

Basu, G. (ed). *Indian Tax Laws and Foreigners Having Investment in India or Having Business Connections in or with India*. Calcutta : Oxford Book & Stationery, 1962. 140 pp.

*Footnote*

I G. Basu (ed), *Indian Tax Laws and Foreigners Having Investment in India or Having Business Connections in or with India*. (Calcutta : Oxford Book & Stationery, 1962) p. 10

TRANSLATION

*Bibliography*

Bata, Thomas. *How I Began*. Trans. Jan Baros. Batanagar: Club for Graduates of Bata School, 1942. 332 pp.

*Footnote*

I Thomas Bata, *How I Began*. Trans. Jan Baros. (Batanagar: Club for Graduates of Bata School, 1942) p.10.

ARTICLE IN A BOOK

*Bibliography*

Argyris, Chris, "Individual Actualization in Complex Organizations", *Organization and Administration: A Book of Readings*, Ishwar Dayal and Kamini Adhikari. Bombay: Progressive Corpn., 1969. 2-50. *Footnote*

I Chris Argyris, "Individual Actualization in Complex Organizations", *Organization and Administration. A Book of Readings*, Ishwar Dayal and Kamini Adhikari. (Bombay: Progressive Corpn., 1969) p. 10

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**DIFFERENT EDITIONS***Bibliography*

Basu, Durga Das. *Shorter Constitution of India*. 5th edn. Calcutta: S.C. Sarkar, 1967. 250 pp.

*Footnote*

1 Durga Das Basu, *Shorter Constitution of India*. (5th edn. Calcutta: S.C. Sarkar, 1967) p. 10.

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**MORE THAN ONE VOLUME***Bibliography*

Myrdal, Gunnar. *Asian Drama : An Inquiry into the Poverty of Nations*. 3 Vols. New York : The Twentieth Century Fund, 1968.

*Footnote*

1 Gunnar Myrdal, *Asian Drama: An Inquiry into the Poverty of Nations*. 3 Vols. (New York: The Twentieth Century Fund, 1968), 1, 20.

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**PART OF A SERIES***Bibliography*

*Decentralization : Strategy and Structure*, Alumni Conference Series, 1967. Ahmedabad: Indian Institute of Management, 1968. 161 pp.

*Footnote*

1 *Decentralization : Strategy and Structure* (Alumni Conference Series, 1967; Ahmedabad : Indian Institute of Management, 1968), p. 10

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**GOVERNMENT PUBLICATION***Bibliography*

Ministry of Law, Government of India. *The Copyright Act, 1957 (14 of 1957)*. Delhi: The Manager of Publications, 1960. 32 pp.

*Footnote*

1 Ministry of Law, Government of India. *'The Copyright Act, 1957 (14 of 1957)*. (Delhi : The Manager of Publications, 1960), p. 10.

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**MIMEOGRAPHED OR PHOTOCOPIED MATERIAL***Bibliography*

Rao, G.N. "A Life Table Approach to Wastage in Education", Jaipur: University of Rajasthan, 1958. 121 pp. (Mimeographed)

*Footnote*

1 G.N. Rao, "A Life Table Approach to Wastage in Education", (Jaipur: University of Rajasthan, 1958), p.10. (Mimeographed)

*Bibliography*

Gandhi, Ved P. "Taxation of Agricultural Incomes", *Industrial Times*, X, 12, (15 June 1968), 8.

*Footnote*

1 Ved P. Gandhi, "Taxation of Agricultural Incomes", *Industrial Times*, X, 12, (15 June 1968), 8.

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**ARTICLE IN A NEWSPAPER**

*Bibliography*

Gandhi, Ved. P. "Will the Budget Achieve Its Aims? Certain Doubts", *The Economic Times*, VIII, 2,

(8 March 1968), 5. *Footnote*

1 Ved P. Gandhi, "Will the Budget Achieve Its Aims? Certain Doubts", *The Economic Times*,

VIII, 2, (8 March 1968), 5.

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**BOOK REVIEW**

*Bibliography*

Desai, D.K. "Review of Application of Programming Techniques to Indian Farming Conditions by S.S. Jain and A.S. Kahlar", *Indian Journal of Agricultural Economics*, XXIII, 1, (Jan-Mar 1968), 91-94. *Footnote*

1 D.K. Desai, "Review of Application of Programming Techniques to Indian Farming Conditions by S.S.

Jain and A.S. Kahlar", *Indian Journal of Agricultural Economics*, XXIII, 1, (Jan-Mar 1968), 92. 34

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**ASSOCIATION JOURNAL**

*Bibliography*

Aggarwal, S.C. "Modern trends in Production Planning and Control", *Management Review*

(Baroda Management Association), VII, 1, (Nov 1967), 17-19.

*Footnote*

1 S.C. Aggarwal, "Modern trends in Production Planning and Control", *Management Review* (Baroda Management Association), VII, 1, (Nov 1967), 18.

---

**CONFERENCE PAPER**

*Bibliography*

Bhattacharya, S.K. "Control 'techniques and Their Applicability.' Paper read at the Ahmedabad Management Association, Ahmedabad, 22 Nov 1967. 12 pp. (Mimeographed)

1 , S.K. Bhattacharya, "Control Techniques and Their Applicability." Paper read at the Ahmedabad Management Association, Ahmedabad, 22 Nov 1967. p.11  
(Mimeographed)

### MORE THAN ONE ITEM OF AN AUTHOR

#### Bibliography

Shah, B.G. "Farm Finance: A Few important Issues", *Artha Kkas*, IV, 1, (Jan 1968), 38-45.

\_\_\_\_\_ "Manpower Development for Banks", *The Economic Times*, VIII, 3, (26 June 1968), 5.

#### 3. Glossary

**What is a Glossary :** A glossary is a short dictionary giving definitions and examples of terms and phrases which are technical, used in a special connotation by the author, unfamiliar to the reader, or foreign to the language in which the book is written. It is listed as a major section in all capital letters in the table of contents.

**Positioning of a Glossary:** The glossary appears after the bibliography. It may also appear in the introductory pages of a book after the lists of tables and illustrations.

**Order of Listing:** Items are listed in alphabetical and normal order.

**Centre Heading** is lasted under C and not under H.

#### Activity 4

Take any report and check whether bibliography is presented in the standard form. If not, rewrite the bibliography.

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#### Activity 5

Examine the appendices to any report. Are all of them essential for understanding the theme of the report. Can they be pruned?

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## 13.7 TYPING INSTRUCTIONS

For typing of a report, the following should be kept in mind.

### Paper

- a) Quarto-size, white, thick, unruled paper is used for manuscripts.
- b) Typing is done on only one side of the paper.

### Margins

The following margins may be followed:

Left = 1.5 in.

Right = 1 in.

Top and bottom = 1 in. (But on the first page of every major division, e.g., beginning of a chapter give 3 in. space at the top. give 3 in. space at the top.

Uniform margins make the typescript look neat.

### Indentation

- a) The first line of a regular paragraph is indented five spaces from the margin.
- b) All lines in an indented paragraph are indented five spaces from the margin. But the first line of an indented paragraph, if it has a paragraph beginning, is indented 10 spaces from the margin.

*Example:*

The increase in taxation on commodities through excise duties and custom duties has increased the tax and therefore the prices.

### Spacing between Lines

- a) The whole manuscript is typed in double space, except indented paragraphs, tables, and footnotes, which are usually in a single space. Wherever single space is used, double space is given between paragraphs or sets of items.
- b) Triple space is given 1) before a paragraph head and 2) before and after a centre head, centre subhead, side head, indented paragraph, or table.

### Spacing within a Sentence

Between words	1 space
After a semi-colon	2 spaces
After a colon	2 spaces
After a comma	1 space
After a full stop	2 spaces Before the first
parenthesis or bracket	1 space
After the last parenthesis	
space	

- a) Between the last letter and the comma, semi-colon, colon, exclamation mark, question mark, last parenthesis, and last bracket.
- b) Between the first quotation mark and the following word.
- c) Between the last quotation mark and the last quoted word or punctuation.
- d) Between the dash and the words preceding or following it.
- e) Between hyphenated words.
- f) Between the bar (/) and the words preceding or following it.

## 13.8 COPY READING

The copy reader's symbols are used for instructing the typist or secretary. But the proof-reading symbols are used for instructing the printer. Some symbols are common. But the symbols for proof reading are more than for copy reading. (Copy reading symbols with explanations are given at the end of this unit in Appendix A.)

## 13.9 PROOF READING

### Types of Proofs

- a) Usually the printer sends galley proofs (also known as first proofs), page proofs, and engraver's proofs (wherever photographs or other illustrations are involved). If required, revised proofs at any stage are sent. For a high-quality work, the printer provides a dummy, which is also called machine proof or press proof.
- b) The galley proof is the one which is not divided into pages. Galleys, the short name for galley proofs, are in single column set in the line width of the text and sometimes as long as 24 inches. The second stage is that of page proofs, which give Formats of Reports an idea what each page will contain and look like. Dummy is the final stage which represents the printed version before copies are run off.

### How to Proof Read

- a) A good proof reader has *accuracy* to pin-point all the mistakes, *clarity* in giving instructions to the printer, and *speed* for meeting the printer's deadlines.
- b) Correction marks are indicated at two places 1) within the line where the correction is to be carried out and 2) in the margin against the corresponding line giving the instruction. If there are two or more corrections in a line, both the right and left margins are used for instructions.- The sequence of instructions corresponds to the sequence of marks within the line in order from left to right. Each instruction is separated by a bar (/).

- c) Instructions are never given at the place of correction. The printer only goes through the margins and never reads through the proofs. If the instruction is not in the margin, the printer will miss it.
- d) The proof may be marked preferably with a red ballpoint pen. The red colour shows up better in the background of black ink and darkness of the composing room. Avoid red ink or pencil. Ink spreads on the cheap paper used for proofs and pencil marks are not sharp.
- e) To catch as many errors as possible, proof may be read four times as follows :
  1. Ask another person to read the copy aloud while you go through the proofs.
  2. Read the proof alone without somebody reading from the copy.
  3. Check all the headings and subheadings.
  4. Check all the cross references

Above all, remember proofs have to be read letter by letter rather than word by word.

- f) Proofs are meant to be *corrected* but not *edited*. Additions and deletions at the proof stage, commonly known as author's alterations (AA), are time consuming and very expensive. The cost of making these alterations are passed on to the author. Large-scale editing will upset the layout of the pages also. But if the mistake is very glaring, edit it at the proof stage rather than let it go into the final print.

(Proof reading symbols with explanations are given at the end of this unit in Appendix B.)

### **Returning the Proofs**

- a) Proofs must be returned to the printer according to the agreed schedule. The delay on author's part upset scheduling of the machines and other operations of the printer and the publisher.
- b) The manuscript is also returned with the proofs. The printer uses the manuscript for his checking and record in case any suit for damages is filed. The manuscript becomes the property of the printer.
- c) The author can use the duplicate of the manuscript for correcting. Then the printer need not send the original copy back and forth.
- d) Sometimes printers send two proof copies—one for the author's record and the other for returning to the printer. For security, either hand deliver the proofs or send in a registered cover.

### **Activity 6**

Take any report and edit it using copy reading and proof reading symbols.

## 13.10 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have discussed the various parts of a report. They are divided into cover and Title Page, Introductory Pages, and Text and Reference Section. Cover and Title Page have these components (a) Title of the subject or Project (b) Presented to whom (c) on what date (d) for what purpose (e) written by whom. The Introductory pages contain (a) Foreword (b) Preface (c) Acknowledgement (d) Table of contents (e) Listing of Tables and Illustrations and (f) Summary. The subject matter of Text is divided into (a) Headings (b) Quotations (c) Footnotes (d) Exhibits. Reference section follows the Text. It contains (a) Appendices (b) Bibliography and (c) Glossary. Each of these heads and subheads are explained with the help of examples.

The unit also explains the typing instructions which should be followed while typing the report. The unit concludes by explaining how one goes about proof reading the report.

## 13.11 SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

Take a report that you have recently written and examine the following:

- 1) Does the cover and the title page contain all the essential information? If not, prepare a new cover and title page.
- 2) Do the introductory pages contain all the sections indicated in this unit? If not, put in these sections if they are necessary for the report.
- 3) Is the table of contents comprehensive? If not, prepare a fresh table of contents. For practice, prepare the contents both in traditional and decimal classifications.
- 4) Read through the headings in the report. Improve the wording, sequence, and presentation of the headings. Rewrite the contents page according to the new headings inside the report.
- 5) Does your report contain the executive summary? If yes, check whether it is comprehensive? If not, write an executive summary.
- 6) Check the presentation of quotations and footnotes. Rewrite the references both in traditional and modern format.
- 7) Go through the exhibits in the report and compare against the checklist given in this unit. Improve the presentation of the exhibits and prune them down to the bare minimum required. Rewrite the explanation to them in the text.
- 8) Examine the appendices to the report. Are all of them essential for understanding the theme of the report? Can they be pruned?
- 9) Is the bibliography presented in the standard form? If not, rewrite the bibliography.
- 10) Edit your report using the copy reading and proof reading symbols.

## 13.12 FURTHER READINGS

Gallagher, J. William, "Report Writing for Management", Addison-Wesley

Golen, P. Stevan, "Report Writing for Business and Industry", Business Communication Service

Sharma R.C. and Krishan Mohan, "Business Correspondence and Report Writing", Tata McGraw-Hill

Wright, C., "Report Writing", Witherby & Co England

### APPENDIX A

#### Copy Reading Symbols

##### Additions and Deletions

Insert the letter or word

Institute  
The Institute

Delete

##### Capital Letters and Small Letters

Use capital letter

indian Institute of Management

Use small letter

Indian Institute of Management

Use all capital letters

Indian Institute of Management

The letters underlined three times should be in capitals and the rest in the small letters

INDIAN INSTITUTE OF MANAGEMENT

##### Closeup and Separation

Bring them together

Institute

Give space between the two letters

Indian Institute

##### Transposition

Transpose the letter

Institut

Transpose the word

Indian Institute of Management

##### Numbers and Abbreviations

Spell out

(9) means write it as nine

Use the numeral

Ten means write the number 10

Abbreviate

Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad

Spell out

means write it as IIMA

##### Indention

Put it in the centre

Indian Institute Management

Push the word or line to the right margin indicated

Indian Institute of Management

Push the word or line to the left margin indicated

← Indian Institute of Management

New paragraph

¶

No paragraph break

No ¶

##### Miscellaneous

Ignore the correction under which dots are put

Stet  
Indian Institute of Management

**Proof Reading Symbols***Instruction  
in the margin**Type Faces*

bf

bf italic

uc

lc

lf

rom

wf

ital

uc/lc

*Mark in the copy*The InstituteThe InstituteThe InstituteThe InstituteThe InstituteThe InstituteThe InstituteThe InstituteTHE INSTITUTE*Explanation*

Set in bold face type

Set in bold face italics

Set in capital letters.

Set in small letters

Set in light face

Set in Roman type

Wrong font

Set in italics

Set the main letters in caps and the rest  
in small letters*Insert*

i

The Institute

Caret indicates the place where the  
insertion has to be made

The Institutes

Insert apostrophe

"/"

The Institute

Insert quotation marks

[ ]

Ahmedabad

Insert brackets

( )

Ahmedabad

Insert parentheses

^

Indian Institute of  
Management Ahmedabad

Insert comma

;

The Institute

Insert semi-colon

()

The Institute's  
activities are

Insert colon

0

These are the Institute's  
activities

Insert full stop

?

What are the activities  
of the Institute

Insert question mark

()

Oh

Insert exclamation mark

-

Semi annual

Insert hyphen

/-

The two Institutes  
at Ahmedabad and Calcutta

Insert dash

^

HO

Insert subscript

^

A + B = C

Insert superscript

*Spacing*

#

The Institute

Give space

C

Institute

Close up

eq#

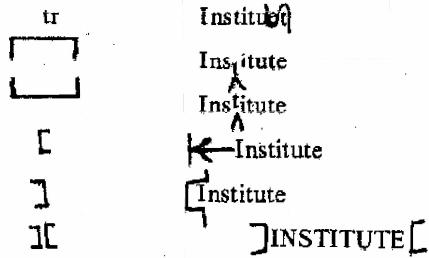
Indian Institute of  
Management / at Ahmedabad

Correct uneven spacing

eq#

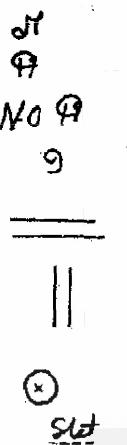
Indian Institute of  
Management at  
Ahmedabad and  
other institutionsEqualize leading or space between  
lines

*Movement of Position*



- transpose
- Move up
- Move down
- Move to the left
- Move to the right
- Put in the centre

*Miscellaneous*



- The ~~Indian~~ Institute
- ~~A~~The Institute...
- ~~A~~The Institute
- Institute
- Institute
- The Institute  
The Institute  
The institute
- The ~~I~~nstitute
- The Institute
- Delete
- Paragraph
- No paragraph
- Invert the letter
- Straighten the line
- Correct the alignment
- Broken letter
- Ignore the correction

# **UNIT 14 PRESENTATION OF A REPORT**

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## **Objectives**

After reading this unit, you should be able to:

- Distinguish between various components of presentation skills.
- Describe the elements of the presentation.
- Discuss the usefulness of AV aids.
- Enumerate suggestions for preparing AV aids.
- Explain the use of AV materials.
- Suggest to a presenter the care he has to take while presenting a report.

## **Structure**

- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Communication Dimensions
- 14.3 Presentation Package
- 14.4 Audio-Visual Aids
- 14.5 Presenter's Poise
- 14.6 Summary
- 14.7 Self-Assessment Exercises
- 14.8 Further Readings

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## **14.1 INTRODUCTION**

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In the last unit, we explained the various parts of a report. The next stage is the presentation of a report.

The presentation has become an important communication medium in organizations because a report is understood better if it is accompanied by a presentation. The readers can enter into a dialogue with the author(s) of the report to share the thinking process that the author(s) has gone through in writing the report. Therefore, the manager is expected to have as much facility in presentation as he is expected to have in report writing.

Presentation skills include the ability to mix in the right proportion various elements of

- 1) communication dimensions,
- 2) presentation package, and
- 3) use of audio-visual aids to achieve the given purpose with an audience.

Moreover, the presenter needs to acquire public conversation (rather than public speaking or oratory) skills

## 14.2 COMMUNICATION DIMENSIONS

The major elements of the communication dimension, which are relevant to a presentation, are :

- 1) Purpose
- 2) Audience
- 3) Media
- 4) Message
- 5) Time
- 6) Place
- 7) Cost

While preparing for a presentation, the presenter has to ask searching questions to understand each of the above-mentioned dimensions of communication and find the right mix to serve his purpose. This process makes the presentation both a science and an art.

### 1) Purpose

The first step is to think through the purpose of the presentation and to focus it sharply. The presenter can try to achieve a variety of purposes. Some instances of presentation purposes are as follows:

- Informing?
- Selling?
- Exploring?
- Decision making?
- Persuading?
- Changing attitude or behaviour?

- a) Within each of these, the focus can be sharpened by breaking them into subsets. For example, if it is a decision-making situation, would the presenter be interested in persuading the audience to accept a decision which has already been ‘taken
- b) vote on a decision
- c) provide feedback for decision making
- d) take a decision, or
- e) explore areas which need attention for decision-making at a later time.

Depending on the purpose, the elements of the communication mix, presentation package, and AV aids have to be adjusted to get the right effect.

## 2) Audience

In a presentation, multiple audiences interact at the same time. The sender and the receivers of the message keep changing roles through clarification queries, question and answer, dialogue, and discussion. It is a live and dynamic situation in which the presenter shapes the message in the open.

The audience interest can be held on if the presenter focuses on issues of their immediate interest and allows them to participate in understanding the information. One way monologue is a sure way to dampen the audience enthusiasm and interest.

## 3) Media

In a presentation, sound, sight, and body language come into play. Therefore, the coordination of all three at one shot becomes an important aspect of presentation.

Moreover, a presentation helps to broaden or open up the horizon of thought. Therefore, to treat presentation as an extension of written medium by projecting written data on the screen and making the audience read it is a self-defeating and expensive proposition. Also concentrating on any one medium-sight or sound-failing to take full advantage of the potentialities of presentation

Since presentation is more suited for interaction, reading from a prepared text or delivering a memorized speech puts a barrier between the audience and the presenter. However, notes, as memory aids, cannot be dispensed with for an organized presentation.

### Outline

- 1) Communication mix
- 2) Presentation package
- 3) AV tools
- 4) Presenter's poise

The notes can be telegraphic and on 3x5 inch cards which the presenter can see at one glance and be on his way. Often, the OHP transparencies are sufficient as memory aids. A notecard may look as follows:

## 4) Message

The presenter has to think of the focus of the message-its breadth and depth-as much as a writer does. But the dimensions are different. The presenter cannot get as much depth and complexity as a writer can achieve. Therefore, the focus of a presentation has to be different from that of a report.

A presentation concentrating on a single theme or a few major strands of a theme is more comprehensible to the audience and leaves a more lasting impression than the one with too many diverse issues.

Organization of the message is as important in presentation as in writing. Confused organization confuses the audience and leads them to focus their attention on unimportant or unintended issues.

Next, the concretization of the message in presentation is as important as in good writing. However, the presentation, because it combines sound and sight media, helps to concretize the message more than the written medium. One step further in concretization leads to visualization of ideas and hearing of actual sounds: only the presentation medium helps to achieve this level of concretization.

Since the presentation situation is built on the interaction between the presenter and the audience, the emotional content of the message and the audience should be considered. Concretization at the emotional level reinforces the logical concretization of the message. Even simple words like “our company”, “my company”, “your company”, and “the company” carry emotional and attitudinal connotations. These phrases reflect in a way where the presenter stands in respect to the company and the audience. In this respect, the presenter’s body language also comes into play.

### 5) Time

The element of time in a presentation situation depends on various factors like the availability of the room, audience, and presenter. The presenter can select the right time if he has the choice. Presentations immediately after lunch, for instance, fail to hold the attention of the audience.

Another major aspect is how much time is given to the presenter to make the presentation. This is a crucial dimension which decides the length and the overall communication mix.

The timing or sequencing of the message or its various parts is also significant. Is your audience prepared for it? When can you get their maximum attention?

### 6) Place

The presenter may not have much choice in selecting the place. But to make the best use of the place and the facilities available will depend on the presenter. Whether the room is square or rectangular, whether it is large or small enough for the audience, or whether the seating arrangement is fixed or movable are some examples of the questions which bother a presenter. The room arrangement depends on the kind of audio-visual tools that can be used and the type of interaction that the presenter can have with the audience.

An examination of the following elements of a room will help in finding the right mix for an effective presentation:

- 1) Room dimensions
- 2) Seating
- 3) Number of people expected
- 4) Space available for the presenter
- 5) AV equipments available

### 7. Cost

The preparation of a good presentation is time-consuming and expensive. The presenter should ask himself a) whether he is trying to achieve through presentation what he could have easily achieved through written communication

and b) whether he could use cheaper production methods and aids than the ones he has chosen to put across the message.

### **Activity 1**

You want to describe the major events of your college life to a group of your friends. You make a 3 minutes presentation and ask for their reactions to presentations and their suggestions for improvement on the focus of the presentation theme. List-out the suggestions they make to you.

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## **14.3 PRESENTATION PACKAGE**

The presentation package could be as follows:

- 1) Pre-presentation handout if necessary to prepare the audience for understanding the presentation,
- 2) Presentation.
- 3) Two-way feedback between the audience and the presenter and among the audience members through question and answer or discussion.
- 4) Post-presentation handout if necessary to reinforce the message or help recall.

### **Activity 2**

Yours is a consulting organisation which undertakes business research studies. A prospective client visits your organisation and wants to know the types of job your organisation undertakes. What sort of pre-presentation handouts would you prepare before making a presentation to him?

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## **14.4 AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS**

Audio-visual aids can be broadly classified as follows:

- I) Audio
  - 1) Tape recorder
  - 2) Gramophone or compact disc

II) Visual

*Non- Projected*

- 1) Blackboard
- 2) Bulletin boards or flip charts
- 3) Models

*Projected*

- 1) Epidiascope
- 2) Overhead
- 3) Slide
- 4) Film strip
- 5) 5.Tachistoscope (Slide projector with a timer)

*Audio-Visual*

- 1) Film (8 mm, 16 mm)
- 2) Videocassettette

**The usefulness of AV Aids**

Since AV aids help in recreating reality in a miniature form through visuals and sound, greater CREDIBILITY and CLARITY can be achieved in presentation.

Since both sound and sight senses are activated at the same time along with the body language, CONCENTRATION, RETENTION, and RECALL, can be obtained in presentation.

AV aids can also help in collapsing DISTANCE and TIME. They help us to present to the audience materials and experiences from far-off places and from different times in the past to make the message concrete and clear.

**Suggestions for Preparing of AV aids**

- 1) Organize the material into small modules.
- 2) Do not put more than seven or eight lines on transparency.
- 3) Use as few words as possible. Use telegraphic style, abbreviations, and symbols which the audience can understand.
- 4) visualize or picture your ideas if possible.
- 5) Make the pictures and letters bright enough to be visible from a distance.
- 6) Make the letters big and thick enough to be read by all.
- 7) Use light colours, like yellow, light blue, or pink for the background. Use dark or bright colours like red, black, orange, or green for pictures and letters to improve visibility. Note that black or red letters on a yellow background have the highest visibility.

- 8) Make the sound material audible, pleasing in tone, varied and synchronized with visuals.
- 9) Finally, before presentation, check the audibility, visibility, and readability of your AV materials, if possible, in the actual place of presentation.

## How to use some AV Materials

### Blackboard

- 1) Plan

What goes on it?

When goes on it?

Where is it to be entered?

What is to be retained and what is to be erased?

- 2) In planning the arrangement of materials on the blackboard, it will' help to mentally divide the blackboard space into different parts:

Top half/ Bottom half

Left Column

Middle Column

Right Column

- 3) For writing on the blackboard, break the chalk into two pieces and use the soft inner side for writing to avoid the squeaking noise. Hold the chalk like a brush to get large and thick letters. Use different coloured chalks to differentiate the segments of the subject matter.
- 4) The more time you take to write on the blackboard, the longer is your back to the audience, and the longer you hide the message from them. Use the blackboard for short spans of time. Develop a telegraphic language and a shorthand which your audience can understand. Words with only consonants (dropping the vowels) can be easily recognized.
- 5) Check at the end of the session
  - a) Does the material on the blackboard look neat and organized?
  - b) Does it contain only material which is essential to recall your message?
  - c) Is your writing visible and readable to the audience?

### Bulletin Boards

The following materials are used for bulletin boards:

Wood                  Pulp

Felt                  Thermocole

Steel (Magnetic) and Prestograph sign boards are also available. Bulletin boards are useful for exhibiting samples and drawings.

### Flip Charts

- 1) Can be an extension to the blackboard and the overhead projector.

- 2) Back and forth referencing can be done.
- 3) Useful, like the blackboard, for interactive communication. Flipcharts, like OHP transparencies, can be prepared beforehand.

### **Felt Board**

- 1) Useful for demonstrating changes.
- 2) Use sand paper strips or any stick-on material at the back of the paper for sticking to the felt.
- 3) Materials tend to fall off after a few minutes.

### **Overhead Projector**

- 1) It can project a) transparencies, b) cutouts and outlines (Silhouette) of small objects, c) negatives, d) material on transparent glass, and e) transparent colours.
- 2) Writing on the transparencies at the time of presentation is possible.
- 3) While using the projector, the speaker can face the audience—an advantage not available with the blackboard.
- 4) Can work in ordinary light—an advantage not available with the opaque projector (epidiascope), slide projector, or film projector.
- 5) More matter can be accommodated than on a blackboard.
- 6) Highly flexible:
  - Matter can be exposed either for long periods or short periods.
  - Material can be partially hidden if needed.
  - Material can be referred and forth.
- 7) Material can be pretested before putting on slide or film strip.
- 8) Printed material can be transferred to the transparencies through photocopying,
- 9) Only line drawings can be reproduced.

**Note :** Switch off the projector whenever not needed to protect it from overheating

### **Making of Transparencies**

- 1) Thin plastic sheets and acetate or triacetate films can be used for making transparencies. Plastic sheets are cheaper than acetate or triacetate sheets.
- 2) Can write on plastic sheets and films with OHP pens. While writing on a transparency put a graph paper underneath the transparency to be able to, write uniformly big letters.
- 3) Photocopying can be done on plastic sheets and films.
- 4) Acetate or triacetate films can be used for writing with OHP pens having transparent colours.

- 5) OHP pens come in two kinds-permanent and non-permanent. Erasing is not possible when permanent ink is used. A special erasure pen is available to remove a word or two if needed. *But* transparencies written with non-permanent ink can be washed by water and reused.

### Opaque Projector (Epidiascope)

- 1) Useful for projecting non-transparent material-printed paper, cloth, or small objects-in actual colours.
- 2) Dark room is essential.

### Slides

- 1) Can be made in black and white or in colour. Best for highlighting coloured and halftone pictures.
- 2) Can be synchronized with running commentary on tape recorder.
- 3) Presentation sequence can be changed.
- 4) Useful for showing on and off during the talk.
- 5) Audience attention can be held for about 30 minutes.

### Film Strips

- 1) Film strips give a feeling of continuity.
- 2) Can be synchronized with running commentary on the tape recorder.
- 3) Can be made in black and white and in colour.
- 4) Once the strip is made, the sequence of the material cannot be changed.
- 5) Audience attention cannot be held for more than 10 to 15 minutes.

### Films

1. When you make a film, be clear of the purpose. Check whether your purpose is to:
  - a) communicate information (documentaries of actual events or reenacted events serve this purpose).
  - b) change attitudes (dramatization of ideal reactions or situations).
  - c) Develop skills (giving step-by-step close-ups of an operation).
  - d) Develop interest (using unusual effects).
  - e) Raise issue (using open-ended techniques).

### Activity 3

You have recently read a book and your friends want you to make a brief presentation about it. How would you go about preparing and handling of audio-visual materials?

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.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

## 14.5 PRESENTER'S POISE

The presenter himself is an essential part of the presentation. His poise and confidence matter a lot in putting across the ideas.

First, the presenter's posture and movement on the stage or at the speaking place and, his hand gestures indicate the level of confidence of the presenter. Slouching positions, leg crossing, rubbing hands or wild gesticulation, or hands in pockets indicate lack of authority and confidence in the presenter. Sometimes the presenter's habits may become dysfunctional because they draw the attention of the audience away from the main theme.

Second the presenter's ability to maintain eye contact with the audience and keep his facial expressions suited to the subject become also important. Lack of eye contact with the total audience, not with just one or two persons in the audience, indicate lack of confidence in the presenter. Moreover, the presenter will not be able to get non-verbal cues from the audience of their interest and understanding throughout the presentation.

Finally, the fluency, pace of delivery, level of the voice, and command of the language signal to the audience the level of confidence and preparedness of the presenter.

The only way that presenters can gain confidence is to repeatedly take the opportunity to make presentations, analyse their presentations for improvement, and observe experienced presenters in action. Only thorough preparedness and involvement with the subject help presenters to overcome their inhibitions and fears and gain confidence.

### Activity 4

Suppose you have made a 3-minute presentation to a group of friends describing your future career plans. Ask for their reactions to the presentation and their suggestions for improvement on your presentation confidence and behaviour.

List out the suggestions below:

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## 14.6 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have discussed various components of presentation skills. These include 1) communication dimensions, 2) presentation package, and 3) use of audio- visual aids.

The important elements of communication dimensions namely (a) Purpose (b) Audience (c) Media (d) Message (e) Time (f) Place and (g) Cost are explained.

These elements have a great relevance to a presentation. The various components of presentation package are also mentioned. Under the heading Audio-Visual Aids, we have explained the usefulness of AV aids. Also, suggestions for preparing of AV aids are described in this unit. The unit also explains how to use some AV material.

Presenter's Poise is one of the most important part of presentation. The unit concludes by suggesting as to what should presenter do in putting across his ideas.

## 14.7 SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

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- I. Take any of the following topics, prepare for a presentation of 3 minutes, and deliver it to a group of friends or colleagues. Ask for their reactions to presentations and their suggestions for improvement on
  - a) the focus of the presentation theme,
  - b) the preparation and handling of the audio-visual materials, and
  - c) your presentation confidence and behaviour.

### Suggested Topics

- 1) Introduce yourself to a group of visitors.
  - 2) Introduce a colleague of yours to your club members.
  - 3) Describe your college to a group of your friends.
  - 4) Talk about your parents or any relatives who have influenced you the most to a group of friends.
  - 5) Describe any interesting habits or hobbies of yours to a group of your colleagues.
  - 6) Describe the working of a machine to a group of non-technical people.
  - 7) Give your comments on any significant national or international event to a group of your colleagues
- 
- II. After you have done a few 3-minute presentations and gained confidence, take any recent report of your organization, and make a 30-minute presentation to your colleagues.

## 14.8 FURTHER READINGS

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Gallagher, J. William, "*Report Writing for Management*". Addison-Wesley

Golen, P Steven, "*Report Writing for Business and Industry*" Business Communication Service

Sharma, R.C. and Krishna Mohan, "*Business Correspondence and Report Writing*", Tata McGraw-Hill

Wright, C., "*Report Writing*", Witherby & Co. England.

