

COMMUNICATION SKILLS



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COMMUNICATION SKILLS

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Lesson 1**BASICS OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS****1.1 Introduction**

Communication is a process by which two or more people exchange ideas, opinions, facts, feelings or expressions in a way that each gain a common understanding of the message being communicated. In fact, we cannot imagine life without communication; since it is an in-built function helping us in our day-to-day activities. In this chapter, various aspects of communication have been dealt with, the details of which are given as below:

Communication process is a continuous and life-long process. It is a dynamic, constantly moving, ever-changing and on-going process.

Basic purpose of communication= Creation of MEANING

1.2 Meaning

Meaning exists in the mind of the PEOPLE, but not in the WORDS! In fact, communication vehicles (viz. words, symbols signs) don't have meaning in/of themselves, but people have meaning for them!! Moreover, MEANINGS aren't TRANSMITTABLE in nature!!

1.2.1 Types of meaning

- DENOTATIVE
- STRUCTURAL
- CONTEXTUAL
- CONNOTATIVE

1.2.1.1 Denotative meaning

= Word-Object relationship

= Sign-Object relationship (e.g. +,-,×, ÷, /, (), etc.)

☞ DICTIONARY/DESCRIPTIVE MEANING (exception: Exact meaning of the word

APPLE / MANGO cannot be understood in totality, when English-to-English dictionary will be consulted, unless it's accompanied by the picture!)

1.2.1.2 Structural meaning

(SIGN-SIGN Relationship)

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- * $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{He is 'running'.} \\ \text{'Running' is good for health.} \end{array} \right\}$ Running=VERB
Running=NOUN
- * $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{The boy said, "The girl is a fool."} \\ \text{"The boy," said the girl, "is a fool."} \end{array} \right\}$

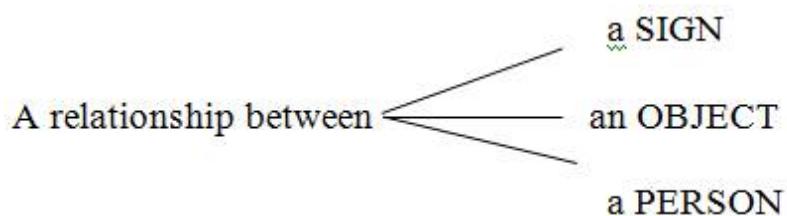
1.2.1.3 Contextual meaning

- e.g. MENTAL ABILITY TEST(S) of BANKS(s).
X Y Z = Mango is fruit.
I E Y = I eat Mango.
Y = Mango

- e.g. Intelligence Reports
 - Used in DECODING
 - (Translating) Ancient Languages

- * Different MEANING in different CONTEXT
 - e.g. (Sanction; Lie; Right; Cook; Labour;
Address ; General ; Bear; Dear; Left; Light; Bat; Pen; Well, etc.)

1.2.1.4 Connotative meaning



- WORDS may have VALUE or Extremely PERSONAL meaning (s), in this case.
- PERSON-oriented in nature (e.g. WORDS like GOOD, BEAUTIFUL, PLEASANT, etc.)
e.g. she is a Beautiful Women! (It's a JUDGEMENT. Judgments are sentences emphasizing this meaning.)
- CONNOTATION is more PERSONAL, and it varies more among PEOPLE!!
e.g. The term “MY MOTHER” has the CONNOTATIVE MEANING based on SUM TOTAL of all of our PREVIOUS EXPERIENCES (with):-

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- (A) Our OWN mothers
- (B) Other PEOPLE'S mothers, and
- (C) All of the situations in which we have used or heard the word MOTHER.

It is, however, impossible for people to agree completely & unanimously on the CONNOTATIVE MEANING of any word/ term!

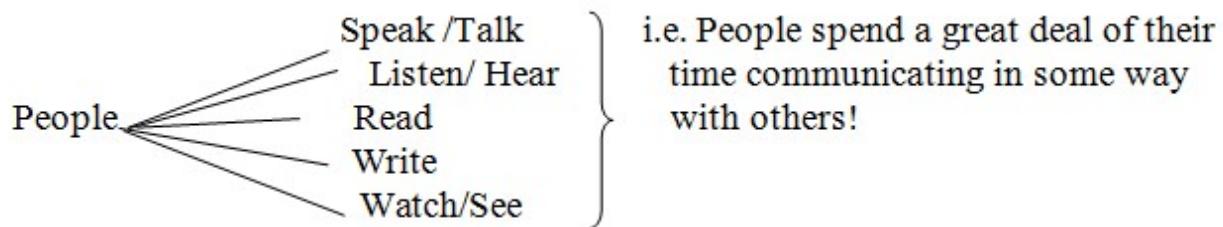
- **Homonyms** (words spelt alike, but pronounced in more than one way): viz. read, lead, minute, tear, etc.
- **Homophones** (words spelt differently, but pronounced alike): viz. piece-peace; lose-loose; write-right-rite; prey-pray; cite-site-sight; etc.

1.3 Purpose(S) of Communication

- To inform (an appeal to MIND); viz. EDUCATION
- To Persuade (an appeal to SOUL/ Emotions); viz. PROPAGANDA
- To Entertain; viz. Entertainment programmes.

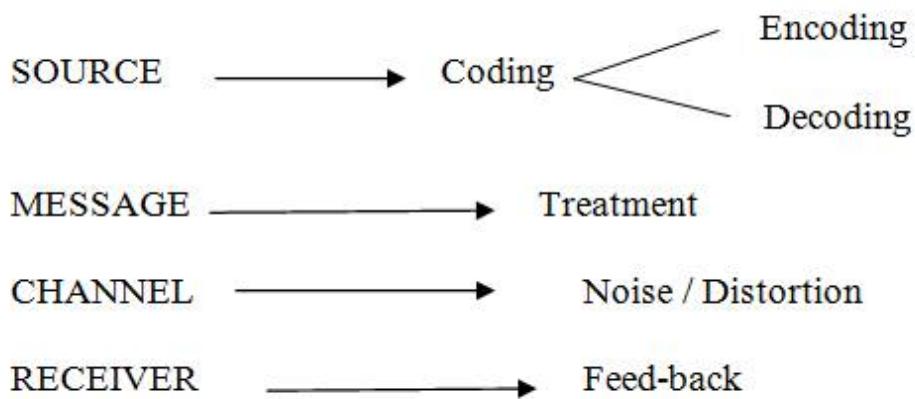
We are constantly trying to understand ourselves & other people (plus, things) around us through communication! Hence, one can realize that how important it is to try to understand as much as possible about the communication process in which one is totally involved now (presently) & will be for the rest of (one's) life!!

1.4 Significance of Communication



1.5 Ingredients of Communication

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1.6 Dimensions of communication

- * WITHIN ONESELF (**INTRA-PERSONAL COMMUNICATION**)
- * ONE-To-ONE COMMUNICATION(**INTER-PERSONAL COMMUNICATION**)
- * ONE-To-FEW COMMUNICATION (**GROUP COMMUNICATION**)
- * ONE-To-MANY COMMUNICATION (**MASS COMMUNICATION**)

1.7 Nature of communication

It's a process.

Dynamic; on-going; ever-changing; continuous act.

(No beginning, end, or fixed sequence of events.)

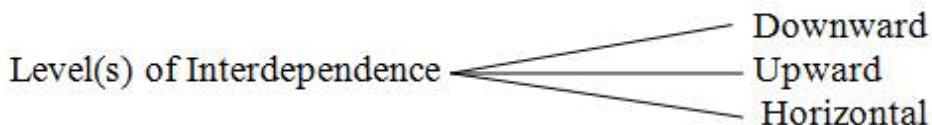
→ One can't really "freeze" COMMUNICATION at any point of time!

It employs many means

It takes place by many means, at many levels, with many people, in many ways, for many reasons.

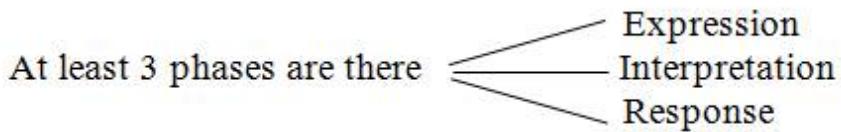
It involves interdependence

It's a two way process, where constant reversal of role(s) is there. (Level of interdependence varies from situation to situation.)



This process comprises of a no. of distinguishable parts

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It takes place ‘within’ participants

Individuals’ capabilities of organization and converting raw sensory data into functionally consumable or processable units of information.

It takes place at many Levels

(Intrapersonal- Communication takes place within an individual;

Interpersonal- Between or among persons;

Intra-organization- Communication takes place within an organization; and

Inter- organization- Communication takes place between or among organizations).

Communication FIDELITY varies from one communication situation to another

Fidelity is the faithful performance of all the element of communication process. Perfect communication is very rare and effectiveness of communication varies with situation.

Lesson 2

TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

2.1 Introduction

Aim of communication is to bring commonality of understanding of meaning between source and receiver. There may be different types and methods of communication to achieve this aim. After going through this chapter, the learners should be able to find out the importance and relevance of different types of communication, as discussed here.

Basically, there happen to be following types of communication taking place in day-to-day life situations:

- *Mass Communication*
- *Inter personal Communication*
- *Group Communication*
- *Organizational Communication*

2.2 Mass Communication

Mass Communication is directed towards a relatively large, heterogeneous and anonymous audience. The specific features of this are:

- The message is addressed “**TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN**” (from Communicator’s point of view);
- **RAPID in Nature:** Since the messages are meant to reach a large audience within a relatively short time, or even simultaneously. It is often timed to reach most audience-members, at the same time;
- **TRANSIENT in Nature (an OLD CONCEPT), especially vis-à-vis LIVE RECORDINGS/COVERAGES:** Since messages are usually intended to be consumed immediately; exception(s):- Cassettes Film/Radio Recording, Photographs, etc. (However, the RECORDED VERSIONS of the concerned messages may be utilized, as and when required!)
- The individual member of the audience generally remains personally unknown to the communicator; moreover, the target-audience may even be physically separated in terms of space;
- Lack of “Direct Interaction” between the source and receiver;
- Only one Source, at one point of time, is disseminating the message;
- Lack of instant feedback from the audience;
- More Coverage of Area is possible ;

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- More (perceived) CREDIBILITY in the eyes of the audience.

2.2.1 Mass Contact Methods

2.2.1.1 *Campaigns*

CAMPAIGN is an intensive teaching activity undertaken at an appropriate time, for a brief period, focusing attention in a concentrated manner on a particular problem, so as to stimulate the widest possible interest in the community. However, it cannot be organized for all kinds of improved practices. To be successful:-

- It must be directed towards the solution of a problem being perceived by majority of the people.
- The problem, under focus, must be important to a large numbers of people; and, it should offer the solution that they can and will accept.
- EMPHASIS on a SINGLE idea, at a time.

2.2.1.2 *Exhibitions*

A systematic display of models, specimens, charts, posters, etc. in a sequence, so as to convey some significant information or idea in an easily understandable way to the onlookers.

2.2.1.3 *Circular Letters*

Specially prepared intimate letters, using a personal approach for a specific message, which are mailed to a large number of farmers either periodically or on special occasions.

2.2.1.4 *Extension Publications*

LEAFLET (a single sheet of printed matter)
FOLDER (a Leaflet when folded)

} provide specific information on
any specific topic.

PAMPHLET (may contain information on a numbers of related topics)

- Farm Radio Programmes/ Broadcasts
- T.V.
- Documentary Film Shows
- Farmers' Fairs/ Kisan Mela

2.3 Interpersonal Communication

In this type of communication, each individual (involved) functions both as a SOURCE as well as RECEIVER of message(s). It may be:

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- Between 2 persons
- Between several persons
- Between Persons to Group Communication (i.e. the PUBLIC SPEAKING)

2.3.1 Types of Interpersonal Communication

2.3.1.1 Personal Localite Sources/ Channels (e.g. family members, relatives, neighbours, local progressive farmers and Interpersonal communication other farmers within the same social setting/ locality)

2.3.1.2 Personal Cosmopolite Sources/ Channels (e.g. Subject Matter Specialists (SMS) working in KVK, University Scientists, Local School teachers, Officials/ Personnel associated with Banks, Co-operative societies, State Agricultural/ Animal Husbandry/ Dairy departments, Non-Governmental Organization (NGO), etc.

2.3.2 Individual Contact Methods

- Farm & Home Visits (i.e. door-to-door type of visit)
- Personal Letters/E-mail/Facsimile(FAX)/Telegram
- Farmers' (individual) call being attended by Ext. worker.
- Telephone: Landline & Mobile
- Advisory/ Consultancy Letters/Services

2.4 Group Communication

It possesses at least 3 characteristics common to Interpersonal Communication, viz:

- Face-to-face in nature.
- Communication is “discontinuous” discourse; i.e. people speak alternately, which means that all the members of the group are both source as well as receiver.
- Probability of “Influence” of one person upon another.

In Group Communication, it is possible for an individual member to determine the needs of the other members of the group and to adapt to them to that effect, more easily!

2.4.1 Group Contact Methods

- Lectures
- Group Discussions / Group Meetings
- Conduct Farm / Field Tours

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- Method Demonstrations
- Result Demonstrations
- Quizzes
- Questionnaire
- Seminar / Symposium / Conference, etc.
- RRA (Rapid Rural Appraisal: A technique to assess the situations prevailing at the field level, wherein a group of Subject Matter Specialists visits the farmers in their field conditions at their village itself for a very brief period of time, in order to get their feedback regarding problems/ constraints existing at the ground level.)
- PRA (Participatory Rural Appraisal: A technique to assess the situations prevailing at the field level, wherein a group of Subject Matter Specialists visits the farmers in their field conditions at their village itself, in order to get their feedback regarding problems/ constraints existing at the ground level, while involving the villagers as stakeholders vis-à-vis finding appropriate solutions in a participatory mode. This method usually takes a longer period of time to accomplish the assigned task.)
- Brain storming (A creative technique, wherein every participant is free to give the wildest of the idea or thought or solution regarding the topic being discussed.)
- Delphi-technique (A flexible forecasting and/ or decision-making technique, wherein the help & co-operation of a group of experienced people is sought out to arrive at any appropriate/ reasonable decision.)

2.5 Organisationl Communication

- Communication is the “life and blood” of any organization, and it occupies a strategic place in development / administration.
- Performance of any Organization (Administration) can be adjudged on the basis of effectiveness and efficiency of its COMMUNICATION system.



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Classification of Organization / Administrative Communication (on the basis of FUNCTION; as given by THAYER, 1961):-

- A) INFORMATIVE COMMUNICATION (e.g. Circular)
- B) INSTRUCTIVE COMMUNICATION (e.g. Memo)
- C) EVALUATIVE COMMUNICATION (e.g. Confidential Report)
- D) PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION (e.g. Explanation)

2.5.1 Communication Behaviour (in organization)

- A well-established communication network in any organization is not a guarantee of effective communication! For instance ,merely organizing frequent conferences and meetings, or sending out so many circulars, reports can't help the people-----rather, their knowledge, attitude and willingness alone can make the communication process 'failed' or 'successful'!!
- People in any organization attach meaning according to their taste & liking in the communicated messages!

And, always remember that a good communicator is a good listener too!

- Informal communication can be a great source for maintaining the health of the administration! e.g. Get-together, Picnic, Social calls, Tea-clubs, etc.
- For effective communication, the common frame of reference between the communicator and the receiver in any organization is an essential condition, viz. In order to communicate with the students, the teachers must bring themselves down to the level of knowledge, understanding and comprehension of the students.(i.e. *sine qua non*)
- A better communicator is one who has respect for the facts, and is willing to share them with people who can make good use of those facts! That means,
 - (i) No communication without CONTENT / FACTS / IDEAS.
 - (ii) FACTS / CONTENT alone can't neutralize one's lack of communication skills.

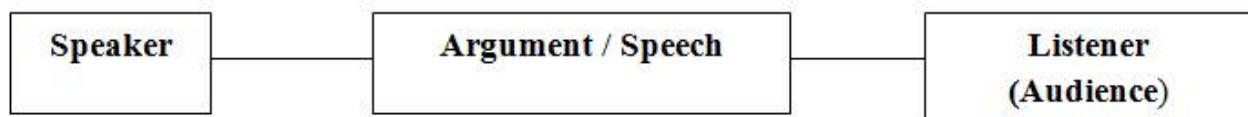
Lesson 3

MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

3.1 Introduction

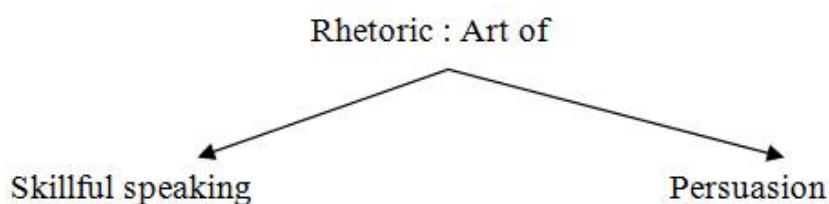
- Models may be used to show the size, shape or relationship of various parts or components of an object or process. A model useful in explaining the working of a system.
- Models are often a useful way to examine the working of a phenomenon, such as: communication, because they minimize, simplify, highlight major facts of a *theory*!
- *MODELS* are symbolic representations of structures, object or operations.
- Models are useful “Theoretical Constructs” that are frequently used in social sciences for explanatory purpose.

3.2 Model given by Aristotle (385-322 B.C.)



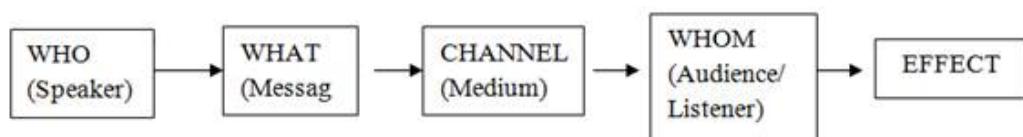
Mention about the importance of COMMUNICATION (SPOKEN WORDS) in the OLD TESTAMENT (of Bible).

COURT-ROOM SPEAKING (i.e. legal public speaking) in GREECE. (Greek citizens also had to be their own lawyers!)



3.3 MODEL given by LASSWELL (1948)

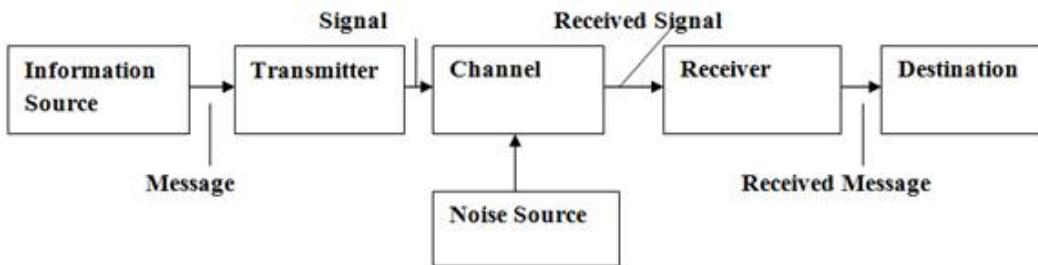
“WHO says WHAT to WHOM in WHAT CHANNEL with WHAT EFFECT?”



3.4 Model given by SHANNON AND WEAVER (1949)

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According to them, “*Nature of the Communication Process*: Communication will be used, here, in a very broad sense to include all the procedures by which one mind may affect another’s. This, of course, involves not only written and oral speech, but also MUSIC, the PICTORIAL ARTS, the THEATRE, the BALLET, and in fact all Human Behaviour”.



3.4.1 NOISE

The label for any distortion that interferes with the transmission of a signal from the source to the destination.

e.g. a) Sound / Static on a RADIO / TELEPHONE

b) Image / Picture distortion on T.V.

c) Rain-soaked pages of a newspaper

The Receiver is a sort of inverse transmitter, changing the transmitted signal back into message, and handing this message on to the destination.

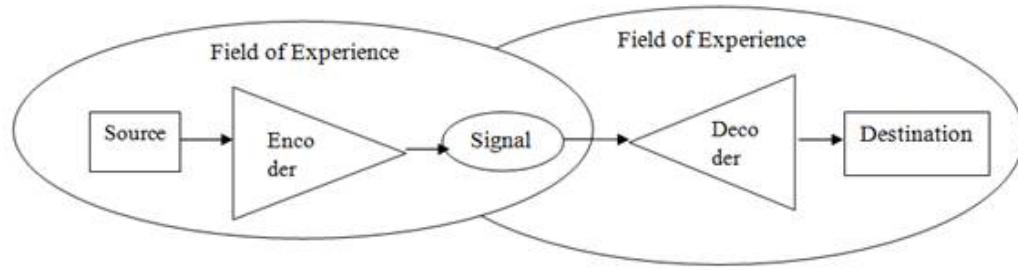
e.g. When I talk to YOU; my brain is the **information source**, your brain is the **destination**; my VOCAL system is the **transmitter**, and your EAR is **receiver**. **Transmitter** changes this **message** into the **signal**, which is actually sent over the **Communication channel** from the **Transmitter** to the **Receiver**.

e.g. (i) Wire (channel)
Verifying ELECTRIC CURRENT in wire (Signal)
TELEPHONE
Set of DEVICE (Transmitter) which changes VOICE, Sound-pressure

(ii) Brain (information source)
Voice-Mechanism (Transmitter)
Varying sound-pressure (signal)
Air (channel) } ORAL SPEECH

3.5 MODEL given by Schramm (1954)

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SOURCE = An individual (speaking / writing/ Drawing/ Gesturing)

= Communication organization (Radio station / T.V. station / Publishing house)

MESSAGE = Ink on paper

- = Sound- waves in the Air
- = Impulses in the electric current
- = A wave of the Hand
- = A Flag in the air

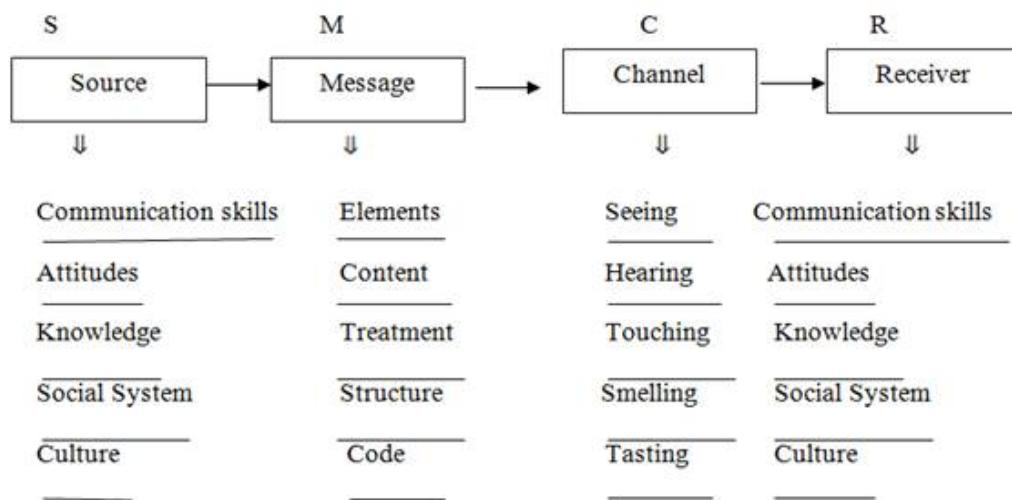
} any Signal capable of being interpreted meaningfully.

DESTINATION= An individual (Listing / Watching /Reading)

= A GROUP (or audience /football crowd)

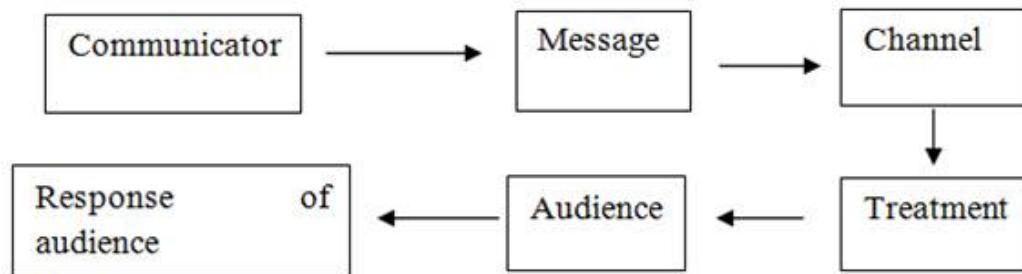
3.6 Berlo's Model (1960)

Basic elements of this model are source, message, channel and receiver. According to this model, sources encode messages and send it through channel and then receiver decodes the message. Thus commonality is achieved between source and receiver.



3.7 LEAGAN'S Model (1963)

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Lesson 4**VERBAL & NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION****4.1 Introduction**

The process of communication has got two dimensions : verbal as well as non-verbal. If we really think and have an introspection, seriously vis-a-vis our day-to-day communication, then we are bound to find that more than three-fourth of our time is consumed in non-verbal communication only. In this section , both these aspects of communication have been discussed.

4.2 Verbal Communication

For knowing the details about verbal communication, the students are advised to refer to Chapter 6 (section 6.1) as well as Chapter 15 (sections 15.1, 15.2 & 15.3).

4.3 Non-verbal Communication

Non-verbal communication refers to:

- GESTURES,
- POSTURES,
- FACIAL EXPRESSIONS,
- SYMBOLIC CLOTHING, and Similar Other Phenomena, like:

- ❖ Everything from FACIAL EXPRESSIONS and GESTURE to FASHION and STATUS SYMBOL,
- ❖ From DANCE and DRAMA to MUSIC and MIME,
- ❖ From FLOW OF AFFECT to FLOW OF TRAFFIC,
- ❖ From the TERRITORIALITY OF ANIMALS to the PROTOCOL OF DIPLOMATS,

4.3.1 Types of Non-verbal Communication

- (a) Facial Expressions (including EMOTIONS, Viz. Happiness, Fear, Sadness, Anger, Contempt and Surprise)

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- (b) Eye behaviour
- (c) Kinesics (study of body movement)

4.3.1.1 Classes of Specified body expressions

(a) Emblems

(e.g. Putting/Pointing an Index Finger to One's Lips)

(b) Illustrations

(e.g. Pointing to someone, while shouting his/her name; Describing the Height/Thickness/Dimensions of Something with the help of Hands, etc.)

(c) Regulators

(viz. GAZES, NODS, RAISED EYE-BROWS, etc.)

(d) Affect displays

("Body-Changes" that convey our Internal Emotional States; e.g. Angry states, Wide-eyed Fear, Trembling Hands, Knocking knees, etc.)

(e) Body manipulators

(e.g. Scratching an Itch; Rubbing the eyes, etc.)

(f) Personal appearance

(g) Clothing

(h) Touching

(i) Proxemics

(*Study of spatial factors, viz. How we react to the SPACE around Us; How we react to the SPACE; and How our use of SPACE; etc. Communicates Certain Information.*)

(i) Spatial ZONES of Interpersonal Communication

(a) Intimate Distance (From Actual Contact to 18")

(b) Personal Distance ($\simeq 1\frac{1}{2}'$ to 4')

(c) Social Distance ($\simeq 4'$ to 12')

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(d) Public Distance (**12' to 25'**)

(ii) Territoriality

The need to call SPACE “OUR SPACE”! (e.g. To put a “Handkerchief” on a seat in order to state out one’s SPACE in a Bus/Train.)

(iii) Seating arrangements

(j) Paralanguage (variations in the voice)

- It’s a LANGUAGE alongside of LANGUAGE.
- It includes VOCAL CHARACTERISTICS, such as, PITCH, RANGE, TEMPO, RESONANCE & QUALITY and various VOCAL SOUNDS, such as, GRUNTS, GROANS & CLEARING OF THE THROAT.

(k) Smell & taste

(l) Environmental factors

(viz. Architecture; Objects; Colours; Time; Music; etc.)

Note :

For a more EXHAUSTIVE CLASSIFICATION of NON-VERBAL SIGNS, four broad Categories can be used:

4.3.1.2 Performance codes

Wherein NON-VERBAL SIGNS emanate from BODILY ACTIONS, viz.

- Facial Expressions
- Eye-Movement
- Gestures
- Body Posture
- Tactile (the Sense of Touch/Contact)
- Olfaction (the sense of SMELL)

A special Sub-Category of PERFORMANCE CODES encompasses PARA-
LINGUISTIC Phenomena, such as:

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- Voice quality
- Sighs
- Yawns
- Laughter
- Grunts, etc.

4.3.1.3 Artifactual codes (Artifact=Artefact)

ARTIFACT is a thing made by people, especially a tool or a weapon of historical interest.

- Manipulation of Dress
- Cosmetics
- Furnishings
- Art objects
- Status symbols
- Architecture, etc.

4.3.1.4 Mediational codes

Where NON-VERBAL SIGNS arise from Selections, Arrangements and Inventions within the MEDIA; e.g.

- An Editor can crop a photograph in various ways(viz. He can select a photo or a drawing; He can choose Black and White or Colored Photograph; etc.)
- A FILM-MAKER can select close-up or Long shot; He can add music or sound effects; He can Re-arrange his shots into a new syntax.

4.3.1.5 Contextual codes

Where NON-VERBAL SIGNS arise in the use of TIME and SPACE COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS, and in the arrangements of COMMUNICATORS and their ARTEFACTS.

Temporal= Relating to the affairs of the world e.g. Politics of this Life; Not spiritual

= Of or relating to TIME

= Of the Temple(s) of the Head e.g. Rang De Basanti (Picture)

Lesson5**BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION****5.1 Introduction**

Anything that prevents understanding of the message is a barrier to communication. Many physical and psychological barriers exist, e.g. culture, background, bias, noise, perception, message, environment, and stress etc. Sender sends the message, which goes through the channel, but it is exposed to above barriers and is then received by the receiver. These barriers muffle the message and it can be overcome through active listening and feedback.

5.2 Concerned with Communicator

- Ineffective Environment, viz. Physical facilities; respect & appreciation of others' views; Rapport-building with audience; etc.
- Disorganised efforts to communicate, (\cong “Planning done” is half-work done!)
- Hotch-potch at the eleventh hour! (e.g. Some specific Norms/values or set of rules/regulations or organized way of communication should exist.)
- Standard of social responsibilities, i.e. one must assume the responsibility for the effect of one's communication on the respondent (as well as the society).
- Knowledge about Social organisation & its Cultural Values, i.e. possessing the attribute of EMPATHY (It is the ability of an individual to put himself in the other peoples' condition).
- Wrong Concept of COMMUNICATION Process, i.e. one's Notion/timing about COMMUNICATION will affect the overall quality.

5.3 Concerned with Transmission of Message

- Wrong handling of the COMMUNICATION Channels(s).
- Wrong selection of the COMMUNICATION Channel(s).
- Physical Distraction or NOISE.
- Use of improper Combination of COMMUNICATION Channels.

5.4 Concerned with Receiver

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- Attention of the Listeners/Audience (towards message)
- Knowledge about the subject-matter or the topic being discussed
- Lack of Co-operation, Participation & Involvement.
- Homogeneity- Heterogeneity
- Lack of comprehension
- “Too large” audience
- Attitude towards Communicator (i.e. Perceived CREDIBILITY)
- Standard of correctness, (selection of appropriate MESSAGE) i.e; use of correct language, appropriate words/symbols/content/facts etc.

5.5 According to Types of Problems

- TECHNICAL (especially during the process of transmission of message from the Source to Receiver; Noise)
- SEMANTIC (i.e. Discrepancy in the interpretation of meaning—between Sender & Receiver)
- INFLUENTIAL (Concerned with effectiveness of the message—particularly in terms of Response received from the receiver.)

5.6 According to Nature of Problems

- PHYSICAL viz. Speech & voice defects, faulty body language(s) (i.e. Gestures & Postures).
- PSYCHOLOGICAL viz. Nervousness, stage- brightness, Perception conceptual problem (about the topic being discussed), attitudinal differences, etc.
- CULTURAL viz. differences between the culture/ religion/ caste & other background of speaker(s) and the audience; etiquettes & manners; Norms/values/beliefs/Customs/Taboo/Mores

Lesson 6

ORAL PRESENTATION SKILLS

6.1 Introduction

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

6.2 Oral Presentation Skills

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

6.2.1 There are some **effective tips** for oral presentation:

6.2.1.1 Make your speech purposive

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

6.2.1.2 Give brief introduction

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

6.2.1.3 Know the audience

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

Communication Skills

6.2.1.4 Be prepared

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

6.2.1.5 Don't read your presentation

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

6.2.1.6 Don't make excuses

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

6.2.1.7 Arouse the interest of the audience

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

6.2.1.8 Maintain eye-contact

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

6.2.1.9 Use of proper gesture, posture and body movement

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

6.2.1.10 Be fluent

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

6.2.1.11 Be positive

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

6.2.1.12 Provide Examples

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

Communication Skills

6.2.1.13 Use visual aids

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

6.2.1.14 Actively involve your audience

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

6.2.1.15 Use repetitions, pauses and variation in voice

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

6.2.1.16 Stop before your audience wants you to stop

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

6.2.1.17 Have a smooth ending

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

Lesson 7

LISTENING AND NOTE-TAKING

7.1 Introduction

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

7.2 The Hearing-Listening Distinction

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

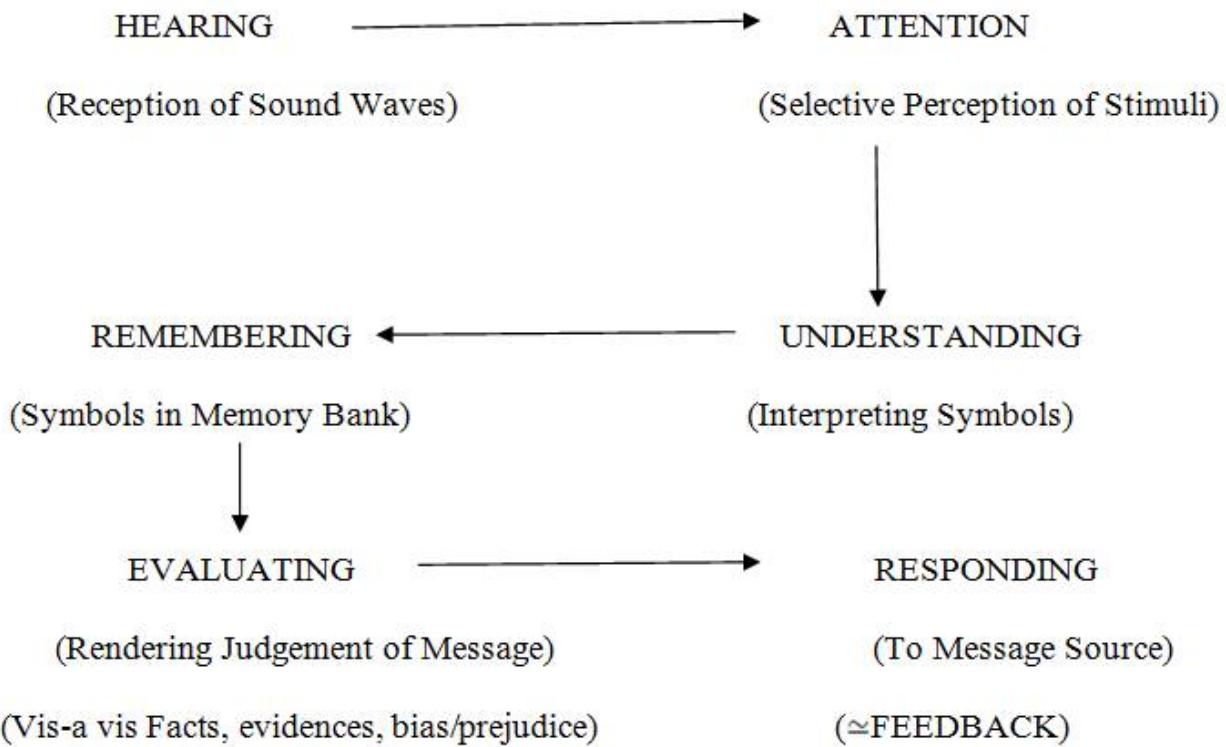
7.3 Types of Listening

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

7.4 Stages of Listening Process

There are six stages of listening given as below:

Communication Skills



7.4.1 Hearing

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

7.4.2 Attention

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

7.4.3 Understanding

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

7.4.4 Remembering

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

7.4.5 Evaluating

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

Communication Skills

7.4.6 Responding

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

7.5 (A) Factors Affecting Listening

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

7.6 (A) Tips for Effective Listening

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

7 (B) NOTE-TAKING

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

7.1 (B) General Guidelines

Communication Skills

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

7.2 (B) Methods of Note-Taking

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

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

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

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

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

7.3 (B) Note-Taking Tips for Students:

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

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

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

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

Communication Skills

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Lesson 8

WRITING SKILLS

8.1 Introduction

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

8.2 Characteristics of Good Writing

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

8.3 Writing of Field-Diary and Laboratory Records

8.3.1 Field-Diary

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

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

8.3.1.1 A standard field-diary

The standard field-diary consists of three components:

Communication Skills

a) *Diary*

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

b) *Species accounts*

“Species accounts” are organized, so that:

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

Catalogue

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

8.3.1.2 Equipment

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

8.3.2 Laboratory Records

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

8.4 General Guidelines for Keeping Lab-records & Notebooks

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

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

8.5 Some Tips for Electronic Notebooks

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

Lesson 9**TECHNICAL WRITING****9.1 Introduction**

Technical Writing/Reporting is a specialized branch of the field of communication. Technical Writing is used in all fields of science, technology, agriculture, engineering and social sciences. Any branch of knowledge requiring a systematic study involves the use of scientific and technical writing for the purpose of recording and reporting information. It is an art of recording information on specialized fields accurately and effectively and passing it on to those who have to use and process it. Technical writing uses structure, rather than the physical presence of the writer, to achieve clarity. It has to be clear, simple and well ordered communication to transmit the facts and findings.

9.2 Importance and Scope of Technical Reporting**9.2.1 Students**

The typical undergraduate students regard the writing of reports as a dull and superfluous chore. Consequently, they have little desire for instruction in technical writing. One of the main reasons for this state of affairs is that the undergraduates—particularly in their earlier years—seem to have very little to say. As they progress through college and to graduate school or industry, they develop a body of knowledge. At some time in their career, they acquire some information or some idea that they want to pass on to others. This is when they need to acquire skills in technical reporting.

9.2.2 Big organizations

The complexity of an organization increases exponentially with its size and soon there is the need for written records and communications. Only through a full exchange of information can the various divisions of large organization co-ordinate their efforts effectively.

9.2.3 Small organizations

But even a small organization has a vital need for accurate technical reporting. How was a special part fabricated last year? How was a test performed? What are the precautions to be observed with seldom used instrument? Written records furnish authoritative answers to many questions as these, and increase the efficiency of organization that maintains vigorous reporting procedure.

9.2.4 Scientific organizations

In many of the scientific organizations, particularly those doing experimental work or research, the young employee's chief communication with his superiors is through his written (or oral) reports. Often the superior has no other criterion by which to judge an employee's work. Moreover, these scientific organizations do nothing but investigation, testing, experimentation, or research. Their only tangible product is the report. If they are to have anything to show for their efforts, they must do thorough job of reporting.

Many industrial and research organizations nowadays place so much value on high quality reports that they maintain separate editorial departments to write technical report or to edit and polish them. Reports have achieved a recognized position of importance in our technological world.

9.3 Functions of Technical Writing

Technical Reporting is different from creative writing because it deals with scientific facts and does not present an imaginary view of reality. Scientific and Technical Writing is objective in content and systematic in form. It is always precise, exact, and to the point so that it may have the desired effect on the reader and lead to the required action.

9.3.1 Education and research

Journals publish technical material on specialized fields and are circulated amongst the scientists and scholars. All these writings must conform to the rules of scientific and technical reporting so that they are properly understood and appreciated. All types of articles such as Technical Articles; Semi-technical Articles; Popular Articles; Research Papers and Dissertations ,Theses and Technical Bulletins are covered under the ambit of Technical Writing.

9.3.2 Industry/Service sector

The written word is very important at every stage of Industrial development. Industrial reports are must for spread of latest advances in the vast field of Industry. They provide guidance to Industrial concerns and keep us abreast of the Information about the products coming out of the Industrial unit. Service manuals and guidance manuals are efficient tools to provide specifications to the users. Technical Reports include all kinds of reports such as Form Reports on a given proforma; Article Reports, Formal Reports such as Annual Reports, Quarterly Reports; Manuals and Formal Correspondence such as letters, memoranda etc

9.4 Format and Structure of Technical Reporting

The nature of the subject, the purpose of the scientific report and the reader for whom the report is written determine the form and structure of the report. Every written communication has a specific purpose and a specific audience. It should be carefully planned and constructed to fit both.

Every scientific and technical communication has one certain clear purpose: to convey information and ideas accurately and efficiently. The objective requires that the communication be: (1) as clear as possible; (2) as brief as possible; and (3) as easy to understood as possible.

Any communication, if it is to be effective and efficient, must be designed for the needs and the understanding of a specific reader or group of readers. One must, therefore, have adequate knowledge of the educational and professional background of the readers. The language and style of the report depends, to a great extent, on the academic and professional background of its readers. We need to have an idea of what the reader expects from the report and his level of understanding. A reader who is unfamiliar with the subject may find the level of the reporting too high. On the other hand, attempting to explain every basic concept and obvious technical terms to the reader who is already familiar with subject will make the report unnecessarily tedious and boring. Writing should be aimed at the average reader, but should also cater to those at either extreme of the range. It should interest the more knowledgeable reader and be intelligible to the reader who is less familiar with the subject.

9.4.1 The contents

Communication Skills

The subject of the report primarily determines the nature of the contents. Report writing is meaningless when the writer is not clear about the subject of his report. However, the detailed aspects of the contents are determined by the purpose for which the report is written. Basic questions (5 Ws i. e. What, Why, Who, Where, When, and How) need to be answered satisfactorily before one sets out to write the report. The answers depend on the usefulness of the information to the reader and his interest in the subject, the details of the work carried out, and the recommendations and suggestions one intends making and their implications.

9.4.2 A framework for the parts

Any form of scientific writing always begins with the general statement about its nature and scope. It should give background information, define the nature and extent of the problem, explain the objectives and highlight the need for present investigation.

9.4.3 Emphasis of the significant

The most common fault found in most of the scientific reports is the burial of the really important and significant ideas under a mass of details. One must make a conscious, planned effort to keep one's key ideas uncovered.

9.4.4 Prominent position

Perhaps the most fundamental way of making an idea stand out is to put it in a prominent position. The most prominent position in any report or paper is the very beginning. Even though one has not yet led up it logically; one can often put across one's major thesis most effectively by stating it right at the start and later supplying support for it. A secondary prominent position is the end, particularly in a short communication.

9.4.5 Elimination of detail

One sure way to stress important information is to remove unessential material. On the other hand, you may need to include a lot of details for record purposes. If you do, you can usually put them into an appendix leaving your main discourse uncluttered.

9.4.6 Liberal use of subheads

Subheads make the structure of the exposition apparent. They help to supply the reader with the frame work on which to fasten the parts. Subheads serve as convenient and efficient signposts. They let the reader know that he has reached the end of one subject and is about to begin a new one. When one is studying a long or complicated exposition, the reader may have to go back and reread in order to refresh his memory. He can find the material he is looking for very much more easily if he is supplied with subheads.

9.4.7 Repetition

Psychologists tell us that children learn by repeated experience. The same process works on even the sophisticated and highly educated scientists. If you want to be sure that an idea does not fade into the background, repeat it. Say it over and over. If you can say it in a different way each time, the repetition will be subtle and therefore, palatable; but don't shy away from the even bald, frank repetition, if your point is important enough to warrant it.

9.4.8 Visual aids and tables

Visual aids-graphs, curves, drawings, diagrams, photographs often present information in a striking and efficient manner. They can be used to reinforce and emphasize key ideas.

9.4.9 Typography

Capital letters, larger type size, boldface and italics are all effective means of emphasis, if not overused.

9.4.10 Specific Mention

It is all right to be explicit and say "This is a particularly important point," or "This is an important part of the report". Such statements may be made along with the material they refer to, or they may be made separately in a letter of transmittal or preface.

9.5 Organisation of Scientific Reporting and Writing

Communication Skills

There is no precise formula for the organization of scientific reports. The material in any report should be presented in an order that leads logically towards a conclusion or conclusions. The various sections of the report are organized so that each of them has its logical conclusions.

Almost every scientific communication should have three functional elements. This does not mean that it should be divided by boundaries into three distinct parts. But functionally it should have a beginning, middle and an end.

The beginning orients the reader and supplies him with background material, so that he will see how the subject of the paper fits into the general scheme of things. It prepares the reader for the main presentation of information-the middle. The beginning is often called Introduction, which states the purpose of the investigation and describes the basic scheme of the procedure or methods used. It orients the reader by supplying as much historical background as necessary and then describing the present problem. It may define the scope of the study, discussing limitations or qualifications.

The middle is usually the longest part of the report. It can be organized in many different ways:

- It tells what you did. (Description)
- It tells what you found out. (Results)
- It analyzes, interprets and discusses these results. (Discussion)

The end is sometimes labeled conclusions. It brings together the various subjects that have been discussed and shows their relationships with each other and with broader fields. It leaves the reader with some thoughts about one phase of it. This end section makes the exposition come to a logical and an obvious termination.

It is commonly believed that in order to be objective, the scientific report must present only facts, never opinion. However, engineers and scientists are employed not only to discover facts but also to draw inferences from those facts and to make decisions based on them. Therefore, the scientific report must often present the judgment and opinions of its writer or his organization. But the opinion should be impartial and based as soundly as possible on demonstrated facts.

Lesson 10

FORMS OF SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL WRITING

10.1 Introduction

Any branch of knowledge requiring a systematic study involves the use of scientific and technical writing for the purpose of recording and reporting information. Technical writing is used in all fields of science, technology, agriculture, engineering, social sciences, and even the humanities. Therefore, many forms of written communications fall within its range.

Scientific and technical writing may take the form of reports, articles, papers, dissertations and theses, manuals, and correspondence. Mechanics of style and techniques of technical writing are applied in all types of scientific and technical writing. Several forms of scientific and technical writing are as follows:

10.2 Reports

A scientific and technical report may follow a pattern according to its purpose and scope. The most important types of scientific and technical reports are form reports, article reports, and formal reports such as research papers, dissertations and theses.

Form reports are made on given proformas designed especially by an organization according to its specific requirements. The report writer has to fill in the columns and give the required facts under different heads. It is a true statement of facts, figure, or data, which form the basis for the evaluation of work in an institution or organization. Such reports are quite common in the fields of technical education, industry, and scientific research.

Article reports take the shape of technical articles. The use of headings and sub-headings, tables and figures, charts and graphs, etc. is made for effective communication of facts and findings. Related information may also be given in appendices, if it cannot be integrated into the text of the report.

Formal reports involve big institutions, scientific organizations, and technical establishments. Annual reports of institutions, formal reports of committees, commissions, public and private enterprises fall under this category. A formal report

takes the shape of a book and is divided into many chapter and sections. The writing of this report requires a sound selection of facts and careful organization of subject matter.

10.3 Articles

Scientific and technical writing often takes the shape of articles of varying length and specific format. Such articles may communicate knowledge on a particular subject for preservation and dissemination of ideas. These articles may be subdivided into three categories-technical, semi-technical, and popular.

Technical articles contain highly specialized information and involve the use of technical vocabulary and scientific abbreviations, which are understood by experts belonging to a particular discipline. These are published in specialized journals.

The scope of semi-technical articles is much broader as they can also be understood and used by people working in similar disciplines. The use of technical vocabulary and abbreviations is, therefore, reduced to the minimum. These articles are also published in scientific journals but they have wider readership.

Popular articles on scientific and technological subjects are meant for the educated people who are not specialists. The use of technical vocabulary and abbreviations is, therefore, avoided. The emphasis is on easy and interesting communication of information and not on complicated details. These articles are published in periodicals and journals of common interest and are widely read.

10.4 Scientific/Research Papers

Scientific/Research papers are written and published reports describing original research results. A scientific experiment, no matter how spectacular the result, is not complete, until the results are published. In fact, the cornerstone of the philosophy of science is based on fundamental assumption that original research must be published. Only this way, new scientific knowledge be authenticated and then added to the existing data base that we call science. Research papers are instrumental in cross-fertilization of ideas in the fields of science, agriculture, and technology. These papers are published separately or included in journals of research brought out by universities and other educational institutions. The techniques of scientific and technical writing are strictly observed in research papers.

A scientific paper is primarily an exercise in organization. A scientific paper is, or should be, highly stylized, with distinctive and clearly evident components parts. Each scientific paper should have, in proper order, its Introduction, Materials and Methods, Results and Discussion. “Good organization is the key to good writing”. However, there have been several somewhat different systems of organization that is preferred by some journals and some editors. The tendency towards uniformity is increasing nowadays; the same order is being followed.

10.5 Dissertations and Theses

Dissertations are like research papers, but they are wider in scope and longer in size. A dissertation is based on a student’s research on a particular subject. Like research paper, it must conform to specific format requirement and should strictly follow the rules of scientific and technical writing. A thesis is also based on the research work of a student or a scholar. It often refers to the outstanding research work done by scientists in various disciplines. While the term “dissertation” is modest in connotation, the term “thesis” is high sounding; the former should, therefore, be preferred while referring to the research work done by a student at the master’s or doctoral level.

10.6 Manuals

It is a functional form of scientific and technical writing, which aims at attracting the user’s attention and providing him with easy and accurate information and guidance about methodology, experiments, a machine or a product. Information brochures, instruction books, guidance manuals and style manuals contain useful information for the users. All these publications require skill in scientific and technical writing. Manuals should, therefore, be written with great care to have the desired effect. The success of these manuals, to a great extent, depends on the effectiveness of the information provided in these booklets. Many industrial establishments engage experts to do this job.

10.7 Scientific Correspondence

Scientific communication may be in the form of correspondence between two different organizations or within the same organization for vertical and horizontal flow of scientific information. Both letters and memoranda are the two useful tools

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for scientific and technical communication. They help in recording technical information, making and seeking recommendations on scientific and technical matters, providing clarifications, co-ordinating projects, initiating action, and meeting many other requirements of different institutions. All these forms of scientific and technical writing are used by students, scientists, scholars, administrators, and industrialists according to their specific needs.

Lesson 11

FEATURES AND STYLE OF TECHNICAL AND SCIENTIFIC WRITING

11.1 Introduction

Successful communication depends upon the correct use of language and a good style of writing. One may learn the correct use of language, but has to cultivate a good style of writing. The former concerns grammar, usage, spelling, capitalizations and punctuation, the latter concerns the organization of ideas through proper choice of words, arrangement of words into sentences, grouping of sentences into paragraphs, sections and chapters. The use of abbreviations, approach to the reader, idiom, use of visual aids, the format and layout of the report are all aspects of style.

11.2 Brevity, Clarity and Objectivity

Scientific and technical writing is different from literary writing in a number of ways. Primarily, the aim of technical writing is to inform rather than to entertain. Hence, the style of writing adopted is generally simple and concise. The primary objective of Technical Writing is to transmit information briefly, clearly and efficiently. Hence, Scientific and technical writing is objective in content and systematic in form. It is always precise, exact, and to the point so that it may have the desired effect on the reader and lead to the required action. Every written communication has a specific purpose and a specific audience. It should be carefully planned and constructed to fit both.

11.3 Use of Simple Language

The primary objective of Technical Writing is to transmit information briefly, clearly and efficiently. This can be achieved only through simple, direct and unadorned style. The first step towards a simple and clear style is to use simple language. One must choose a short word rather than a long word, a plain and familiar word rather than a fancy or unusual word and a concrete word rather than an abstract word.

11.4 Choice of words

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The first and foremost objective of the technical report is to enable the readers grasp its meaning quickly and accurately. This is possible only through proper choice of words, which can enhance the readability and clarity of the message. To achieve this objective, use of simple, plain and short words is recommended in technical writing.

a) The agreement was effected.



The agreement was made.

b) We expect to commence work on this project immediately.



We expect to start work on this project immediately.

11.4.1 The plain word or familiar word

- Everybody working near these tubes should be cognizant of the danger of explosion.



- Everybody working near these tubes should be aware of the danger of explosion.

11.4.2 The Concrete word

Concrete nouns name objects or things that can be perceived by the senses. Abstract nouns name qualities, ideas or conditions that are conceptions of mind. Abstract nouns tend to be general and vague. As a result, expressions that contain abstract nouns are less forceful, less direct, less exact than their concrete counterparts.

- There is adequate access to the job for men and materials.



Men and materials can reach the job easily.

- Production engineers have found direct control of this operation to be a necessity.



Production engineers have found that this operation must be directly controlled.

11.5 Avoid Verbosity (Wordiness)

For simple, clear style, eliminate from your writing every word that does not contribute to the meaning or clarity of your message. Long-winded phrases should be avoided. Don't use words that add nothing. Don't write "because of the fact that", if simple "because" will suffice. On the other hand, don't eliminate so many words that your writing reads like a telegram. If a word adds anything worthwhile to your sentence in terms of meaning, grace rhythm, emphasis - let it remain. Remove it if you don't miss any of these.

- It is very correct that there are three unfilled vacancies in the directorate of the company. (Omit)
- The work schedule in regard to the plant was drafted two months ago. (for)
- The wages vary in relation to the age and experience of the employee. (with)
- Owing to the fact that the wages were low, highly skilled workers left the country. (Because)
- It should be noted that the factory will be closed on 31st May. (Omit)
- It is considered that the entire exercise appears to be a waste of time. (Omit)

11.6 Discreet Use of Jargons

Jargon encompasses all technical terms. Such terminology is useful and often necessary in technical communication restricted to people working on the same or similar subjects. Technical terms become jargon only when carelessly used for wider audience. Jargon is a special language of a particular field or profession. We can't expect lawyers to say *habeas corpus* in English just because the rest of us don't understand. The Jargon of any given field is often the most efficient means of

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communication within that field. It becomes offensive when handy English equivalents are available or people outside the field are expected to understand, what is said.

11.7 Avoid Colloquial Diction

Colloquial diction is a language that reads like spoken English. In some contexts, colloquial diction is perfectly appropriate. This is mostly used in fiction as conversational lines for the characters and is considered as a private style. In Public style or scientific reporting - Colloquial diction is not desirable. e.g. The president was apparently unaware of his appointment with this real important guy in Moscow.

11.8 Avoid Cliché

A cliché is a trite (stale or stereotyped), overused expression or combination of words. It is usually a tricky phrase that was fresh and vigorous when it was first coined because it involved a certain surprise element. But when such a phrase is used over and over again, it becomes so familiar that it loses all impact. Like an overplayed phonograph, it is hardly even heard.

e.g. I was stopped dead in my tracks.

The ship of state is in troubled waters.

Education is what we're all about.

Quality says it all.

11.9 Use of the Passive Voice

In the passive voice, the subject is the receiver of an action rather than the doer of it. Passive voice is employed by writers when they want to evade or conceal the responsibility for someone's behaviour.

e.g. I regret to inform you that your application has been rejected.

As the passive voice is sometimes vague and less economical than the active voice, good writers tend to avoid it except when it is genuinely useful. The passive voice may be preferable, for example, when the real doer of an action is either unknown or, in the context of a discussion, relatively important.

11.10 Use of Subordination

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A common failing of technical writers is the expression of ideas of unequal importance in constructions that seem to give equal weight. Meaning can be grasped more quickly and more easily if subordinate ideas are indicated and put in subordinating constructions. A sentence should express the main thought in a principal clause. Less important thoughts should be expressed in subordinate clauses.

This machine has been imported from Japan and it is easy to operate.

- ✓ This machine, which has been imported from Japan, is easy to operate.

Lesson 12

MECHANICS OF STYLE; FOOTNOTES; BIBLIOGRAPHIC PROCEDURES

12.1 Introduction

‘Mechanics of Style’ includes use of abbreviations, capitalization, punctuation and symbols is generally known as. ‘Mechanics of Style’ is equally important and has a bearing on the clarity of the writing. Besides the lesson contains some of the key points related to Footnotes, Bibliographic Procedures and Précis writing.

12.2 Abbreviations and Symbols

Abbreviations and symbols used in scientific writing generally contribute to economy of words and clarity. Abbreviations are curtailed versions of words. Symbols need not always bear a direct relationship to the words (phrases) that they present.

Symbols may be used to represent quantities, units of measurement, mathematical operations, and objects and their components. Symbols of units are generally standardized within each system of measurement. The International System of Units (SI), has as standard set of units and symbols, which are used by and large in all the countries that have adopted the metric system of measurement.

There are no absolute rules about abbreviations. However, there are certain guidelines that you may follow in abbreviating names and technical terms.

In British English, the general rule about abbreviating words is that an abbreviation should be suggestive of the source word.

A period is not used at the end of the abbreviated form of the word if the abbreviation includes the last letter of the word; a period is used if the abbreviation does not contain the last letter. e.g.

- Chem. for Chemistry or Chemical
- Memo. For Memorandum
- Mx for Middlesex
- dept. for department

Exceptions: log (for logarithm) Mr. (for Mister)

12.2.1 Acronyms

In names consisting of several words, the abbreviation is generally formed with the first letter of the key words, each followed by a period. The capital letters in the name to be abbreviated are retained in the abbreviation. In certain abbreviations like SAARC, which can be pronounced like a single word, the periods may be omitted. Such abbreviations are called acronyms. Some of them, after prolonged use, are treated like common words, as Unesco etc.

12.2.2 Technical Acronyms

They may be written in all capital letters (DDT, DNA) or in lower case (laser, radar) while some may have only the initial letter in capital (Fortran, Cobol).

- Some names consisting of several words are abbreviated by selecting more than one letter from each key word, and the first letter of prepositions and articles, where necessary.
 - Such abbreviations can generally be pronounced like a single word e.g. Comintern (for Communist International)
Benelux (for Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg)
- In abbreviating units of measurement consisting of more than one word, the standard practice is to retain the period after each word unless the name refers to the product or combination of the units represented by the individual words. e.g. e. m. f. (electromotive force), r. m. s. (root mean square), sp. gr. (specific gravity)
- Don't use abbreviations in your sentences unless the whole word or phrase is repeated several times within a short passage or you see a definite advantage in using the abbreviation.
- If your reader is not likely to be familiar with an abbreviation, define it the first time it occurs in your writing.
- If you are using numerals in your writing, the names of the accompanying units should properly be abbreviated; if the numbers are expressed in words, don't abbreviate the names of the units. e.g. 15 A fuse; fifteen ampere fuse
- Abbreviated names of units are preferred in all tabulated information and numerical data accompanying illustrations.

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- Abbreviations are mostly used, in preference to the full form, in footnotes, tables and bibliographies.
- These are used in text only in exceptional cases.
- Abbreviations for words are written without intervening space, and the general tendency is now to eliminate the full stop not only between the letters forming an abbreviation, but also at the end.
- The abbreviations, except for those desired from proper names, are written in lower case, in roman with no end, or middle full stops.
- And except for the units of currencies, they are always placed at the end of the figures.
- The standard abbreviations for the common metric units are as follows:

Table 12.1 Technical acronym

Units	Symbols	Units	Symbols
milimetre	mm	miligram	mg
centimetre	cm	gram	g
metre	m	kilogram	kg
kilometre	km	quintal	q
Square metre	m^2	hour	h
Cubic metre	m^3	minute	min
second	s	hour	h

12.3 Footnotes

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

12.3.1 Reference footnotes

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

12.3.2 Explanatory footnotes

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

12.4 Indexing and Bibliographic Procedures

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

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

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

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

12.5 Format for Citing a Reference Book

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

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

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

12.6 Format for Citing a Reference Article in a Scholarly Journal

1. Author's name
2. Title of the article
3. Title of the journal
4. Volume number (and issue number, if needed)

5. Year of publication
6. Inclusive page numbers of the article (i.e. the number of the page on which the article begins, a hyphen, and the number of the page on which the article ends)

Example: Vartanov, Anri. "Television as Spectacle and Myth." *Journal of Communication* 41.2 (1991):162-71.

12.7 Format for Citing a Reference Newspaper or Magazine Article

1. Author's name
2. Title of the article
3. Title of the periodical
4. Date of publication
5. Inclusive page numbers of the article or the initial page number followed by a plus sign, as appropriate.

Example: Shea, Christopher. "The Limits of Free Speech." *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 1 Dec. 1993: A37-38.

Feder, Barnaby J. "For Job Seekers, a Toll -Free Gift of Expert Advice." *New York Times*, 30 Dec. 1993, late ed.: D1+.

- For a book, check the author's name, title, subtitle (if any), edition (if relevant), editor or translator (if there is one), volume number and number of volumes, series name (if the book is part of a series), city of publications, publisher, and year of publication. (This information normally appears on the title and copyright pages of the book).
- For an article in a periodical, check the author's name, title of the article, title of the periodical, date of publication, and, as appropriate, inclusive page numbers or initial page number. If the periodical is a scholarly journal, check the volume number (and, if needed, issue number) as well, (Volume numbers and dates of publication normally appear on the title page of journals).
- Eventually, you will transform your working bibliography into a works cited list.

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- The working bibliography functions as an efficient tool for finding and acquiring information and ideas and, on the other, provides all the data we need for the list of works cited.

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

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

13.2 Précis Writing

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

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

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

13.1.1 Method or procedure

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

13.1.2 Final draft

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

13.3 Abstract Writing

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

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

13.4 Abstract and Summary

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

13.5 Extract, Summary

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

13.6 Synoptic

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

Lesson 14**CURRICULUM VITAE/RESUME WRITING****14.1 Introduction**

Curriculum Vitae (CV) is a written summary of one's educational and professional experience. It is a thorough list of all of one's academic achievements and its content can vary from discipline to discipline. It is usually used for applications for academic or research positions; departmental or tenure reviews; leadership positions for professional associations; publishing; editorial review boards; consulting; grant proposals and fellowships. CV contains the summary of postdoctoral experience, research and teaching experience, publications, academic service, grants, etc. In the world of academia, a strong CV may open the door towards a tenured position.

Resume is generally used outside the academia and research-oriented positions. It is typically one to two pages in length and targeted to the specific position, employer, and/or industry. Webster's defines resume as a **summary** or **a set of accomplishments**. The résumé is a marketing piece, an advertisement for one's unique set of skills, abilities and experience. This is a "ticket" to an interview and is different for the college graduate versus someone with years of experience.

Research shows in India that only one interview is granted for every 200 (applications) resumes received by the average employer. It is equally true that the resume is quickly scanned, rather than read. The prospective employer doesn't spend more than 10-20 seconds to find some merit in getting to the details of the resume. What this means is that the decision to interview a candidate is usually based on an overall first impression of the resume.

14.2 Writing an Effective Resume

Having a well written, effective resume at one's disposal is an excellent tool in today's ever changing job market. A strong resume may be the sole difference in getting a call for an interview or simply having your resume tossed into the proposed employer's waste paper pile. Simply put, an effective resume may win you a job interview. At the same time, it enables you to assess your strengths, skills, abilities and experience - thereby preparing you for the interview process. It also

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acts as a reminder of you to the employer/interviewer after you're done interviewing and is a basis for the interviewer to justify your hiring.

As the resume is a living, breathing document, it should adjust to the position for which it is used. No one standard resume could be used to apply to unrelated positions. It entails targeting the text through proper selection and description of experiences.

14.3 Sections to Include

While no two resumes will look the same, there are certain commonalities in all good resumes. Almost every resume should include the following headings or sections: objective, education, work experience, skills summary and additional/ optional information on accomplishments/achievements; affiliations/memberships; activities and honors etc.

- Contact Information
- Objective
- Education
- Experience
- Skills Summary
- Additional/ Optional Categories

14.3.1 Objective

An objective is like the thesis statement of your resume. Everything you include after it should support it. It tells the reader why you are sending the resume, i.e., what position or type of position you are seeking. It should be very brief, to the point, ideally stated in one sentence.

- Use the objective to tell what you can do for the company, NOT what you want the company to do for you... no statements like: to gain valuable experience, etc.
- Don't use fluffy phrases that don't mean anything such as "Allowing the ability to enhance potential and utilize experience in new challenges".

14.3.1.1 Powerful objective

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Be sure the **objective** is to the point. As someone with an extensive background in pharmaceutical sales, my objective is to obtain a sales management position which would allow me to share my sales experiences and train the next generation of top pharmaceutical salesmen.

Please note that the objective is to be ideally stated in one sentence. In short, try to catch the employer's attention in one sentence in the objective section. If you need an additional sentence, then feel free to use one; but remember, you are trying to grab an employer's attention with a short, crisply written message.

14.3.2 Education/work experience

For college students just entering the job world, one must list the “**Education**” section directly after stating the objective. Stress your high marks here, if you have them. Also, be sure to include your extra-curricular involvement in clubs, sports teams, and such similar campus organizations. Make certain you include your part-time and summer employment you had during your college years. It will impress the employers if you worked to pay your way through college.

If you have been out in the job world for some time, include your “**Work Experience**” section immediately after the objective. At this point, your job experiences are usually much more important to an employer than what your college grades were. You can list your “Education” background thereafter.

Make use of your “**Reference**” section. In the “Reference” section, many job seekers put, “references available upon request”. It’s preferable to list the names of two or three people here. Listing references shows that you have nothing to hide. However, make certain that you inform your references that job employers may be contacting them. If not, your prospective employer will not be impressed when he contacts your references and it takes two minutes before your reference is able to understand what the telephone call is about.

14.4 Organization

You can organize your resume in many different ways, but the following order is the most common.

- *Objective – state what kind of job or internship you are looking for.*
- *Experience – describe your job history.*

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- *Education – just list your high school unless you have taken college courses on the side.*
- *Other Skills/Information – this is where you list your computer or language skills and any associations or memberships to which you have belonged.*

(Note: *Knowledge of computers will most likely be a requirement for just about any job. List any and all experience you have with naming the actual program names you are familiar with (Word, Excel, Power point, Photoshop etc. Likewise, Other languages: The world is getting smaller and smaller, especially in the job market. Knowing a second or third language can put you at an advantage in qualifying for a job and will certainly separate you from other candidates.)*

Differences in formatting (bullets, border lines headings etc), fonts, font styles and sizes will catch the eye and draw attention to most important information.

14.5 General Template of Curriculum Vitae/Resume Writing

Focus on Relevant Information

A lot of students think a generalized resume describing everything they have ever done is great way to get any kind of job or internship. Not true. The first rule of thumb for resume writing is to *only include information that is useful to the job you are applying for.*

What is a Resume Template?

Example

Your Full Name
Street Address
City State and Zip code
Phone Number and Email Address

Career objective

What you want to do that will add value to your employer.

Work experience

Job title and Company Name
Duration of employment
Achievements during this period

Educational qualifications

Course and Name of Institution last attended

City and Year of Completion

Achievements during this period

Activities/Interests

Community service, hobbies, interests etc. For example: Travel

Other skills

Mention languages known, computer proficiency or other special useful skills.

References Mention only if required by employer.

14.6 Do's and Don'ts of Resumes

- Do tailor the resume to the given position.
- Do choose language that reflects the industry.
- Do treat your resume as a sales brochure.
- Don't list false information.
- Don't write in paragraph form. Use bullets.
- Don't list irrelevant information.

14.7 Some Tips

14.7.1 Action words

Be sure to describe your roles and accomplishments with strong action words and terms that will pop out at employers, usually ones that signify leadership and team you've had. These include words such as: ***team work/player, multi-tasking executed, organized, performed, maintained, supervised, managed, developed, and implemented.***

14.7.2 Writing style

The wording of your resume is just as important as the look. You may have to write several rough drafts to come up with one that will really shine. Here are a few writing style rules to keep in mind:

- Use matching verb tenses.

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- Keep all descriptions short. Descriptions should generally take up no more than one to four lines on the page.
- Full sentences are not necessary, but be consistent with punctuation.

14.8 Words to Avoid in Your Resume

14.8.1 Abbreviations and acronyms

AFFCA, CHIGFEET, FIPL, MRSRM, ZWE: Looks like a fresh game of Scrabble.

Too many abbreviations and acronyms in a resume make it unreadable.

As a rule, avoid using abbreviations and acronyms unless they are commonly recognized. If you work in an acronym-heavy industry, such as technology, use acronyms sparingly.

14.8.2 Personal pronouns

It seems odd to avoid personal pronouns (I, me, my) in your resume – a document that is all about you. Since your resume is all about you, the addition of “I” or “me” is redundant. Since a resume should contain no unnecessary words, there is no place for the personal pronoun. Your resume, after all, is not a memoir but a concise summary of your skills and experience.

14.8.3 Negative words

These words spell death for a resume.

Words like “arrested,” “boring,” “fired,” “hate” and “sexist” catch a recruiter’s eye like a two-ton magnet catches a paper clip.

If there are difficult issues you want to raise, save them for the interview.

14.9 Keep These Words to a Minimum

- Abused words: a, also, an , because, the, very
- Any word you can’t define: you may think using these words make you sound smart, but if you use them incorrectly they could kill your chances of landing the job.
- Words that can be embarrassing if spelled wrong: assess, skills.

14.10 Words That Weaken Your Resume

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- A strong resume gives potential employers a concise, clear picture of your skills and experience. And it's the crucial first step in securing an interview and hopefully a job offer.
- For maximum impact, keep your resume as concise as you can. You need to include all your achievements in only one to two pages, so do not waste space on meaningless words. Plus, an employer does not want to spend time trying to understand vague phrases or decipher confusing jargon.

14.10.1 ‘Assist’, ‘Contribute’ and ‘Support’

An employer would not know what you did if the wording on your resume is too vague. Words like “assist,” “contribute” and “support” all say (or don’t say) the same thing. They say you helped, but they don’t say how. They beg the question: Exactly how did you assist, contribute or support a person or project?

Use these words sparingly and always follow them with a description of your role and responsibilities. Let an employer know the part you played and how you affected the outcome.

14.10.2 ‘Successfully’

Of course you want to show that you have accomplished on your resume. But your achievements will be more impressive if you give concrete examples of what you have done and how you have been successful. You don’t need to use words like “successfully” or “effectively” to show an employer that you are a good worker, your experience should speak for itself.

Instead of explicitly saying that a project was successful, state your achievements clearly and factually. Then give examples of how or why the project was a success.

14.10.3 ‘Responsible for’

The phrase “responsible for” can make your resume feel like a laundry list. Instead of just listing your responsibilities, try to stress your accomplishments.

Your resume will also have more of an impact if you quantify your accomplishments. Use figures to show how you affected growth, reduced costs or streamlined a process. Provide the number of people you managed, the amount of the budget you oversaw or the revenue you saved the company.

14.10.4 ‘Interface’ and other buzzwords

Don’t flower your resume with fancy words. By trying to sound intelligent or qualified, you may end up annoying or confusing your reader. You don’t want an employer to need a dictionary to discover what you really did at your last job.

Avoid buzzwords that have become cliché and words that are unnecessarily sophisticated. “Synergy” and “Liaise” are examples of buzzwords that have been overused and abused.

Say what you mean plainly and simply. For example, instead of “interface”, say “work”. Instead of “impact,” say “affect,” instead of “utilize,” say “use.”

14.10.5 Keywords

Recruiters use keywords to search for resumes. So choose some of the basic, important keywords in your field and pepper them throughout your resume.

Lesson 15

IMPROPTU PRESENTATION AND EXTEMPORE

15.1 Introduction

Though oral communication happens to be a part of basic communication skills (which has been already discussed in lesson-6; section 6.1), yet oral communication *per se* needs elaborate discussion. Hence in this lesson, various dimensions of oral communication viz. impromptu, extempore, public speaking, group discussion, etc. have been discussed at length. Further, skills involved in organization of events like seminars, conference, etc have also been dealt with, in this lesson.

15.2 Impromptu presentation

A speech and/or event that involves an eight-minute speech (with up to three of these eight minutes available for use as preparation time) is known as impromptu speaking. The preparation time is known as prep time, or simply preps.

This event varies depending upon the situation; and, the time allowed also varies at different levels:

- The speaker at the college level is granted 7 minutes to divide, as he or she sees fit.
- Another variation exists in which the speaker must speak for five minutes and half of a minute is given for preparation time. The speaker is given a slip of paper, which provides three choices for his speech. The topics can be abstract or concrete nouns, people, political events, quotations or proverbs.
- There is another variation where the speaker is given an envelope with slips in it, each with a quotation. They have to draw 3 slips of paper, choose one, and then put two back. They are then given 5 minutes to prepare a 5 minutes' speech on the subject.

Even though the format seems to be simple, it takes time to construct a speech in that time and talk on your feet. It is difficult to have mastery in this event, but many enjoy it, because one does not have to prepare for the event beforehand. Impromptu speeches need not be factual and are indeed encouraged to be humorous. There is a "triad" prompt in some impromptu rounds, where the participant is given three key words to talk about and connect during the speech.

15.2.1 Types of Impromptu

15.2.1.1 OHSSL impromptu (Ohio Impromptu)

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In this type, the speaker is provided with seven minutes of time to divide at his own discretion between prepping and speaking. All topics are quotations and generally random, but occasionally may be random. It is also more factual and less humor-based, resembling extempore. Other structures can also be used. Double analysis is normally used by experienced impromptu speakers. The ratio usually being used by experienced speakers to divide the preparatory and speaking time is 1:6.

15.2.1.2 *Editorial Impromptu*

It is an attempt to return “impromptu” to impromptu speaking. The students are given a short editorial (ideally 3 to 5 paragraphs) to which they will develop a response. The students are allowed nine minutes to divide between preparation and speech time. At least five minutes must be used for speaking. Limited notes, prepared in the round, are permitted. The speech should involve the development of an argument in response to the idea generated or opinion shared in a given editorial.

15.2.1.3 *High School Competition*

In high school speech and debate competitions, thirty seconds are given to the competitor to select a topic from a set of topics (usually three). During those 30 seconds, the competitor must also compose a speech of five minutes with a 30 second grace period.

15.3 Structure of the Speech

An impromptu speech is simply a mini-speech and therefore it has: an Opening, a Body and a Conclusion.

15.3.1 Opening

- Open by addressing the Chairman or Master of Ceremonies, e.g. Mister/Madam Chairman
- Brief introduction/opening sentence – attention getting

15.3.2 Body

- Cover the main points (Try to find one or two central themes)
- Use clearly worded simple sentences and try to link the themes

15.3.3 Conclusion

- Be brief and look for an elegant closing that links back to the opening
- End by acknowledging the Chairman or Master of Ceremonies

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A general outline for impromptu speeches is as follows:

1. Introduction/Roadmap(1 minute)
2. First section(1 minute)
3. Second section(1 minute)
4. Third section(1 minute)
5. Conclusion(1 minute)

The introduction should begin with a catchy beginning, the statement of the topic and an outline of the speech. The conclusion is usually like the introduction except backwards, ending with a profound statement. There are many kinds of formats that can be used for the three body points. For example, if the topic is a quote, a competitor may go over how the quote is true, how the quote is false, and why they believe what they believe. Some other examples are: past, present, future; local, national, international. More advanced speakers use formats that look deeper into a subject such as: physical, moral, and intellectual; books, video, digital (media.) However, many speakers choose not to follow a format at all. Most beginners who fail to follow a solid format often find themselves lost in a jumble of ideas.

15.3.4 Benefits of effective impromptu speaking skills:-

- Improves oral expression of thought
- Develop confidence in public speaking
- Think quickly on your feet
- Develop leadership and communication skills

15.3.5 Techniques to Deliver a Better Impromptu Speech

15.3.5.1 Give yourself time to prepare

- Take deep breaths
- Rise slowly from your chair and walk slowly to the lectern (or stand behind and away from your chair)
- Use this time to collect your thoughts and decide on the purpose and plan of your speech
- Think about the opening sentence.
- Always remember that never start the speech immediately.

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15.3.5.2 *Feel confident*

- Look around at audience and smile. Stand tall.
- Don't slump, don't fidget, don't grasp the lectern, don't put hands in your pockets
- Speak and act in a confident manner

15.3.5.3 *Slow delivery*

- Gives you time to think ahead
- The audience has time to absorb and react to what you are saying
- Helps you reduce umms and ahhs

15.3.5.4 *Focus*

- Keep the focus on the subject while talking
- Don't think of any negatives (eg being unprepared)
- Talk directly to the audience and adapt to their feedback
- Maintain good eye contact with the audience
- Be brief and to the point
- Don't ramble or say too much on the subject
- Speak at the audience's level

15.3.5.5 *Sources of Content*

- **Personalize:** This is the subject you know most about. Audience can relate more easily to personal topics - they probably have similar experiences.
- **Your opinion**
- **Humour:** Breaks the ice with the audience and relaxes you
- **Other:** Current events, something you have read or seen (newspaper, book, TV), knowledge of pertinent facts

15.4 Methods to Determine Content

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The following methods are for guidance only. You don't have to use them however they may help you to think quickly on your feet. You may develop other techniques that suit your style of speaking better.

- **PREP Method** (When asked to express an opinion - to inform, persuade or inspire)
- **Point:** Make your point (Opening)
- **Reason:** State your reason for making the point (Body)
- **Example:** Give an example to justify your previous remarks (Body)
- **Point:** Drive home the point again. Links the conclusion back to the opening.
- **Past, Present, Future Method (Body)**

When asked for your comment on a particular topic:

- **Point:** Make your point (Opening). Be brief.
- **Past :** What happened in the past? Reflect on a past issue. (Body)
- **Present:** What is happening today? (Body)
- **Future:** What will/could happen in the future? (Body)
- **Point:** Drive home your opening point. Reminds audience what the point of your speech was all about. (Conclusion) Be brief.

Be Prepared

There is a good chance that you will be unexpectedly called upon to give an impromptu speech at a Toastmasters (Table Topics) or others (business, club or P&F etc) meeting. Try and pre-empt possible topics that may arise, such as those from current events or contentious issues. Have an emergency speech available.

Speech Time

- In Toastmasters: Club level (Table Topics) : 90 secs
- Competition level: 2 minutes
- Speechcraft : 60 secs
- Elsewhere: 3 to 5 mins (whatever seems appropriate to occasion)

15.5 Summary

- Deliberately rise from your chair very slowly and pause for a moment. Use this time to decide on the purpose and plan of your speech
- Keep the focus on the subject while talking, and don't think about any negatives such as being unprepared or that you will look or sound foolish. Rather, think about the subject. Look for opportunities to bring in humor.
- Talk directly to the audience and adapt to audience feedback.
- Be brief and to the point. Guard against rambling and the temptation to say too much about the subject.
- Remember, this is a mini speech so try to have an opening, a body and a conclusion. The conclusion should reflect back to the comments in the opening.
- Always try to speak and act in a confident manner.
- Don't rush.
- Address the Chairman before and after the speech.

15.6 EXTEMPORE

The extempore speech, as used by certain MBA institutes during their selection procedure is when a candidate is given a topic and asked to speak about it for a minute or two. He is not allowed to 'prepare' for this topic, but has to speak on the spot. Thus, he cannot prepare the content and decide what to say beforehand.

"Extempore" or "*ex tempore*" refers to a stage or theatre performance, that is carried out without preparation or forethought. Most often, the term is used in the context of speech, singing and stage acting. Synonyms are "impromptu", "extemporaneous", or "improvised".

15.6.1 Procedure followed:-

1. The candidate waits for his turn outside the room as happens for interviews.
2. He is then called in to the room and may be asked to sit down.
3. He is then given a topic for his extempore speech. In FMS, this happens just before the interview-i.e. the interview commences after the extempore round.
4. The topic could be anything. It could be based on the candidate's academic background, his hobbies/ interests, any current or general affairs topic etc

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5. The candidate is given a few seconds to think about what he wants to say and then is expected to start his speech.
6. He is expected to speak for around a couple of minutes on the topic
7. The candidate may complete the speech himself, or the panel, may let him know when to stop.

15.6.2 Extempore helps in testing:-

Firstly, your ability to think on the spot and your spontaneity. It has often been seen that candidates come with prepared answers for the interview, which they have mugged up. Thus these answers do not really reflect their thoughts or the kind of people they are. Hence, an extempore may be used, as you cannot prepare a speech beforehand in this case.

1. **Your ability to express your thoughts:** In an extempore, you have to think for a very short while and then express yourself. You will be judged on how well you are able to do so.
2. **Fluency in the language:** Your comfort level with English as a language can also be assessed.
3. **Body language/ Confidence:** Your body language and Confidence levels maybe judged. Many candidates feel very nervous about this round, as mentioned before. Does your nervousness manifest itself in your gestures and expressions? Or do you appear calm and collected despite everything? Can you express yourself confidently and clearly?

15.6.3 Do's in Extempore

1. Firstly, do not get nervous! It has been observed that many candidates get freaked out and are very sacred about the extempore round, as you cannot prepare beforehand and have no idea as to which topic you may get. However, remember that you have to only speak on the topic for a minute or two-you are not expected to get into a high level of detail, or show some astounding knowledge about the topic given to you.
2. Do not start off speaking as soon as the topic is given to you. You have a few seconds to think use them! It has also been observed that those who start off immediately, run out of ideas and don't know what to say. Thus they end up finishing their speech in hardly 20-25seconds, or even less, in some cases.
3. Most importantly, structure your speech. Try and give it an introduction, a body and a conclusion. It would be highly impressive if you can structure your talk well, even though you were given only a few seconds to think about it.

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4. You must buttress your points/ arguments with logic and examples. This is crucial and will help you stand out from the other candidates.
5. Try and either begin or end with a quote. If you can remember an appropriate quote and use it in the relevant context, it will be absolutely great. Once again, the ability to do such a thing at such short notice, will enable you to stand out from the other candidates.

15.6.4 Preparation for an Extempore

1. Make sure that you can speak for at least a minute on the following:-
 - Important current affairs topics
 - Important topics or issues pertaining to your academic background. For example, an engineer may be asked to speak on ‘electromagnetic induction’ as his extempore topic. Similarly, an Economics or Commerce graduate may be asked to speak on ‘The Fiscal Deficit’, ‘Gross Domestic Product (GDP)’ or some related topic.
 - Your hobbies and interests
 - A person you admire
 - Your favorite sports person or actor/ actress
2. Practice for an extempore adequately, by speaking aloud, either in front of a mirror or even without one. The idea is that you should be able to speak, with a fair degree of fluency, for about a minute on any topic you get. Practicing speaking aloud will ensure that you are able to control your nervousness etc.
3. Watch your body language while you practice. It should not give away your nervousness. Practice speaking both while sitting and standing, so that you are ready for both eventualities.

Lesson 16**INDIVIDUAL & GROUP PRESENTATIONS****16.1 Introduction**

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

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

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

16.2 Types**16.2.1 Informative Presentations**

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

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16.2.2 Persuasive Presentations

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

16.2.3 Goodwill Presentations

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

16.2.4 Multipurpose Presentations

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

16.2.5 Sales

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

16.2.6 Political

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

16.2.7 Motivational Presentations

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

16.2.8 Interviews

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

Audiences can be classified into *four* basic categories:

1. Captives
2. Pragmatists
3. Socially Motivated

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4. Committed

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

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

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

Helpful Presentation Tips

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

16.3 Three Ingredients of Group Presentations

16.3.1 Clarity

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

16.3.1.1 *Clarity of purpose*

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

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company's Purchasing Officer through clear examples of how our Product provides a fast return on investment. The Charter Statement will come in handy when you have a team member who may want to go "off track" to tell personal anecdotes that don't pass the test of the group's charter.

16.3.1.2 Clarity of roles

Personalities come into play when groups meet to develop presentations. The struggles for position and ego can quickly deplete the group's momentum, resulting in hurt feelings and, potentially, a weaker presentation. Providing clarity to group roles helps to establish expectations and keep the entire group moving towards a common objective, leading thus to a great group presentation. Identify the roles your group needs during message development. For example, to ensure that team members are meeting assignments, select a **Project Manager**. This person isn't the "boss of the presentation", but rather will focus on schedule and assignments. Other roles could include a **Gap Analyst** who is responsible for identifying "gaps" in content and support materials (handouts, graphics, etc.), which in turn could work closely with other roles within the group like the **Chief Researcher**. Capitalize on the unique personalities within your group to develop roles that work well for all, but be sure to discuss the roles openly so they are clear to everyone.

16.3.1.3 Clarity of message

Instead of writing "speeches" for each *individual speaker*, try creating one *master presentation*, a unified narrative, and *then* decide who speaks to which points, and when. This is a shift from the traditional segmented method of group presentations where often group members are directed to "give five minutes of talking" and then are left to develop content independently. In a master presentation, each speaker may weave in and out at various points during the presentation. When done well, this fluid dynamic can hold an audience's attention better by offering a regular change in speakers' voices and presence.

Moreover, by using a master presentation, your group will ensure that each of the presenters will stay "on script" and use cohesive language, smooth transitions, and (when using visuals) consistent graphics.

16.3.2 Control

Group presentations face unique logistical challenges beyond just developing presentation content.

16.3.2.1 Control in introduction

The way of introducing a group is noticed by the audience, so plan those introductions with your presentation. Your presentation may be part of a larger event that includes a master of ceremonies who will introduce the team. If so, be sure that you provide pertinent information to the emcee that will allow her/him to generate interest in your presentation even before you begin

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speaking. If your group is responsible for making its own introductions, however, you will need to decide if you will introduce your group members in the beginning, or when they first speak. Your group also will need to decide if each member introduces her/himself, or if one member will introduce everyone. There is no one right way to do introductions, but your group must decide how to do them before the day of the presentation.

16.3.2.2 Control in transitions

Decide how you are going to “hand off” from one speaker to the next. In the “master presentation” approach, you may want to consider simply have speakers pick up a narrative right where the previous speaker left off. If you use the more traditional segmented approach, each speaker may cue the subsequent speakers by identifying them and their subject matter. For example: “...and speaking of quality control, no one is more qualified as Mr. X, who is going to tell us about how this team will deliver a quality project for you.”

Another option is to assign a group emcee who will handle transitions between presentation sections. Your group will need to determine which option makes the most sense based on your presentation style and audience expectations.

16.3.2.3 Control vis-à-vis time and space

Multiple speakers translate to occupying more physical space, and the potential to gobble up more time with introductions and transitions. If you will be presenting in a small room, consider where each speaker needs to be positioned to quickly reach the speaking area, and whether they will sit or stand when not speaking. Your presentation must fit within your allotted time, so you will need to time your group’s presentation, including equipment set up, introductions, and transitions.

16.3.3 Commitment

Commitment from each group member is going to give your presentation the best content and flair that will impress your audience.

16.3.3.1 Commit to a schedule

Once you know the date of your presentation, create a schedule that includes specific milestones, such as “presentation draft due” and “final rehearsal”. Having a specific schedule allows members either to agree to the group’s expectations or to offer dates that better fit their personal schedules. One can also assign specific responsibilities to the scheduled milestones; for example, who is responsible for bringing the handouts, projector, and laptop to the presentation?

16.3.3.2 Commit to rehearsing

“If you find group members who lack the commitment to rehearse, consider finding group members who will commit.” Rehearsing is one of the most important steps for presentation

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success. Have your team members agree from day one that they will make themselves available to practice with the group. If you find group members who lack the commitment to rehearse, consider finding group members who will commit. Practice makes perfect, and no rehearsal means your group doesn't know what will happen to the content, timing, or quality of the presentation. Do those sound like things your group would like to leave to chance?

16.3.3.3 Commit to answering your audience's questions

Always be ready to pepper your group with questions after your formal presentation is over. Your presentation is not over yet. Handling those questions is as important as the presentation itself. A well-done presentation means nothing if presenters fumble questions so badly that they appear incompetent. Have each member develop a list of potential questions and then, as a group, review the list. Discuss who will be responsible for handling which types of questions. By incorporating these three ingredients into your next group presentation process, you will find that you not only develop a presentation that your audience loves, but your group will transform from a rag-tag group of speakers into a dynamic presenting team.

16.4 Suggestions for an Effective Group Presentation

First, appoint one of the speakers to be in charge. If this is not done and something unexpected occurs, no one has the responsibility for the group which may lose credibility because of uncertainty in how to respond. In addition, when a question is asked, the speaker-in-charge immediately refers it to the person with the appropriate expertise; thus there is no uncertain pause because no one knows who will answer the question.

Second, each speaker should know what the other speakers are going to say. This knowledge will help them avoid duplication of material and they can make appropriate references to another speaker's content if it applies. This knowledge helps insure continuity among the different speakers.

Third, the last words of each speaker should synchronize with what the next speaker will cover. This adds unity to the entire presentation and gives the new speaker a smooth opening to his or her material. An example might be, "Now Susan will cover the financial aspects of our proposal and help you understand the benefits this will give you."

Fourth, if possible the strongest speaker should end the group presentation. The ending is the most important part of the presentation; people remember best what you say last. You want to have an ending speaker who can show passion and enthusiasm for the topic.

Finally, a dress rehearsal is essential. The group members need to get a feel of the complete message to see how they can best contribute. In addition, with several people speaking it is hard to gauge the time the speakers will take. This dress rehearsal allows the group to time the presentation and to make adjustments in each portion in order to be under the time limit; the more

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people involved the more unpredictable the total time. With everyone hearing the other speeches, each speaker can give feedback to the others that will improve the quality of the whole presentation. Extraneous and redundant material can be eliminated as well.

16.5 Group discussion

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

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

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

16.5.1 Prerequisites of a Group Discussion

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

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- Listening skills
- Co-operation

16.5.2 Salient features of Group Discussion

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

16.5.3 Main objectives of the participants in a Group Discussion

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

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

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

16.5.4 Do's in Group Discussion

- Make original points & support them by substantial reasoning.
- Listen to the other participants actively & carefully.

Communication Skills

- Whatever you say must be with a logical flow, and validate it with an example as far as possible.
- Make only accurate statements.
- Modulate the volume, pitch and tone.
- Be considerate to the feelings of the others.
- Try to get your turn.
- Be an active and dynamic participant by listening.
- Talk with confidence and self-assurance.

16.5.5 Don'ts during Group Discussion

- Being shy/nervous/keeping isolated from Group Discussion
- Interrupting another participant before his arguments are over
- Speak in favour; e.g., establish your position and stand by it stubbornly
- Changed opinions
- Don't make fun of any participant even if his arguments are funny.
- Don't engage yourself in sub-group conversation.
- Don't repeat and use irrelevant materials.
- Addressing you to the examiner.
- Worrying about making some grammatical mistakes, for your interest the matter you put across are important.

16.5.6 Important points in Group Discussion

- Be Yourself. Be as natural as possible and don't try to be someone you are not.
- Take time to organize your thoughts. Don't suddenly jump to any conclusion. Think before you speak so that you don't speak anything irrelevant to the topic being discussed.
- Don't make the mistake of looking at the panel while you are speaking. You are in a Group Discussion and you are expected to discuss among group members, so always look at your group members while you are speaking.

Communication Skills

- Seek clarifications if you have any doubts regarding the subject, before the discussion commences.
- Your body language says a lot about you - your gestures and mannerisms are more likely to reflect your attitude than what you say.
- Never try to show your dominance. Be assertive, speak yourself and let others speak as well.
- Don't lose your cool if anyone says anything you object to. The key is to stay objective: Don't take the discussion personally.
- Show your leadership skills. Motivate the other members of the team to speak. Be receptive to others' opinions and do not be abrasive or aggressive.
- Remember, opening the discussion is not the only way of gaining attention and recognition. If you do not give valuable insights during the discussion, all your efforts of initiating the discussion will be in vain.
- Be assertive: An assertive person is directing, honest careful about not hurting others 'self-respect'.
- A patient listener: listening to another person is one way of showing appreciation.
- Right language: Words can make friends & right words at the right time make the best results.
- Be analytical and fact-oriented: It is necessary to make relevant points which can be supported with facts and analyzed logically.
- Accept criticism: If any member of the group criticizes or disapproves a point, it is unwise to get upset or react sharply. In case the criticism is flimsy, the same can be pointed out politely.
- Maximize participation; one must try to contribute fully, vigorously & steadily throughout the discussion.
- Show leadership ability: A group discussion also evaluates your leadership qualities.
- Accept someone's point of view
- Praise the argument
- Accept the contradictory view

Communication Skills

- Express your argument with few facts, cases, data, newspapers, publications etc.
- Express without hurting others feelings.
- Never try to bluff.
- Practice group discussion with friends on different subjects.
- Don't be disheartened if you did not do well in your First Group Discussion. Instead try to learn from your past mistakes.

16.5.7 Benefits in Group Discussion

- Stimulation of thinking in a new way.
- Expansion of knowledge
- Understanding of your strength and weakness.
- Your true personality is revealed and qualities of leadership crystallize
- Provides chance of exposure
- Language skills
- Academic knowledge
- Leadership skills
- People-handling skills
- Team work
- General knowledge

Lesson 17**ORGANIZING SEMINARS& CONFERENCES****17.1 Introduction**

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

17.2 Benefits of Seminar/Conference

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

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

Communication Skills

17.2.1 Seminars can be of the following types

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

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

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

17.2.2 Optimizing the seminar's success

The subject for a business conference must:

17.2.2.1 *Be educational*

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

17.2.2.2 *Be urgent*

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

17.2.2.3 *Provide solutions*

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

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

17.2.3 Length

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

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

17.2.4 Timing

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

17.2.5 Location

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

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

17.2.6 Seminar marketing

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

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

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You should also consider having the seminar announcement and registration form on your website. We don't recommend advertising in journals, due to the high cost and relatively low coverage.

17.2.7 The invitation

Because the quality of your invitation or flyer greatly influences attendance, it deserves special attention. For a one- or two-day conference, the flyer should include seven things:

- **The conference theme** - The reader should be able to determine almost instantaneously what the conference is about. The wording should be as compelling as possible.
- **A concise description stressing benefits** - Don't leave it to the readers to figure out what they will get out of attending. If you tone down your flyer, be sure you don't obscure the benefits in the process.
- **A description of who should attend** - This inclusive list indicates who the conference is designed for and allows the reader to say, "This is meant for me!"
- **A review of the schedule and content** - In this portion, list what will occur: From the morning through the afternoon of each day, noting speakers and subjects followed by two or three bullets stressing the benefits of each.
- **A concise speaker description.** Include credentials, background and experience.
- **Logistics of time, place, fee, payment, registration, and accommodations.** This should include directions to the site, if not included with confirmation letters.
- **A sign-up sheet.** This can be a tear sheet or a response card to fax or mail in. Make sure to ask qualifying questions, including seminar topic interest, and product interest and timing.

17.2.8 The speakers

People who organize seminars for the first time often see themselves or others in their firm as primary speakers. You can often do better by including outsiders and sometimes by using them exclusively. Doing this will make the seminar seem less self-serving, which frequently results in higher attendance. Prospective customers will shun a seminar if they sense they may be submitted to an hour-long advertisement. When selecting a speaker or speakers for a seminar, one should consider the following points:

1. Drawing power- Some names attract more attendees than others. A client with stature in his industry will often attract his competitors, who are probably good prospective clients for you.

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2. Availability- One of the most onerous tasks in organizing a conference or seminar is lining up speakers. This needs to be done early in the process, because everything else hinges on it.
3. Knowledge- The speaker must know the subject matter. Firms that use only their own employees as speakers often can do so because they are presenting highly technical material that is little understood by outsiders.
4. Speaking ability- The quality of the speaking will determine the success of the seminar. Don't subject your audience to the expert bore. Rehearse the speakers.
5. Balance - If you have several speakers, make sure they present different points of view. Otherwise you will get a me-too presentation.
6. Price- Most firms want to avoid paying speakers, other than for travel expenses.

If you do decide to speak yourself or to use others in your firm as speakers exclusively, you must stress the content and benefits in your flyer. The more people understand about what they will learn, the less they are likely to fear an advertisement. **Remember that people attend a seminar to learn, not to be sold!**

17.2.9 Chance to talk

People attend seminars and conferences not only to hear the speakers but also to talk to their peers at other companies. They want to compare notes, empathize, look for jobs, and relax with others who understand their problems. These periods of informal interaction also offer you the best opportunities for building relationships and generating leads. Arrangements for this activity deserve careful attention. You need to block appropriate time for it-before a breakfast or dinner seminar, after an afternoon seminar, and at several convenient times during a conference. You will need space that encourages interaction. That means open space out of traffic flow where people can stand and talk to each other without interruption. Comfortable sitting space in small clusters helps too. During this time you and others from your firm should play host, circulating to make sure you meet everyone, making introductions, and absorbing those at the fringes of the conversations into the center. Above all, you should get others to talk. They have had a chance to hear you during the presentation. Now it is your turn to listen and learn. Learn names, learn personal interests, and learn business responsibilities and concerns. This information will allow you to follow up later with a personal note to each individual.

Have a few stock questions to get others talking, like, "What is your specific interest in coming to this conference?" or "What do you think of the seminar so far?" Also, have questions that will draw out the silent individuals in a group. If one individual dominates the discussion with his reason for attending, wait for a pause and say, "That's interesting." Turn to someone else and say, "Did you come for the same reasons or different ones?" Using your networking skills, you should

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be listening for ways you can help those you talk with. An obligation to call a participant with information he is looking for creates a means of keeping the relationship alive later. Create a list of these obligations for use after the conference. The opportunity to establish a relationship with your audience is one of the primary benefits of running a seminar or conference. The chance to do so is largely restricted to informal interaction periods. Work hard during these periods and you greatly increase your chances of obtaining business later.

17.2.10 Money

Few firms charge for seminars running less than a full day. A multi-track or two-day conference, however, can cost hundreds of thousands of dollars to put on. Because of the substantial educational benefits they provide, attendees are willing to pay for them, and most, though not all, firms charge a fee. You should consider doing so.

The more your conference looks like one run by a trade association or other third-party conference operator, the more you can charge attendees. This usually means several presenters from a variety of organizations, high quality audiovisual materials, a binder full of training materials, and good quality conferencing space. Individuals with unusually strong credentials as experts and trainers do present alone for two days and charge, but they are in the minority. For prevailing fee structures, review fliers for conferences that you receive by mail. Charging a fee can enhance the credibility of your seminar. It shows that people will pay to hear what you say and is an indicator that you intend to educate, not advertise.

17.2.11 Something to take home

For-profit conferences universally provide participants with printed material summarizing what they have learned. If your event is free, you must decide whether to do so. Materials you can use for this purpose include copies of exhibits used by speakers, white papers or reprints of articles on the subject, and speaker bios.

A high quality package of materials adds to the professional appearance of a seminar and gives those who attend something they can save with your name on it.

17.2.12 Post-Seminar Follow -up

Within a week of a conference's completion you should follow up with letters to everyone you have met, thanking them for attending. If you have promised someone information, you can put it in the letter, or, if appropriate, call. As in all forms of marketing, follow-up has a major impact on lead generation and separates the serious marketer from the casual one.

Attendees should be contacted after the seminar by a centralized telemarketing effort or one closely managed with Field Sales. Immediate prospects for your services are quickly forwarded

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to Field Sales, and Field Sales should receive a list of those with longer term buying plans. There should be managed follow-up of prospects who express product interest every six months.

17.3 Guidelines for Writing/Formulating a Proposal for Organizing International Conferences/Workshops/Seminars for Approval by the Higher Authority

1. Title of the Seminar/Conference/Workshop/Forum
2. Purpose: The purpose of the proposal is to seek the consideration and approval of the Higher Authority to organize the International Conference
3. Background: Background of the Seminar/Conference/Workshop.
4. Organizing Committee
5. Objective of the Seminar/Conference/Workshop
6. Basis For Consideration: Justification of the need to hold the conference.
7. Details of the Seminar/Conference/Workshop:
 - Date, Time and Venue
 - Participants:- Specify total number of local and participants and list out their names. State and list the countries that will be expected to participate in the conference.
 - Paper presentation: State the working papers for presentation. State and list the paper presenters and their countries of origin
 - Programme (Brochure): Please attach conference brochure
8. Financial Implications:
 - Specify source of income and expected expenditure
 - Specify whether this involves budget allocation from the government or any central agency
9. Security Implications:
 - Specify whether the seminars/conferences, workshops/forum held have implications on security and national policies
10. Recommendations:

The approving authorities are kindly requested to consider and approve the proposal to organize the International Conference on “Towards Better (Trust) Management & Development”

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11. Report on the implementation of the Seminar/Conference/Workshop/Forum

Report of the conference should be forwarded to the concerned higher authority as soon as possible, through proper channel.

17.3.1 The idea

The idea of organizing a conference without any specific details is usually generated by one person and that person needs to spread his idea within his department and see who is willing to help. Once he has a team with at least two-three members he can start preparing.

17.3.2 Pre-preparation

A group of two-three persons will not be enough for the organization of a conference, so there is a need to recruit more students in the group. The department should be informed about the idea and the goals and should give their approval before inviting more people to help.

17.3.3 Call for volunteers

Usually postgraduate student conference organizing committees are created by Post-graduate students who volunteer to help and thus are small in number. If it is a small team (2-3 persons), then call for volunteers so as to expand your team. A “call for volunteers” should outline the purpose of the team (now be called a committee) and provide a general description of what the new members will do. Also give a ‘response deadline’ for those who would like to volunteer. Conduct an interview before admitting anyone in the committee.

17.3.4 The interview

Allocate a time and place for the interview. Before having the interview make sure you have a list of all the questions you and your colleagues would like to ask as well as what it is that you are looking for from the new members. What you are looking for should be determined by the list of duties in the sections 3 and 4 below. The most important restriction for a person to become a member of the committee should be to be available during the conference preparation period.

Have in mind that a conference organizing team will surely need among others a:

- Head of the conference/team, who will be responsible for keeping the agenda and organizing all other members;
- Head of finance: the person, who will know exactly how much money you have and what you spent the rest of the money on;
- Head of the programme: To know what the programme would be like, getting in touch with lectures, students, etc.

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- Head of accommodation: the person who will organize all the accommodation facilities and offers provided for the conference, as well as inform the participants or attendees about all the tourist information needed
- Head of technical support & webmaster: the person(s) who will know how to handle audio-visual equipment as well as support the organization and maintenance of the webpage. Therefore the students admitted in the committee should abide with the above requirements.

17.3.5 Specifying the Nature of the Conference:

Once having a team you need to specify the actual nature of the conference. Try to provide answers to the following questions in order to determine the nature of the conference:

- To whom the conference is going to address?
- Who are the people most likely to attend it?
- Which area of importance will be covered?
- Will it have a specific theme within the area?
- Is it going to be a Local, Regional, National or International Conference?
- Where will it be held?
- How long should it last?
- What is the scope of the conference?

In order to be able to answer these afore-stated questions, you should draw some information from previous conferences of the same nature. Learn as much as possible about other conferences, seminars and workshops, so as to be acquainted with many hints and procedures.

17.3.6 Preparation / Time-table

When having a team and the approval of your department as well as being able to answer the questions above then you can continue with administering to each member of the committee what they are suppose to do. Firstly, you should plan the timetable for preparation, execution and follow-up. The timetable should be divided into three sections with respect to the remaining months until the conference is held. The first step should involve preparations made for 5-6 months before the event, the second for the preparations made for 3-4 months before the conference; and lastly, 1-2 months before the conference.

17.3.6.1 First Step: 5-6 months before the event

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When planning the timetable you should consider that you should provide at least 5-6 months for preparation. This is vital for both you as organizers and the presenters.

a) Secure a day

In order to be able to secure a day for the conference you should search at some linguistics pages and find all conferences held during the academic year you are interested in organizing your conference. Make sure that you choose a day that it is at least 5-6 months away and there is no other conference on that day in the same area as the one where you are thinking of having the conference.

b) Room-bookings

Once you decide on the day you need to allocate room bookings (committee-style or lecture style). When making room bookings you should think about how many parallel or net sessions you are going to have. The more parallel sessions the more rooms you will need. Also consider the fact that depending on the length of the conference the attendance will vary. Therefore, you need more rooms that you may use at the end which are good sized rooms where your participants will not seem to be too few or too many. Also consider that the rooms you book have the appropriate requirements; for example audiovisual (AV) equipment. In a conference you always serve coffee and sometimes lunch or dinner depending on the nature of the conference. This is something that should also be considered since you need the lecture rooms to be close to a coffee room where the coffee will be served; either by a university catering or any other catering service which is approved.

c) Catering

If you are organizing the conference in your university then you should ask for the approval by the university catering services available in your area. That is, universities tend to have some approved services which can be given to students so as to follow among others safety regulations. Once having the list you can start contacting the catering services and choose the one which suites your requirements. Consider that when being asked to give the catering service the program of the conference you should tell them to bring everything 10-15 minutes earlier so as to avoid any delays and be able to have a backup plan in case that something goes wrong; with respect to catering services.

d) Funding

In order to be able to pay for all your expenses you will need a sponsor. First you should address your department to see whether they could fund your conference. You could also apply to other organizations, which may be scientific, financial/banking,donor/sponsoring in nature.

e) Plenary Speakers

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All conferences tend to have two or three plenary speakers who are reputed ones (in their area of specialization) from all over the world. As a conference organizer, you should have decided whether the conference you are organizing will be of a specific subject or not. If the conference covers a specific area of linguistics then you should choose the leading linguists in that field and invite them to become the plenary speakers. However, if the conference you are organizing is a general one, without having a focus on any specific area/field, then you should be cautious when choosing who to invite as plenary speakers..

f) Advertising the Event

When confirming your plenary speakers then you can advertise the event. Initially the event should be advertised to your audience, depending on the nature of the conference; whether it is a regional, International, etc.

g) Call for Abstracts

The ‘call for abstracts’ should include information such as:

- Time and place of the conference
- Names of the plenary speakers
- Which departments / associations support the event
- Deadline for abstract submission
- Description of the abstract format required; named, word count etc.

You should make sure that you have a reasonable deadline for abstract submission and that you sent at least three invitations to your prospective audience with a short interval in between. Be prepared when setting the deadline that you may have to extend the deadline, since for uncountable reasons you may not have enough abstracts to complete the slots you want

h) Registration Form

The form should include among others:

- Name and affiliation details
- Information about registration packs/fees
- Information regarding dietary requirements or any other individual needs
- A check-list to indicate whether they are presenting or just attending the conference
- Information about accommodation packs

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Advise all presenters to register, since information about dietary and accommodation requirements is not obtained through an abstract submission.

i) Webpage Design

You should try to either form a webpage through your department's server or through one of your own; this depends on the status of your conference and whether it is approved by your department. The actual webpage should include:

- Information about the nature of the event
- Information about the place and the surrounding area of where the event is taking place
- Travel information / time tables regarding bus, trains, Metro etc.
- Hotel lists
- Contact details of all committee members
- Information about the committee members
- Abstract guidelines
- Fares for registration/ packs available for students
- Mode(s) of payment
- Registration form

17.3.6.2 Second Step: 3-4 months before the event

(a) Receiving the Abstracts

Once receiving the abstracts you should make sure that they follow the format you requested. Those that abide to the guidelines can be categorized depending on their field.

(b) Reviewing the Abstracts

You should decide on whether you would like postgraduate students or teaching staff to review the abstracts submitted. Once you decide on this then you can distribute a call for reviewers.

(c) Call for Reviewers

The 'call for reviewers' should include information about possible areas of linguistics which will be addressed by the abstracts as well as a deadline for notification of interest. This should also include a deadline for when the abstract reviewing is due. You should also include a note as to which area the volunteered reviewers would feel more positive to review. This, you should have in

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mind when distributing the abstracts received. When sending the abstracts to reviewers you should give the reviewers an anonymous copy of the abstract so as to avoid any biased answers. You should also provide the reviewers with reviewing guidelines, in order to obtain clear comments and avoid more subjective recommendations.

(d) Acceptance/ Rejection of Abstracts

When receiving reviewers' comments and their suggestion for accepting or declining the abstract you should inform the presenters. Before that you should try to crosscheck reviewers' comments so as to make sure that you also agree with their comments. The abstracts that were rejected could be accepted as a poster presentation or nothing at all.

e) Conference Programme

When creating the program there are several factors you should consider, such as:

- Enough time for registration in the morning
- Include a 15 minute slot in the first session for the opening of the conference which should be made by a member of your sponsoring organization and the chair of your committee
- Adequate breaks between sessions
- Tea/Coffee breaks should last for at least 17 minutes
- Lunch breaks should last for at least 1 hour
- Have enough time for poster presentations
- Allow for a five-minute break between presentations, so that attendees can choose to leave or change the lecture room
- Try to have presentations in each session and same lecture room that cover the same or similar area of linguistics. That is, have syntax presentations on one session and morphology on another
- Have both the name of the presentation and the presenter on the program. You may also want to include affiliation details
- Also, try to have two-three last minute backup presentations (if you can) in case that there is a last minute cancellation

f) Advertising about the Conference Programme

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Once you have created the program you should send it to all departments and your audience. When sending the program also include in the email a second/third call for attendees along with all information needed; do not forget the registration form..

17.3.6.3 Third Step: 2-1 month(s) before the event

- Arrange facilities for collection and banking, cancellation and upload them on the webpage.
- Ask the presenters whether they would require any special equipment
- Book AV equipment etc., finalizing room allocation.
- Create an abstract booklet for both oral and poster presentation (or even workshops) and sent it to the printing services.
- Create conference posters and use them to advertise your conference around your Department and University.

a) One week before the event

Make the conference packs for the event. This should include the following:

- Abstract booklet
- Conference time-table
- Information about local events and the area, which you can get from the tourism office from your town/city
- Any advertising leaflets given by your department or any other funding body
- Taxis' telephone numbers, Train, metro, bus time-tables, etc.
- Name-Tags (make sure that committee's name-tags differ in color or layout to the ones given to presenters and attendees)
- Food-vouchers (if any)
- Area- maps
- Delegate-lists
- Feedback- form
- Make preparations in case that the event has to be cancelled. That is, you may need to have a cancellation notice ready which you could distribute to everyone who was registered as well as to any mailing lists.

Communication Skills

- Ask your plenary speakers, attendees and presenters whether they would require any extra help with their arrival at the place of the event.
- You should printout some extra taxi numbers and bus, train, metro timetables, area maps for the registration desk.
- Briefing session with helpers.
- Check & re-check the room- bookings, speakers, refreshment/catering arrangements, room layout and AV provision.

b) *One day before the event*

- Make sure there are enough signs for speakers and attendees to find the room where the event will take place. If not create some yourself.
- Re-confirm: room bookings, catering.
- Arrange room layout for both poster and oral presentations.
- Make sure the whole committee is on call in case that something goes wrong.
- Confirm that the folders etc are ready.
- Confirm you have a printout of the lists of presenters and attendees.
- Confirm you have a list of any economic arrangements that need to be settled on the day.
- Have a list of all the telephone numbers for all possible services needed. That is, catering, safety services as well as hospital telephone numbers.
- Check that you have done the name tag and food vouchers etc.
- Make sure you have a money box for the day of the event.
- Arrange which members of the committee are going to be at the registration desk, who is going to welcome guests and who is going to assist presenters test their presentation on your AV equipment.
- Make sure you have at least two extra laptops for the day of the event, in case that a computer or the AV equipment in any of the rooms is not working properly.
- Have an announcement advising attendees to enter/leave the lecture room if they are late by the emergency exits not the front doors so as not to interrupt the presenter.

c) *On the day*

Communication Skills

- Arrive early
- Prepare the registration desk and make sure that everybody is on their position
- Check on room layout, provision for speakers (AV, water in the lecture rooms)
- Advise the presenters as soon as they register to check their presentation with the person who has been allocated for this job.
- Before the beginning of the first presentation thank everyone for coming and also make sure you acquaint them with safety and room evacuation procedures. When organizing a conference or any other event you are responsible for guiding people in case of an emergency event. Therefore, make sure that you have been informed about all the safety procedures and that at least one member of the committee knows first aid in case that you might need to act accordingly.

d) *Afterwards*

- Record who actually attends
- ‘Thank You’ letters to speakers
- General report to all delegates
- Settle the account

17.3.7 Conference& seminar organizer's outline

17.3.7.1 *Outline of the specific tasks you must complete to run a conference*

I. Determine Goals & Target Audience

- a. Select general subject(s)
- b. Determine length (half day, one day, two days, multiple tracks)
- c. Brainstorm regarding alternative venues & topics
- d. Review for feasibility
 1. Is it educational?
 2. Is it important?
 3. Will it provide solutions?
 4. Do we have the resources/knowledge to handle it?

Communication Skills

II. Determine Seminar Marketing Plan

- A. Mailing List/Logistics
- B. Advertising
- C. Website
- D. Outbound telemarketing
 - 1. Pre-mailing qualification & referral
 - 2. Post-mailing qualification, referral & registration
- E. Registration options

III. Establish schedule

- 1. Set date(s)
- 2. Set completion dates for key tasks
- 3. Monitor and revise periodically

IV. Select speakers

A. Brainstorm alternatives

- 1. Internal
- 2. External
- 3. Current users
- 4. Other experts

B. Review for suitability

- 1. Knowledge
- 2. Drawing power of name
- 3. Speaking ability

C. Invite speakers

- 1. Invite and confirm availability

Communication Skills

2. Invite fallback speakers, as needed

V. Select site

A. Review alternatives

1. Internal
2. Hotel
3. Conference center

B. Inspect site alternatives

1. Meeting space
2. Breakout space
3. Socializing space
4. Sleeping accommodations
5. Food service
6. Logistical support
7. Photocopying
8. Audiovisual equipment
9. Telephones
10. Message service
11. Rest rooms
12. Financial terms
13. Larger space for overcapacity

C. Negotiate terms and reserve space

VI. Mail invitations

A. Create invitation list

1. Brainstorm alternatives with planning team

Communication Skills

- a) Internal
 - b) Purchased
 - c) Provided by speakers
2. Set targets, filter & combine databases

B. Determine registration sources

1. mail
2. fax
3. web
4. inbound phone center
5. outbound telemarketing center

C. Produce invitations

1. Draft copy
 - a) Describe theme
 - b) Describe benefits
 - c) Note who should attend
 - d) Describe schedule and content
 - e) Describe speakers
 - f) Describe logistics
 - (1) Time
 - (2) Place
 - (3) Fee and payment
 - (4) Registration/response form, including qualification questions
 - (5) Accommodations
 - (6) Directions

Communication Skills

Design, print and mail invitations and confirmation packages

- g) Staged mail drops (as needed)
- h) Fax and e-mail versions for follow-up

VII. Registration & confirmation

A. Monitor incoming registration

- 1. Ask qualification questions on all incoming telephone calls
- 2. Provide lists of registrants to sales reps weekly
- 3. Monitor registration for room capacity

B. Conduct outbound telemarketing

- 1. Ask qualification questions
- 2. Ask for referrals
- 3. Invitation ready to Fax or e-mail to referrals or if misplaced

C. Send Confirmation Packages

- 1. Include schedule, speakers bios, directions, mass transit, parking info
- 2. Sending options (mail, fax, e-mail)

D. Conduct outbound reminder calls

- 1. 24 to 48 hours prior to the event
- 2. Voicemail messages are OK

VIII. Order refreshments/meals

A. Select caterer/provider

B. Select menu

C. Place order

IX. Rehearse speakers

A. Schedule rehearsals

Communication Skills

- B. Coach speakers
- C. Determine need and arrange for audiovisual equipment

X. Prepare materials

- A. Collect copies of speakers' exhibits
- B. Collect speakers' bios
- C. Collect white papers/article reprints
- D. Prepare title page and table of contents
- E. Duplicate and bind
- F. Prepare seminar evaluation form, including qualification questions

XI. Arrange and check seminar logistics

- A. Reception
- B. Registration
- C. Name tags
- D. Coat room
- E. Speaker introductions
- F. Writing materials for attendees
- G. Materials delivery
- H. Seating arrangement
- I. Water for speakers
- J. Podium and lighting for speakers
- K. Audiovisual equipment
- L. Heating and air conditioning
- M. Hosts and helpers from firm

XII. Conduct event

Communication Skills

- A. Set up “Welcome Centre” to speed up registration & seating
- B. Offer reward for turning in completed evaluation and qualification form

XIII. Post-event follow-up

- A. ‘Thank You’ letters to attendees
- B. ‘Thank You’ letters to speakers
- C. Post-seminar telemarketing
- D. Follow-up to harvest immediate prospects.

Lesson 18**PUBLIC SPEAKING****18.1 Introduction**

The process of speaking to a group of people in a structured, deliberate manner intended to inform, influence, or entertain the listeners is known as public speaking. It is closely allied to "presenting", although the latter has more of a commercial connotation. In public speaking, there are five basic elements, often expressed as "*who* is saying *what* to *whom* using what *medium* with what *effects*?" The purpose of public speaking ranges from simply transmitting information, to motivating people to act, to simply telling a story. Good orators should be able to change the emotions of their listeners, not just inform them. Interpersonal communication and public speaking have several components that embrace such things as motivational speaking, leadership/personal development, business, customer service, large group communication, and mass communication. Public speaking can be a powerful tool to use for purposes such as motivation, influence, persuasion, informing, translation, or simply entertaining. A confident speaker is more likely to use this as excitement and create effective speech, thus increasing their overall ethos. Professional public speakers often engage in on-going training and education to refine their craft. This may include seeking guidance to improve their speaking skills—such as learning better story-telling techniques, for example, or learning how to effectively use humor as a communication tool—as well as continuous research in their topic area of focus.

18.2 Importance of Good Public Speaking

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

It is not that we only require public speaking skills to speak in front of audience or to give lectures. Public speaking skills are an asset that is worth millions. These skills are counted not only in our professional life but are also useful when a person is college go-getter. For example, a student possessing good presentation skills and public speaking skills can do wonders in his grading criteria. It is important to have clarity of delivery element, which is the base of any public speaking skills because unclear speech and words will do any good in general speaking in front of audiences. It is common sense that on whatever topic you are speaking, clarity is a must because no one would be able to convey your message or whatever you are trying to speak. Unclear words will only show that you have not prepared the subject or you are scared of speaking. Those who cannot convey their ideas into words cannot transform their skills in professional life. Some scholars just pass away with their ideas still left with them just because of the inability to

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transform ideas. It is true that these scholars were intelligent and conveyed their message through writing. But the written scripts cannot convey the messages effectively compared to speaking. They simply were not able to put their messages in front of the people of what they actually think. They were unable to speak in front of the public. So, do not let go the importance of public speaking skills.

People also think that public speaking skills and communication skills are not inter-related. But they should know that they are inter-related to a certain degree of extent. However public speaking is a broader term compared to communication skills, because people with good public speaking skills have good communication skills. However, the *vice-versa* may not be correct. There are many reasons behind why people with good communication cannot speak in public. The reason behind why people are unable to speak in front of public is fear. Most of the people are scared and have fear while speaking in front of the public. They get nervous and their heartbeat gets fast resulting into unclear words and stammering. The common fear of public speaking is called **gloss phobia** (or, informally, "stage fright").

There are numerous ways to enhance public speaking skills. No doubt, apart from the practice you should have a great storage bank of vocabulary in your mind. You can practice public speaking skills by speaking in front of your family members, friends and colleagues. Gradually, your fluency will increase along with your vocabulary. Once you are able to come out of your fear, you can be a good public speaker. Do not forget that possessing good public speaking skills is a big asset.

18.3 Tips for Public Speaking

- Know the needs of your audience and match your contents to their needs.
- Know your material thoroughly.
- Put what you have to say in a logical sequence.
- Ensure your speech will be captivating to your audience as well as worth their time and attention.
- Practice and rehearse your speech at home or where you can be at ease and comfortable, in front of a mirror, your family, friends or colleagues.
- Use a tape-recorder and listen to yourself. Videotape your presentation and analyze it.
- Know what your strong and weak points are. Emphasize your strong points during your presentation.

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- When you are presenting in front of an audience, you are performing as an actor is on stage. How you are being perceived is very important. Dress appropriately for the occasion.
- Be solemn if your topic is serious. Present the desired image to your audience.
- Look pleasant, enthusiastic, confident, proud, but not arrogant.
- Remain calm. Appear relaxed, even if you feel nervous.
- Speak slowly, enunciate clearly, and show appropriate emotion and feeling relating to your topic.
- Establish rapport with your audience.
- Speak to the person farthest away from you to ensure your voice is loud enough to project to the back of the room. Vary the tone of your voice and dramatize if necessary. If a microphone is available, adjust and adapt your voice accordingly.
- Body language is important. Standing, walking or moving about with appropriate hand gesture or facial expression is preferred to sitting down or standing still with head down and reading from a prepared speech. Use audio-visual aids or props for enhancement if appropriate and necessary.
- Master the use of presentation software such as *PowerPoint* well before your presentation. Do not over-dazzle your audience with excessive use of animation, sound clips, or gaudy colors which are inappropriate for your topic. Do not torture your audience by putting a lengthy document in tiny print on an overhead and reading it out to them.
- Speak with conviction as if you really believe in what you are saying. Persuade your audience effectively.
- The material you present orally should have the same ingredients as that which are required for a written research paper, i.e. a logical progression from INTRODUCTION to BODY (strong supporting arguments, accurate and up-to-date information) to CONCLUSION.
- Do not read from notes for any extended length of time although it is quite acceptable to glance at your notes infrequently. Speak loudly and clearly. Sound confident.
- Do not mumble. If you made an error, correct it, and continue. No need to make excuses or apologize profusely.

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- Maintain sincere eye-contact with your audience. Use the 3-second method, e.g. look straight into the eyes of a person in the audience for 3 seconds at a time. Have direct eye contact with a number of people in the audience, and every now and then glance at the whole audience while speaking. Use your eye-contact to make everyone in your audience feel involved.
- Speak to your audience, listen to their questions, respond to their reactions, adjust and adapt.
- If what you have prepared is obviously not getting across to your audience, change your strategy mid-stream if you are well prepared to do so. Remember that communication is the key to a successful presentation.
- If you are short of time, know what can be safely left out. If you have extra time, know what could be effectively added. Always be prepared for the unexpected.
- Pause. Allow yourself and your audience a little time to reflect and think. Don't race through your presentation and leave your audience, as well as yourself, feeling out of breath.
- Add humor whenever appropriate and possible. Keep audience interested throughout your entire presentation. Remember that an interesting speech makes time fly, but a boring speech is always too long to endure even if the presentation time is the same.
- When using audio-visual aids to enhance your presentation, be sure all necessary equipment is set up and in good working order prior to the presentation. If possible, have an emergency backup system readily available. Check out the location ahead of time to ensure seating arrangements for audience, whiteboard, blackboard, lighting, location of projection screen, sound system, etc. are suitable for your presentation.
- Have handouts ready and give them out at the appropriate time. Tell audience ahead of time that you will be giving out an outline of your presentation so that they will not waste time taking unnecessary notes during your presentation.
- Know when to STOP talking. Use a timer or the microwave oven clock to time your presentation when preparing it at home. Just as you don't use unnecessary words in your written paper, you don't bore your audience with repetitious or unnecessary words in your oral presentation. To end your presentation, summarize your main points in the same way as you normally do in the CONCLUSION of a written paper.
- Remember, however, that there is a difference between spoken words appropriate for the ear and formally written words intended for reading. Terminate your presentation with an interesting remark or an appropriate punch line. Leave your listeners with a positive

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impression and a sense of completion. Do not belabor your closing remarks. Thank your audience and sit down.

- Have the written portion of your assignment or report ready for your instructor if required.

The objectives of a public speaker's presentation can range from simply transmitting information, to motivating people to act, to simply telling a story. People who speak publicly in a professional capacity are paid a 'speaking fee'. Professional public speakers may include ex-politicians, sports stars and other public figures. In the case of high profile personalities, the sum can be extraordinary.

Public speaking and oration are sometimes considered some of the most importantly valued skills that an individual can possess. This skill can be used for almost anything. Most great speakers have a natural ability to display the skills and effectiveness that can help to engage and move an audience for whatever purpose. Language and rhetoric use are among two of the most important aspects of public speaking and interpersonal communication. Having knowledge and understanding of the use and purpose of communication can help to make a more effective speaker communicate their message in an effective way. The speeches of politicians are often widely analyzed by both their supporters and detractors.

Lesson 19

SENTENCE STRUCTURE

19.1 Introduction

One of the keys to good writing is to understand the countless ways in which basic sentence structures can be combined and arranged. A *sentence* consists of words correctly arranged to form a complete statement or idea. There are many different ways of organizing words into sentences. As we work to improve our writing, it is important to understand what these basic structures are and how to use them effectively. Different parts of speech have specific tasks to perform when they are put together in a sentence.

19.2 Basic Units of Writing

Even at the advanced level of learning, it is useful to recapitulate one's previous knowledge and form a clear idea of these units. The basic units of writing are

- Words
- Phrases
- Sentences
- Clauses

19.2.1 Word

- A **word** is a combination of speech sounds for conveying the desired meaning.
- **Sounds** are denoted by different letters of alphabet.
- A word may be divided into several speaking units.
- The minimum speaking unit in a word is called a **syllable**.
- **Mono-syllabic words:** A word may have only one syllable, e.g., come, sit, love, speak etc.
- **Multi-syllabic words:** A word may also have two or more syllables, e.g., lovely, speaker, quality, democracy, responsibility etc.

19.2.2 Phrase

- A **Phrase** is a group of words conveying some sense.

- It does not contain a complete verb though it may have a participle or an infinitive.
- **Ordinary phrases** e.g., in the room, on the table, a bunch of flowers' reading a book.
- Some phrases are **idiomatic phrases**, e.g. at the eleventh hour. A red-letter day.

19.2.3 Sentence

- A **Sentence** is a group of words making a complete sense.

19.2.4 Clause

- A **clause** is a sentence within a sentence dependent on the main clause.

19.3 Parts of Speech

Words are divided into different kinds or classes, called **Parts of Speech**, *according to their use*; that is, *according to the work they do in a sentence*. The parts of Speech are eight in number:

Table 1.1 Parts of speech

1. Noun	2. Adjective
3. Pronoun	4. Verb
5. Adverb	6. Preposition
7. Conjunction	8. Interjection

- A **Noun** is a word used as the name of a person, place or thing; as
Ram is my elder *brother*.
Delhi is the capital of *India*.
The *rose* smells sweet.
The *sun* shines bright.
Mohan was carried away by her *beauty*.

Note: The word *things* includes (i) all objects that we can see, hear, taste, touch, or smell and (ii) something that we can *think* of, but cannot perceive by the senses.

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- An **Adjective** is a word used to add something to the meaning of a noun; as
She is a *beautiful* girl.
There are *fifty* boys in this class.
- A **Pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun; as,
The principal is absent, because *he* is ill.
She went to Mumbai to make presentation of *her* work.
- A **Verb** is a word used to say something about some person, place, or thing; as,
The girl *wrote* a letter to her brother.
They *are playing* in the garden.
There *are* many students in the class.
- An **Adverb** is a word used to add something to the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as,
He solved the problem *quickly*.
He walks *slowly*.
- A **Preposition** is a word used with a noun or a pronoun to show how the person or thing denoted by the noun or pronoun stands in relation to something else; as,
There is a peacock *in* the garden.
The girl is fond *of* dancing.
The group consists *of* twenty boys.
- A **Conjunction** is a word used to join words or sentences; as,
Rama *and* Shama are sisters.
Two *and* two make four.
We tried our best, *but* lost the match.
- An **Interjection** is a word which expresses some sudden feeling; as,
Hurrah! We have won the lottery.
Alas! She has lost the game.

19.4 Word Order

In the English language there are no different forms for subjects and objects. To keep subject and object apart, however, we have to stick to the word order.

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In English, Grammatical meaning is largely determined by word order.

Blue sky and *sky blue* mean different things.

In the first, *blue* describes the *sky*

In the second *sky* describes the *blue*.

Tile floor and *Floor tile*

In the first one, *tile* describes the *floor* whereas in the second one *floor* describes the *tile*.

- Our new neighbors bought an old house.
- Our old neighbors bought a new house.

19.5 Function Words

Function words, sometimes called grammatical words, are words such as *the, and, but, in, to, because, while, ought, and must*. The main use of function words is to express relationships among other words. Compare the following

- The cook prepared *a* rich feast.
- The cook prepared *the* rich a feast.

19.6 Inflections

Inflections are changes in the form of words that indicate differences in grammatical relationship.

- Stop bothering me.
- Stops bother me.

We should be able to control these grammatical devices –word order, functional words, and inflections. All this is essential to writing clearly.

19.7 Sentence Structure Analysis

A sentence is a group of words making complete sense. It may be a single sentence with a complete verb or may comprise two or more clauses. In imperatives, even a verb can make a complete sense and thus, may be considered a sentence. A clear understanding of the various kinds of sentences is necessary for effective writing.

19.7.1 Kinds of sentence (Classification by function)

Assertive sentences

These sentences contain **statements** and are used for conveying information, e.g.

He is a good player.

She has gone to Germany for a week.

Pattern: Subject + Verb + Object (SVO)

Interrogative sentences

These sentences contain questions which may begin with a helping verb or an interrogative word like What, When, Which, How, Who, Whose, Whom or Where, e.g.,

How did you go there?

Do they want to see the movie?

-Pattern: Verb + Subject + Object (VSO)

Imperative sentences

These sentences contain **commands, requests, advice, suggestions, orders** etc.

Don't make a noise.

Let us go for a walk.

Pattern: Verb + Object (VO)

Exclamatory sentences

These sentences contain **emotional outbursts** and describe feelings of **joy, sorrow, or wonder**, e.g.

Aha! How lovely this frock is!

What a beautiful piece of art!

19.7.2 Kinds of Sentence (Classification by structure)

Simple sentences

A simple sentence is a sentence with one finite or complete verb, e.g.,

I go to school.

Hard work is the key to success in life.

Compound sentences

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A compound sentence is made of two or more simple sentences combined with **co-ordinating conjunctions** like **and, but, or, for, either...or, neither...nor, both...and, not only...but also**, etc. The clauses in a compound sentence are called co-ordinate clauses. e.g.

I go to college **and** learn Physics.

He tried his best to win the race **but** failed.

Complex sentences

A complex sentence is made of an independent clause known as the main or the principal clause and one or more dependent clauses known as subordinate clauses. **Subordinating conjunctions** like **when, where, while, so that, if, unless, although, until, that** etc., are used to join the subordinate clause with the principal clause which does not require any conjunction for itself. e.g.

I go to college **so that** I may learn Physics.

If the rain continues, the crop will be damaged.

Wait here **until** I come.

We hope that we shall be able to complete the task.

Multiple sentences

A multiple sentence, also known as a **compound-complex** sentence, involves the use of both the compound and the complex sentences. It contains one or more principal clauses, one or more subordinate clauses, and one or more co-ordinate clauses, e.g.,

If it continues to rain, we shall not go to office **and** work at home.

Lesson 20

MODIFIERS, CONNECTING WORDS AND VERBALS; PHRASES AND CLAUSES

20.1 Introduction

All sentences in English are not limited to the basic patterns. The variety and complexity of our sentences is created by the addition of modifying words and by the use of several different kinds of word groups that can themselves serve as nouns and modifiers.

20.2 Modifying Words: Adjectives and Adverbs

Modifiers are words or word groups that limit, qualify, and make more exact the other words or word groups to which they are attached. Adjectives and adverbs are the principal single-word modifiers in English.

Adjectives and Adverbs are modifying words; that is, they are words that limit or qualify the meaning of other words. Adjectives modify nouns, and they are usually placed either immediately before or immediately after the word they modify.

Adverbs normally modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. They may sometimes modify whole sentences. When they modify adjectives or other adverbs, they are adjacent to the words they modify. When they modify verbs, they are frequently, but not always, adjacent to the verbs.

Adverbs qualify the meaning of the words they modify by indicating such things as *when*, *where*, *how*, *why*, *in what order*, or *how often*.

The office closed *yesterday*. [*Yesterday* indicates when.]

Deliver all mail *here*. [*Here* indicates where.]

She replied *quickly* and *angrily*. [*Quickly* and *angrily* describe how she replied.]

Consequently, I left. [*Consequently* describes why.]

He *seldom* did any work. [*Seldom* indicates how often.]

20.3 Connecting Words: Prepositions and Conjunctions

Connecting words enable us to link one word or word group with another and to combine them in way that allow us not only to express our ideas more concisely, but also to express the relationships between those ideas more clearly.

We don't need to say: *We had tea. We had toast.*

Rather, we can say: *We had tea and toast*

Or

We had tea with toast.

We don't need to say: *We talked. We played games. We went home.*

Rather, we can say: *After we talked and played games, we went home*

Or

After talking and playing games, we went home.

The kinds of words that enable us to make these connections and combinations are prepositions and conjunctions.

A **Preposition** links a noun or pronoun (called its **object**) with some other word in the sentence and shows the relationship between the object and the other word. The preposition, together with its object, almost always modifies the other word to which it is linked.

The dog walks on the grass. [*On* links *grass* to the verb *walks*; *on grass* modifies *walks*.]

A preposition usually comes before its object; in a few constructions it can follow its object.

For which company do you work?

Which company do you work for?

Table 20.1 The most common prepositions are listed below

about	below	into	through
above	beside	near	to
across	by	next	toward
after	down	of	under
among	during	off	until
around	except	on	up

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as	for	out	upon
at	from	over	with
before	in	past	within
behind	inside	since	without

Some prepositions combine with other words to form **phrasal prepositions**, such as *at the point of, by means of, down from, from above, in addition to, with regard to*.

Note that some words, such as *below, down, in, out, and up*, occur both as prepositions and as adverbs. Used as adverbs, they never have objects.

(Note too that *after, as, before, since, and until* also function as subordinating conjunctions.

A **Conjunction** joins words, phrases, or clauses. Conjunctions show the relationship between the sentence elements that they connect.

Coordinating conjunctions (*and, but, or, not, for, so, yet*) join words, phrases, or clauses of equal grammatical rank.

WORDS JOINED We ate bread *and* butter.

PHRASES JOINED Look in the almirah *or* under the table.

CLAUSES JOINED We wanted to play, *but* we were too busy.

Correlative conjunctions are coordinating words that work in pairs to join words, phrases, clauses, or whole sentences. The most common correlative pairs are *both.....and, either.....or, neither.....nor, not.....but, and not only.....but also*.

both honest and candid

either before you go or after you get back

not only as a father but also as a teacher

Subordinating Conjunctions join clauses that are not equal in rank. A clause introduced by a subordinating conjunction is called a *dependent* or *subordinate* clauses and cannot stand by itself as a sentences; it must be joined to a main, or independent, clause.

We left the office early *because we were tired*.

If the weather is bad, we will have to call off the match.

Whether you like it or not, you will have to take the medicine.

Table 20.2 The following are the most common subordinating conjunctions:

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after	even though	than	where
although	even if	that	wherever
as	if	though	whether
as if	in order that	unless	while
as though	since	until	
because	rather than	when	
before	so that	whenever	

20.4 Verbs

Verbals are special verb forms that have some of the characteristics and abilities of verbs but cannot function as verbs by themselves. Verbs make an assertion. Verbals do not; they function as nouns and modifiers. They are three kinds of verbals: **infinitives, participles, and gerunds.**

Infinitives are usually marked by a *to* before the actual verb (*to eat, to describe*). **They are used as noun, adjectives, or adverbs.**

To see is to believe. [Both used as nouns]

It was time to play. [Used as adjective]

I was ready to leave. [Used as adverb]

Participles may be either present or past. The present form ends in *-ing* (*eating, running, describing*). The past form usually ends in *-ed* (*described*). But note that some end in *-en* (*eaten*), and a few make an internal change (*begun, flown*).

Participles are always used as adjectives.

Crying, the child left the room in a huff. [Present participle]

Divided, the members adjourned the proceedings of the house. [Past participle]

Gerunds have the same *-ing* from as the present participle. **The distinctive name gerund is given to -ing forms only when they function as nouns.**

Running a marathon requires stamina. [Subject of requires]

You should try singing. [Object of try]

20.5 Recognizing Phrases

A **phrase** is a group of related words that has no subject or predicate and is used as a single part of speech. Typical phrases are a preposition and its object (I fell *on the floor*), or a verbal and its object (I wanted *to take a cup of coffee*).

Phrases are usually classified as prepositional, infinitive, participial, or gerund phrases.

20.5.1 Prepositional phrases

Preposition phrases consist of a preposition, its object, and any modifiers of the object (*under the ground, without thinking, in the blue car*). Prepositional phrases function as adjective or adverbs and occasionally as nouns

He is a man *of principles* [Adjective modifying man]

The train arrived *on time*. [Adverb modifying arrived]

We will be ready *in an hour*. [Adverb modifying ready]

She came early *before sunset*. [Adverb modifying early]

20.5.2 Infinitive phrases

Infinitive phrases consist of an infinitive, its modifiers, and/or its object (*to play the game, to dance swiftly, to earn profit quickly*). Infinitive phrases function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

I wish *to sing a song*. [Noun, object of verb]

It is time *to go to bed*. [Adverb modifying time]

We were hungry *to eat the food*. [Adverb modifying hungry]

20.5.3 Participial phrases

Participial phrases consist of a present or past participle, its modifiers, and/or its object (*lying on the bed, seen in the theatre, running a race*). Participial phrases always function as adjectives.

The *man running in the street* is my brother.

Covered with snow, the path was slippery.

Harassed by the principal, Mohan quit the job.

20.5.4 Gerund phrases

Gerund phrases consist of a gerund, its modifiers, and/or its object (*working overtime, knowing the rules, acting swiftly*). Gerund phrases always function as nouns.

Teaching English is my pastime. [Subject]

They got success by *working hard*. [Objective of preposition]

He hated *smoking alone*. [Object of verb]

Note that since both the gerund and the present participle end in –ing, they can be distinguished only by their separate functions as noun or adjectives.

20.6 Recognizing Clauses

A clause is a group of words which forms part of a sentence, and contains a subject and a predicate. There are two kinds of clauses: (1) main, or independent, clause and (2) subordinate, or dependent, clause.

20.6.1 Main clause

A main clause has both subject and verb. But it is not introduced by a subordinating word. A main clause makes an independent statement. The main clause can stand on its own.

20.6.2 Subordinate clause

Subordinate clauses are usually introduced by a subordinate conjunction (*as, such because, etc.*) or by a relative pronoun (*who, which, that*). Subordinate clauses function as adjectives, adverbs, or nouns. They express ideas that are less important than the idea expressed in the main clause. The exact relationship between the two ideas is indicated by the subordinating conjunction or relative pronoun that joins the subordinate and the main clause. The subordinate clause cannot stand on its own.

a) An Adjective Clause modifies a noun or pronoun.

This is the athlete *that broke the world record*. [The subordinate clause modifies the noun athlete]

b) An Adverb Clause modifies a verb, adjective, or adverb.

The thief escaped *when the police arrived*. [The subordinate clause modifies the verb *escaped*]

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I am sorry *he is not well*. [The subordinate clause modifies the adjectives *sorry*, with the subordinate conjunction *that* understood]

He does the job more quickly *than you do*. [The subordinate clause modifies the adverb *quickly*]

c) A Noun Clause functions as a noun. It may serve as subject, predicate noun, object as a verb, or object as a preposition.

What Ram wants is a better position. [The subordinate clause is the subject of the verb *is*.]

This is *what we are looking for*. [The subordinate clause is a predicate noun.]

Please inform them *I will be late for the meeting*. [The subordinate clause is the object of the verb *inform*.]

He has no interest in *what he is doing*. [The subordinate clause is the object of the preposition *in*.]

Lesson 21

CASE: SUBJECTIVE CASE; POSSESSIVE CASE; OBJECTIVE CASE

21.1 Introduction

Nouns and pronouns in English are said to display *case* according to their function in the sentence. They can be **subjective** or **nominative** (which means they act as the subject of independent or dependent clauses), **possessive** (which means they show possession of something else), or **objective** (which means they function as the recipient of action or are the object of a preposition).

The Case shows the function of nouns and pronouns in a sentence.

e.g. **He gave me a month's vacation.**

The **subjective case** form **he** indicates that the pronoun is being used as the subject;

The **objective case** form **me** shows that the pronoun is an object;

The **possessive case** form **month's** indicates that the noun is possessive.

Table 21.1 Personal pronouns

	SUBJECTIVE	POSSESSIVE	OBJECTIVE
<i>Singular</i>			
FIRST PERSON	I	my, mine	me
SECOND PERSON	you	your, yours	you
THIRD PERSON	he, she, it	his, her, hers, its	him, her, it
<i>Plural</i>			
FIRST PERSON	we	our, ours	us
SECOND PERSON	you	your, yours	you
THIRD PERSON	they	their, theirs	them
RELATIVE OR INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN			
Singular	who	whose	Whom
Plural	who	whose	whom

21.2 Subjective Case

Subjective case of pronoun for the subjects of all verbs and for all pronouns after all forms of the verb *be* such as *is*, *are*, *were*, or *have been*. We cannot say: “Us are happy” or “Him is going away”.

Use the subjective pronoun form in all parts of a compound subject.

He and *she* wanted to go to the film.

Ram and *she* went to the film, but Mohan and *I* worked.

1. After the conjunction *than* and *as*, use the subjective form of the pronoun if it is the subject of an understood verb.

She finishes her job faster than *I*.

We are as good as *they* [are].

2. Use the subjective form of a pronoun in an appositive describing a subject or a subject complement.

An appositive is a word or phrase set beside a noun or pronoun that identifies or explains it by renaming it.

We three, *Ram, Mary and I*, studied together. [*Ram, Mary and I* is an appositive describing the subject *We three*.]

We students had studied together for four years. [Not *Us students*, *Students* is an appositive defining the pronoun *we*.]

3. Use the subjective forms of the relative pronoun *who* and *whoever* when they serve as subjects of a clause.

The man *who* came to dinner stayed a month. [*Who* is the subject of *came* in the clause *who came to dinner*.]

Whoever sees the opera will enjoy it. [*Whoever* is the subject of the verb *sees* in the clause *whoever sees the opera*.]

4. The form of the pronoun is always determined by its function in its clause. If it serves as subject of its clause, be sure to use the subjective form even though the whole clause may be the object of a verb or preposition.

No one can guess *who* will be selected. [*Who* is the subject of *will be selected*.]

The clause *who will be appointed* is the object of the verb *predict*.]

The company offered a reward to *whoever* finished the target. [The entire clause is the object of the preposition *to*. *Whoever* is the subject of the clause.]

5. The form of the pronoun used as subject will not be changed when such expressions as I *think* and he *says* come between the subject and its verb.

We invited only the people *who* he said were his friends. [*Who* is the subject of *were*.]

Shakuntla is a woman *who* I think deserves promotion. [Who is the subject of *deserves*.]

Who do you think will buy Mohan's car? [*who* is the subject of *will buy*.]

6. In writing, use the subjective case of the personal pronoun after forms of the verb *be*, except in dialogue.

It's me, using the objective form of the pronoun, is generally used by speakers in all but the most formal situations, and *it's him, her, us, them* are increasingly common. In writing, these simple conversational constructions seldom occur except in dialogue. When they do, choose between the formal *It's I* and the conversational *It's me* depending upon the character whose speech you are quoting.

Except in dialogue, standard written English requires the subjective case of pronouns after the form of *be*.

It was *he* who took the major decisions, not *they*, the other family members.

It was *they*, however, who carried out all the tasks.

7. In writing, use the subjective case for a pronoun following the infinitive *to be* when the infinitive has no expressed subject.

Spoken English commonly uses the objective case of the pronoun in this construction.

WRITTEN- I would not want to be *he*. [The infinitive *to be* has no expressed subject.]

SPOKEN- I would not want to be Him.

21.3 Possessive case

1. Use the s-possessive (*boy's, Veena's*) with nouns naming living things. With nouns naming inanimate things, the *of*-phrase is sometimes preferred, but the s-form occurs very often.

*ANIMATE-*Veena's hair; an outsider's view; Director's approval

INANIMATE-the point of the pen; the wheel of the car; the name of the book;
the magazine's tone

The s-possessive is commonly used in expressions that indicate time (*moment's notice, year's labor*) and in many familiar phrases (*life's blood, heart's content*). Which possessive form to use may also depend on sound or rhythm: The s-possessive is terser than the longer, more sonorous *of*-phrase (the President's signature, the signature of the President).

- 2. In formal English, use the possessive case for a noun or pronoun preceding a gerund.** In informal English, however, the objective case rather than the possessive case is often found before a gerund.

FORMAL-What was the excuse for *his* being late?

INFORMAL-What was the excuse for *him* being late?

FORMAL-He complained of *Sharma's* keeping the money.

INFORMAL-He complained of *Sharma* keeping the money.

Even in formal English the objective case is frequently used with plural nouns.

The police prohibited *children* playing in the street.

The choice of case sometimes depends on the meaning the writer intends to convey.

Imagine *his* playing the guitar. [The act of playing the guitar is emphasized.]

Imagine *him* playing the guitar. [The emphasis is on *him*. *Playing* is here used as a participle modifying him.]

And note the difference in the meaning of the following sentences.

I hate that *woman* riding a bicycle.

I hate that *woman's* riding a bicycle.

Revise such sentences to ensure clarity.

I hate that woman who is riding a bicycle.

I hate the way that woman rides a bicycle.

- 3. Use *which* to refer to impersonal antecedents. However, substitute *whose* where the phrase of *which* would be awkward.**

We saw a house whose roof was falling in. [Compare: *We saw a house the roof of which was falling in.*]

This is the car whose steering wheel broke off when the driver was going seventy miles an hour. [Compare: *This is the car the steering wheel of which broke off when the driver was going seventy miles an hour.*]

21.4 Objective Case

Objective pronoun forms are used for the objects of all verbs, verbals, and prepositions.

OBJECT OF VERB The police sent *him* home.

Our daughter visited us

OBJECT OF VERBAL Visiting *them* was pleasant. [Object of gerund *visiting*]

I wanted to send *him* away. [Object of infinitive to send]

OBJECT OF PREPOSITION Send the information to *me*.
You must choose between us.

1. Use the objective pronoun forms in all parts of a compound object.

He found Ram and me at home. [Not *Ram and I*, *Me* is a part of a compound object of the verb *found*.]

They must choose between *you* and *me*. [Not *between you and I*, *Me* is a part of a compound object of the preposition *between*.]

2. After the conjunction *than* and *as*, use the objective pronoun if it is the object of an understood verb.

She likes him more than [she likes] *me*.

I noticed him as well as [I noticed] *her*.

3. Use the objective form of a pronoun in an appositive describing an object.

The president invited them-Geeta and *her*. [Geeta and *her* is an appositive describing them.]

4. Standard written English requires *whom* for all objects.

Whom are you discussing? [*Whom* is the object of the verb *are discussing*.]

Whom are you looking for? [*Whom* is the object of the preposition *for*.]

- 5. In subordinate clauses, use *whom* and *whomever* for all objects. Remember that the case of the relative pronoun in a subordinate clause depends upon its function in the clause and not upon the function of the whole clause.**

The guests *whom* we had expected did not come. [*Whom* is the object of the verb *had expected*. The clause *whom we had expected* modifies *guests*.]

Whomever we asked wanted more funds than we could think of. [*Whomever* is the object of the verb *asked* in the clause *whomever we asked*. The entire clause is the subject of the sentence.]

- 6. When the infinitive *to be* has an expressed subject, both the subject and the object of the infinitive are in the objective case.**

He took *him* to be *me*. [Him is the subject of the infinitive; *me* is the object.]

Lesson 22

CORRECT USAGE OF NOUNS

22.1 Introduction

Function is an important aspect of grammar, for the same word can function in more than one way.

Recognizing nouns: A **Noun** is a word used as the name of a person, place or thing; as

Ram is my elder *brother*.

Delhi is the capital of *India*.

The *rose* smells sweet.

The *sun* shines bright.

Mohan was carried away by her *beauty*.

Note The word *things* includes

- (i) All objects that we can see, hear, taste, touch, or smell and
- (ii) Something that we can *think* of, but cannot perceive by the senses.

22.2 Kinds of Noun

Common Nouns – dog, man, table (**Names general groups, places, people, or things**)

Proper Nouns – India, France, Sita (**Names specific people, places or things-First letter is always capitalized**)

Collective Nouns – crowd, group, team, flock (**Name groups**)

Concrete Nouns– landscape, bread, lightening (**Names things that can be seen, touched, heard, smelled and tasted**)

Abstract Nouns – beauty, charity, friendship, freedom, happiness (**Names things that can't be perceived through five senses**)

Mass Nouns – water, time (**Name uncountable things**)

22.3 Plurals

- a) Collective nouns, *crew, family, team* etc. can take a singular or plural verb; singular if we consider the word to mean a *single group or unit*:

Our team is the best.

(or plural if we take it to mean a **number of individuals**):

Our team are wearing their new jerseys.

- b) Certain words are always plural and take a plural verb

Clothes, police

Garments consisting of two parts:

Pants, pyjamas, trousers

And tools and instruments consisting of two parts:

Binoculars pliers scissors

Glasses soles spectacles

Also certain other words including:

Arms (weapons), premises

Damage (compensation), riches

Earnings, savings

Goods, sprits (alcohol)

Stairs, Outskirts, surroundings

Pains (efforts), valuables

- c) A number of words ending in ics

Acoustics, athletics, ethics, hysterics, which are plural in form, normally take a plural verb:

The acoustics of this room are very bad.

But names of sciences such as *mathematics, physics*, some of the following plural forms such as *mechanics, news, innings* are considered singular:

Mathematics is an exact science.

No news is good news.

India won by an innings and three runs.

- d) Words plural in form but singular in meaning include news

The news is good.

Certain diseases:

Mumps, rickets

And some games

Billiards, draughts

- e) Some words which **retain their original Greek or Latin forms** make their plural according to the **rules of Greek and Latin**

Crisis, crises

phenomenon, phenomena

Memorandum, memoranda

radius, radii

Oasis, oases

terminus, termini

But some follow English rules:

Dogma, dogmas

formula, formulas (formulae is used by scientists)

Sometimes there are two plural forms with different meanings:

Appendix, appendixes or appendices (medical term)

Appendix, appendices (addition/s to a book)

Index, indexes (in books), indices (in mathematics)

f) Compound Nouns

Normally, the last word is made plural:

Boy-friends, break-ins

But where man and woman is prefixed, both parts are made plural:

Men drivers, women drivers

The first word is made plural with compounds formed of verb + er. Noun + adverbs

Runners-up, lookers on

22.4 Uncountable Nouns

a) Uncountable nouns include names of substances considered generally

Bread soap cloth sand dust glass

They also include abstract nouns:

Advice courage knowledge
Beauty fear information

b) Uncountable nouns are always singular and are *not used with a/an*:

I don't want (any) advice or help. I want (some) information.

These nouns are often preceded by some, any, no, a little etc. or by nouns such as bit, piece, slice etc.

a bit of news a piece of advice a grain of sand
a drop of water a pane of glass

c) Many of the nouns in the above group can be used in a particular sense and are then countable and can take a/an in the singular. Below are some such words:

Experience meaning ‘something which happened to someone’ is countable
He had an exciting experience

d) Some *abstract nouns* can be used in a particular sense with *a/an*, but in the singular only:

My father is a great help to me. a love of music
It was a relief to sit down. a hatred of violence
It's a shame he was insulted.

22.5 The Form of the Possessive Case

a) 's is used with singular nouns and plural nouns not ending in s:

a man's job women's club
a child's voice the people's choice
the children's room

b) A simple apostrophe (') is used with plural nouns ending in s:

a girls' school the eagles' nest
the students' hostel the people's choice

c) Classical names ending in s usually, add only the apostrophe:

Pythagoras' theorem Archimedes' Law

d) Other names ending in s can take ('s) or the apostrophe alone:

Mr. Jones's (or Mr. Jones') house
Keats's (or Keats') poems

e) With compound nouns, the last word takes the ('s):

My brother-in-law's company

22.6 Uses of the Possessive Case

a) In time expressions:

a week's holiday	ten minutes' break
today's paper	two hour's delay
tomorrow's weather	a ten minute's break
a two hour delay	a ten minute break
are also possible.	

b) With **for + noun + sake:**

for heaven's sake for goodness' sake

c) **Sometimes certain nouns can be used in the possessive case without the second noun:**

at/the chemist's/florist's
can mean at the chemist's/florist's shop
You can buy it at the chemist's.
He is going to the dentist's.
Names of people can sometimes be used similarly to mean “....'s”
We met at Patel's

Lesson 23

CORRECT USAGE OF PRONOUNS AND ANTECEDENTS

23.1 Introduction

A **Pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun; as,
The principal is absent, because *he* is ill.

Our writing would be dull if we repeated nouns. Consequently, we use a pronoun ('pro' meaning 'for') instead of repeating a noun.

23.2 Number, Person and Gender

Possessive, relative and demonstrative pronouns must be of same number, person and gender as the nouns e. g.

One should not waste *his* energy over trifles. (Wrong)

One should not waste *one's* energy over trifles. (Right)

a) The pronoun is singular when two singular nouns joined by *and* are preceded by each or every.

Every day and every night brings its own duty. (Right)

b) The pronoun is singular when two or more singular nouns are joined by *or*, *either or*, or *neither nor*. Thus:

The manager **or** the assistant should put *his* time in investigating the details.

Either Ram or Jagmohan forgot to take *his* pen.

Neither Sita nor Rekha did *her* job sincerely.

c) When a plural noun and a singular noun are joined by *or* or *nor*, the pronoun agrees with the noun nearest to it.

Either the manager or the assistants failed in *their* duty.

Either the assistants or the manager failed in *his* duty.

Neither he nor they have done *their* duty.

23.3 Reflexive Pronoun

When such verbs as *avail*, *absent*, *acquit*, *enjoy* are used reflexively, never omit the reflexive pronoun:

I shall avail of your kind advice. (Wrong)

I shall *avail myself* of your kind advice. (Correct)

He absented from college. (Wrong)

He *absented himself* from college. (Right)

23.4 Relative Pronoun

a) After **such**, use the relative pronoun **as** and not **who or which** e. g.

His performance was such as I had expected him to give.

b) A relative pronoun should agree with its antecedent in person and number, e. g. ;

This is one of the most interesting stories that *has* appeared this year. (Wrong).

This is one of the most interesting stories that *have* appeared this year. (Correct)

This is the only one of his books that *are* worth reading. (Wrong).

This is the only one of his books that *is* worth reading. (Correct)

(Change *are* to *is*, for here the antecedent of that is one).

c) A relative pronoun or relative adverb should be placed as close to its antecedent as possible e. g.

I have read Plato's writings, who was a disciple of Socrates. (Wrong)

I have read the writings of Plato who was a disciple of Socrates. (Correct)

d) **Each other** should be used in speaking of two persons or things, '**one another**' in speaking of more than two:

When we two friends parted, they wished luck to each other.

We should respect one another.

e) Either should be used in reference to two. When the reference is to more than two, we should use **any one**:

Either of these two medicines will do you good.

She is more beautiful than any of her four friends. (not either)

- f) **Which when used as a relative pronoun, must relate to some noun or pronoun, i.e. its antecedent previously mentioned. Using which without an antecedent is wrong:**

He won the gold medal in race, which pleased his parents. (Wrong)

His winning of the gold medal in race in race pleased his parents. (Right)

No one objected to his suggestion, which was disappointing. (Wrong: Because the sentence fails to clarify what was disappointing, the suggestion, or the fact that no one objected).

23.5 Case Forms of Pronouns: ‘He/Him’ , ‘They/Them’

- a) **A pronoun following any part of the verb be (am, is, are, was, were, been, be) and referring to the subject is in the nominative case:**

The managers of the firm are Rahul, Vikas and I.

It was she who fell ill last night.

Do you think it could have been she who acted in film?

- b) **The object of a verb or a preposition is in the objective case:**

Me, you, her, it, him, us, them

- c) **Both members of a compound subject must be in the same case:**

The doctor sent Geeta and me to hospital.

(Geeta and me are objects of the verb sent)

Between Anil and him there has always been a good rapport.

(Anil and him are objects of the preposition between)

- d) **In case of an elliptical clause beginning with than or as, if you supply the missing word or words, you should have little trouble deciding the correct case of the pronoun.**

My friend is taller than I. (I am)

Mr. Verma is as good a person as she. (She is)

Nobody loves you more than he. (than he does)

- e) **The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case. The infinitive is a verb that usually has to in front of it:**

She asked me to wait for her.

The boss asked me to go to the head office.

f) The object of an infinitive, Gerund or participle is in the objective case:

The teacher wants *to see* us. (us is the object of infinitive *to see*)

Finding you here is a pleasant surprise. (You is the object of the gerund finding)

Having seen him instantly, I ran for safety. (him is the object of the participle *having seen*).

g) The possessive case of a noun or pronoun should be used before a gerund:

I do not approve of *his playing* the prank. (Playing is the gerund. It is the object of the preposition of)

Her cooking could be improved. (Cooking is the gerund)

23.6 Who/Whom, Whom/Whomever

a) The following sentences illustrate proper use of *who* and *whoever* nominative forms serving as subjects of the verbs in the dependent classes:

I demand the opportunity for *whoever* wishes it.

(‘*whoever*’ is the subject of the verb ‘wishes’; the whole clause is the object of the preposition ‘*for*’).

The question of *who* can seize the opportunity must be answered.

(*who* is the subject of *can seize*; the whole clause is the object of the preposition *of*).

b) The following sentences illustrate proper use of *whom* and *whomever*, objective forms serving as objects in the dependent clause.

This is the boy *whom* I met in the wedding. (direct object of *met*).

Bring *whomever* you like. (direct object of ‘like’; dependent clause of bring).

Lesson 24

CORRECT USAGE OF ADJECTIVES

24.1 Introduction

Adjectives modify--describe or limit – nouns, pronouns, and word groups functioning as nouns.

She is a *beautiful* girl.

There are *fifty* boys in this class.

The flowering trees were *beautiful*.

24.2 Kinds of Adjectives

The main kinds of adjectives are:

- a) **Demonstrative** – this, that, these, those
- b) **Distributive** – each, every, either, neither
- c) **Quantitative** – some, any, no, little/few, many, much
- d) **Relative** – which, what, whose, whatever, whichever, whosoever
- e) **Interrogative** – which, what, whose
- f) **Possessive** – my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their
- g) **Adjectives of Quality** – clever, dry, fat, golden

24.2.1 Participles used as adjectives

Both **present participles (ing)** and **past participles (ed)** can be used as adjectives.

Present participle adjectives *amusing, boring, tiring* etc are active and mean ‘having this effect’.

Past participle adjectives *amused, bored, tired* are passive and mean ‘affected in this way’.

an infuriating woman (She made us furious)

an infuriated woman (Something had made her furious)

24.3 Position of Adjectives

- a) **Adjective of quality** usually comes before their nouns:

a rich man a happy girl

b) In certain phrases, the Adjective of quality comes after the nouns:

Heir apparent	time immemorial	notary public
God Almighty	viceroy elect	

c) After linking verbs such as – be, become, seem

Jagdish became **rich**. His mother seems **happy**.

d) After verb such as – appear, feel, get/grow, keep, look, make, smell, sound, taste, turn. Verbs used in this way are called **Link verbs**.

Mohan felt **cold**. He made her **happy**.

He grew **impatient**. The idea sounds **interesting**.

Adjectives in this position are called **Predicative Adjectives**.

e) A Problem with verbs as in (d) above is that they can also be modified by adverbs. This confuses the student, who tries to use adverb instead of adjectives after link verbs. Following examples with adjectives and adverbs help to show the different uses:

He looked **calm**. (adj.) = (He had a calm expression)

He looked **calmly** (adv.) at the angry crowd. = (looked here is a deliberate action)

The drink tasted **horrible**. (adj.) = (It had a horrible taste)

He tasted the drink **suspiciously**. (adv.) = (tasted here is a deliberate action)

24.4 Comparison of Adjectives

a) There are three degrees of comparison:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
dark	darker	darkest
useful	more useful	most useful

b) One-syllable adjectives form their comparative and superlative degrees by adding er and est to the positive form:

bright brighter brightest

Adjectives ending in **e** add **r** and **st**:

brave braver bravest

- c) Adjectives of three or more syllables form their comparative and superlative degrees by putting more and most before the positive:

Interested	more interested	most interested
frightening	more frightening	most frightening

- d) Adjectives of two syllables follow one or other of the above rules. Those ending in ful or re usually take more and most:

Doubtful	more doubtful	most doubtful
Obscure	more obscure	most obscure

Those ending in er, y, or ly usually add er, est:

clever	cleverer	cleverest
pretty	rettier	prettiest
silly	sillier	silliest

24.5 Constructions with Comparisons

- a) With the positive form of the adjective, we use as...as in the affirmative and not as/not so...as in the negative

A boy of sixteen is often as tall as his father.

Coffee is not as/so good as my mother makes it.

- b) With comparative, we use than

He makes fewer mistakes than you (do).

It was more expensive than I thought.

Do's and Don'ts of the use of Adjectives

- a) Do not use an adjective in the comparative degree when no comparison expressed or implied is made.

He is a more intelligent student in the class. (Wrong)

He is a very intelligent student. (Right)

OR

He is the most intelligent student in the class. (Right)

- b) Following are not compared, nor can *most* be used with them.

Perfect, unique, full, infinite, chief, perceptual, extreme, ideal, entire, complete, universal, empty, impossible, preferable, unanimous, square, round, golden etc.

He is more perfect than his brother.

(Wrong- Perfect expresses the quality to the utmost extent.)

He is perfect.

- c) **The comparative adjectives, superior, inferior, senior, junior, prior, anterior, posterior, prefer, preferable are followed by *to* instead of *than*:**

He is senior *to* me. (not '*than* me').

- d) **Avoid double comparatives.**

It is rather more important. (Wrong. The word *rather* is comparative)

It is rather important.

OR

It is more important.

His brother is a more better singer than he. (wrong)

His brother is a better singer than he.

- e) **When two persons or two things are compared, it is important to see that the comparison is restricted to the only two that are compared.**

The population of India is greater than the U. S. A. (wrong).

The population of India is greater than that of the U. S. A . (Right)

Use *than that of*; otherwise your sentence will give the impression that you are comparing Indian Population with the U. S. A., a country).

- f) **When a comparison is introduced, followed by than, the thing compared must always be excluded from the class of things with which it is compared, by using other. For example,**

Delhi is larger than any city in India. (Wrong)

Delhi is larger than any other city in India. (Right)

- g) **Do not use other or any in the superlative degree. For example,**

He is the wisest of all other students in his class. (Wrong)

He is the wisest of all. (Right)

- h) Use an adjective of the superlative degree, only when the noun it qualifies indicates the possession of a quality to a higher degree than other member of the same class.**

He wrote the best book. (Wrong)

He wrote an excellent book.

- i) An adjective in the superlative degree normally takes the and not a or an before it.**

This is **a** worst example of incompetence I have ever come across. (Wrong)

This is **the** worst example of incompetence I have ever come across.
(Right)

- j) When two adjectives refer to the same noun and one of them is in the superlative degree, the other must also be in the superlative degree. The same is the case with the comparatives.**

He is the best and honest minister in Parliament. (Wrong).

He is the best and the most honest minister in Parliament. (Right)

He is both charitable and richer than you. (Wrong)

He is both richer and more charitable than you. (Right)

- k) The two first is a meaningless expression, for it implies two things may be first. So is the two last.**

The two first chapters of the novel are dull. (Wrong)

The first two chapters of the novel are dull. (Right)

- l) Use some in affirmative sentences and any in negative and interrogative sentences:**

I shall buy some books. (not any)

I shall not buy any books. (not some)

Have you bought any book? (not some)

- m) *Later* and *latest* refer to time. *latter* and *last* refer to position:**

He came latter than I. (Wrong)

He came later than I. (Right)

Between these two books the later is more interesting. (Wrong)

Between these two books the latter is more interesting. (Right)

n) *Farther* means more distant or advanced, *further* means additional.

Calcutta is farther (not further) from the equator than Colombo.

After this, he made no further (not farther) remarks,

o) *Older* and *oldest* may be used for persons or things, but *elder* and *eldest* apply to persons only. They are chiefly used for comparisons within a family.

He will inherit the property after death of his elder (not older) brother.

He is the oldest (not eldest) inhabitant of this village.

My brother is elder to (not than) me.

p) *little*, *a little* and *the little* are correctly used as follows:

There is little hope of recovery. (not likely to recover) (hardly any hope).

There is a little hope of recovery. (may possibly recover).

Do not waste the little energy you possess. (the small amount, whatever it is).

q) *few*, *a few* and *the few* are correctly used as follows:

Few women can keep a secret. (Hardly any woman can keep a secret).

A few were present. (Some were present).

The few members who came for the show had to return disappointed. (not many, but whoever there was).

r) *less* refers to quantity, whereas *fewer* denote number. For example,

No less than fifty persons were killed in the accident. (Wrong).

No fewer than fifty persons were killed in the accident. (Right)

We do not buy fewer than one litre of milk. (Wrong)

We do not buy less than one litre of milk. (Right)

Lesson 25

CORRECT USAGE OF ADVERBS

25.1 Introduction

An Adverb is a word which modifies the meaning of a Verb, an Adjective or another adverb. Sometimes, Adverb standing at the beginning of sentences even modifies the whole sentence.

Geeta runs **quickly**.

This is a **very** interesting book.

He works **quite** efficiently.

Fortunately, he escaped unhurt.

25.2 Kinds of Adverbs

Adverbs of Manner: bravely, fast, happily, hard, quickly, well

Adverbs of Place: by, down, here, near, up, there

Adverbs of Time: now, soon, still, then, today, yet

Adverbs of Frequency: always, never, occasionally, often, again, twice

Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation: certainly, definitely, surely

Adverbs of Degree or Quantity: fairly, hardly, rather, quite, too, very

Adverbs of Reason: hence, therefore

Interrogative Adverbs: When, Where, why

Relative Adverbs: When, Where, why

25.3 Comparative & Superlative Adverb Forms

- a) With adverbs of two or more syllables we form the comparative and superlative by putting more and most before the positive form.

quickly more quickly most quickly

Single syllable adverbs, hard and early; add er, est

hard	harder	hardest
early	earlier	earliest

Irregular Comparisons:

Well	better	best
Little	less	least
Much	more	most
far	farther	farthest (of distance only)
far	further	furthest (used more widely)

25.4 Position of Adverbs

- a) **Adverbs of manner, which answer the question ‘How’?(e.g., *well, fast, quickly, carefully, calmly*) are generally placed after the verb or after the object if there is one; as :**

It is raining *heavily*.
 She sang *beautifully*.
 He does his work *carefully*.
 He gave me the money *reluctantly*.

- b) **When the verb is transitive, an adverb can be placed either before the verb or after the object, but not between the verb and the object.**

He briefly explained his meaning. (Correct)
 He explained his meaning briefly. (Correct)
 He explained briefly his meaning. (Wrong)

- c) **If an adverb is placed after a clause or a phrase, it is considered to modify the verb in that case clause/phrase.**

They *secretly* decide to leave the town. (the decision was secret)
 (However, if we move *secretly* to the end of the sentence above, we change the meaning)
 They decided to leave the town *secretly*. (The departure was to be secret.)

- d) **Adverbs of frequency, which answer the question ‘How often? (e.g., *always, never, rarely, usually, generally*) and certain other adverbs like *almost, already, hardly, nearly, just, quite* are normally put between the subject and the verb if the verb consists of only one word; if there is more than one word in the verb, they are put after the first word.**

His wife *never* cooks.

He has *never* seen a lion.

I have *often* told him to write neatly.

I *quite* agree with you.

I *usually* have breakfast at nine.

- e) **Adverbs of degree-*absolutely, almost, completely, fairly, far, just, much, nearly, only, quite, rather*** modify adjectives or other adjectives.

You are *absolutely* right. I am *almost* ready.

But *enough* follows its adjectives or adverb:

The box isn't big *enough*. He didn't work quickly *enough*.

- f) ***Only* can also modify verbs. As a general rule, the word *only* should be placed immediately before the word it modifies; as**

He had *only* six apples. (not more than six)

He *only* lent the car. (He didn't give it)

- g) **Fairly and rather**

Both mean **moderately**, but *fairly* is chiefly used with favourable adjectives and adverb while *rather* is used in this sense before unfavorable adjectives and adverbs.

Ram is fairly clever, but his brother is rather stupid.

I walk fairly fast, but my wife walks rather slowly.

He was fairly relaxed; she was rather tense.

Rather can be used before certain favourable adjectives/adverbs such as amusing, clever, pretty, well' but then its meaning changes. It becomes nearly equivalent to very, and the disapproval vanishes:

She is rather clever. (She is very clever)

It is rather a good play. (It is a stronger recommendation than It is a fairly good play.)

- h) ***Else* should be followed by the adverb but, not *than*:**

It is nothing else than pride. (Wrong)

It is nothing else but pride. (Correct)

Call me anything else than a fool. (Wrong)

Call me anything but a fool. (Correct)

Lesson 26

CORRECT USAGE OF ARTICLES

26.1 Introduction

The Adjectives a or an and ***the*** are usually called Articles.

A or an is called the **Indefinite Article**, because it leaves indefinite the person or thing spoken of, as,

A teacher: i.e. any teacher.

The is called the **Definite Article**, because it points out some particular person or thing spoken of; as,

He met the teacher; meaning the particular teacher.

26.2 The Indefinite Article ‘a/an’

a) The form *a* is used before a word beginning with a consonant, or a vowel with a consonant sound:

a man	a European	a university
a hat	a one-way street	a hole

b) The form *an* is used before words beginning with a vowel (a, e, i, o, u) or words beginning with a mute *h*, or before individual letters spoken with a vowel sound:

an apple	an island	an M.P.
an egg	an hour	an orange
an MBA		

26.3 Use of ‘a/an’

a) *a/an* is used before a singular noun which is countable, when it is mentioned for the first time and represents no particular person or thing:

I need a pen. They live in a bungalow.

b) *a/an* is used before a singular countable noun which is used as an example of a class of things:

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A child needs love. (all children, any child).

A car must be maintained. (all cars, any car).

- c) *a/an* is used in certain expressions of quantity with certain numbers and in expressions of price:**

a lot of	a couple	Rs. 10 a kilo
a great many	a dozen	a great deal of
a hundred	three times a day	
a thousand	90 kms an hour	

- d) In exclamations before singular, countable nouns:**

Such a long rope!

What a pretty doll!

- e) *a* can be placed before Mr/Mrs./Miss:**

A Mr. Sareen means a man called Sareen and implies he is stranger to the speaker.

Mr. Sareen, would mean that the speaker knows him.

- f) *a/an* are used in following cases:**

in a group of 20 people	show an interest in	to give an assurance
in a majority of cases	a breach of peace	lack of a quorum
accepting a bribe	run a temperature	on a charge of murder.

26.4 Omission of ‘a/an’

- a) *a/an* is omitted before plural nouns and before uncountable nouns.**

- b) *a/an* is omitted before names of meals (except when these are preceded by an adjective)**

We have dinner at eight in the night.

We have a special dinner every Sunday.

The article *a* is also used when it is a special meal given to celebrate something:

I was invited to lunch (at his house in the ordinary way)

I was invited to a lunch to celebrate his promotion.

26.5 The Definite Article-The

- a) **The definite article is used, when the object or group objects is unique or considered to be unique:**

the earth the equator the moon the sun the stars

- b) **The definite article is used to talk about people and things we have already mentioned:**

She has two children – a girl and a boy. The boy is fourteen, the girl is eight.

- c) **The definite article is used before a noun made definite by the addition of a phrase or a clause:**

the girl in blue. the place where I met her
the man with the stick. the bag that he is carrying.

- d) **The definite article is used before a noun which by reason of locality can represent only one particular thing.**

My wife was in the living room. (the living room of this home)

Please bind the report. (the particular report with him)

- e) **The definite article is used before superlatives and first, second etc. used as adjectives or pronouns and before *only*:**

the first week the only way the best plan

- f) **The definite article is used as an adverb with a comparative:**

the sooner the better

- g) ***the + singular noun* can represent a class of animals or things:**

The elephant is in danger of becoming extinct.

The computer has made life easier for students.

But man used to represent the human race has no article:

Man is mortal.

- h) ***the + adjective* represents a class of persons.**

the old (old people in general)\

the rich

the poor

- i) ***the* is used before certain proper names of seas, rivers, groups of islands, chains of mountains, plural names of countries, deserts, regions, famous buildings, classics, newspapers and abbreviations:**

the Atlantic	the Ganges	the Himalayas
the Persian Gulf	The Times of India	the Bible
the North Pole	the South Pole	the UNO
the USA	the USSR	the Taj Mahal
the Netherlands		

- j) ***the* is used before other proper names consisting of adjective + noun or noun + of + noun**

the Indian Dairy Association the Gateway of India

- k) ***the* is also used in the following cases:**

give someone the benefit of doubt	go on the rampage
go to the cinema, the theatre	at the national level
at the point of the knife	give the slip
in accordance with the law	put to the vote
in the public interest	

26.6 Omission of ‘The’

- a) **The definite article is not used before names of places or before names of people.**

- b) ***the* is not used before abstract nouns except when they are used in a particular sense:**

Men fear death.

The death of his only child made him desolate.

- c) ***the* is not used before parts of the body and articles of clothing.**

Raise your right hand.

He took off his coat.

But notice the sentences of the type:

She seized the child’s collar. I patted his shoulder. He hit his leg.

Could be expressed –

She seized the child by the collar. I patted him on the shoulder. He hit him on the leg.

- d) Nature: Where it means the spirit creating and motivating the world of plants and animals etc. is used without *the*.**

If you interfere with nature you will suffer for it.

- e) The omission of *the* before *home, church, hospital, prison, school and before work, sea:***

When *home* is used alone i. e. not preceded or followed by a descriptive word or a phrase, ‘*the*’ is omitted.

He is at home.

But for *home* preceded or followed by a descriptive word or a phrase, *the* is used:

We arrived at the bride’s home.

A mud hut was the only home he had ever known.

Bed, church, court, hospital, prison, school, college, university.

The is not used before the nouns listed above when these places are visited or used for their primary purpose – thus; we go

to bed to sleep to hospital as patients.

to church to pray to prison as prisoners.

to court as litigants to school/college/university to study.

When these places are visited or used for other reasons, *the* is necessary:

He went to the church to meet the priest.

He goes to the prison sometimes to give lectures.

Sea: We go to sea as sailors. To be at sea is to be on a voyage. But we can also live by/near the sea.

Work and office:

Work : [place of work], is used without *the*

He is on his way to work. He isn’t back from work yet.

Office: Place of work needs *the* –

He is in/at the office.

To be in office (without the) is to hold an official position (opposite of out of office)

f) ***The* is not used in following cases:**

Gold is a precious metal. (**Material nouns**)

Fever, typhoid etc. (**before names of diseases unless these names are in plural form e. g. the measles, the mumps etc.**)

Hell, Heaven, God, Parliament (**the Pope, the Devil are exceptions**)

Red, blue, green (**before colours**)

Queen Elizabeth, President Lincoln (**before certain titles, followed by names**)

26.7 Expressions That Do Not Take Any Article

at night/noon; by car/bus/bicycle/plane/train/boat; on foot;

Lesson 27

AGREEMENT OF VERB WITH THE SUBJECT: TENSE, MOOD, VOICE

27.1 Introduction

A Verb is a word that tells or asserts something about a person or thing.

- **A Transitive Verb** is a verb that denotes an action which passes over from the doer or subject to an object. e.g.
The boy kicks the football.
- **An Intransitive Verb** is a verb that denotes an action which does not pass over to an object or expresses *a state or being*. e.g.
He *ran* a long distance. (Action)
The baby *sleeps*. (State)
There *is* a flaw in this method. (Being)

27.2 Linking Verbs

Most verbs assert action, but a few express a static condition or state of being (no action). Most of these inactive verbs are called **Linking Verbs**.

- The most common linking verb is **to be**, in its various forms of number, person, tense and mood.
- Other common linking verbs are *appear, become, feel, grow, look, prove, remain, seem, smell, sound, stand, taste, turn*.
- When these verbs are followed by nouns or pronouns as direct objects, they are not linking verbs, but imply or express action. They are linking verbs if you can substitute some form of **to be** for them.

The sky **looks** cloudy this morning. (Linking Verb)

Ram **looks** at Mohan as if he hates him. (Action Verb)

The tea **tasted** too sweet. (Linking Verb)

The girl cautiously **tasted** the drink. (Action Verb)

27.3 Auxiliary Verbs

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An auxiliary verb helps out a main verb. An auxiliary verb has little meaning of its own; rather it changes the meaning of the main verb.

Ganesh **has** left the city.

The machine **will be** sent this afternoon.

As we **were** leaving, we **were** stopped by a policeman.

Among all the auxiliary verbs, particular care should be taken to use the following correctly:

shall and *will*

should and *would*

27.3.1 Shall and will

Many writers still have strong convictions that the only correct way to express the **simple future** in formal writing is:

I **shall** do it. We **shall** do it.

You **will** do it. You **will** do it.

He **will** do it. They **will** do it.

a) and that **strong determination** can only be expressed through:

I **will** do it. We **will** do it.

You **shall** do it. You **shall** do it.

He **shall** do it. They **shall** do it.

Though this distinction is not strictly observed, it is best to follow it.

b) **should** and **would**:

Should chiefly implies obligation in the sense of ought to; and would expresses a customary action with all three persons:

I **should** urge you to take action fast. (ought to)

You **should** do everything to protect your reputation. (ought to)

Everyday he **would** answer his letters as soon as he finished reading the mail.
(habitual action)

I **would** always advise a careful revision before signing. (habitual action)

27.4 Verbs: Tense, Mood and Voice

The form of a verb or verb phrase tells us **three things** about the action or state it names.

- It tells us **what time the action occurs (tense)**
- **What the attitude of speaker or writer is (mood)**
- **Whether the subject is performing the action or receiving it (voice).**

27.5 Tense

Tense is the time of the action or state expressed by the verb. The three divisions of time – past, present, future – are shown in English by six tenses. The three *primary* or *simple* tenses are the **present** tense, the **past** tense, and the **future** tense. The three perfect (or secondary) tenses are the **present perfect**, the **past perfect**, and the **future perfect**.

Present	<i>I play (I am playing)</i>
Past	<i>I played (was playing)</i>
Future	<i>I shall play (shall be playing)</i>
Present Perfect	<i>I have played (have been playing)</i>
Past Perfect	<i>I had played (had been playing)</i>
Future Perfect	<i>I shall have played (shall have been playing)</i>

a] Present Tense:

It indicates that the action or condition is going on or exists now:

He takes exercise every morning.

The letters are posted.

b] Past Tense

It indicates that an action or condition took place or existed at some definite time in the past.

Yesterday I attended the meeting.

They were married on Saturday.

c] Future Tense

It indicates that the action will take place or that a condition will exist in the future.

We shall move to Bangalore next week.

The train will leave at midnight.

The future may be stated by present tense accompanied by an adverb (or adverbial phrase) indicating time:

I am going to stop later on today.

Our trip begins tomorrow.

d] Present Perfect Tense

It indicates that an action or condition was begun in the past and has just been completed or is still going on. The time is past but it is connected with the present. The present perfect tense presupposes some relationship with the present:

We have lived in Bombay for fifteen years.

The water has been too cold for swimming.

e] Past Perfect Tense

It indicates that an action or a condition was completed at a time now past. It indicates action “two steps back”. That is, the past perfect tense presupposes some relationship with an action or a condition expressed in the past tense:

The college campus was crowded because new students had joined.

She was employed by Tata Steels Company. She had worked there for five months.

f] Future Perfect Tense

It indicates that an action or a condition will be completed at a future time:

By the time you arrive, I shall have finished my work.

27.6 Proper Use of Tenses

a] Simple Present Tense

- i) Use the simple present tense to express *general truths or accepted facts* and to indicate *habitual action*. Use the present tense in *critical writing* about literature and the other arts.

GENERAL TRUTHS All that glitters *is* not gold.

The sun rises in the east.

HABITUAL ACTION The old man *exercises* daily.

The bank *closes* at four o’clock.

He *takes* milk every morning.

CRITICAL WRITING In Dickens’ novel *David Copperfield*, David’s harsh stepfather *sends* him to London where every day

David *works* in a warehouse pasting labels on bottles.

Jane Austen's use of ironic comment *is* highly effective.

ii) In exclamatory sentences beginning with *here* and *there* to express what is actually taking place in the present.

Here *comes* the bus!

There she *goes*!

iii) To indicate a future event that is part of a plan or arrangement.

We *go* to Bombay next week.

When *does* the college *reopen*?

iv) It is used, instead of the Simple Future Tense, in clauses of time and condition.

I shall wait till you *finish* your lunch.

If it *rains* we shall get wet.

b] Present Continuous Tense

Use the present continuous

(i) For an action happening at the time of speaking.

It is raining.

She is singing (now).

Why are you sitting at my desk?

(ii) For an action happening about this time, but not necessarily at the time of speaking.

He is teaching French and learning Greek.

I am reading Oliver Twist (but I am not reading at this moment).

(iii) For an action that is planned or arranged to take place in the near future.

I am going to the cinema tonight.

My uncle is arriving tomorrow.

(iv) With *always*, *continually*, *constantly* for a frequently repeated action or for a particular obstinate habit- something which persists, we use present continuous tense.

He is always losing his keys.

He is continually working.

I am constantly making that mistake.

v) The following verbs, on account of their meaning, are not always used in the continuous form:

Verbs of perception: *see, hear smell, notice, recognize*

Verbs of appearing: *appear, look, seem*

Verbs of emotion: *want, wish, desire, feel, like, love, hate, hope, refuse,*

prefer

Verbs of thinking: *think, suppose, believe, agree, consider, trust, remember, forget, know, understand, imagine, mean, mind*

Have (possess): *own, possess, belong to, contain, consist of*

These verbs are used in the simple present. They may, however, be used in the continuous tenses with a change of meaning:

I am thinking of (considering the idea of) going to Canada.

c] Present Perfect Tense

(i) Use the Present Perfect Tense to indicate completed activities in the immediate past.

He *has just gone* out.

It *has just struck* eleven.

(ii) To express past actions whose time is not given and not definite.

I *have never known* him to be so foolish.

Have you read Gitanjali by Rabindra Nath Tagore?

(iii) To describe past events when you think more of their effect in the present than of the action itself.

I *have finished* my work (now I am free).

I have cut my finger (and it is bleeding now).

(iv) To denote an action beginning at some time in the past and continuing up to the present moment.

I have known him for a long time.

She has been ill since last week.

(v) The following adverbs (or adverb phrases) can be used with the present perfect tense: *just, often, never, ever* (in questions only), so

far, till now, yet (in negatives and questions), *already, since-phrases, for-phrases, today, this week, this month*, etc.

So far this month I *have sold* three hundred and fifty books.

The Bombay office *has corresponded* with him ever since the accident.

We read your comments with great interest, but lack of information has prevented a complete reply until today.

d] Present Perfect Continuous Tense

- (i) **The Present Perfect Continuous Tense is used for an action which began at some time in the past and is still continuing.**

They *have been building* the building for several months.

They *have been playing* since morning.

e] Simple Past Tense

- (i) **The Simple Past Tense is used to indicate an action completed in the past. It often occurs with adverbs or adverb phrases of past time.**

She *attended* the meeting yesterday.

She *left* the school last year.

- (ii) **The Simple Past Tense is also used for past habits.**

He always *carried* an umbrella.

He *studied* many hours a day.

f] Past Continuous Tense

- (i) **The Past Continuous Tense is used to denote an action going on at some time in the past. The time of action may or may not be indicated.**

We *were listening* to the music all evening.

The light *went out* while I was reading.

- (ii) **The Past Continuous Tense is also used, with *always, continually* etc., for persistent habits in the past.**

He was always grumbling.

g] Past Perfect Tense

- (i) **The Past Perfect Tense is used to express an action completed before a certain moment in the past.**

At 9 pm, I *had finished* my home work.

I *had already known* the result when he rang me up.

- (ii) The Past Perfect Tense is used to express an action in the past which was completed before another action, also in the past.**

The doctor *had left* when I reached there.

The thieves *had escaped* by the time the police arrived.

- (iii) When two Simple Past Tenses might give the impression that the two actions happened simultaneously, the Past Perfect Tense is used after ‘when’.**

When she *had recited* her poem, she sat down.

- (iv) The Past Perfect Tense is used to express *unfulfilled* desires of the past.**

I wish he *hadn’t gone*. (but he went)

I would rather you *had come alone*. (but you did not)

- (v) The Past Perfect Tense is used to express impossible (*unfulfilled*) condition.**

If you *had worked hard*, you would have passed.

h] Past Perfect Continuous Tense

- (i) The Past Perfect Continuous Tense is used for an action that began before a certain point in the past and continued up to that time or stopped just before it.**

At that time he *had been writing* a novel for two months.

- (ii) The Past Perfect Continuous Tense is used to express a single action which occupied a period of time in the past.**

He had been washing his car for the last fifteen minutes.

i] Simple Future Tense

- (i) The Simple Future Tense is used to express an action that is still to take place, with or without expression of time.**

I shall see you tomorrow.

They will help us.

Note: The simple future Tense generally expresses pure or colorless future. When the future is coloured with intention, *going to* + infinitive construction is preferred, e.g. He is going to build a new house.

j] Future Continuous Tense

- (i) The Future Continuous Tense represents an action as going on at some time in future time.

I shall be reading the paper then.

- (ii) The Future Continuous Tense is also used for future events that are planned.

I shall be staying here till Wednesday.

He will be meeting us next week.

k] Future Perfect Tense

- (i) The Future Perfect Tense is used to indicate the completion of an action by certain future time.

I shall have written the project by that time.

L] Future Perfect Continuous Tense

- (i) The Future Perfect Continuous Tense indicates an action represented as being in progress over a period of time that will end in the future.

By next December we shall have been living here for eight years.

27.7 Mood

Verbs appear in three moods: **Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive**.

- **Indicative** is the mood of actuality. We use this about ninety-nine percent of the time. It is used for ordinary statements and questions (He is happy, Is he happy?)
- **Imperative** mood is the mood of making commands or requests. (Be happy.)
- **This subjunctive** is the mood of unreality and is used to express conditions contrary to fact and high desirability (If he were happy). **Subjunctive** mood needs to be carefully handled.

a] Use the subjunctive to express conditions contrary to fact.

Reeta could settle the argument if she *were* here. [But she isn't here.]

If the rose bush *were* healthy, it would have more buds. [The bush is not healthy.]

Last year, the bush looked as though it *were* going to die. [But it didn't die.]

Note that all clauses beginning with *if* automatically express a condition contrary to fact.

If I were you, I'd refuse to let him use my office.

If I were you, I would call on him again.

- b] Use the subjunctive **were** after **as though, as if** and **even if** to express doubt or uncertainty:

He talks as if he were the only intelligent person in the group.

She looked as though she were completely exhausted.

Even if that were to happen, we have substantial reserves to draw upon.

- c] As an auxiliary form (that is, part of other verbs), **be** is used after verbs like *ask, urge, insist, require, vote, move etc.*

He moved that the meeting be adjourned.

I, therefore, urge that this be reconsidered.

We must insist that this payment be made in three days.

He insisted that he be given one more chance.

27.8 Voice

Voice refers to the ability of transitive verbs to show whether the subject performs or receives the action named by the verb.

When the subject performs the action, the verb is in the **active voice**. When it receives the action, the verb is in the **passive voice**.

ACTIVE	Mohan wrote a letter. The poison <i>drove</i> its victim mad.
PASSIVE	A letter was written by Mohan The victim <i>was driven</i> mad by the poison.

Only **transitive verbs**, that is, verbs that can take an object, can show both active and passive voices. We can say: *The student wrote the paper* or *The paper was written by the student*, but only *He talked*, not *He was talked*.

Most sentences in writing use verbs in the active voice, which is almost always more direct, more economical, and more forceful than the passive.

- 1 Use the passive when the actor is not known.** Consider the following:
His proposal was rejected.
The play was first performed in sixteen century.
- 2 Use the passive when the receiver of the action is more important than the actor.** Consider the following:
The new bridge was completed in April.
A new video film was prepared.

Lesson 28

EFFECTIVE SENTENCES

28.1 Introduction

Agreement is the grammatical relationship between a subject and a verb or a pronoun and its antecedent or an adjective and the word it modifies. Such agreement frequently poses a few problems in English language. This lesson discusses as to how we can write effective sentences by making proper use of agreement between a subject and a verb or a pronoun or its antecedent.

28.2 Subject-Verb Agreement

There are some grammatical patterns, such as the agreement in number of a subject and a verb, or a pronoun and its antecedent that one must watch carefully.

- a) When two singular nouns refer to the same person or thing, the verb is singular.

The poet and scholar is dead.

- b) Do not be confused by words or phrases that come between the subject and verb. Find the subject and make the verb agree with it.

The first two *chapters* of the book were exciting. [The verb agrees with the subject, *chapters*, not with the nearest noun, *book*].

- c) When two singular nouns are practically synonymous, the verb is singular.

His power and influence is very great.

Peace and order is the most important issue.

- d) When two singular nouns though not synonymous, are intended to express jointly a single idea, the verb is singular.

Bread and butter is what he has for breakfast.

Slow and steady wins the race.

- e) When the same singular noun is qualified by two contrasting adjectives, the verb is plural.

Mental and physical science are not the sam

- f) Use a singular verb with collective nouns when the group is considered as a unit acting together. Use a plural verb when the individual members of the group are acting separately.

Collective nouns have a singular form but name a group of persons or things as a single unit: *audience, bunch, crowd, family, herd, jury and the like.*

Our family *goes* out to dinner fortnightly. [The family acts together as a single unit.]

The family *have been* arriving all morning. [Members of the family arrived at different times.]

The committee is meeting today. [The singular verb is emphasizes the committee acting as a unit.]

The committee are unable to agree on a plan. [The plural verb are emphasizes the members of the committee acting separately.]

- g) Subjects indicating sums of money, distance, measurement and the like ordinarily take singular verbs.

Three quarters of the money is already spent.

Ten rupees is not a large sum.

Forty years is a long time to live in one town.

Six miles is a long distance.

If the items that make up the quantity are thought of as separate parts rather than as a single unit, the verb may be plural.

Forty percent of the trees *were* damaged by the hurricane. [The trees were damaged separately.]

One half of the students *have* finished the examination. [The students finished individually.]

The expressions *the number* takes a singular verb, but *a number* takes a plural verb.

The *number* of candidates for the position *was* large.

A *number* of candidates *were* applying for the position.

The *number* of people moving to the Southwest is increasing.

A *number* of business firms *have* moved from New York.

- h) Use a singular verb with nouns that are plural in form but singular in meaning, such as economics, news, and physics.**

Mathematics *has* always been Betty's downfall.

The financial news *was* favorable last month.

- i) A plural verb is preferred with nouns which are plural in meaning though singular in form. They are: *number, plenty, variety, rest, enemy, cannon, none, pair, dozen, the brave* etc.**

None but the brave deserve the fair.

Plenty of men are charitable.

Plural verb is placed after such nouns, as *plenty, number and variety* according to the context. Unless the context shows that those words are used to imply plurality, the verb must be singular:

Too great a variety of pursuits costs much and pays little.

There is often a number of claims to meet.

- j) Two nouns connected by *and not, as well as, with, together with, besides, in addition to, like*, are followed by a verb in the singular when the former of the nouns is in the singular. For example:**

John and not his brother was present.

The coach, as well as the players, was happy over the victory.

Reema, together with her friends, *was* here.

Silver as well as gold, has fallen in price.

The commander with all his men has been killed.

Milk besides butter, is supplied by this dairy.

Satish like Harish, is a good boy.

The house with all its fittings and furniture was sold yesterday.

- k) When two nouns or pronouns are joined by *not only ... but also* the verb agrees with the second noun or pronoun. For example:**

Not only the officer, but also six soldiers were killed.

Not only six soldiers, but also the officer was killed.

- l) Two or more singular nouns or pronouns connected by the conjunctions *either or, neither nor*, require a singular verb. If the subjects differ in**

number or person, the verb follows the number and person of the subject nearest to it.

Either the cat or the dog has done it.

Neither praise nor blame seems to affect him.

Neither the P.M. nor his Ministers desire war.

Either the dean or his assistant *was* to have handled the matter.

Either you or he *has* to be here.

Either you or your friends have made this mistake.

Either the Ministers or the P.M. is to be blamed.

m) When *either* and *neither* are used as nouns or adjectives they must be followed by singular verbs.

He asked me if either of the applicants was suitable.

Neither men was strong.

n) Any noun qualified by adjectives *each* and *every* must be followed by a singular verb.

Each one of these qualities is to be found in him.

Every man and woman was killed.

o) A verb should agree with its subject and not with the complement.

Our only guide was the stars. (Correct)

The stars were our only guide. (Correct)

p) When the subject is the title of a novel, a play, or the like, or a word used as a word, use a singular verb even though the form of the subject is plural.

Romeo and Juliet is a Shakespeare play.

Songs and satires is a book by Edgar Lee Masters.

Women is the plural of *woman*.

q) Indefinite pronouns ending in *-one*, *-body* and *-thing*, such as *anyone*, *everybody*, *and something*, always take singular verbs. The indefinite pronouns *another*, *each*, *either*, *neither* and *one* always take a singular verb.

Everybody in the audience *was* enthusiastic.

Another of the pesticides *has* provided harmful to birds.

Each of the students *needs* individual help.

Neither of the books *was* available in the library.

The indefinite pronouns *all*, *any*, *most*, *none* and *some* may take either a singular or a plural verb depending upon the noun they refer to.

Some of the silver *is* missing. [*Some* refers to the singular noun silver.]

Some of her ancestors *were* slaves. [*Some* refers to the plural noun ancestors.]

None of the work *is* finished. [*None* refers to the singular work.]

None of the birds *have* migrated yet. [*None* refers to the plural birds.]

A singular verb is sometimes used with *none* even when it refers to a plural noun. The plural is more common, however, in both spoken and written current English.

r) When the adjectives, *much* *little* and *less* are used as nouns they must be followed by a singular verb.

Much of what you have said, has been said by others.

More than a year has passed since I saw him.

A little of good manners makes our life sweet.

Less than a million tons is produced in a year.

s) *Many a* should always be followed by a singular verb.

Many a man has lost everything by putting his eggs in one basket.

Many a soldier has died for the sake of his country.

BUT

Many a man and woman were standing there.

t) If the principal clause is in the past tense, it must be followed by a past tense in dependent clause.

He told me he does not believe in God. (Wrong)

He told me he did not believe in God. (Correct)

However, this rule does not apply to such universal truths as

We are taught that the earth moves round the sun.

At last he was convinced of the fact that honest is the best policy.

u) In a subjunctive mood where there is an expression of some wish or supposition, the verb is plural.

I wish I were a film actor.

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Though he were the P.M. of this country, I would say the same.
If he were here, he would support me.

- v) **Learn the correct uses of *will* and *shall*. To express simple future action *shall* is used in the FIRST PERSON and *will* in the SECOND PERSON and the THIRD PERSON.**

I shall come. (First Person)
You will come. (Second Person)
He will come. (Third Person)
They will come. (Third Person)

***Shall* is used in the second and third person to express (a) command, (b) promise, (c) threat, (d) determination, whereas *will* is used in the first person to express (a) willingness, (b) promise, (c) threat or determination.**

Thou (you) shall not steal. (Command)
You shall have a holiday tomorrow. (Promise)
You shall be punished for this. (Threat)
I will send you my book. (Willingness)
I will try to do better next time. (Promise)
I will punish you if you do that again. (Threat)

- w) **Make sure that a demonstrative adjective (*this, that, these, those*) agrees in number with the noun it modifies.**

These adjectives forms seldom cause difficulty. One frequent error, however, occurs when the demonstrative adjective is used with *kind of* or *sort of* followed by plural nouns. Demonstrative adjective modifies the singular noun *kind* or *sort* and not the following plural noun. Thus a singular demonstrative is used.

NONSTANDARD	These <i>kind</i> of fruitstaste sweet.
STANDARD	This <i>kind</i> of fruit tastes sweet.
NONSTANDARD	These <i>sort</i> of dresses are expensive.
STANDARD	This <i>sort</i> of dress is expensive.

Lesson 29

BASIC SENTENCE FAULTS

29.1 Introduction

The purpose of writing is to communicate facts, feelings and ideas effectively. For the clarity of expressions, we need to write correct sentences, which conform to the conventions of written English. This lesson discusses as to how we can write effective sentences by making proper use of sentence fragments; subordination, coordination and parallelism. Verbosity, faulty predication, dangling modifiers and illogical comparisons should also be carefully avoided.

29.2 Use of Subordination

A common failing of writers is the expression of ideas of unequal importance in constructions that seem to give equal weight. Meaning can be grasped more quickly and more easily if subordinate ideas are indicated and put in subordinating constructions. A sentence should express the main thought in a principal clause. Less important thoughts should be expressed in subordinate clauses.

- ✓ This machine has been imported from Japan and it is easy to operate.
- ✓ This machine, which has been imported from Japan, is easy to operate.

29.3 Use of the Verb ‘BE’

The verb ‘be’ is often a cause of stylistic problems. Eight basic forms of verb ‘be’ are: *am, are, is, was, were, be, being, been*.

Avoid verb ‘be’ followed by adjectives or nouns that can be turned into strong, economical verbs.

- e.g. The new policy is violative of the Civil Right Act.
 The new policy violates the Civil Right Act.
 His new skateboard was the cause of an accident.
 His new skateboard caused an accident.

29.4 Faulty Parallelism

In written English, word and phrases joined by ‘and’ are normally similar both in form and its meaning. Violations of this convention are called “Faulty Parallelism”

- ✓ My hobbies are hunting, fishing and to write.
- ✓ My hobbies are hunting, fishing and writing.
 He would like a career in publishing or as a teacher.
- ✓ He would like a career in publishing or in teaching.
 Nobody wants wealth without being happy.
- ✓ Nobody wants wealth without happiness.
 His success was generally attributed to his talent, integrity and to his insatiable appetite for work.
- ✓ His success was generally attributed to his talent, integrity and insatiable appetite for work.

29.5 Dangling Modifiers

As a rule, an infinitive or a participle at the beginning of a sentence should modify the subject of the sentence. If it has nothing to modify either logically or grammatically in the sentence, it is called a ‘**dangling modifier**’ and the sentence is grammatically incorrect.

In other words, a **dangling modifier** is one that has nothing to modify because what it ought to modify has not been clearly stated in its sentence. **For example:**

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- ✓ Driving through the mountains, two lions were seen.
- ✓ Driving through the mountains, we saw two lions.
- ✓ Looking through the telescope, clusters of stars were seen.
- ✓ Looking through the telescope, I saw clusters of stars.

29.5.1 Avoid dangling participial phrases

A **participle** is a verb form used as an adjective to modify a noun or pronoun. A participial phrase consists of a participle or object.

DANGLING	Taking the right turn, the market was closed. [There is nothing in the sentence that can be sensibly be taking the right turn A revision must identify some person.]
REVISED	Taking the right turn, we found the market closed.
DANGLING	When we took the right turn, the market was closed.
REVISED	Being made of glass, Mohan handled the tabletop carefully.
	Because the tabletop was made of glass, Mohan handled it carefully. [The Participial phrase is expanded into a subordinate clause.]

29.5.2 Avoid dangling phrases containing gerunds

A **gerund** is an – ing form of a verb used as a noun. A gerund phrase consists of a gerund, its object and any modifiers of the gerund or object. In typical dangling phrases containing gerunds, the gerund or gerund phrase serves as the object of a preposition.

DANGLING	Before going to the market, our work was done. [Who did it?]
REVISED	Before going to the market, we did our work.

29.5.3 Avoid dangling infinitive phrase

An **infinitive** consists of the infinitive marker *to* follow by the plain form of the verb. An infinitive phrase consists of an infinitive, its object and any modifiers of the infinitive or object.

DANGLING	To write properly, a cardboard must be used. [Who will use the cardboard?]
REVISED	To write properly, you must use a good cardboard.
DANGLING	To write effectively, practice is necessary.
REVISED	To write effectively, you [or one] must practice.

29.5.4 Avoid dangling elliptical clauses

An **elliptical clause** is one in which the subject or verb is implied or understood rather than stated. The clause dangles if its implied subject is not the same as the subject of the main clause. Eliminate a dangling elliptical clause by (1) making the dangling clause agree with the subject of the main clause or (2) supplying the omitted subject or verb.

DANGLING	<i>When a small girl</i> , my grandfather gave me a scarf.
REVISED	<i>When a small girl</i> , I was given a scarf by my grandfather. [The subject of the main clause agrees with the implied subject of the elliptical clause.]
	<i>When I was a small girl</i> , my grandfather gave me a scarf. [The omitted subject and verb are supplied in the elliptical clause.]
DANGLING	<i>While going to Delhi</i> , my car overturned.
REVISED	<i>While going to Delhi</i> , we overturned the car. [The subject of the main clause agrees with the implied subject of the elliptical clause.]
	While we were going to Delhi, the car overturned [or we overturned the car]. [The elliptical clause is expanded into a subordinate clause.]

29.6 Faulty Predication

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The subject of a sentence is whatever answers the question ‘who’ or ‘what’ before the verb. The ‘predicate’ includes the verb along with any word that complete or modify its meaning. When a mismatch of meaning occurs between a subject and a predicate, the result is called “Faulty Predication”. e.g.

- ✓ Grammar is where I have most of my writing problems. (the predicate treats grammar as if it were a place)
- ✓ I have most of my writing problems in Grammar.
- ✓ College athletics is a controversy that will not be easily resolved.
- ✓ College athletics is a controversial subject.

29.7 Incomplete And Illogical Comparisons

A comparison expresses a relation between two things. To make a comparison complete and logical, include both items being compared, include all words necessary to make the relationship clear, and be sure that the items are in fact comparable.

a] void incomplete comparisons

INCOMPLETE	Our new car gets better mileage. (Better than what?)
REVISED	Our new car gets better mileage better than our old one did.

b] Avoid ambiguous comparisons

AMBIGUOUS	I like her more than Jane. (More than Jane likes her? More than You like Jane?)
REVISED	I like her more than I like Jane I like her more than Jane does.

c] Avoid illogical comparisons

ILLOGICAL	A doctor’s income is greater than a teacher. (The sentence compares an income to a teacher.)
REVISED	A doctor’s income is greater than a teacher’s. A doctor’s income is greater than that of a teacher.

d] Avoid grammatically incomplete comparisons

Comparisons using expressions *as good as*, *as strong as* and the like always require the second *as*.

INCOMPLETE	He is as good, if not better than, Ram.
REVISED	He is as good as, if not better than, Ram.

In comparisons of items in the same class of things, use *other* or *any other*. In comparisons of items in different classes, use *any*.

INCORRECT	Calcutta is bigger than <i>any</i> city in India.
REVISED	Calcutta is bigger than <i>any other</i> city in India. Calcutta is bigger than <i>any</i> city in Pakistan.

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