Course No.- **EXTN-123**   Sem- **II**   Credits – **1+1=2**

Course Title- **Communication Skills and Personality Development**

SYLLABUS

Theory

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1. Meaning and Process of Communication
2. Verbal and Non verbal Communication
3. Public Speaking, Impromptu Presentation
4. Individual Presentation, Group Discussion, Seminars and Conferences

Unit II: Writing Skills

1. Precise Writing, Summarizing, Abstracting
2. Listening and Note Taking, Field Dairy and Lab Record
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Unit I: Communication Skills

Meaning and Process of Communication

A. Communication Concepts and Process

Our ability to communicate and the different forms our communication takes are very often taken for granted. The communication process is fundamental for human survival. It is essential to the development of the individual, to the formation and continued existence of groups and to the interrelations among groups.

Communication is as old as human history; many indicators prove that effective communication is the main factor enhancing civilization through history. This is why communication is, considered multi-culture phenomena; Ancient-Greeks, Ancient Egyptians, Ancient-Chinese, Arabs, Europeans and Americans have got their impact on communication.

On the other hand, the study of human communication is interdisciplinary. It began with the mathematically theory of communication by Claude E.Shanon and Warren Weaver in 1949, scientists considered as strictly mathematical. Their aim was to measure the amount of information, in the mess ages, that is transmitted through the media the telephone; however, as years passed by, inter-disciplinary approaches to study human communication came up. They rely on psychology, sociology, speech communication, political, journalism, anthropology management, education, marketing and philosophy. Thus, we can say that every discipline concerned with human behaviour must deal with communication.

There are many definitions of communication:

Definitions of Communication

Legans defines communication " is a process by which two or more people exchange idea, facts, feelings or impression in ways that each gains a common understanding of meaning, impact and use of the message".

Schramm defines communication as "a tool that makes societies possible and distinguish human from other societies".

Berelson and Steiner define communication as the transmission of· information, ideas, emotions, skills through the use of symbols, words, pictures, figures, and graph.

Rogers says, "Communication is the process of transmitting / ideas, information, and attitudes from the source to a receiver for the purpose of influencing with intent".

Kar defines communication as "all those planned or unplanned processes through which one person influences behaviour of others."

A more comprehensive suggested definition to define communication would be: "a process of transmitting ideas, information, attitudes (images which we have formulated for ourselves) by the use of symbols, words, pictures, figures from the source (who is the originator of the message) to a receiver, for the purpose of influencing with intent", So communication is considered as a process through which senders and receivers of messages interact in a given social context.

We can conclude that communication is a process used to timely and properly exchange information between a sender and a receiver to achieve a desired goal.

A) Process: It suggests that the components of interaction are dynamic in nature. They cannot be regarded as unchanging elements in time and space. This simply means that no single aspect of communication can be meaningfully understood apart from the other elements

B) Interaction: It is the process of linking between senders and receivers of the message. The process specifies interaction or linkages between or among countless factors; so that the changes in any set of forces affect the operation of all other processes to produce a total effect.The concept

of interaction is central to an understanding of the concept of process in communication. Communication is an attempt to bridge the gap between two individuals through producing and receiving messages which have meaning for both.

C) Social Context: Human communication is, to a great extent. Influenced by the social context in which it occurs. The context or the situation that consists of a set of rules which govern the origin, flow and effect of the messages.

Overview

Communication is a process whereby information is encoded and imparted by a sender to a receiver via a channel/medium. The receiver then decodes the message and gives the sender a feedback. Communication requires that all parties have an area of communicative commonality. There are auditory means, such as speaking, singing and sometimes tone of voice, and nonverbal, physical means, such as body language, sign language, paralanguage, touch, eye contact, by using writing.

Communication is thus a process by which we assign and convey meaning in an attempt to create shared understanding. This process requires a vast repertoire of skills in intrapersonal and interpersonal processing, listening, observing, speaking, questioning, analyzing, and evaluating. if you use these processes it is developmental and transfers to all areas of life: home, school, community, work, and beyond. It is through communication that collaboration and cooperation occur.

There are also many common barriers to successful communication, two of which are message overload (when a person receives too many messages at the same time), and message complexity .

Types of communication

1. Verbal communication
It includes listening, speaking reading and writing

2. Non verbal communication
Communication without language is known as nonverbal. It is also known as gestural communication. This includes gestures, facial expressions, etc., which make communication more effective.

3. Extrapersonal communication-
- Communication between human beings and non human entities is called as extra personal communication.
- For e.g. when I am talking with my cat or dog it is extra personal communication. Because I am human being and dog or cat is animal. According to definition I am sharing my impressions from my environment with other life form.
- In this type of communication understanding is required between sender and receiver.
"Receiver responds in sign language "

4. Intrapersonal Communication-
-This takes place within the individual. It occurs within ourselves and continuous as long as we are alive.
-Sender = Our relevant organ.
-Receiver = Our brain.
-Feedback by brain.

5. Interpersonal communication
Interpersonal communication most commonly occurs in face to face situations, where we can see, hear and even touch the other person or persons. Communication at this level refers to the sharing

of information among people
- Interpersonal communication can be formal or informal.
- For eg. The interaction with family members , friends and different
kind of people.

6. Small group communication
In Mutual conversation between five to ten people. It may be formal or informal.

7. Mass communication
It is a communication system in which an identical message is originated by an institutional organization and sent to a large number of receiver through public channels. Communication through mass media (TV, Radio, Newspaper, Magazines, Film, Internet) For this kind of communication we require a mediator to transmit information.

8. Dyadic communication
In dyadic communication, two individuals communicate with each other.

9. Public speaking
One person addresses a large audience. Public speaking is mostly one way from the speaker to audience. Messages are conveyed by the speaker and received by the audience.

10. **Organizational communication**- Communication in an organization takes place at different hierarchical levels.

Communication modelling

Communication major dimensions scheme
Communication code scheme
Communication is usually described along a few major dimensions: Content (what type of things are communicated), source, emisor, sender or encoder (by whom), form (in which form), channel (through which medium), destination, receiver, target or decoder (to whom), and the purpose or pragmatic aspect. Between parties, communication includes acts that confer knowledge and experiences, give advice and commands, and ask questions. These acts may take many forms, in one of the various manners of communication. The form depends on the abilities of the group communicating. Together, communication content and form make messages that are sent towards a destination. The target can be oneself, another person or being, another entity (such as a corporation or group of beings).

Communication can be seen as processes of information transmission governed by three levels of semiotic rules:
  1. Syntactic (formal properties of signs and symbols),
  2. Pragmatic (concerned with the relations between signs/expressions and their users) and
  3. Semantic (study of relationships between signs and symbols and what they represent).

Therefore, communication is social interaction where at least two interacting agents share a common set of signs and a common set of semiotic rules. This commonly held rules in some sense ignores auto communication, including intrapersonal communication via diariesor self-talk, both secondary phenomena that followed the primary acquisition of communicative competences within social interactions.

In a simple model, information or content (e.g. a message in natural language) is sent in some form (as spoken language) from an emisor/ sender/ encoder to a destination/ receiver/ decoder. In a slightly more complex form a sender and a receiver are linked reciprocally. A particular instance of communication is called a speech act. The sender's personal filters and the receiver's personal filters may vary depending upon different regional traditions, cultures, or gender; which may alter the intended meaning of message contents. In the presence of "communication noise" on the

transmission channel (air, in this case), reception and decoding of content may be faulty, and thus the speech act may not achieve the desired effect. One problem with this encode-transmit-receive-decode model is that the processes of encoding and decoding imply that the sender and receiver each possess something that functions as a code book, and that these two code books are, at the very least, similar if not identical. Although something like code books is implied by the model, they are nowhere represented in the model, which creates many conceptual difficulties.

Theories of coregulation describe communication as a creative and dynamic continuous process, rather than a discrete exchange of information. Canadian media scholar Harold Innis had the theory that people use different types of media to communicate and which one they choose to use will offer different possibilities for the shape and durability of society (Wark, McKenzie 1997). His famous example of this is using ancient Egypt and looking at the ways they built themselves out of media with very different properties stone and papyrus. Papyrus is what he called ' Space Binding' . it made possible the trasnsmission of written orders across space, empires and enables the waging of distant military campaigns and colonial administration. The other is stone and ' Time Binding' , through the construction of temples and the pyramids can sustain their authority generation to generation, through this media they can change and shape communication in their society (Wark, McKenzie 1997).

Verbal and non-verbal communication

Humans are pack animals. Our ancestors hunted and gathered as a collective, depending upon one another for protection, sustenance and companionship. Our success as a species and as individuals depends upon our ability to effectively communicate, both verbally and non-verbally. Verbal and non-verbal communication shapes our interactions with others in business and interpersonal relationships, as well as our financial and personal success, and our physical and psychological well-being. Understanding the different aspects of verbal and non-verbal communication, and the important roles they play in our interactions with others, is the first step to enhancing positive communication and nurturing relationships.

B. **Verbal Communication**

Verbal communication encompasses any form of communication involving words, spoken, written or signed. The conversation we have with our coworker at lunch, the morning news or the sports page we read in the morning--even the text message you send to your spouse telling him to pick up some milk is a form of verbal communication. Our ability to communicate with a language that is based on an organized system of words, rather than merely sounds, is what sets us apart from lower species. Not only do we have language, but we also have the technology that enables us to communicate with one another no matter the physical distance.

When messages or information is exchanged or communicated through words is called verbal communication. Verbal communication may be two types: written and oral communication. Verbal communication takes place through face-to-face conversations, group discussions, counseling, interview, radio, television, calls, memos, letters, reports, notes, email etc. some definitions of verbal communications are as follows:

According to Bovee and others: Verbal communication is the expression of information through language which is composed of words and grammar."

According to Penrose and others, "Verbal communication consists of sharing thoughts through the meaning of words."

So, verbal communication is the process of exchanged of information or message between two or more persons through written or oral words. The basis of communication is the interaction between people. Verbal communication is one way for people to communicate face-to-face.

Verbal communication is verbally speaking to communicate to other people using words or noises to get your message across to the person you are speaking to. Some of the key components of verbal communication are sound, words, speaking, and language. At birth, most people have vocal cords, which produce sounds. As a child grows it learns how to form these sounds into words. Some words may be imitative of natural sounds, but others may come from expressions of emotion, such as laughter or crying. Words alone have no meaning. Only people can put meaning into words. As meaning is assigned to words, language develops, which leads to the development of speaking. The actual origin of language is subject to considerable speculation. Some theorists believe it is an outgrowth of group activities such as working together or dancing. Others believe that language developed from basic sounds and gestures. Over 3,000 languages and major dialects are spoken in the world today. The development of languages reflects class, gender, profession, age group, and other social factors. The huge variety of languages usually creates difficulties between different languages, but even within a single language there can be many problems in understanding. Through speaking we try to eliminate this misunderstanding, but sometimes this is a very hard thing to do. Just as we assume that our messages are clearly received, so we assume that because something is important to us, it is important to others. As time has proven this is not at all true. Many problems can arise is speaking and the only way to solve these problems is through experience.

Speaking can be looked at in two major areas: interpersonal and public speaking. Since the majority of speaking is an interpersonal process, to communicate effectively we must not simply clean up our language, but learn to relate to people. In interpersonal speaking, etiquette is very important. To be an effective communicator one must speak in a manner that is not offending to the receiver. Etiquette also plays an important role in an area that has developed in most all business settings: hierarchical communication. In business today, hierarchical communication is of utmost importance to all members involved. The other major area of speaking is public speaking. From the origin of time, it has been obvious that some people are just better public speakers than others. Because of this, today a good speaker can earn a living by speaking to people in a public setting. Some of the major areas of public speaking are speaking to persuade, speaking to inform, and speaking to inspire or motivate.

Every communication situation involves certain elements.

Communication models are visualization of the communication process. There are different models seeking to explain the process of communication. These models differ with each other. None can be said to be completely right or perfect. Some may be more useful than others. Some of the models are:

1)**Aristotle**, who gave a model of communication that includes three steps:

Speaker------ Speech-----Audience

He emphasized the audience and suggested that the speech should be at the level of the audience.

2. **Harold Hosswell**, a political scientist has given a paradigm to communication in which he has summarized the whole field of communication in a nutshell to understand the following steps of communication.

Who say?, What?, Through which channel?, To whom?, With what

'who' is related with communicator, 'what' is related with message or subject matter, the 'channel' indicates media, 'to whom' indicates the receiver and with what effect denotes change in behavior due to communication.

3. **Shannon and Warren Weaver**, presented a model of communication in mathematical formula to measure information flow and both of them emphasized that noise distracts the flow of information. They said that the ingredients in communication include:

> **Source---Transmitter---Signal---Receiver---Destination**

4) **Schramm gave a model** - when he was working on mass communication and its effects on audience. He emphasized the senders and recivers experiences. His field model looked as follows.

> **Source---Encoder---Signal---Decoder---Destination**

His emphasis was on how communication works **Sender's field of experience**
Here he introduced encode and decode as an important items in communication.

5) **Berlo's model** - emphasized on persuasion that through communication we can persuade people as follows.

> **Source---Encoder---Message---Channel---Decoder---Receiver**

Encoding deficiency, gatekeepers, and interference are terms used with the S-M-C-R Model to describe some basic problem areas that are inherent in communications.
- Encoding deficiency relates mostly to the sender's lack of communication skills and knowledge of the audience. This might involve using words or examples the receivers do not understand. A sender might refer to apiculture when beekeeping would have been understood. He or she might speak with a nasty, scolding tone that confuses the audience.
- Gatekeepers are people that control the media or other access to communication channels. For instance, an extension worker might have an important message about a livestock disease that threatens his district, but a warning message can only be broadcast on the radio if the radio station programmer allows it. Similarly, newspaper editors control what's published in their newspaper.
- Interference is often a more physical problem to reaching a target audience. If an extension agent is allowed to voice an announcement over a local radio station, the receiver may not receive the message because of radio interference, or a baby crying so loudly that the farmer can't hear the message.

6) **Westty and Machean Model** – This model has five elements
Here the sender encodes the message which is passed through a channel and then decoded. Its meaning is drawn out after which the message is clear to the receiver.

> **Source---Encoder---Channel---Decoder---Receiver**

7. **Leagan's Model** – Leagan says that for a complete communication process six elements are essential. These are as follows:
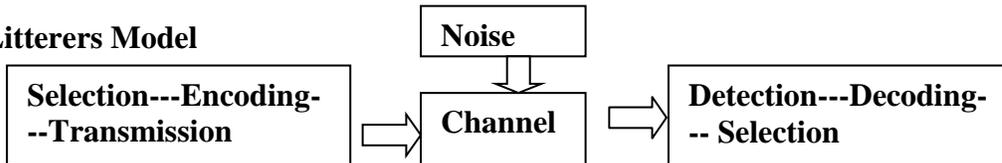
> **Communicater---Message---Channel---Treatment---Receiver---Response**

8.**Rogers and Shoemaker(1971)**. It is also called the SMCR model. It is an oversimplified, but useful model. It consists of:

> **Sourse---Message---Channel---Receiver---Effect**

An additional element, the 'effects' of communication could be added. The effects are changes in knowledge, attitude and oven behavior, as a result of technology.

9.**Litterers Model**

Noise

| Selection---Encoding---Transmission | ⇒ | Channel | ⇒ | Detection---Decoding-- Selection |

10.**Dance's Helical Model** – The earliest model of communication were linear, their successors were circular, emphasizing the crucial factor of feedback in the communication process.
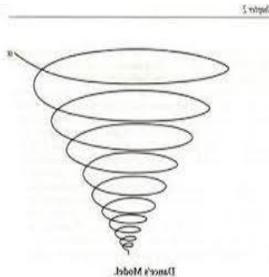
Frank E.X.Dance in 'A helical model of communication; (1967) commends the circular model as an advance upon the linear one but faults in on the grounds that it suggests that communication comes back full, circle, to exactly the same point from which it started, an assumption which is manifestly erroneous'. The helix or spiral model combines the desirable of the straight line and of the circle while avoiding the weakness of either.

Importance of Verbal Communication at Workplace:

1. Correcting wrong:
Just guess there was a file to be saved and you made a small error. By saying "I am sorry for the error" will save you. It's the power of word "Sorry" that is effective as it is part of verbal communication.

2. Persuade someone:
You need to persuade your co-worker to join up a project, then tricks of persuasion comes to help. Here your verbal communication skill is there to pull him/her on board.

3. Create relationship:
You are new to a workplace and by speaking to counterpart you create a new relationship. Only by making efforts to converse with others do you make new relationships which cannot be done without verbal communication.

4. Bringing clarity:
There is a small issue that is to be made understood by the other members and here you could make them understand by using proper syntaxes and semantics. Even writing with proper words will help to make the reader understood especially in emails, memorandums etc.

5. Increases productivity:
Without proper communication or getting the message through with the team members it would be impossible to get the maximum output. The team that works with good lateral communication and group discussion brings out better results.

6. Increase job satisfaction:
Empowerment of employees through upward and downward communications is a sign of increased job satisfaction. Through flow of information upwards in the form of feedback and if the bosses are responding by listening to them, means the employees are empowered.

7. Positive effect on absenteeism:
By communicating facts and updated information from the management downwards brings more transparency and less absenteeism.

8. Sharing of ideas:
Communicating within the team or within company needs to a two way flow of ideas. If there is a platform to share ideas then it is sure to bring more success to the company.

9. Removes barriers:
Effective communications helps to remove the hurdles that is between the management and the employees working. Words properly toned and deciphered to the employees will serve as a tool to bridge the gap. Clear and transparent communication is the key to the success.

10. Gives motivation:
Words of support and appreciation provided by management at the right time boost the confidence level of the employees and in turn help in productivity.

As motivation has a direct impact on the productivity, verbal communications play a crucial role in providing feedback and recognising individuals in the form of emails, memorandums, announcements, newsletters, etc.

C. Nonverbal communication

Meaning of non-verbal communication
When messages or information is exchanged or communicated without using any spoken or written word is known as nonverbal communication. Non-verbal communication (NVC) is usually understood as the process of communication through sending and receiving wordless messages.

Non-verbal communication is a powerful arsenal in the face-to-face communication encounters, expressed consciously in the presence of others and perceived either consciously or unconsciously. Much of non-verbal communication is unintentional people are not even aware that they are sending messages. Non-verbal communication takes place though gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, physical proximity, touching etc. some important definitions of non-verbal communication are as follows:

According to L. C. Bove and others, "Non-verbal communication is communication that takes place through non-verbal cues: through such form of non-verbal communication as gesture, eye contact, facial expression, clothing and space; and through the non-verbal vocal communication known as Para-language."

According to Lesikar and Pettit, "Nonverbal communication means all communication that occurs without words (body movements, space, time, touch, voice patterns, color, layout, design of surroundings.)"

According to Himstreet and Baty, "Non-verbal communication includes any communication occurring without the use of words."

So, non-verbal communication is the exchanged of information or message between two or more persons through gestures, facial expressions eye contact, proximity, touching etc. and without using any spoken or written word.

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

NVC can be communicated through gesture and touch (Haptic communication), by body language or posture, by facial expression and eye contact. NVC can be communicated through object communication such as clothing, hairstyles or even architecture, symbols and info graphics. Speech contains nonverbal elements known as paralanguage, including voice quality, emotion and speaking style, as well as prosodic features such as rhythm, intonation and stress. Likewise, written texts have nonverbal elements such as handwriting style, spatial arrangement of words, or the use of emoticons.

However, much of the study of nonverbal communication has focused on face-to-face interaction, where it can be classified into three principal areas: environmental conditions where communication takes place, the physical characteristics of the communicators, and behaviors of communicators during interaction.

Characteristics of non-verbal communication

Non-verbal communication is any information that is communicated without using words. The important characteristics of non-verbal communication are as follows:

No use of words: Non-verbal communication is a communication without words or language like oral or written communication. It uses gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, physical proximity, touching etc. for communicating with others.

Culturally determined: Non-verbal communication is learnt in childhood, passed on to you by your parents and others with whom you associate. Through this process of growing up in a particular society, you adopt the taints and mannerisms of your cultural group.

Different meaning: Non-verbal symbols can many meanings. Cross-culture aspects give various meanings to same expression in respect of non-verbal communication.

Vague and imprecise: Non-verbal communication is quite vague and imprecise. Since in this communication there is no use of words or language which expresses clear meaning to the receiver.

May conflict with verbal message: Non-verbal communication is so deeply rooted, so unconscious, that you can express a verbal message and then directly contradict it with a nonverbal message.

Largely unconscious: Non-verbal communication is unconscious in the sense that it is usually not planned nor rehearsed. It comes almost instantaneously.

Shows feelings and attitudes: Facial expressions, gestures, body movements, the way you use your eyes – all communicate your feelings and emotions to others.

Informality: Non verbal communication does not follow any rules, formality or structure like other communication. Most of the cases people unconsciously and habitually engaged in *non-verbal communication* by moving the various parts of the body.

Importance of Nonverbal Communication in the Workplace:

1. Show agreement or disagreement:
There is a meeting between colleagues and sometimes the speech would talk of a point that requires a consent from the audience. You would have noted that a nod can make a difference of

expression. This gesture of 'nod' shows that the listeners are in favour implying a "yes' or "no' for an answer.

2. Maintaining relationships:

A smile in the face while entering the room or wishing them makes the day. This is a sign for maintaining relationship which is very critical in a workplace.

3. Lack of listening:

If you are speaking to a team member and he/she is not maintaining eye contact while talking then it shows that they are not listening to you. They show signs of disinterest. That's why it is always said to maintain eye contact when the other side is talking. It will ensure the message is being carried to opposite side.

4. Not interested:

If a team leader is having internal meet and he/she observes that one member is looking down or out the window / door it means that he /she is distracted and not interested or in paying attention. Such kind of communications needs to be observed and counselled. This way the team leader would be bringing in focus with the objectives.

5. Aspects of para language:

Paralanguage is an aspect which relates to the volume of the voice, pitch, speed of the words. If you are speaking too fast then communication is not clear. If your voice is too low then also the message is not conveyed to the targeted audience. By pausing between words or repeating words will make the specific aspect being registered in their mind.

6. Sign of confidence:

In a workplace, postures denote our attributes. When we stand upright and keep our head straight maintaining eye contact when conversing with our co-workers or managers it indicates our confidence. Also while sitting, having knees place slightly apart and arms away from the body indicates that you are relaxed and confident.

7. Sign of detachment:

Standing with crossed arms over chest or sitting at the tip of the chair in hunched posture shows signs of detachment. Even, standing drooped down or looking down frequently shows that the person is not interested. It will create wrong signal.

8. Reassuring interest:

Facial expressions that are being reflected in the other person like mirror assures interest in the other. Such nonverbal modes of mirroring someone is frequently observed.

9. Know the culture:

Some workplaces have multicultural environment and it is important to have a brief knowledge on the types of cultural acceptances. This means touch being a familiar feature in handshake, pat on the back, tap on the shoulder, etc. can give different meanings in different culture. Knowing that will save you from being offended in workplace as culture too plays an important role.

10. Maintaining space:

Most of the time workplace discussions requires face to face interaction. In such cases being in close proximity to the person will create uneasiness and this also differs from culture to culture. Most of the time the space between you and your colleague must be optimal so that it is neither too far nor too close.

Verbal vs Oral communication

Scholars in this field usually use a strict sense of the term "verbal", meaning "of or concerned with words," and do not use "verbal communication" as a synonym for oral or spoken communication. Thus, vocal sounds that are not considered to be words, such as a grunt, or singing a wordless note, are nonverbal. Sign languages and writing are generally understood as forms of verbal communication, as both make use of words — although like speech, both may contain paralinguistic elements and often occur alongside nonverbal messages. Nonverbal communication can occur through any sensory channel — sight, sound, smell, touch or taste. NVC is important as:

"When we speak (or listen), our attention is focused on words rather than body language. But our judgement includes both. An audience is simultaneously processing both verbal and nonverbal cues. Body movements are not usually positive or negative in and of themselves; rather, the situation and the message will determine the appraisal."

History

The first scientific study of nonverbal communication was Charles Darwin's book *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals* (1872). He argued that all mammals show emotion reliably in their faces. Studies now range across a number of fields, including, linguistics, semiotics and social psychology.

Arbitrariness

While much nonverbal communication is based on arbitrary symbols, which differ from culture to culture, a large proportion is also to some extent iconic and may be universally understood. Paul Ekman's influential 1960s studies of facial expression determined that expressions of anger, disgust, fear, joy, sadness and surprise are universal.

Uniforms have both a functional and a communicative purpose. This man's clothes identify him as male and a police officer; his badge sand shoulder sleeve insignia give information about his job and rank.

Elements such as physique, height, weight, hair, skin color, gender, odors, and clothing send nonverbal messages during interaction.

Research into height has generally found that taller people are perceived as being more impressive.

Physical environment

Environmental factors such as furniture, architectural style, interior decorating, lighting conditions, colors, temperature, noise, and music affect the behavior of communicators during interaction. The furniture itself can be seen as a nonverbal message

Proxemics

Proxemics is the study of how people use and perceive the physical space around them. The space between the sender and the receiver of a message influences the way the message is interpreted.

The perception and use of space varies significantly across cultures and different settings within cultures. Space in nonverbal communication may be divided into four main categories: intimate, social, personal, and public space. The distance between communicators will also depend on sex, status, and social role.

Proxemics was first developed by Edward T. Hall during the 1950s and 60s. Hall's studies were inspired by earlier studies of how animals demonstrate territoriality. The term territoriality is still used in the study of proxemics to explain human behavior regarding personal space. Hargie & Dickson identify 4 such territories:

1. Primary territory: this refers to an area that is associated with someone who has exclusive use of it. For example, a house that others cannot enter without the owner's permission.
2. Secondary territory: unlike the previous type, there is no "right" to occupancy, but people may still feel some degree of ownership of a particular space. For example, someone may sit in the same seat on train every day and feel aggrieved if someone else sits there.
3. Public territory: this refers to an area that is available to all, but only for a set period, such as a parking space or a seat in a library. Although people have only a limited claim over that space, they often exceed that claim. For example, it was found that people take longer to leave a parking space when someone is waiting to take that space.
4. Interaction territory: this is space created by others when they are interacting. For example, when a group is talking to each other on a footpath, others will walk around the group rather than disturb it.

Chronemics

Chronemics is the study of the use of time in nonverbal communication. The way we perceive time, structure our time and react to time is a powerful communication tool, and helps set the stage for communication. Time perceptions include punctuality and willingness to wait, the speed of speech and how long people are willing to listen. The timing and frequency of an action as well as the tempo and rhythm of communications within an interaction contributes to the interpretation of nonverbal messages. Gudy kunst & Ting-Toomey (1988) identified 2 dominant time patterns:

- Monochronic time schedule (M-time): Time is seen as being very important and it is characterized by a linear pattern where the emphasis is on the use of time schedules and appointments. Time is viewed as something that can be controlled or wasted by individuals, and people tend to do one thing at a time. The M-pattern is typically found in North America and Northern Europe.
- Polychronic time schedule (P-time): Personal involvement is more important than schedules where the emphasis lies on personal relationships rather than keeping appointments on time. This is the usual pattern that is typically found in Latin America and the Middle East.

Movement and body position

Information about the relationship and affect of these two skaters is communicated by their body posture, eye gaze and physical contact.

Kinesics is the study of body movements, facial expressions, and gestures. It was developed by anthropologist Ray L. Birdwhistell in the 1950s. Kinesic behaviors include mutual gaze, smiling, facial warmth or pleasantness, childlike behaviors, direct body orientation, and the like. Birdwhistell proposed the term kineme to describe a minimal unit of visual expression, in analogy to a phoneme which is a minimal unit of sound.

Posture

Posture can be used to determine a participant's degree of attention or involvement, the difference in status between communicators, and the level of fondness a person has for the other communicator. Studies investigating the impact of posture on interpersonal relationships suggest that mirror-image congruent postures, where one person's left side is parallel to the other's right side, leads to favorable perception of communicators and positive speech; a person who displays a forward lean or a decrease in a backwards lean also signify positive sentiment during communication. Posture is understood through such indicators as direction of lean, body orientation, arm position, and body openness.

Facial Expression

The face is most prominent part in our body for sending non-linguistic symbols. It tells others what kind of person we are. It reflects our personality. Our face expresses many feelings and attitudes by contracting and relaxing facial muscles. For example, by smiling we show our happiness to others.

Some more common facial expressions and their usual meanings are:

Arching the eyebrows – anger or seriousness

Raising the eyebrows – disbelief

Biting of lips – unvertainty

Both the mouth and the eyes open – surprise/fear

Body Posture

The body posture refers to the way one stands or sits. It plays a very important role in non-linguistic communication. Depanding on the posture, we can say whether he is interested in talking to you

For example, when a person stand learning against table with both his hands on the table, it shows that he is tired or not willing to participate in the act of communication.

Gestures

Gestures are another important sign of nonverbal communication. Gestures are very common in our life and they are the natural movements of our body, especially, head, shoulders and hands.

Some of the gestures and their meanings are giver below:

A handing head or a hand signifies boredom, restlessness, to tiredness. It may also indicate frustration or disgust.

- Picking something, biting nails or sucking fingers show that the person is uneasy and nervous.
- Raising a hand in a classroom, a meeting or a seminar or at a gathering means that the person wants the attention of the speaker.
- Pointing index finger means the indication of a particular direction. It may also indicate authority and domination.
- Covering the mouth may indicate that the person is either unsure of what he is saying or suppressing his feelings.
- If a person rubs his eyes, it may mean that he is in doubt or trying to deceive.
- Patting on the back of someone means encouraging that person.
- Hands on hips generally may indicate an aggressive attitude or readiness and ability to do a job.

Eye Contact

- Eyes play a very important role in communication. It is generally understood that eyes reveal one's nature/character. A confident and honest person has a direct eye contact with others. People like thieves and other convicts do not look directly into other's eyes.

Touch

Touch can communicate effectively in a variety of circumstances. For example, the firmness of your handshake can show the other person you are self-confident when you are meeting for the first time. A gentle touch on the shoulder can show empathy when someone is getting emotional. A hug can be friendly, comforting or caring when used with someone you know well. Be careful of how you use touch with strangers and co-workers so it is not interpreted as inappropriate.

Space

You can help maintain the other person's comfort level and show respect if you maintain a proper amount of personal space. It is normal for people in some cultures to get very close to others, but Americans tend to value their space. The other person might feel intimidated or disrespected if you don't keep a proper distance.

- How do your eyes behave in the following situations?
- You may also observer somebody else's eyes in the following situations and describe them.
- a. apologetic b. angry c. searching d. thinking e. sleepy

D. Public Speaking

In day gone by it was considered a tribute if a scientist was called a "silent worker" because then research was associated with work limited to the field, the farm, the laboratory or his or her study. The scientist worked in quietude without muct interaction with others. Today the specialist cannot afford to work alone, because of the spectacular development in the electronic media, means of mass-communication, and globalization. Today, the specialist does not only read, write, and work; he has to speak also and that too to heterogeneous audiences.

Oral communication by a scientist – administrator may range from an informal talk to employees to a technical key-note address but in any case it must have a format. Here are a few guidelines to assist scientists, especially senior administrator-scientists, who have to hold the mike more often than others.

Public speaking is the process of communicating information to an audience. It is usually done before a large audience, like in school, the workplace and even in our personal lives. The benefits of knowing how to communicate to an audience include sharpening critical thinking and verbal/non-verbal communication skills.

Public speaking (also called oratory or oration) is the process or act of performing a speech to a live audience. This type of speech is deliberately structured with three general purposes: to inform, to persuade and to entertain. Public speaking is commonly understood as formal, face-to-face speaking of a single person to a group of listeners

There are five basic elements of public speaking that are described in Lasswell's model of communication: the communicator, message, medium, audience and effect. In short, the speaker should be answering the question "who says what in which channel to whom with what effect?"

Public speaking can serve the purpose of transmitting information, telling a story, motivating people to act or some combination of those. Public speaking can also take the form of a discourse community, in which the audience and speaker use discourse to achieve a common goal.

Public speaking for business and commercial events is often done by professionals. These speakers can be contracted independently, through representation by a speakers bureau, or by other means. Public speaking plays a large role in the professional world; in fact, it is believed that 70 percent of all jobs involve some form of public speaking.

The Importance of Public Speaking

Even if you don't need to make regular presentations in front of a group, there are plenty of situations where good public speaking skills can help you advance your career and create opportunities.
For example, you might have to talk about your organization at a conference, make a speech after accepting an award, or teach a class to new recruits. Speaking to an audience also includes online presentations or talks; for instance, when training a virtual team, or when speaking to a group of customers in an online meeting.

Good public speaking skills are important in other areas of your life, as well. You might be asked to make a speech at a friend's wedding, give a eulogy for a loved one, or inspire a group of volunteers at a charity event.

In short, being a good public speaker can enhance your reputation, boost your **self-confidence** , and open up countless opportunities.
However, while good skills can open doors, poor ones can close them. For example, your boss might decide against promoting you after sitting through a badly-delivered presentation. You might lose a valuable new contract by failing to connect with a prospect during a sales pitch. Or you could make a poor impression with your new team, because you trip over your words and don't look people in the eye.

Preparation

Each type of speech demands a different orientation and different preparation, but prepare you must; never go to the stage off-hand, even if you are a master of the subject. First prepare an outline of the speech, lecture, or talk in a logical way. Make a proper sequence of your ideas. Among those scientists, who speak impressively are the ones who not only prepare well, but even rehearse them properly before coming to the stage. The speech should be mentally framed beforehand.

If it is a seminar, a symposium or a technical lecture the preparation would extend beyond the subject matter and would include preparing the slides, their sequence charts, maps, graphs, their sequence, the probable questions and answers and other matters allied to the main subject, etc. A good speech can be marred by poor physical arrangements regarding proper electric connections, mikes, leads, etc. Check the leads, plugs, sockets, connecting-board pointers, tape

recorders, projectors, screen etc. before hand. More often than not a learned lecture is ruined either because a switch was not working or a pointer was not available. The speech must have a beginning, a middle and a conclusion. One may begin with an anecdote, or quotation or sharing of some salient information related to the subject.

There should be no deviation from the main themes, no repetition, unless for emphasis. Rehearse the speech to have a proper mental picture of the whole speech. Even when preparation has been made there is a tendency to deviate fro the main subject and loose track of the main theme. To avoid this some good scientist-speakers first write down (or dictate) their talk/lecture in full, read it, and re-read it. The lecture or talk is sub-divided into different heads. One may even write them down on small cards or stiff half-sheets of paper, carefully tied together to prevent their getting mixed up in the courses of the talk. Important passages and the peroration may be written out fully or in outline. This will help in not getting astray from the main subject and in maintaining logical sequence.

The Purpose

One must know clearly the purpose of the speech, otherwise it will be a haphazard ramble of disjointed ideas; one must ask oneself as to what is the objective of speaking to a particular audience, at a particular occasion. Is it to provide technical information? Is it to inspire and encourage? Is it to persuade the hearers on an issue or is it to share your experiences on visit to a foreign country? Is it simply to entertain them? Just to make them feel happy, relaxed, and welcome, or it is just a classroom lecture? The purpose of the speech will determine many other things. It is a dangerous invitation by the stage-secretary when he requests the chief guest to come to the mike and 'say a few words'. One must know why, how, where and whom these words, though few, will be spoken.

Audience

A good speaker should always be adjustable to his audience. He must ask himself. "Who are my listeners?" He must never forget that he is giving a live performance. The speech should be adjusted in a way that the listeners feel that it is meant for them-whether it is a general function or a seminar, workshop, symposium or any other occasion. Because, before anything else, the listeners are human beings. So, the best way to create rapport is make your speech contextual by a reference to a person, place or event which is related exclusively to the occasion. One remarkable French orator M. Briand said "Je ren ifle mon public" (I scent my audience). One must always keep in view the level and background of the audience.

Keeping in view the audience, every speaker needs to give a different treatment, expression and vocabulary, to his speech according to the occasion. A scholarly inaugural address though technically very sound, falls flat because it is too technical. Reason: the speaker forgets that in the audience besides scientists of a particular subject there are many others. Even among scientists of a particular discipline there may be many who over the years have lost touch with the subject because now they are non academic administrators, managers or policy-makers. They have been away from the everyday lab and field work. A good speaker must adjust himself to the requirement, background, and level of his audience.

The Subject

In a professional university dealing with teaching, research and extension and with a large number of disciplines, one may have to speak on a wide range of subjects. It could be a heavy

key note address, a research report, a tour report on a foreign visit, an orientation talk, an instructive lecture for trainees, an appraisal of a policy outline or even a light informal talk at a hotel or function or a class-room lecture. The contents of a speech can haven many dimensions. So, after the purpose has been determined, the scope of the talk establish, and the target audience considered, it is time to think how best to communicate your views. Also, one must determine the scope, nature, limitation and the treatment of the subject because the presentation would vary from subject to subject, and also from audience to audience.

Speaking with Feeling

Whether it is a highly technical subject matter speech or a general inaugural or valedictory function, a speaker should always evince a feeling for what he is saying. In most cases, especially at formal functions, senior scientists/officers read out speeches written for them by ghost-writers. If the speaker is not involved., the presentation becomes dull, drab and monotonous.

Another difficulty in simply reading out a readymade speech without a preparation and feeling is that one fumbles, falters, stammers, punctuates the speech with spells of silences and leaves behind a negative effect. Even if the speech has been prepared by someone else read it once or twice to familiarize yourself with words phrases, expressions, pronunciation so the while actually reading them out on the stage, you are not on foreign ground and do not leave a poor impression.

Fluency

Lord Riddle defines fluency as "a command of words equal to the flow of the thought". It does not mean rapid or fast reading. How fluency can be acquired is difficult to suggest. But in simple terms it means using the right word at the right place. Speaking is a knack which comes from constant practice and deep involvement in your subject, though there are some but very few, to who it comes naturally. But by practice, one can cultivate fluency. Fluency adds to the effect of a speech. When we have not prepared ourselves well we tend to make unwanted interruptions like 'Er' 'Ah' 'Oh' and sometime for seconds/minutes stop in the middle of the speech. 'You know', 'you see', 'I mean', etc. WE use them when either we are not sure about the words that we use or when we do not find the proper words that we want to use. Beware, once you are before a mike or on the stage, you are being assessed silently not only as a scientist but also as a communicator while good expression and fluency adds to the speech, a frequently interrupted speech with gaps of silence or fumbling mars it.

Pronunciation

In speech correct pronunciation is also very important. An incorrect pronunciation may convey a wrong meaning or ruin an otherwise impressive speech. In science especially there are words from Latin, Greek, French, German and many other languages. For one who is not veterinarian speaking a word like "haemoglobinaria" could be quite a battle. In technical speeches one may come across some other tongue-twisters like "Xylobalsamum" (botany), Ziphidiocercaria (entomology), phantasmagoria (psychology) etc. Accustom your tongue to pronouncing unfamiliar words and consult dictionary for the proper pronunciation for doubtful words. India is a multilingual country where regional influence of English could also lead to distortion of pronunciation of even an ordinary word like "Station".

- Istashun (U.P)
- Setasun (Haryana)
- Shotashon (Bengali)

The Language

In the whole process of communication language is the pivot on which everything depends. A speaker must have ability in handling his expression according to his audience. Simplify your language at a general session, but at a technical session, do not beat about the bush with flowery language which may have literary merit but little or no technical substance. So, the choice of the language is most important in a speech.

Familiarise yourself well with words that you use. Do not be casual or vague about them. If you are uncertain about a word do not use it. Use words that convey exact meaning and not loose words like nice 'good' 'OK' etc. word like nice has a very wide range or meanings can mean anything and everything. 'A nice variety of wheat does not convey the meaning fully. Does it mean a high-yielding variety? A good looking variety? A disease-resistant variety. Likewise, what does a "Nice lecture" or "Good lecture mean"? so use words that are specific and expressive. A lecture is not nice it is 'enlightening'.

Some of the following guidelines regarding language could improve speeches.

a) Words should suit the occasion and the audience. Avoid informal, colloquial, slang, or sub-standard vocabulary. Formal technical lectures being different from informal conversation such words as 'damn good', 'fellow', 'chap', 'guy' should be avoided. He is a renowned scientist in his discipline. Even 'man' sometimes is impolite technologies 'I know this man since he was a junior scientist'. He is a renowned fellow in his discipline.

b) Do not use loose words. We must use words that give us a definite specific meaning 'nice' is a loose word. 'It was nice lecture', or 'He is a nice husband' can mean anything and everything. A nice husband, could mean a hen-pecked husband to his friends and lovable helpful husband to the wife. So lecture be termed inspiring, educative, scholarly enlightening, thought provoking. Use words with proper connotations. Look at this sentence: "The beauty of this variety is "That you can have two crops with it". The sentence is correct but does not convey proper sense. Beauty is a physical quality. The scientists does not refer to the visible aspect of the variety but to its characteristic. Do not use negative words. Look at this sentence. The statements are all wrong. This may be expressed as : His statements are contrary to available facts.

c) Be simple and direct. Even in technical speeches be simple and direct instead of editor says that sometime in future the simple phrase of the Bible, 'Heal the sick' may be rephrased in this fashion. Rehabilitate those victimized by pscho-somatic maladjustments saying things in a sound about way. Substitute short, plain and simple words

- Say soon   For "at the earliest available opportunity"
- Say since   For "in view of the fact"
- Say we find For "According to records available in our office"
- Say about   For "of the order of magnitude of"
- See these two examples :
  I. Example of a simple sentence from the Bibles "Hthe Sick".
  II. Example of a scientist version of its : "Rehabilitate those victimized   by Psycho-somatic
      maladjustments".

The second example means exactly what the first says fact is too heavy and technical jargon.

d) Do not use a lot of high – sounding bombastic words just to make yourself sound impressive use words with which you as well as the audience is familiar. If you are uncertain about it, drop it. Each word that we use conjures up an image; so it is not enough to know only its dictionary meaning but we must understand its connotations too. Though grammatically correct, it is not proper to say, 'The beauty of this variety is' connotatis "glamour", "Physical appearance" or

"visible qualities". If we want to refer to some characteristic we must name it with a word that is contextually appropriate. An added characteristic of this variety is

- **Familiarity with words**
- Memento - Momento
- Mania - Phobia
- Beauty - Quality, characteristic

Posture

As stressed earlier a speaker on the stage is not only 'heard' he is seen also. A sloppy, careless or self-conscious way of standing can mar a good speech. When one is speaking, the hands, legs, neck, eyes, infact the whole body speaks. Gesture add to the impact. Do not look at the ground or the ceiling. Look at the audience. Do not hang on one side.

Points to remember while making announcements and comparing programmes

1. The closer the mike is held to the mouth, the lower should be the voice.
2. When reading, care should be taken not to move the head without moving the mike as these slight variations or movements make a difference in the volume and quality of sound.
3. Care should be taken not to blast out the opening sentence or eating away the last word.
4. Sounds such as 'S' 'Z' 'Ch' 'th' should be pronounced precisely and cut short when at the end of a word, in order to avoid hissing and dislocation of words.
5. Letters like 'B' 'P' 'T' are inclined to be eplosive and should be enunciated carefully.
6. Gasps and gaps must be avoided as they catch the ear of the listener.
7. Rate of speaking should be even and balanced.
8. Announcements should not be made either too fast or too slow. There should be proper pauses.
9. Phrasing and stressing of words should be correct in order to convey a precise meaning of the sentence.
10. Diction must be correct and precise.
11. Announcements should be learnt by heart. If read great care should be taken not to sound bookish and mechanical.

Intonation – Stress – Pause

In written communication, we express many things like pauses, direct speech, questions, exclamations etc. by punctuation mark while in the spoken communication, this is done by intonation that is the rise and fall or rhythm of the spoken words. Take this sentence for instance (If we say the following words without proper intonation it would seem as if we are addressing people.

1. The Vice Chancellor, ABC, Head of the Department, ladies, gentlemen, students. So it will depend upon the intonation to make the meaning clear.
2. This research article is written by Dr.ABC, Dr. EFG and Dr.XYZ of the Department of Genetics without a proper pause after the first two names it should seem as if all three are in the same Department.

A difficulty in simply reading out a readymade speech/lecture, without a preparation and feeling for it is that one fumbles and stumbles; stammers and leaves behind a negative effect. Even if the speech has been planned by someone else read it once or twice to familiarize yourself with words, phrases, expressions, pronunciation so that while actually reading it out on the stage you are not on a foreign ground and leave a poor impression.

The peroration

The most important part of a speech is the conclusion. Even if the speech is extempore, the peroration should be written or well-thought out and rehearsed because that is the most important part which winds the speech. In some cases, when the conclusion is not properly framed, either on the paper or the mind, speaker tend to say "In the end I would like to emphasize' and speak for another five minutes and then another idea comes up and he repeats "in the end" thus making half a dozen perorations before he finally winds up the speech. This makes even a good speech tedious and ineffective and also places a question mark on the common sense of the speaker.

Just like peroration the expression of gratitude to various persons should also not be too long. Discretion be used to list down the persons to be thanked while expressing thanks to various peoples. It is odd to juxtapose the chief guest, normally an eminent person, with the photographer 'for his kind services for covering this function'. At one inaugural function, I observed that the thanks part was longer than the inaugural speech

There are few skills that will bring more opportunity into your life than the ability to speak well in public. Below are 12 tips that can make the difference between those speakers who leave a powerful, positive impression and those that are quickly forgotten.

1. **Speak with an intent to move people to action**. Know what you want your audience to do immediately after hearing your speech. If nobody does anything different than they would have done before you spoke – the value of your speech is zero.

2. **Start strong with a "grabber"**. A personal story, a quote from an expert or a shocking statistic – something that takes a hold of your audience and gets them hooked and opens their mind to your message. Give the audience a chance to see your personal connection to the topic.

3. **Structure your material in three sections**– grabber, middle, close. Know your material. Get really interested in the topic. Find good stories.

4. **Practice. Practice.**Rehearse out loud with all equipment you plan on using. Work to control filler words; Practice, pause and breathe. Use a clock to check your timings and allow time for the unexpected.

5. **Know the audience.**Try to speak to one or two people in the audience as they arrive – they will be your allies in the audience – it is easier to speak to friends than to strangers.

6. **Know the setup.**Arrive in good time to check out the speaking area and get practice using the microphone and any visual aids.

7. **Relax.** Begin with a well prepared grabber. A relevant personal story is a great start. It establishes your credibility. It connects you to the audience and creates the right emotional atmosphere (and calms your nerves).

8. **Visualize yourself successful.**See yourself at the end of the speech surrounded by people asking questions, visualize the applause.

9. **Pauses.** Include 3-8 second pauses at key moments – just before key statements or just after a story – this really brings the audience into the speech.

10. **Don't apologize**– the audience probably never noticed it.

11. **Smile.** Look like the content matters to you – if the audience don't feel that it is important to you, it will be really hard for them to feel that it should be important for them.

12. **Get experience.**Take every opportunity you can get to speak (and listen to other speakers). Prepare well ahead of time. Experience builds confidence, which is the key to effective speaking.

Tricks for Public Speaking in different situations.
Accepting Awards
Whether you're accepting an Oscar or community recognition, Toastmasters International offers these proven tips for delivering a powerful acceptance speech for any type of award:

- **Show your personality.** Your acceptance speech should come from the heart.
- **Be gracious.** Acknowledge the good work done by your competitors and thank the organization that selected you for the award.
- **Show excitement.** You don't have to climb over chairs or even cry, but the audience should recognize that you're happy to have won the award.
- **Be modest.** Your acceptance speech should be heartfelt but not self-congratulatory.
- **Practice, practice, practice.** Rehearse with a timer, memorize key people to thank and allow time for the unexpected.

Delivering Eulogies
Delivering a eulogy at a funeral or memorial service can be difficult. A speaker is challenged by dealing with their own grief while communicating in an effective and heartfelt way. Here are some tips to help deliver a eulogy:

- **Write out a eulogy** in detail and practice delivering it.
- **Limit a eulogy to two or three main points.** A eulogy should not be the chronology of a life but a tribute to it.
- **Focus on the eulogized person's life** and times through meaningful stories, anecdotes and quotes.
- **Make a eulogy inspiring.** Help the audience deal with mortality and help them improve their outlook.
- **Use appropriate mannerisms and gestures** when delivering a eulogy. The atmosphere of a memorial service does not lend itself to overly dramatic gestures or special effects.

Giving Sales Pitches
A sales pitch or proposal seeks to persuade. The objective of the presentation is to sell a product, concept or idea. The ability to present sales pitches and proposals effectively can **open the door to professional opportunities**.

To organize ideas into an effective sales pitch or proposal, use the **"inverted pyramid" approach**, which gives an audience the most important information in the first few sentences (how much money might be saved, how lives might be improved, etc.). **Support claims with logic and evidence**, and **end every sales pitch or proposal with a call to action**. If an audience agrees with the initial message or point, the supporting material that follows will reinforce that agreement. If an audience disagrees, logic and evidence may win them over.

Use high-quality yet simple visual aids, such as charts or slides, to help clarify any sales pitch or proposal. Make sure the visual aids can be seen by every person in the audience, and limit each chart or slide to a single main point.

Offer a question-and-answer period following a sales pitch or proposal, which can supply you with valuable feedback about the effectiveness of the pitch. It also gives an audience the opportunity to further clarify specific points or data that was presented. Below are a few ways to **effectively answer questions from an audience**:

- **Anticipate possible questions** by rehearsing with colleagues or friends.
- **Provide answers** that support the sales pitch or proposal.
- **Disarm loaded questions** (those based on false premises or irrelevant assumptions) by being polite and asking the questioner to further explain his or her question.

- **Divide complicated questions** into several parts before answering them.

Introducing Speakers

If you host a special event, you may be required to introduce speakers. Try these quick tips for delivering thoughtful speaker introductions:

- **Don't steal the show** by making the introduction too long (60 seconds or less is sufficient), or by speaking on a topic that is in no way related to the speaker.
- **Grab the audience's attention** with a great opening. This can be an inspiring quote, a humorous anecdote, or an impressive milestone the speaker has achieved.
- **Briefly mention the topic** the speaker is addressing, but don't reveal too much about his or her speech.
- **Establish the speaker's authority and expertise**. This information will help solidify with the audience the speaker's credibility as a subject matter expert.

Preparing A Speech

Preparing for a speech is one of the best ways to ensure you give an effective presentation. Try these tips to help you properly prepare:

- **Organize your speech** in a logical sequence: opening, main points, summary.
- **Practice and rehearse** a speech frequently prior to delivering it. Ask friends to be your audience, or practice in front of a mirror. Be sure to use a timer to help you pace your speech.
- **Become familiar with the stage** or the setting where the speech will take place. Get a sense of the size of the stage, where any steps or obstacles might be, and where to enter and exit.
- **Choose comfortable clothes to wear**, but always maintain a professional appearance.
- **Visual aids** should fit a speech, whether they are funny, serious or technical. The main goal of visual aids is to help the audience understand what is being said, and reinforce the points of a speech in unique and interesting ways.

Presenting Awards

When recognizing someone for a job well done, it's important to highlight the value of both the award and the recipient. To create a memorable presentation, explain the criteria for the award and how the recipient met those criteria. Here are a few additional guidelines:

- **Tell a story** about the significance of the award.
- **Pronounce names** of the recipients correctly.
- **Provide background** on the recipient.
- **Hold the award respectfully** and hand it to the recipient as if it were a treasure.
- **Wait to invite the recipient** to the lectern until you formally introduce them.
- **Stand so the audience can see** the recipient and the award clearly.

Speaking To Diverse Audiences

Giving a speech or presentation to an audience of people who speak various languages or have differing cultural backgrounds requires special tact on the part of the speaker. Here are some tips and techniques on how to effectively engage a diverse audience:

- **Enunciate clearly.** If possible, try to speak with a neutral accent to better include all audience members.
- **Don't speak too fast.** Remember that the normal pace of speech in one language might become incomprehensible for people relatively new to that language.
- **Be careful with metaphors.** Some metaphors that are appropriate in one culture can be offensive to another. A good example is references to sports not popular or practiced in a certain country, or phrases that are comical in one culture yet offensive in another.

- **Know the meanings of words outside your native language**. Unless you are absolutely sure of the meaning and pronunciation of a word you are using in a given language, do not use it. In some languages, slight variations of a vowel will completely alter the meaning of a word.
- **Avoid slang, jargon and idiomatic expressions.** Diverse audiences may not understand slang from a given country. English phrases such as "that dog don't hunt" or "cool as a cucumber" might be colorful, but the meaning could be lost on a large part of the audience.
- **Be mindful of body language, eye contact and personal space.** Posture, mannerisms and eye contact speak volumes and what is taken for granted in one culture might be considered offensive in another.

Successful Speeches

Whether you're talking to a small group of people or speaking to a large audience, you want to be sure your speech is memorable and enjoyable. Follow these five easy tips to help ensure your speech delivers:

- **Be prepared.** Your audience is giving you their time and consideration, so rehearse enough to be confident you'll leave a good impression.
- **Start strong.** Begin your speech with a powerful opening that will grab your audience's attention, such as a startling fact or statistic, an interesting story or a funny joke.
- **Be conversational.** Avoid reading your speech word for word. Instead, refer to notes or points from an outline to help your speech have a more free-flowing, conversational tone.
- **Speak with passion.** If you're truly invested in what you're saying, you'll be better able to keep your audience's attention.
- **Be patient.** It's easy to get frustrated if you make a mistake. But remember that public speaking is not easy and it takes time to hone your skills. Keep practicing and you will reach your goals.

Visual Aids And Props

Visual aids and props are an effective way of supporting and supplementing any speech or presentation. Visual aids and props should be colorful and unique, but not so dazzling that they detract from the speaker's presence. Never use visual aids and props as a way of avoiding eye contact or interaction with an audience, such as reading directly from slides. Here is a list of common visual aids and props, and quick tips for using them effectively:

- **Diagrams, graphs and charts** should always coincide with what is being said in the speech. Always stand to the side of a diagram, graph or chart while facing the audience.
- **Maps** should be simple and easy to understand, with key places or points clearly plotted or marked.
- **PowerPoint slides** should present main points as short sentences and bullet points and should never be read verbatim by the speaker or presenter.
- **Lists** should be kept to a minimum. Five or six listed items are usually enough.
- **Handouts** should be passed out to an audience before or after a presentation to avoid wasting time and causing a distraction.
- **Photographs or sketches** can be powerful visual aids as long as a speaker maintains consistency between what is being said and what is being shown.
- **Physical objects and props** should not be too large or too small, nor too few or too many. They should always be relevant to the presentation or speech and should always be checked prior to taking the stage to make sure they are working properly.

Gestures And Body Language

Speakers generate a great amount of emotion and interest through the use of non-verbal communication, often called gestures or body language. A speaker's body can be an effective tool for emphasizing and clarifying the words they use, while reinforcing their sincerity and enthusiasm. Here are a few tips on how to use gestures effectively:

- **Eye contact** establishes an immediate bond with an audience, especially when a speaker focuses in on individual listeners rather than just gazing over the audience as a whole.
- **Control mannerisms.** Mannerisms are the nervous expressions a speaker might not be aware of such as putting their hands in their pockets, nodding their head excessively, or using filler words like *um* and *ah* too often.
- **Put verbs in to action** when speaking to an audience by physically acting them out with the hands, face or entire body.
- **Avoid insincere gestures** by involving the entire body as much as possible in the movement and matching facial expressions to it.
- **Move around the stage** as topics change and move toward the audience when asking questions, making critical connections, or offering a revelation.

Strategies for Becoming a Better Speaker

The good news is that speaking in public is a learnable skill. As such, you can use the following strategies to become a better speaker and presenter.

- **Plan Appropriately**

First, make sure that you **plan** your communication appropriately. Use tools like the **Rhetorical Triangle** , **Monroe's Motivated Sequence** , and the **7Cs of Communication** to think about how you'll structure what you're going to say.

When you do this, think about how important a book's first paragraph is; if it doesn't grab you, you're likely going to put it down. The same principle goes for your speech: from the beginning, you need to intrigue your audience.

For example, you could start with an interesting statistic, headline, or fact that pertains to what you're talking about and resonates with your audience. You can also use **story telling** as a powerful opener; our Expert Interviews with **Annette Simmons** and **Paul Smith** offer some useful tips on doing this.

Planning also helps you to **think on your feet** . This is especially important for unpredictable question and answer sessions or last-minute communications.

Tip:

Remember that not all occasions when you need to speak in public will be scheduled. You can make good **impromptu speeches** by having ideas and mini-speeches pre-prepared. It also helps to have a good, thorough understanding of what's going on in your organization and industry.

- **Practice**

There's a good reason that we say, "Practice makes perfect!" You simply cannot be a confident, compelling speaker without practice.

To get practice, seek opportunities to speak in front of others. For example, a club geared specifically towards aspiring speakers, and you can get plenty of practice at their sessions. You could also put yourself in situations that require public speaking, such as by cross-training a group from another department, or by volunteering to speak at team meetings.

If you're going to be delivering a presentation or prepared speech, create it as early as possible. The earlier you put it together, the more time you'll have to practice.

Practice it plenty of times alone, using the resources you'll rely on at the event, and, as you practice, tweak your words until they flow smoothly and easily.

Then, if appropriate, do a dummy run in front of a small audience: this will help you calm your jitters and make you feel more comfortable with the material. Your audience can also give you useful **feedback** , both on your material and on your performance.

- **Engage With Your Audience**

  When you speak, try to engage your audience. This makes you feel less isolated as a speaker and keeps everyone involved with your message. If appropriate, ask **leading questions** targeted to individuals or groups, and encourage people to participate and ask questions.

  Keep in mind that some words reduce your power as a speaker. For instance, think about how these sentences sound: "I just want to add that I think we can meet these goals" or "I just think this plan is a good one." The words "just" and "I think" limit your authority and conviction. Don't use them.

  A similar word is "actually," as in, "Actually, I'd like to add that we were under budget last quarter." When you use "actually," it conveys a sense of submissiveness or even surprise. Instead, say what things are. "We were under budget last quarter" is clear and direct.

  Also, pay attention to how you're speaking. If you're nervous, you might talk quickly. This increases the chances that you'll trip over your words, or say something you don't mean. Force yourself to slow down by breathing deeply. Don't be afraid to gather your thoughts; pauses are an important part of conversation, and they make you sound confident, natural, and authentic.

  Finally, avoid reading word-for-word from your notes. Instead, make a list of important points on cue cards, or, as you get better at public speaking, try to memorize what you're going to say – you can still refer back to your cue cards when you need them.

- **Pay Attention to Body Language**

  If you're unaware of it, your **body language** will give your audience constant, subtle clues about your inner state. If you're nervous, or if you don't believe in what you're saying, the audience can soon know.

  Pay attention to your body language: stand up straight, take deep breaths, look people in the eye, and smile. Don't lean on one leg or use gestures that feel unnatural.

  Many people prefer to speak behind a podium when giving presentations. While podiums can be useful for holding notes, they put a barrier between you and the audience. They can also become a "crutch," giving you a hiding place from the dozens or hundreds of eyes that are on you.

  Instead of standing behind a podium, walk around and use gestures to engage the audience. This movement and energy will also come through in your voice, making it more active and passionate.

- **Think Positively**

  Positive thinking can make a huge difference to the success of your communication, because it helps you feel more confident.

  Fear makes it all too easy to slip into a cycle of negative self-talk, especially right before you speak, while **self-sabotaging** thoughts such as "I'll never be good at this!" or "I'm going to fall flat on my face!" lower your confidence and increase the chances that you won't achieve what you're truly capable of.

  Use **affirmations** and **visualization** to raise your confidence. This is especially important right before your speech or presentation. Visualize giving a successful presentation, and imagine how you'll feel once it's over and when you've made a positive difference for others. Use positive

affirmations such as "I'm grateful I have the opportunity to help my audience" or "I'm going to do well!"

- **Cope With Nerves**

  How often have you listened to or watched a speaker who really messed up? Chances are, the answer is "not very often."

  When we have to speak in front of others, we can envision terrible things happening. We imagine forgetting every point we want to make, passing out from our nervousness, or doing so horribly that we'll lose our job. But those things almost never come to pass! We build them up in our minds and end up more nervous than we need to be.

  Many people cite speaking to an audience as their biggest fear, and a **fear of failure** is often at the root of this. Public speaking can lead your "fight or flight" response to kick in: adrenaline courses through your bloodstream, your heart rate increases, you sweat, and your breath becomes fast and shallow.

  Although these symptoms can be annoying or even debilitating, the **Inverted-U Model** shows that a certain amount of pressure enhances performance. By changing your mindset, you can use nervous energy to your advantage.

  First, make an effort to stop thinking about yourself, your nervousness, and your fear. Instead, focus on your audience: what you're saying is "about them." Remember that you're trying to help or educate them in some way, and your message is more important than your fear. Concentrate on the audience's wants and needs, instead of your own.

  If time allows, use **deep breathing exercises** to slow your heart rate and give your body the oxygen it needs to perform. This is especially important right before you speak. Take deep breaths from your belly, hold each one for several seconds, and let it out slowly.

  Crowds are more intimidating than individuals, so think of your speech as a conversation that you're having with one person. Although your audience may be 100 people, focus on one friendly face at a time, and talk to that person as if he or she is the only one in the room.

- **Watch Recordings of Your Speeches**

  Whenever possible, record your presentations and speeches. You can improve your speaking skills dramatically by watching yourself later, and then working on improving in areas that didn't go well.

  As you watch, notice any verbal stalls, such as "um" or "like." Look at your body language: are you swaying, leaning on the podium, or leaning heavily on one leg? Are you looking at the audience? Did you smile? Did you speak clearly at all times?

  Pay attention to your gestures. Do they appear natural or forced? Make sure that people can see them, especially if you're standing behind a podium.

  Last, look at how you handled interruptions, such as a sneeze or a question that you weren't prepared for. Does your face show surprise, hesitation, or annoyance? If so, practice managing interruptions like these smoothly, so that you're even better next time.

Key Points

Chances are that you'll sometimes have to speak in public as part of your role. While this can seem intimidating, the benefits of being able to speak well outweigh any perceived fears. To become a better speaker, use the following strategies:

- Plan appropriately.
- Practice.
- Engage with your audience.
- Pay attention to body language.

- Think positively.
- Cope with your nerves.
- Watch recordings of your speeches.

If you speak well in public, it can help you get a job or promotion, raise awareness for your team or organization, and educate others. The more you push yourself to speak in front of others, the better you'll become, and the more confidence you'll have.

This site teaches you the skills you need for a happy and successful career; and this is just one of many tools and resources that you'll find here at Mind Tools.

Practice activities

a. Take any paragraph of about 10 lines. Read it aloud several times varying volume, speed and voice quality.

b. Imagine that you are speaking to a class of about 50 students. Record your speech on any topic for five minutes. Listen to the recording and analyse for the following features: volume, voice quality, pauses, clarity of language

c. Listen to any two newsreaders of English and evaluate their reading in terms of paralinguistic features.

d. Listen to an English newsreader and a regional language newsreader. Compare and contrast the two readers in terms of voice quality and voice modulation.

E. **Impromptu presentation**

An Impromptu or Unexpected Speech

There would be several occasions when you would be called upon to speak impromptu, i.e. without a prior and specific preparation. In fact, a person is said to have acquired competence in speaking language, if he is able to transact his daily business with fluency and accuracy in natural social settings, requiring oral communication. His responses are automatically generated by the store of knowledge he possess and his ability to convert it into words. But here we are concerned with speaking before a gathering of listeners on an informal or formal occasion. If you are asked to 'say a few words' on any such occasion (formal dinner; farewell function or seminar), do not get panic. Walk gently and confidently to the podium, collecting your thoughts on the subject, as you go. On reaching the podium settle yourself before the mike, pause for a while and make eye contact with the entire audience. If you are not able to speak to the point immediately, repeat or summarise one or two points made by earlier speakers. This would give you time and strength to proceed further.

Before going to participate in the event, refresh your memory and collect your thoughts on the subject of the talk if it belongs to or is related to your experience or area of specialization.

An impromptu speech is a speech that you have to make when you haven't prepared. In life, this can happen when you attend special events, like weddings or celebrations. In school, teachers use impromptu speeches as homework assignments to help you develop communication skills and to help you prepare for those future life surprises.

Nonetheless, at some point in your life you may be asked to speak without notice. There are a few things you can do to avoid panic and embarrassment.

1.	Grab a pen and a piece of paper, whether it is a napkin, envelope, or the back of a piece of paper you have on hand.

2.	Feel free to acknowledge that you have not prepared for a speech. Do this in a professional way! This should not be an attempt to garner pity, but rather a way to put yourself and your audience at ease. Then, excuse yourself for a moment and take time to jot down a quick outline. Zone out the audience. They will be okay chatting and sipping water for a minute.

3.	Jot down interesting or significant points about your topic, which will be related in some way to the event you're attending. If it is a homework assignment you are addressing, for instance, write down your impression of the assignment or anecdotes about your time spent on it.

Very important: If you do nothing else, write down an introductory sentence and an ending sentence!

The Best 3 Impromptu Speech Tips

1. Stick to the truth. No need to embellish, exaggerate or stretch the truth. The truth is always good enough.

For example, if you feel happy to have your colleagues in a meeting, then don't say that you feel "super excited." Saying that you feel happy is good enough. At least when you tell the truth, you will be authentic.

Now, telling the truth does not mean that you divulge company secrets. You stick to your truth at the moment. If you don't know, then you say you don't know; if you are not sure, then you say you are not sure.

Sticking to the truth will save you from a lot of mental anguish.

2. Share from personal experience. When you speak from personal experience, then you are referring to things that you intimately know. No need to research, no need to investigate, and no need to memorize anything.

When in doubt about what to say, just tell a story from your past related to the situation. That will make your contribution unique and valuable.

For example, someone asks you about the future of self-driving cars. Instead of making up stuff, just talk about the time you were in Mountain View, and you saw one of the Google's self-driving cars for the first time.

Wait, you never saw that. No problem. Talk about the last time you were talking with your spouse about self-driving cars.

Wait you never did that. No problem. Talk about the first time you heard about self-driving cars.

You get the idea here. No need to make up anything, just look back in your memory to the closest experience with the topic and share that.

3. Practice out loud. Thinking on your feet is like dancing, you can't learn it by thinking about it.

There are two ways to practice impromptu speaking:

1. On your own. Choose a different random topic every day and speak out loud about it. What you say does not have to be perfect, or eloquent, or enlightening. The important thing is to speak out loud. I do this when I am stuck in traffic. I pick a random topic and then I just speak on it for a minute or so. Don't overdo it. Just once a day

2. Speak in a group. Practicing in front of a group and getting professional feedback is the best way to learn impromptu speaking. I know that this option is harder than practicing on your own for many reasons. Not finding the right group, not finding the time are just a few. However, it is not impossible. You can try out different speaking classes or join a Toastmasters group in your area until you find one that resonates with you. It will be worth it.

Quick Impromptu Formula You Can Use Right Away

In an impromptu speech, the structure is the king. Without a present and practiced structure, you will ramble on and make no point at all. In fact, the structure will be the king, queen, and general combined to martial and lead your content in a concise and relevant way.

Structure is king!

There are many other formulas that I use for impromptu speaking, however, here I want to share with you an excellent one. It's called FAT.

THE F.A.T. METHOD
OF BETTER IMPROVISATION

- F- Feel: Express your feeling about topic
- A- Anecdote: Share a relevant story
- T- Tie Back: tie back story to topic

F = Feeling

Share your honest feeling about the topic, circumstance or person. If you feel excited to be there then, that's the impression that you share (remember to stay close to the truth)

A= Anecdote

Share a relevant story. Most of the time, I share my first experience with the topic. For example, if it's a car, then I share a story about my first car in college. If it's a person, then I share my first experience meeting the person. It does not have to be that way.

T = Tie Back

After you are done with the anecdote, make sure you tie it back to the topic you are talking about. Example, if you are doing a toast for a departing coworker, and you share the story of the first time you meet her, you can tie back by saying, that after that event, you knew that she was destined for big things and that she will be missed when she leaves.

When you get asked to speak about someone or something, you can always rely on the FAT formula.

Here is an example of an impromptu speech using the FAT method.

Scenario: you are asked to thank a group of interns that worked with your department for the summer.

F: Feeling

I want to thank Michael, Amey, and Kira for working with our department over the summer. Their work is greatly appreciated, and I don't know how we would have done it without them (only say it this way if it's the truth).

A: Anecdote

I remember your first day. You were all quiet, taking notes and probably thinking *oh my god what a mess*. Then surprised us all by your initiative and how quickly you learned. With your help, we caught up on our financial audit.
T: Tie back
We were so thankful to have you this summer and wanted to wish you the best in your academic career next year. I know some of you will be graduating, and I look forward to hearing from you.

I hope you would consider coming back to work with us   Good luck!
Ok, that was the FAT method. Easy right?
You don't have to remember any content, all you have to remember is a structure. The takeaway is that it can be used for many different scenarios. Weddings, eulogies, goodbyes, updates, answers, etc.

METHODS FOR IMPROMPTU SPEAKING

By Eric Pace and Donna Pace
The most challenging aspect of impromptu speaking is in generating and organising your thoughts. Sometimes when asked a question your mind may flood with countless possible answers, other times you may draw a complete blank. The challenge will be greater if your topic is on a subject you know nothing about. Also sometimes your sensitivity to a topic may make it difficult for you to address it adequately. Regardless of what situation you may find yourself in, it can be very useful for you to know that the following methodologies can quickly help formulate and organise your off the cuff responses.
Point, Reason, Example, Point
This method is probably the easiest to use. You open by stating a point. In the body of the topic you outline reasons for stating this point and illustrate with examples. Your conclusion restates the point you first made.
example: *"Malta is a wonderful holiday destination (point). It is a country drenched in history and offers an abundance of activities for travellers (reason). Churches date back to St Paul's era, catacombs*
and air raid shelters date back to the second world war, Bastions date back to St Johns Knights. You could take a dive at one of the many wrecks or take a dip in one of the many beautiful inlets and bays (examples). Of course these are just some of the things Malta has to offer, it really is a wonderful holiday destination (point)".
Who, What, When, Where, Why, How (Kipling)
Organise your flow of ideas by thinking: who is this question about, what can I talk about on this theme; where or when did something happen; why is it important, unimportant to this theme, and so on. Your response may include some or all of the these factors depending as it suits your purpose.
example: *"I (who) had a dog (what) given to me for my first birthday (why), way back in 1977 (when). It was given to me as a gift by my grandfather and from what I am told he came with only a bow and a bowl (how).*
Past, Present, Future
This method allows you to adopt a global approach. For example if your topic is on holidays you might talk about what a holiday might have been like in medieval England, what we mean by holiday today, and what it could come to mean in the future.

example: *"I finished high school in 1992 (past). From there I took on a number of jobs which led me to undertake a University Degree which I hope to finish this year (present). After that I'll look at my options, but will more than likely continue studying for a while (future).*

Balanced opinion

Using this approach you choose to offer both sides of an argument or to compare the advantages and disadvantages of a particular action, situation or decision. For example, the cases for and against playing a contact sport, or the wearing of sneakers rather than leather shoes.

Key word

As you listen to your conversational partner a particular word or words may strike you for example "Peculiar" or "Ferrari's". You may choose to build a theme or an anecdote around the particular word(s).

Chunking

Chunking is when you divide a topic into chunks (that is, its possible sub-topics). Your response then becomes a discussion about the chunks. Most topics can be chucked up in may different ways. For example if your topic is your favourite car you could chunk on manufacturers (Ford, Holden, Toyota), or on style (sedan, wagon, ute), on on cars you have owned (1961 FB Holden, Alfa Romeo 75, Lexus IS250) or engine size, or fuel options, etc.

Describe a process

Describing a process is a very easy approach to answering impromptu questions. You simply explain the order of events or step by step actions one might take to complete a task.

example: *"What happens when I use an Automatic Teller Machine. First I usually have to wait in line. Then when my turn comes I check I have the right plastic card. Next I insert ...."*

Relationships

Respond by exploring the logical relationships with-in your topic. Typical logical relationships include the cause & effect relationship, or the problem & solution relationship.

example: *"Our organisation set a goal of increasing it's turnover by 35% this year. It is now July and we have only achieved 10% of that increase (problem). One course of action to help us achieve our goal is ....(solution)"*

State an opinion and elaborate or justify it

example: *"I believe that Primary schools must ensure that by the time children reach Year 3 they are developing information literacy skills (opinion). In a world where we are constantly bombarded by information through the media, the Internet and so on, it is imperative that children learn from a very young age not only how to access information but how to....(Justification)"*

The trickiest parts of impromptu speaking are the opening and the closing.

Opening techniques:

- Listen to the question carefully.
- Listen for key words and repeat them in your response. In the opening example, the key words are "budget allocations."
- Ask questions to clarify the question, if needed (plus you will come across as a good listener).
- Repeat or rephrase the question (and it's OK to repeat it more than once, which will buy you some time and sound like you are building up to your response).
- Reframe the question to a more positive question, if necessary. For example, if someone asks you the loaded question, "Why do you charge so much?" empathize and redirect the question to one you want to answer. "I can understand your concern about price. I believe you are really concerned about whether you are getting a good value. This is a good value because . ."

- Pause before answering. Take a breath. Think. And then, answer. A thoughtful pause before a direct answer is better than a quick and rambling response.
- Defer. If another person is available who would have a better response, let them answer the question.

Closing techniques:
- Repeat (or rephrase) your main point, using key words.
- Recap your reasons.
- Reaffirm understanding ("does that make sense?") and mutually agree on next steps.

Individual And Group Presentations

F. Individual Presentation

Individual Presentation is an opportunity of speaking in front of a group. Your talk should cover a topic that interest you and that is relevant to the audience, ideas or topics may be taken from newspaper, articles, magazines, technical journals, books or from your own personal experiences.

Starting a Presentation

In modern English, Presentations tend to be much less formal than they were even twenty years ago. Most audience these days prefer a relatively informal approach. However, there is a certain structure to the opening of a Presentation that you should observe.

1. Get people's attention
2. Welcome them
3. Introduce yourself
4. State the purpose of your presentation
5. State how you want to deal with questions

Get people's attention

· If I could have everybody's attention.
· If we can start.
  Perhaps we should begin?
· Let's get started.

Welcome them

· Welcome to this Institute.
· Thank you for coming today.
· Good morning, ladies and gentlemen.
· On behalf of this Institutes, I'd like to welcome you.

Introduce yourself

· My name's Jane Shaw. I'm responsible for travel arrangements.
· For those of you who don't know me, my name's Tom Stotter.
· As you know, I'm in charge of public relations.
· I'm the new Marketing Manager.

State the purpose of your presentation

· This morning I'd like to present our new techniques.
· Today I'd like to discuss our failures in the Japanese market and suggest a new approach.
· This afternoon, I'd like to report on my study into the German market.
· What I want to do this morning is to talk to you about our new mobile telephone system.
· What I want to do is to tell you about our successes and failures in introducing new working patterns.
· What I want to do is to show you how we've made our first successful steps in the potentially huge Chinese market.

State how you want to deal with questions

· If you have any questions, I'll be happy to answer them as we go along.
· Feel free to ask any questions.
· Perhaps we can leave any questions you have until the end?
· There will be plenty of time for questions at the end.
Of course, these are only suggestions and other language is possible. Even within this limited group of phrases, just choose a few you feel comfortable with and learn and use those.

Dealing with questions

Often we feel that we are not in control at question time but remember it is your presentation, you can control the questions. Here are some exercises to help you.

Dealing with questions

Here are some ways of dealing with questions when you are the SPEAKER:
When you don't want to answer:
To be honest, I'm not really the person to ask about that.
When someone interrupts you:
Sorry, could I just finish?
When you finally understand what they want to know:
Oh I see. So what you are asking is …
When you realise they don't understand what you said:
Perhaps I didn't make myself clear. What I was trying to say was …
If you don't want to tell everyone:
Perhaps we can talk about it when I have finished.
To close off the presentation:
If there are no more questions, we should stop there.
Here are some ways of getting an answer when you are the QUESTIONER:
When the answer doesn't give you the information you want:
Yes, that may be so, but what I want to know is …
When the answer is evasive:
Yes, but you still haven't answered my question.
If you are sceptical and want more detail:
Well, I'm not so sure. Can you give us an example to illustrate that?
If you don't agree:
That may be so, but I still think ...

Rhetorical questions

Presentations are more interesting if you use a conversational style. They are more lively and you establish a rapport between you and your audience. You can do this by using a question and answer technique – you ask a question and then answer it. Your questions create anticipation and guide your audience to your point of view.

For example : Late delivery is a big problem. What is the best solution? There are two possible solutions. First …

Here are some exercises to help you practice this technique:

Focussing attention

When we really want to focus the attention of our audience on an important point, we can use this "What ……. is …."

Look at these examples:
- We must cut costs.
- **What** we must do **is** cut costs.
- We need more reliable suppliers.
- **What** we need **is** more reliable suppliers.

Cause and effect

When you are giving a presentation, your job is to not only present the facts but also to give the reasons (why), the purpose (objectives) and the results.

In a presentation, the language used is often very simple, much simpler than if we were writing.

For example :

Reason:
- We sold the land **because** we needed to release the cash.
- We closed the offices in London **because** they were too expensive to run.

Purpose:
- We set up the team to look at possible ways to improve efficiency.
- We sold the land to get necessary capital for investment.

Result:
- We sold the land and had enough cash to invest in new equipment.
- We expanded the sales network and sales increased.

G. Group Presentation

Group presentation provides tremendous opportunities to create something much greater than an individual can normally do. It is always easier and quicker to do things on your own but most of us will be more effective as part of a team that combines the knowledge and talents of several people.

For your second presentation you are going to have to show that you can work effectively as part of a production team. Ideally, there should be at least three people in a team and no more than four. Production teams are very common in the business world, where different members use their individual strengths to contribute to an overall project. One type of team is where one member does the sound, another animation, another image editing, another text etc. Another is where

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different topics are shared out to different team members. How you organise your group presentation is up to your group!

The following stages should be helpful in working as a team and should form part of your report:

1. Decide on your group. Mention the names of all group members.
2. Have a team meeting to discuss the presentation. Why not produce an agenda and minutes as evidence of taking part in a group activity? Each member is expected to take notes on the meeting and re-produce them in his/her report.
3. Is the presentation to be in PowerPoint format or Web Pages? Why did you choose this format? Mention how the various tasks were shared out - who was to do what? How did you decide what layout style and fonts/colours to use? What were they? Where would you get your data from? What was the timescale involved? What other points did you discuss in the meeting?
4. Work on your own contribution and hyperlinks.
5. Put the slides together and test the presentation.
6. Make any appropriate changes.
7. Print the whole slide show (you may use 6 slides per page) showing the various contributions of each group member and making appropriate annotations to your own slides.
8. Word-process your individual report on the group presentation.

12.1.13 Writing your report

Each member of the group is expected to produce an individual report of the presentation. The only common element should be the printout of the whole presentation.

In your report you will need to include the following:

· A clear description of what your presentation is expected to do, what audience it is intended for and what information the audience could get out of it

- An outline (design plan) showing the user interaction. This may be a flowchart or a tree diagram.
- Your rough notes showing the layout for each slide that you contributed
- An account of how the group presentation was developed from its design stage to completion. You should include your agenda and minutes. How did you decide on the theme? You must also provide evidence that the presentation was checked, tested and revised. How did you test the presentation? How did you evaluate its effectiveness?
- Evidence of your individual research and how your early ideas developed. Show how you used original text and a range of sounds, images and colours and animation in your work.
- A printout of all the slides used in the presentation. They do not need to be on separate pages, but can be joined together, six slides to a page, with hand-written annotations around your individual contributions.
- An evaluation of how well you completed your work, with suggestions for improvement and a description of any problems you encountered.
      Group Discussion

Group discussion

Whenever we face a new situation or a problem we say, all right, we'll talk it over, we'll discuss it and then decide. This statement clearly shows that group discussion is a convenient outlet for the interchange of opinion and information. It is a simple way to sort out the things before we take any action. It becomes all the more useful if it is well planned and well thought of.

Discussion types of meetings
1. Group discussion

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

Objectives
1. Democracy in action involves group functioning.
2. Systematic discussion among representative persons promotes the analysis of commonly felt needs.
3. We can solve many important problems or meet the needs only through group action.
4. Group discussion provides opportunity to the members of the group to exchange their experience or their points of view.
5. It promotes the habit of group thinking, group planning, group action and expression.
6. Most of the problems in many villages could be solved by group action which means that there should be organized group in the village with a group leader.
7. Organised group may not always be available in a village. Lack of organized group by itself is a challenge for the extension worker. The village group must be identified first that the public interest should be focused on a problem to mobilize the villagers to action.
8. Group discussion is a miniature democracy giving equal rights, privileges and opportunities to every members to discussan issue.

Study Groups

These are generally informal discussions among the class-fellows or the members of a guild, they exchange information, with an idea to learn something from others present. Here the initial speech to introduce the problem is followed by the individual's opinion or narration of his experience. Sometimes a problem is discussed just to serve no practical ends and is not for implementation e.g. in literary society functions or in a symposium.

How to conduct a group discussion ?

1. The extension worker or village leader should locate and identify the individual interested in a particular problem through individual contact and invite them informally to meet for informal group discussion.
2. The time, date, place and the topic should be informed to the people concerned well in advance.
3. The seating arrangements should be in a circular or semicircular fashion, so that the speaker face the audience.
4. The extension worker should receive the member with a welcoming smile and see the they are comfortably seated,
5. He should fuid out whether any one member of the group is capable of leading the discussion and request him to start the discussion. If nobody prefers to lead the discussion, the extension worker himself take the lead.
6. The atmosphere of the meeting should be kept friendly and informal.
7. The group leader should be elected democratically.
8. At the beginning of discussion, ideas should be invited from members of the group and the problems should be defined. If the person goes on talking the extension worker should politely ask him to end his speech. The easiest way to avoid this is for the extension worker to tell him, "You have given a nice idea and spoken nicely. Shall we hear others" opinion also?
9. Extension worker should not dominate the discussion.

10. Extension worker should encourage all the persons of the group to express their suggestions, because the objective of group discussion is to get maximum participation by the members present.
11. The discussion should promote recognition of problem by the group and also create the desire for a solution. All the available information about the problem should be presented before the group, preferably with some visual aids.
12. The extension worker should not give the impression that his solution is the best and should not condemn the existing and suggested practices. Even a shyperson of the groups should be persuaded by the extension worker to give his suggestion. It is quiet possible that his suggestion may be the best of all suggestions.
13. At the end of group, discussion made the summary of the problem, solution arrived at by the members through discussion and the actions that are to be taken should be given.
14. Appreciate the members for their valuable contribution.
15. Undertake a systematic follow-up.

Application, Advantages and Limitations

Application
Intensive deworming for sheep.
Disease prevention measures.
Formation and working of co-operation.

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

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

H. Meetings- Seminars and Conferences

Meetings are one of the oldest and the most important group methods of extension teaching. If properly arranged and conducted, they rank high in ratio of practices adopted in relation to cost as compared with other methods. The term meeting includes all kinds of meetings held by extension worker. In size the meeting varies from small committee meeting to large special occasion meetings with meals or festivals and attended by thousands.

Types of meetings
Kelsey and Hearne' (1963) identify five general types of meetings involved in extension work
1. Organization meetings (board of directors' meet, youth clubs).
2. Planning meetings (village planning meeting),
3. Training meetings (rural leaders' training),
4. Special interest meetings (special meeting about dairying), and
5. Community meetings (community meet for general problems.

Other classifications of meetings

    1. General meetings, 2. Lecture, 3. Group discussion, 4. Debate, 5. Symposium, 6. Panel, 7. Forum, 8. Buzz sessions, 9. Workshop, **10. Seminar, 11. Conference,** 12.Institute, 13.Syndicate studies, 14. Brain trust or Brain storming.

Planning the meeting

Plan the meeting with the representatives of the people for whom it is held.
1. Select the topics, 2. Timing, 3. Place, 4. Speaker and chairman, 5. Publicity and material arrangements.

Consider these factors in planning meetings
1. Size of the audience.
2. Character of the audience.
3. Comfortable physical facilities.
4. Be time conscious, do not overcrowd the programme.
5. Do not allow unrelated announcements and unscheduled speakers to prolong the programme and distract the audience.

Subsequently the extension worker has to conduct the meeting following the procedures specified for each type of meeting. The last step is followup. It includes summary preparation, and sending press reports, displays and evaluation.

General meeting

    General meeting is broadly a meeting of heterogeneous participants wherein certain information is passed on for consideration and future action. This is employed effectively to reach and serve large numbers to prepare the people for other methods of extension work; to find the reaction of the people to certain activities. Plan the meeting in advance as mentioned before.

Conducting the meeting

While conducting the general meeting the following points are to be borne in mind:
1. Hold the meeting preferably in a central place having all physical facilities.
2. Preferably the meeting should be held at a days notice during summer / off seasons for light farm work.
3. Be prompt in starting and closing the meeting.
4. Though giving allowance for liberal discussion, focus attention on the purpose of the meeting.
5. Avoid sharp conflicts.
6. Use visual materials if available.
7. Take advantage of group psychology and employ appeals to arose interest and stimulate action.
8. Give recognition to all section and groups participating.
9. Associate local leaders for welcoming the gathering or thanking the participants if not for presiding.
10. Acknowledge services briefly and then indicate the follow up work, if any.
11. Prepare news reports of the meeting and publicise.
12. If possible arrange exhibition and film shows.
13. Distribute relevant folders or pamphlets at the time of break.

Application

This meeting could be employed:

1. To introduce the community development programme or any welfare programme.
2. To present the annual programme of extension activities.
3. To enlist people's participation in community work.

Advantages

1. Large number of people can be reached.
2. Serves as a preparatory stage for other methods.
3. Group psychology can be used in promoting the programme.
4. Reactions of the people to a programme can be assessed.
5. Adoption of practices can be accomplished at low cost.

Limitations

1. Meeting place and facilities are not always adequate
2. Scope for discussion is limited except possibly for few questions and answers
3. Handling the topic becomes difficult because of mixed composition of audience.
4. Circumstances beyond control like faction and weather might reduce the attendance.

Seminar

It is one of the most important forms of group discussion. The discussion leader introduces the topic to be discussed. Members of the audience discuss the subject to which ready answers are not available. This method has the advantage of pooling together the opinions of a large number of persons.

Conference

A pooling of experiences and opinions among a group of people who have special qualifications in an area.

Organising seminars and conferences

A seminar refers to the discussion in a small group in which the result of original research or advanced study is presented through oral or written reports. It may also be organized for cross-fertilisation of ideas. Generally one person presents a lead paper, incorporating his findings and there is an in-depth discussion on the material presented. The other members are knowledgeable and take active part in the discussion. They closely interact with the lend speaker by expressing their views as seen from their individual angles. The doubts, if any are sought to be clarified by putting specific questions. The main purpose of a seminar is to share knowledge and to get the view points of equally well informed persons.

Another type of meeting is called Conference. The purpose of the conference is as the name indicates to confer with persons having similar interests and also to pool their experiences and opinions. The discussion usually results in a set of suggestions or recommendations on the central theme of the conference. The participant and subject matter spectrums are wider than those of a seminar or a symposium. It is not uncommon to hold small group discussion on different aspects of the conference theme, the delegates choosing among several discussion sessions going on simultaneously at the venue. Formal lectures audio visual presentations and exhibitions are also generally organized on the occasion. Thus a wide range of activities take place under the omnibus label – conference. The conference is a closed group discussion. The

participants have to register for attending it. Any other person present at the conference is either permitted observer or an invited guest.

Conducting seminars

When a seminar has to be organized by you, it is advisable to draw a detailed plan. Each seminar has an objective, a lead speaker and number of participants. First, formulate the theme, determine the lead speaker and identity the participants. Next, select the venue and fix the time and date of the seminar. If you visualize more than one session, identify a chairman for each. As the seminar coordinator it would be your duty to send the above mentioned information to all participants well in time either through a circular letter, an e-mail or through a brochure with a covering note. This communication should be properly structured and should clearly state the objective of the seminar and the arrangements that have been made for conducting it and also those for board and lodging if you are inviting participants from other towns and cities.

Unit II: Writing Skills

A. Precis writing

The word 'precis' is derived from French .The word précis means an abstract, abridgement or summary; and précis writing means summarizing. To make a précis of a given passage is to extract its main points and to express them as clearly and as briefly as possible. and it means a straight forward condensed statement of the salient features, ideas or information contained in the original passage and it is written in a clear and concise way in the writing own words. A precis is a summary, and precis-writing means summarising. Precis-writing is an exercise in compression. A precis is the gist or main theme of a passage expressed in as few words as possible. It should be lucid, succinct, and full (i.e. including all essential points), so that anyone on reading it may be able to grasp the main pointsand general effect of the passage summarised.

Forms of condensation

Précis is lengthier than the abstract and follows the exact order of points of the original passage. It is a clear statement of base facts without any unnecessary frills. In fact précis writing requires writing of the essential facts/ideas in a clear, exact and concise way. In this sense précis is more like original piece of writing. As a précis writer, you use your own words to write the gist of the passage.

Skills required

The aim of précis is to present to a busy reader, the main ideas of original passage as concisely and clearly as possible, in a readable form. In this sense a précis is like an original piece of writing. Precis writing demands power of judgement and evaluation as the passage usually contains important ideas and a number of unnecessary words.

Method of procedure

1. **Reading.** (a) First read the passage through carefully, but not too slowly, to get a general idea of its meaning. If one reading is not sufficient to give you this clearly, read it over again, and yet again. The more you read it, the more familiar will it become to you, and the clearer will be (i) its subject, and (ii) what is said about that subject. Ask yourself, 'What is it I am reading? What does

the author mean? What is his subject? What is he saying about it? can I put in a few words the pit of what he says?"

(b) Usually you are required to supply a title for your precis. This is a good stage at which to do this. Think of some word, phrase or short sentence that will sum up briefly the main subject of the passage. For example, look at Exercise 155, No.20, in which the first sentence gives the subject, all the rest of the passage being an expansion and illustration of it: "Hospitality is a virtue for which the natives of the East in general are highly and deservedly admired". This at once suggests the short title of "Eastern Hospitality". But you will not always find such convenient key-sentences in the passage you have to summarise. In their absence, you must get a clear idea of the subject from the passage as a whole, and then sum it up in a suitable heading.

The effort to find a suitable title at this stage will help you to define in your mind what exactly the subject, or main theme, of the passage is.

(c) Further reading is now necessary to ensure that you understand the details of the passage as well as its main purport. Take it now sentence by sentence, and word by word. If the meanings of any words are not clear, look them up in a dictionary. Detailed study of this king is necessary, because a phrase, a sentence, or even a single word, may be of prime importance, and the misunderstanding of it may cause you to miss the whole point of the passage.

(d) You should now be in a position to decide what parts of the passage are essential and what parts are comparatively unimportant and so can be omitted without any loss. This process of selection is not so easy as some people think. Begineers select; but they often select in a haphazard or mechanical way. It requires some practice to be able to say, " This is essential to the meaning of the passage, and that is only incidental and unimportant." The best guide, of course, is the subject or main theme of the passage. If you have a clear and correct idea of that you will soon see what is important and what is unimportant.

At this stage it is useful to jot down your conclusions in brief notes-writing down the subject, the title, and the details which you consider essential or important. (This is a better plan than underlining sentences and phrases in the original.)

2. **Writing.** (a) Rough Drafts – Your should now be ready to attempt the writing of the precis; but be sure of the limits within which it must be compressed. If the number of words is given you, this is easy; but if you are told to reduce the passage to say, a third of its length, count the number of words in the passage and divide by three. You may use fewer words that the number prescribed, but in no case may you exceed the limit.

It is not likely that your first attempt will be a complete success. The draft will probably be too long. In fact you may have to write out several drafts before you find how to express the gist of the passage fully within the limits set. A good deal of patience and revision will be required before you get it right. It is a good plan to write the first draft without having the actual words of the original passages before one's eyes.

(b) Important Points – The following points must be kept in mind:

(i) The precis should be all in your own words. It must not be a patchwork made up of phrases and sentences quoted from the original.

(ii) The precis must be a connected whole. It may be divided into sections or paragraphs, according to changes in the subject – matter, but these must not appear as separate notes, but must be joined together in such a way as to read continuously.

(iii) The precis must be complete and self-contained; that is, it must convey its message fully and clearly without requiring any reference to the original to complete its meaning.

Guidelines

1. Read the passage at least two times to familiarise yourself with the theme and the main ideas contained in the passage.
2. Give the passage a little, a suitable title would help you to identify the name of the passage.
3. Write down important points and arrange them in the same sequence as the original passage.
4. Make a rough draft. A précis should not be more than 1/3 of the original unless otherwise directed.
5. Write the precise in the indirect form of narration using only the third person
6. Scrupulously avoid all examples figures of speech, illustrations and comments.
7. Retain all those facts and ideas which are related to the main ideas, reject those which have minor importance.
8. Drop all redundant words and expressions.

B. **Summarising**

A summary is a **short** and **concise** representation of the main points, ideas, concepts, facts or statements of a text written in your own words. Unlike a paraphrase, which is generally of a similar length to the original text, a summary is much shorter.

When either summarising or paraphrasing, you should not alter:
- the author's original idea(s)
- the degree of certainty with which the ideas are expressed.

How to summarise?

To create / write a good summary, you should read the article or text a number of times to develop a clear understanding of:
- the author's ideas and intentions
- the meaning and details
- the force with which the ideas are expressed.

Referencing

- Summaries need to be referenced. Whether you have summarised or paraphrased an author's words, thoughts, ideas etc, a citation to the original source of the words, thoughts, ideas etc must be provided.

Writing a Summary

Use the following steps to write a summary.

Step 1
- **Write notes in point form using keywords;** this will make it easier to express the ideas in your own words.

Step 2
- **Write the summary directly from your notes** without re-reading the passage.

Step 3
- **Refer back to the original** to ensure that your summary is a true reflection of the writer's ideas.

Tips
- Topic sentences provide a quick outline of the main idea(s) presented in a paragraph.

- When summarising a chapter or article, the introduction and conclusion should provide a good overview of the content.

C. **Abstracting**

- An abstract is a concise and accurate *representation* of the contents of a document, in a style similar to that of the original document.

Purpose of abstracts

- As an aid to the reader. It helps the reader assess the contents of a document without having to read the whole document.
- The reader can narrow the selection of documents based upon their abstracts. It increases the efficiency of searching.
- Professional abstractors Employed by organisations to abstract numerous documents. If they know the subject well enough, they can write a good abstract.
- Authorsmany publications, conferences, ask the author to include an abstract of 100-200 words with the original document. This saves time, but authors are not always good as abstractors.
- **Abstracting services**
- Abstracts are used in abstracting services, such as *Library and Information Science Abstracts (LISA).*
- **This serves –**
- current awareness
- retrospective searching
- **value of an abstract**
- Abstract length.
- Abstract orientation
- Abstract quality
- Nature of the original document
- **1. Abstract length.**
- Long abstracts have more detail. They will be found more often by keyword searches. This may be what the research wants, but it will be have low *precision.*
- Short abstracts are quicker to read. They can be more precise but there will be lower *recall*.
- **2. Abstract orientation**
- Professional abstracting is done for a special market. Some abstracts are written for a general audience.
- **3. Abstract quality**
- Not all abstracting is of high quality. Author abstracts are often low quality. Professional abstracts are usually better.
- **4. Nature of the original document**
- Abstracts can be in a different language to the original. As an example, the original document is in English, and the abstract is in Vietnamese.

Types of abstract

- Informative abstracts
- Indicative abstracts
- Critical abstracts

1. Informative abstracts

- Represent as much of the information from the document's content as possible. This means they can be long (up to 500 words). Good for documents describing research that contains a single process. Not good for review documents with many different concepts to describe.
- An informative abstract stands in the place of the real document. It may be all that researchers need to read - the abstract contains enough information for their purposes

2. Indicative abstracts

- Indicates general content without trying to describe it all. Usually a list of topics but no detail.
- Very useful as a selection aid - will contain all relevant keywords.
- Easier to write than informative abstracts!
- An indicative abstract does not stand on its own. It leads the researcher to the full document. The abstract helps with searching the literature.

3. Critical abstracts

- Does more than just describe content.
- Evaluates work and places it in context, so write of abstract is adding personal opinion to abstract.
- Not common.

Selecting documents for abstracts

* Relevant to customers
* New contributions to the subject
* Final reports (not interim ones)
* Foreign documents / hard to access material
* Reliable sources
* Specific journals
* The abstractor

Process
- Read the document
- understand content
- focus on results reported in document
- Make written notes
- Draft rough abstract
- Check draft for spelling, accuracy
- Write final abstract

D. **Listening**

Listening is both a physiological as well as a cognitive process, a sort of qualitative add-on to hearing. Listening also helps the cultivation of smooth interpersonal relationships with fellow workers, which is essential for efficient functioning of the organization.

Listening skills

Research studies and surveys have shown that most of the adults are poor listeners. A basic reason for this is that we practice it seldom though few of us have been taught how to listen; listening efficiency can actually be raised by merely giving some attention to it. A prime cause of poor listening is the difference between the think speed and a person's rate of speech. This refers to the difference between the average rate of speech-about 125 to 175 words a minute and brain's capacity to think words , which is at the rate of 500 to 1000 words a minute or in some case 5000 . Thus, our brain works too fast and the relatively slow input of these 125 to 175 words a minute leaves the mind much room to think about other things. When we are engaged in conversation we find so many times that the listener is miles away.

Guidelines for listening effectively

Active and effective listening is must to become an effective speaker. By listening carefully to his audience, a communicator can gauge how his message is being received. By listening patiently to their comments and questions, he can tell how his points are being understood. The listeners can see the following techniques/ideas to improve their basic listening. A communicator can put them to use to improve his overall listening ability.

Stop talking: You cannot listen if you are talking.

Put the talker at ease: Help a person feel free to talk. This is often called a permissive environment. In this environment speaker feels to express opinions, feelings ideas and attitudes.

Show a talker that you want to listen: Look and act interested. Do not do any other (reading mail) while someone talks. Listen to understand rather than to oppose.

Remove distraction: Do not tap or shuffle papers. If there is some noise or distraction from outside it will be better to shut the door.

Give feedback: When you are communicator, immediate feedback is very important. If there is a misunderstanding, the best time to rectify it is immediately, to avoid future problems.

Listen between the lines: Very often, we may say one thing while we really mean something quite different. Others may also do like this. So, it is important to remember this advice. Do not listen to what I say, listen to what I mean.

Listen for purpose motive: Every speaker hopefully has a purpose, but it may not related to the content of the speech. In order to determine the speaker's motive, free your mind of traditional evaluative thoughts and ask yourself the question what is the speaker's purpose. Listen carefully and get an idea of the speaker's perspective. Try to understand the framework and point of view.

Listen for attitudes: Our behavior is a reflection of our attitudes, and our attitudes are shaped by our motives. To understand a person's motives, you must listen carefully or expressions about other people, classes, groups or ideas. People reveal their attitudes in their comments about others. So listen attentively and do not lit a contrasting attitude or value stop you from listening.

Listen to non-verbal language: This language is expressed through eye contact and facial expressions such as smiles, frowns, raised eye brows, moving versus steady eyes, a tense versus a relaxed face, and look of approval or disapproval etc. Finger pointing, covering the mouth with hand and touching are also ways of non verbal expression. Another way of non-verbal communication is how say words. This includes voice intonation, inflections, and smoothness of

speech and so on. How a person says words, can greatly after their meaning. Often this non-verbal communication takes place simultaneously with verbal speaking which can amplify or change the meaning of woks. It also expresses attitudes and emotions. So consider these non verbal cues within the physical and cultural context and in reference to the individual using them.

Avoid negative feedback: When people become emotionally upset they tend to interrupt, argue with, or criticize the speaker. It makes the speaker defensive and he/she can hide his real opinions, feelings, ideas and attitudes.

Emphasize with the talker: Perhaps the best trait of a good listener is that of empathy. Being able to put ourselves in other's positions and sincerely trying to see things from their point of view is truly an ability teacher and trainers should cultivate.

Be patient: allow plenty of time. Do not interrupt a talker. Do not start for the door or walk away.

Hold your temper: an angry of disturbed person takes the wrong meaning from words. An individual is better able to deal with the situation if he fully understands the opposing position. So, if you are to understand other person, you must keep yourself cool and hold your temper. Try to listen empathetically to something that disturbs you.

Go easy on argument and criticism: This puts people on the defensive, and they may ' clean-up ' or become angry. Do not argue. Even if you win, you lose. Ask questions: This encourages a talker and shows that you are listening. It helps to develop points further.

Stop talking: This first last, because all other guides depend on it. You cannot do an effective listening job while you are talking.

Nature gave people two ears but only one tongue which is a gentle hint that they should listen more than they talk. Listening requires two ears, one for meaning and one for feeling.

To develop your listening skills, evaluate your communication with another person after the discussion ends. Ask yourself, what did I do effectively in term soft these techniques? Then ask, what do I need to improve on?

Barriers to listening:

i) Adverse physical atmosphere:
Proper physical environment induces good listening.

ii) Lack of motivation
The lack of a strong desire to understand, to learn, to acquire skills, or to gain knowledge binders effective listening.

iii) Improper perception
A distorted or truncated perception of the relevance and usefulness of the topic affects listening adversely.

iv) Negative personality traits
Studies on the relationship between listening and personality traits show that in general, those persons who are self-centered, boastful and down.

Developing listening skills

1. Familiarise yourself with the sound system of English
The sound system of every language is unique. So listening sometimes suffers because the sound system of one's mother tongue interferes with the sound system of English. Apart from individual sounds, there are other important features which play a significant role in conveying meaning. To comprehend fully it is essential to recognize the difference between a stressed word and an unstruggled word, falling intonation and rising information, short pause and long pause.

2. Focus on your purpose

Listening serves a number of purposes. As a student, when you attend lectures and seminars, your purpose is to gather information, to gain knowledge, to understand concepts, and to learn the procedure or process of doing things. Sometimes your listening has to be critical as well. For example, when proposal is put forward or plan of action is suggested you have to be critical in your approach while examining their suitability or feasibility.

3. Have a positive attitude towards the speaker and the topic Prevent yourself from paying attention to the dress and physical features of the speaker. Keep your mind open and ready to receive.

4. Listen with your eyes as well as ears

You must carefully pay attention not only to the spoken words but also on how they are being attend and the accompanying body language.

Practice Activities

a. Take a world map. Listen to the weather report on any of the English TV Channels or radio. Mark the weather conditions of different places on the map. (You can use your own symbols and signs while marking, but indicate what they mean in some corner of the map.) Do this activity for at least a week.

b. Either your teacher or one of your classmates will read the following weather report. Listen to him/her and take notes.

Jyotsna: Good morning, I'm afraid it's a gloomy day today almost everywhere. The latest satellite pictures show extensive cloud coverage in northern India and Nepal and it's raining heavily in and around Uttaranchal. Lucknow has recorded 5 cms of rainfall and Kanpur 2 cms. There may be some rain in Delhi, Chandigarh and Bhopal.

In the South, though there are no rains, it's cloudy and there may be showers in Karnataka, Rayalaseema and Talangana. Tamilnadu will remain cloudy and there may be strong winds.

Art of Listening

Many professionals do not wait and listen. Lack of listening may lead to erroneous communication. Managers and teachers should develop the art of listening and not assume that they know what is being said. Good and active listening requires careful hearing and understanding of the message to make out its meaning. Listening is often undermined by distractions arising from the environment, the learner and the speaker.

Listening is a part of good communication. Active listening, sometimes by writing notes, responses greater confidence in the listener.Listening is to showing respect to the speaker and his/her view point. A number of package courses on effective listening are marketed. In such courses, managers are made to listen over extended durations and capture the critical information, constantly analyse the message, retain keywords, organise their thoughts and then respond to the situation.

How to develop listening skills

Good listeners make good communicators. They listen carefully to what others say. Here are some suggestions to improve yourlistening skills:

1. Stop talking sometimes. Most communicators tend to talk too much.
2. Put the audience at case. Show them that you respect their opinions.
3. Concentrate on what someone is saying.

4. Don't allow others to talk and to distract you from listening

5. Avoid making assumptions. Don't assume that you know what someone is going to say to you.

6. Look for hidden or deeper messages.

7. Ask questions. Questions will often prompt students to respond better.

8. Listen actively; restate and rephrase what has been said to you before responding.

Are you a good listener

Give score 1 for Yes and 0 for No

As you Listen:

1. Do you ask questions and wait for an answer?

2. Do you respond quickly and directly to the questions that are asked?

3. Does the other person feel that you are listening actively to him/her?

4. Do you give an occasional nod, or an 'uh-huh' or an "I see" while you listen?

5. Do you shift your posture or lean forward in the chair and at appropriate moments smile or shake your head meaningfully while you listen?

6. Do you maintain strong eye contact with your conversation mate?

7. Do you go ahead and ask a question that follows closely from what was just said after the other person comes to a break in his or her talking?

8. Are you mentally "with your speaker" every moment?

9. Are you tempted to interrupt the speaker in between if you disagree with him on an issue?

10. Do you listen patiently with an open mind?

11. Do you encourage your speaker to express his ideas fully?

12. As a listener are you able to take time away from your most important focus yourself?

Scoring

Correct answers: 'Yes' answers for all questions except no. 9 are correct answers.

Interpretation

8 and above: You really are a "people's a person". You are a good listener and intelligent enough to understand that listening intently to people is one of the highest compliments we can pay anyone. So, you have others think of you as really interested in them when in reality you simply listen to them and encourage them to talk. This way you learn things and people respond to you since you listen to them. You are thus an effective communicator and can become a successful leader. Keep it up!

Less than 8: You seem to be too preoccupied with your own self to listen. Come out of your self-centred approach. You have to learn to listen to others – your employees, customers, friends, family as well as your critics. Get involved in others. People must be treated as individuals. They're people first, employees second. This is a special motivation technique. So get set and step outside yourself to discover what's important to someone else.

Your listening profile

Listening is an active pursuit. It's demanding hard work. Most of all, when someone is truly listening, it takes time away from the listener's most important focus- himself. As a listener, have you ever analysed who do you like to listen to and who do you resist? Whether in a formal presentation, at a meeting or a party? And what are the turn-off qualities you've encountered in speakers on such occasions? Interestingly, the qualities your look for and despise, reveal a subtle image of your *own* inner-self. Answer the following quiz to get a thumbnail sketch of your hidden personality profile.

Tick mark only one of the alternatives provided.

Whom would you *prefer* to listen to; the one who-

Q. 1. a) Puts you at ease with his/her warm, friendly, honest and open style.

or

b) Caters to your interest by being approving exciting, creative and interesting in his approach?

Q. 2. a) Provides you with ample information, being knowledgeable and confident himself?

or

b) Delivers his contents in an attractive and organized manner?

Q. 3. a) Appears trustworthy and authentic due to his status and position in society?

or

b) Inspires you with his innovative thinking.

Now, specify what turns you off most when you listen to someone-

Q. 4. a) A formal and stuffy style?

or

b) A closed and false appearance?

Q. 5. a) Pompous, stepping himself a step or two above you?

or

b) Monotonous and passive approach?

Q. 6. a) Vague and complex?   or

b) Hyper-intense, starting you at too high a level?

Interpretation

If you score mostly A's: You are the kind who like to be actively invited to create an environment in which you can relax your guard and relate more directly and openly to others. Perhaps you find an inhibition in yourself in expressing warmth, friendliness and honesty or openness very directly though you respond to them with pleasure. Thus, you are drawn sub-consciously to those who can fill up this gap and are complementary to you. Your love for knowledge and authenticity of the source from where you derive it make you a well-informed and mentally alert personality. You're basically an achiever and an affiliator, seeking ambition and warmth of relationship. You do not like operating from a rigid set of rules, unrelated to the situation at hand. You usually do not automatically want to look up to someone before you yourself have designated his/her worth. You may rebel against domination at work by people in power and control. You aspire for clarity of vision and understanding. Vagueness and complexity tend to baffle you and create anxiety within your. You hate to know you don't understand, and like to maintain an equilibrium within your mental faculties. Cognitive dissonance puts you off completely.

If you score mostly B's: You seem to prefer events promising pleasure and make you lose yourself in a feeling of anticipation and a curiosity about what comes next. Being mostly organized satisfies your brain's need for order and logic. You tend to be usually comfortable with people who can inspire you, since they appeal to your deeply rooted willingness to follow them as a leader. Nevertheless, you tend to seek space in relationships and creativity and work. You have the capacity to view life in all its dimensions as you love excitement and all that is inspiring, interesting and innovative. You often shun monotony and passivity. You could also be often moody and indulgent, so look to your inner and outer balance. You seem to dislike delving deeper into a too high level and intense thought material. However, instead of clinging to what you term

as "valuable", try being more elastic in order to feel the freedom and expansion of your spirit and experience the joy it brings to you and others around you.

E. **Note taking**

Studies find that note taking helps students' focus attention, promotes more thorough elaboration of ideas, and encourages efforts to relate ideas and organize materials. In short, note taking helps students to process information more deeply. As an instructor, you can do a number of things to help your students take and use their notes more effectively. Here are some tips:

OUTLINE YOUR LECTURE/USE TRANSITION PHRASES

Be overt in the organization of your lecture, both orally and visually. For example, write your lecture outline on the board. Second, since studies show that students usually record what the instructor has written, be discriminating in your use of the board or transparencies. Third, during the lecture, refer to your outline to highlight shifts in topic. Last, use signaling phrases and transition statements such as "this is important," "you'll want to remember," "these differ in three important ways," "the second point is, "or "next,..."

USE A FRAMEWORK

If appropriate to your subject matter, give students a framework or schema for how to organize information. Most information can be organized into one of two frameworks:

sequence or classification. Sequence is used to explain change, influence, or phases. For example, if you're presenting information that illustrates time, space, or a process it's most likely a sequence; "stages of development" suggests a process that can be illustrated with arrows.

For example:

infancy---->childhood---->adolescence---->young ---->adulthood

On the other hand, if the information consists of types, parts, characteristics, components, or elements, you can classify it and present the information as a hierarchy.

For example:

Behaviorism

Humanism

Major Theorist

Central Premise

Examples

Therapy

Both patterns can help students contrast and compare the material for similarities and differences.

TELL STUDENTS WHAT TO RECORD.

Should they record examples, sample problems, the questions discussed in class? What about explanations of examples and solutions to problems? Is it necessary to record names, dates, and research cited? The answers to such questions differ from one course to another. You can help students by providing explicit instructions, at least in the first few classes, about what to include in class notes.

CHALLENGE STUDENTS TO THINK

Pause from time to time and ask them to paraphrase what they have written in their notes -- to rewrite definitions, to restate relationships, to retell an example. Urge them to use their own words. Suggest that they explain their notes to a student seated nearby. They, ask them to write their paraphrased explanation in their notes.

To get students to elaborate and extend their notes (and their understanding), ask them to write endings to sentences: "Another example of this might be..."; "The last time I saw a problem like this was..."; "I remember talking about this issue with..."; "Thisinformation might explain why..." Such prompts encourage students to connect new material to what they already know, another step toward understanding and retention.

TRAIN STUDENTS TO TAKE BETTER NOTES

Give students feedback on their notes. Occasionally hand out your version of lecture notes after class, so that students can compare their notes to yours. Note: Just be sure your lecture actually corresponds to the notes you give them!

When you meet with students who are having trouble with your course, ask them to bring in their lecture notes. Poor notes (or no notes!) may be the source of much of their problems. Many faculty also recommend that students in trouble re-copy their notes, and in the process organize them, fill in gaps using the text, and ferret out the points not completely understood which require extra study.

MAKE TIME FOR NOTETAKING ACTIVITIES IN CLASS

Remember: you are using note taking as a vehicle for encouraging students to think more deeply about the lecture content. Many students do learn from taking notes and reviewing them. By showing concern for note taking in your classes, you exhibit your interest in helping students "learn how to learn." And you may increase the likelihood that your students learn what you teach them.

Note taking techniques

What is note taking?

It is a 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 called minutes. The format of the initial record is informal or unstructured one common format for such notes is short hand. Which can allow large amounts of information can be put on a paper very quickly. Notes are usually written in note books, some people also use post it notes.

The pre requisite:

Note Taking is a skill you can develop. However, you have to develop another skill before you become a good note maker. This prerequisite is good listening skill. Concentrate on the lecture (contents) rather than the lecturer. Listen with an open mind finally, sit in the front (if possible) row and maintain eye contact with speaker and take notes.

Why to take lecture notes?

1. Taking notes forces you to listen carefully and tests your understanding of the material.

2. Reviewing notes helps you to guage what is important in the text.

3. Personal notes are easier to remember than the text.

4. Taking notes helps you to remember longer.

Clues to important points in lectures

1. The words written on the black board are usually those that the teacher feels Important and must be remembered and understood.

2. The teachers usually repeat words phrases or information he deems important.

3. The importance of the contents can also be judged by the tone, voice and gestures of the teachers or the amount of time he spends on the points and number of examples he gives.

4. Summary given by the teacher at the end of the class.

5. Reviews given at the beginning of class are also clues to important points.

Develop a method of taking notes.
Each student has his known method of taking notes. However,
1. Make your notes brief never use a complete sentences.
2. Use abbreviations and symbols as much as possible.
Example:

fr -From	Vs-against
w/ -with	N.B –Note well
w/o- without	etc – and so forth
e.g. – example	? – questionable item
c.f. – compare with	Q – question
re – in reference to	ref – reference

i.e - that is
ˆ - therefore
ø - important
3. Omit vowels in words such as transfer becomes transfer
4. Write your notes in your own words
5. Use numbering system or out line form
a)Charting : Creating graphs or tables with row and columns or flow chart.
b)Outlining: I First topic
A. Sub topic
1.
2.
B. Sub – Topic
II. Main topic
C. Sub topic
1.
2.
6. Use mapping: Ideas are written in free structure with lines connecting them together. Usually starts from centre and branches out also use different color to represent each idea.
7. Date your notes and number the pages too.
8. Do not use every space of the page. Leave some space so that missing words or your inference can be written at the end of the lecture or co ordinate with text books.

9. Give visual emphasis to the important ideas by doing
1. Underline key statements or important concepts may be   with colors.
2. Use signal marks: Arrows, asterisks.
10. Take notes on only one side of the papers not both sides.
Although, economising is secondary importance.
Suggested note taking techniques .
Enough research as been done on note taking two techniques have been fond best.
The 2 – 3 – 3 - 2 Technique.

When the lecturer present or discus the contents of Text book then go for this method.

Headings		
A	B	C
2 O	3 O	3 O
2 O D		

Use this column
A = Recall clues helps you to recall concepts / ideas
B = Use this for lecture notes
C = Use this for text book notes
D = Write your own observation

The 2 - 5 – 1 Technique.
Use this technique when the lecture and the readings (text book) are not closely related.

Headings		
A	B	C
2 O	5 O	1 O

ie (lecture notes)

Headings		
A	B	C
2 O	5 O	1 O

ie (Text book notes)
A = Use this column for recall clues.
B = Use this column for lecture or Text notes
C = Use this column for your observations.

F. Field diary

The field diary is the basic document which contains all the data collected. Facts and interpretations are to be written separately and conversations to be noted in the vernacular languages. Two kinds of field notes are to be observed
a) Taking notes on the spot
b) Writing detailed diary
Daily field diary
It is instructed to write the field diary everyday in which
a) Detailed notes of observations
b) Field notes on discussion and conversations
c) Details of Interpersonal communication, gossips, fold history's similar events
d) Specific details of special events

Specific reference about the main field of study for instance, the details about the process of message diffusion, various kinds of channels of communication were described in detail.

Field diary for Research Process documentation

The most useful tool for a process documenter is a field diary. The documenter uses a field diary to record his or her observations and thoughts in an orderly fashion. Recording observations and impressions enables a researcher to pick up clues about how the system is operating.

A field diary should help the investigator understand the systems physical and social setting. It should help describe who, what, why, where, when and how. Who refers to the people or system being studied. What concerns the information gathered. Why, where, when and how provide important details about the observation.

There is no special format in writing a field diary but entries should be written daily in chronological order so information is not forgetten or changed because of forgetfulness. The critical concern is that observations are recorded in a diary regularly.

Diary content should be organized into two categories.

1) Observations

2) Impressions

Observations should be objective, the documenter should only write down what she/he actually saw or heard. Observations include descriptions of the physical setting (Climate, geographic area and resources), the demographics settings (concentration, movement and general characteristics of people) and the organizational setting (the different social levels in the system, the communication network and the degree of complexity in the social system).

The researcher also observes individuals, small groups, families ethmic groups, villages and government organizations. Observations can be made of situations and human actions, including actors between farmers between farmers and government agencies and between different government agencies.

The subjective impressions of the documenter make up the second category in a field diary. Impressions should be clearly differentiated from observations. If for instance the researcher observes a bitter argument between two farmers about water distribution in a canal, she/he should write down what was actually seen and then write down his or her own impressions of the vent. Impressions are important because they help the researcher evaluate and give meaning to the observations. Thus, impressions should be recorded for all observations. As a result of recording impressions, new ideas may emerge that may lead to a better understanding of the irrigation system.

G. **Laboratory Record**

Guidelines for Keeping a Laboratory Record

The following is a general description of how to keep a proper laboratory notebook. Requirements for different teaching, research, clinical, or industrial labs will most likely vary. Some institutions/labs will require less stringent record keeping, others will hold you to a very strict protocol. A well kept notebook provides a reliable reference for writing up materials and methods and results for a study. It is a legally valid record that preserves your rights or those of an employer or academic investigator to your discoveries. A comprehensive notebook permits one to reproduce any part of a methodology completely and accurately.

Choosing a notebook

For most purposes you may select a bound notebook, quadrille-ruled. A teaching lab may require tear-out duplicate pages for making carbon copies. An engineering or industrial research/development lab will likely require a specific type notebook with prenumbered pages and places for date and investigator's and supervisor's signatures on each page. Pads of tear-out graph paper or spiral bound notebooks without pre numbered pages are not acceptable. It must be impossible to tear out a page without leaving evidence. It is safest to select something that is clearly labeled as a laboratory notebook.

Preparing the Notebook

Please use a ball point pen for all entries, so that the marks will not smear nor will they be erasable. Put your name, a telephone number and/or address, and project name or course number on the outside front cover of the record. Put that same information on the first page inside, or on the inside front cover. If your notebook does not include a prelabeled table of contents section, then reserve the next several pages for a table of contents by labeling the top of each page as Table of Contents and numbering each page. If your notebook does not have prenumbered pages, you may wish to use lower case Roman numerals, as in a standard publication. Next, number the next several pages with Arabic numerals in sequence, and you are ready to begin recording data.

What to enter

Above all, it is critical that you enter all procedures and data directly into your notebook in a timely manner, that is, while you are conducting the actual work. Your entries must be sufficiently detailed so that you or someone else could conduct any procedure with only the notebook as a guide. Few students (and not that many researchers for that matter) record sufficiently detailed and organized information. The most logical organization of notebook entries is chronological. If a proper chronological record is kept and co-signed by a coworker or supervisor, it is a legally valid record. Such a record is necessary if you or your employer is to keep your rights to your discoveries.

Depending on requirements set by a teacher, supervisor, company, or whatever, you may not have to confine your notebook entries to lab notes only. On the other hand a student might record your class lecture notes, lab lecture notes, ideas, questions, library research notes, and notes that are part of any pre-lab preparation. The bare minimum entries for an academic lab course, for each lab study, should include title of the lab study; introduction and objectives; detailed procedures and data (recorded in the lab itself); summary.

We usually record a lot more information in a laboratory notebook than we would report in a research paper. For example, in a published article we don't report centrifuge type, rpm, rotor type, or which machine was used. However, if a procedure is unsuccessful you may want to check to see that you used the correct rpm or correct rotor. Perhaps the centrifuge itself was miscalibrated. You would need to know which machine you used. In a research paper one does not report which person performed which tasks, because such information is useless to a third party. However in the notebook it is important to note who was responsible for what procedure. Again, you may need such information to troubleshoot your experiments.

Making entries

Someone else may need to consult your notebook sometime, so please make your entries clear and legible. When you make your first entries of the day, start by entering the date, writing out the month or abbreviation for the month (e.g., 5 Apr '04, or April 5, 2004, but not 4/5/04). The use of numerals only can cause confusion. For example, in Europe the day comes before the month. Thus April 5, 2004 would be written as 5/4/04.

When you start each new page of a notebook enter the date next to the page number. Each page should be numbered and dated consistently. Most of us use the upper right corner of each page for date and page number.

Depending on how your notebook is designed you may choose whether or not to use the backs of pages. If you leave them blank, put a corner-to-corner line through them to void all blank spaces. Some people use the backs for rough calculations, then void remaining blank space. You might also decide to save space (and trees) and use both sides of each page. Obviously you cannot use both sides with notebooks that are designed to make duplicate copies. In situations where you turn in duplicate copies to a supervisor, you obviously must start each new set of entries on a new page.

Write a title for each and every new set of entries. Distinct sets of entries should be separated by using informative headings and by leaving a single space or two between individual sets of entries. Specific information can be more readily located that way. For a new laboratory study, write down a very brief introduction to the study, and list the objectives. If you have a specific hypothesis, write it down. The object is to make it completely clear what you intend to do.

Record everything you do in the lab, even if you are following a published procedure. For example, if you started by obtaining a quantity of tissue from an instructor, then write down that you obtained tissue, describe it, note how much, what condition, etc. How much you write down is up to you, but any relevant information should be there. For example, it doesn't matter much if you received a chunk of liver in a red ice bucket or a black one. However, it does matter that the material was on ice. If you change a protocol in any way or decide between alternative methods, then the correct information must be recorded in the notebook.

If you make a mistake, put a line through the mistake and write the new information next to it. Never erase or obliterate an entry. When you finish a page, put a corner-to corner line through any blank parts that could still be used for data entry. Every bit of every page must be legible and filled, either with information or with a mark that voids the section.

The summary

When you have finished a project, summarize what you have accomplished. You don't have to draw conclusions, just indicate what sort of data or observations you collected, samples you saved (and where and how you saved them), or any other relevant information that wraps up the study. For a continuing study keep the summary extremely brief. In fact, if the notes are well organized and it is obvious where the study left off, you need write nothing more than "To be continued..." Summaries help maintain continuity. They indicate where the work left off and how it might resume.

Are things getting too sloppy?

Perhaps your data records are scattered throughout the notebook, and you would like to summarize them. Go ahead. You may re-enter tables or figures any time you wish to organize your work a bit better. To prevent confusion over duplication of data you may put a line through a table or figure you intend to re-draw, initial and date the change, and note the page on which the re-organized data can be found. Just don't obscure any of the original entry.

Repeated procedures

So far you have been advised to record each step you perform in the laboratory, regardless of whether the procedure is published somewhere. However, once you carry out a procedure, you can refer to that part of your notebook, and only note changes you make. For example, the first time you prepare a sequencing gel you should write down the exact formulation, how you mix the

gel, how long you let it cure, etc. The next time, just refer to the name of the procedure and the appropriate page(s) of your notebook.

Loose materials

Suppose you enter raw data into a computer and have a printout with 400 pieces of data. or, suppose you generate a graph using a software program. You might even have a silver-stained gel that you wish to refer to frequently, or a fluoroescence photomicrograph that sums up your results nicely. Some investigators prefer to attach such materials to the notebook itself, but too many such items make a sloppy notebook and can stress the binding. Loose data should be kept in a separate folder or notebook, with location noted in the book.

Table of Contents

Record all entries in the table of contents as you go along. You can organize it anyway you like but it is advisable to include multiple levels in a table of contents, that is, indicate where a new study starts and include subheadings for specific parts of a study, methods, sets of data, etc. The idea is to enable someone (such a supervisor, grader, or yourself a year from now) to find anything quickly. List each set of entries with dates and page numbers. If you are seriously anal-retentive, you might record every experiment in chronological order, then use the remaining blank space to cross reference the contents experiment by experiment.

For a teaching lab you might list each and every set of entries made in your notebook, in chronological order, including complete and informative titles. Examples of sets of entries include an introduction, a summary, a set of procedures for a specific preparation, a complete data set, calculations for diluting samples or preparing assay standards, etc. A grader should be able to find any specific entry quickly, without flipping through pages.

Notebook Checklist

As you record your activities in the laboratory, ask yourself, "Did I..."
- Keep up with the table of contents?
- Date each page?
- Number each page consecutively?
- Use continuation notes when necessary?
- Properly void all blank pages or portions of pages (front and back)?
- Enter all information directly into the notebook?
- Properly introduce and summarize each experiment?
- Include complete details of all first-time procedures?
- Include calculations?

H. **Indexing**

An index is a reference list for locating a particular document in the file. Indexing helps:
1. Easy location of files
2. Ensures cross-reference
3. Improves the efficiency of the records administration and reduces costs

A good indexing system should be
1. Simple to operate and use, 2. Flexible in expansion, 3. Suitable for the organisation.

Types of Indexing-Types of indexes are also known as methods/systems of indexing. Each office uses the indexing method that suits and aids its filing system. The following are some ofthe types of indexing systems.

1. Page Index -A page index consists of a page for each letter ofthe alphabet fitted with a tab showing the letter, and on each letter are yyritten the names beginning with that letter and quoting the relevant page number. Bound Book Index, Loose leaf Index, Vowel Index are some of the forms of Page Index.

Although simple and less expensive, this type of indexing is inflexible and looks shabby if names not in use are not deleted.

2. Loose or Vertical card Index- It is used to overcome the drawbacks of the Page Index. A card index consists of a number of small size cards (12 cms x 7 cms) each concerned with one item of the index. Heading is on the top edge of the card.

It is useful in keeping a record of investments, names and addresses of customers, dealers, etc. specimen signatures of account holders in a bank, a catalogue of books etc.

Advantages :

1. Can be arranged in any order-alphabetical, numerical, geographical etc., 2. Cheaper, 3. Provides complete list, 4. Highly elastic, 5.Flexibility 6.Put to many uses 7.Can be recorded and obtained quickly 8. Different coloured cards can be used for easy classification of customers or sub groups.

Disadvantages:

1. All cards are not visible at a glance 2. Danger of cards being lost mutilated or destroyed, 3. Supervision becomes difficult, 4.· Constant handling spoils the cards and they need replacement, 5. Comparatively costly.

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

4. Automatic Card Index. Visible Books and Staggered Card Index are some of its variations.

Advantages:

1. Occupies less space, 2. Though costs more saving in time and labour offsets it, 3. Additional information can be added without disturbing the order, 4. Speedy reference, 5. Aids tl?-e management in controlling purchases, sales, productions etc.

Disadvantages. 1. More costly, 2. Training necessary. Yet its advantages make the users ingore its drawbacks.

5. Strip Index- Strip index is designed for maintaining a list of the names, addresses and telephone numbers of the correspondents. It consists of a frame into which strips of stiff papers can be fitted in any required order. Frames containing these strips may be fixed on the wall or arranged on a rotary stand. Strips can be protected from, exposure/damage with removable transparent celluloid or plastic window sheets.

The advantages and drawbacks of this type are similar to those of Visible card Indexing.

6. Wheel Indexing - It is a sort of modern method of visible indexing. Here cards are arranged about the circumference of a wheel which may be portable or set in a cabinet or desk. A single wheel can hold as many as 5,000 cards and as many as six such wheels can be set up within the easy reach ofa clerk.

Advantages :

1. Saves time by quick and easy reference, 2. Economy of space, 3. Flexibility as cards can be taken out or inserted without disturbing the order, 4. Scope for expansion.

Signaling-A signal may be a metal clip, plastic table or adhesive material which is attached to the exposed edge of a record. Its object is to draw attention to certain facts recorded on the cards.

I. Footnotes

A footnote is given for clarification, supplementation or acknowledgement about the text on the same page, below the table or below the figure. It is always given at the bottom of the page, table or figure. However the footnotes should be used sparingly whenever the material presented needs clarification, acknowledgement or supplementation. Footnote is sepersted from the main text by a horizontal line when it pertains to text and given at the bottam of the page.

Importance of footnote

1 To validate a point, statement or argument made in the text.
2 To explain, supplement or simplify material, included in main body of a report.
3 To provide cross-references to other sections of a report.
4 To acknowledge the source of a reference or quotation.
5 To provide the reader, sufficient information to enable him to consult sources independently.

Format of footnote is as follows (see the examples)

1 Indent the first line as done in case of paragraph.
2 If the footnote contains more than two lines put them in a single space and use double space to separate one from the other footnote.
3 When the footnotes are, a few, use numbering on each page. If numerical is confusing use special symbols such as daggers, stars, asterisk and so on. The concerned numerical or symbols used for footnotes must appear at a respective place in the text.

Some conventions in footnoting are as follows

1 If a reference is footnoted, for the first footnote of each source give initials first and then write surname.
2 In citing a reference follow the bibliographical procedure.
3 After the first footnote of a reference there is no need to repeat bibliographical details, if it is again footnoted, instead use suitable abbreviations.

Example: Footnote related to the reference cited in a text

1 P. O. Ingle, 1987. *Congruity and Innovation in Indian agriculture*. New Delhi, Radient publisher. 94-95.
2 ibid,101.

Example:
Related to the supplementary information about title of the report and author
- Part of thesis submitted by the author to the Rahuri University.
- Associate professor, Department of Agril Extension, Rahuri University.

In case the same reference is to be footnoted again on the same page, it is not necessary to repeat it. Instead, suitable abbreviation may be used. The abbreviation and their use is as follows:
1 **idem**.- If a reference is made to a same source and same page of consecutive footnote or immediately preceding footnote *idem.* is used. *Idem* means refer same source and same page. Hence, write *idem.* for the next footnote.

2 *ibid.*- if a reference is made to the consecutive or immediately preceding reference but thre
      page is different than abbreviation *ibid.* is used. As the page in this case is different, the
      page number is to be given.

Example: for *idem*.

1 Elizabeth Goudge. 1944. *Green Dolphin Country,* London, Hodder and Stanghton.48.

2 *idem.*

Example: for *ibid*.

1 Elizabeth Goudge. 1944. *Green Dolphin Country,* London, Hodder and Stanghton.48.

2 *ibid,* 63-65.

For nonconsecutive or not immediately preceding footnotes *loc cit.(loc citato)* **and** *op. cit. (opera citato)* is used.

Examples: for *loc cit*.

1 P. O. Ingle, 1987. *Congruity and Innovation in Indian agriculture*. New Delhi, Radient
                  publisher. 64-65.

2 Ronny Adhikarya. 1994. *Strategic Extension Campaign, Rome,* FAO. 70-71.

3 Ingle, *loc cit.*

 op. cit. If a reference is to the nonconsecutive or not immediately preceding footnote but the
      page is different than *op. cit.* is used.

Examples: for *op. cit*.

1 P. O. Ingle, 1987. *Congruity and Innovation in Indian agriculture*. New Delhi, Radient
                  publisher. 64-65.

2 Ronny Adhikarya. 1994. *Strategic Extension Campaign, Rome,* FAO. 70-71.

3 Ingle, *op. cit.* 80.

Inserting footnotes

How to insert footnotes using Word XP
1. Place cursor where the footnote is to be inserted
2. From the menu bar, select Insert
3. Select reference>footnote and select options
4. The (next) numeric footnote will automatically be inserted and also placed at the bottom of the
     page.

How to insert footnotes using Word 2000
1. Place cursor where the footnote is to be inserted
2. From the menu bar, select Insert>footnote and select options
3. The (next) numeric footnote will automatically be inserted and also placed at the bottom of the
    Page

J. Bibliographic procedure for Citation/Reference

- All literature cited in the text should be included in the list of references giving
  complete details.
- Standard style of literature citation should be followed.
- Bibliographic procedure/Citation means use of references in the body or text of the
  report.

A. Citation/Reference in Text

- Citation style of references in the text varies from journal to journal and therefore consult the guidelines of the journal and go to references cited for noting style.
- In case of one author, give last name/surname first, year of publication within parentheses, e.g. Singh (2002).
- In case of two authors, give first the last name of first author followed by last name of second author, year of publication e.g.Singh and Grover (2002).
- In case of more than two authors give last name of first author followed by et al. and year of publication e.g. Singh et al. (2002).
- In case the author is referred at more than one place in the same year, number references as 'a' and 'b' e.g. Singh (2002Sa   )........Singh (2002b).

B. Citation/Reference in Journal

This must include the name of author(s), followed by year of publication within parentheses or stops, title of the paper/article, name of the journal/periodical, volume and number in brackets, and page number. In case of male authors, initials are used and in case female authors give full name.

 e.g. Singh, J. and Grover, Indlj. 2002. Academic achievement and entrepreneurial performance of undergraduate students of CCS Haryana Agricultural University, CCSHAU J. Research. 88(3), 416-421.

Note: In some journals the name of journal is written in italics.

C. Citation/Reference from Book

  1. Khetarpaul, Neelam and Grover, Indu.2000. *A Consumer Guide for Home Makers.* Agrotech Publishing Academy, Udaipur, p 40.
  2. Khetarpaul, Neelam; Katyal, Sudha and Grover, Indu. 2001. *Infant Health and Nutrition.* Agrotech Publishing Academy. p 298.
         (In this example, total pages of the book have been referred).

D. Citation/Reference from an Edited Book

Grover, Indu., Agarwal, Deepti and Grover, O.K. 2000. *Gender perception of voters towards women and governance*. In: Singh Raj (eds.). New Panchayati Raj: A functional analysis, Anmol Publications Ltd. pp 66-77.   (pp 66-77 indicates that chapter is within these pages).

E. Citation/Reference of Seminar/Conference Proceedings

Sinhg, Saroj., Grover, Indu and Grover, O.K. 2001. *Participatory role and adoption of buffalo management practices by rural women in Haryana (India)*. In: National Conference on Extension Education for Sustainable Development, Mumbai, 29-31 December, 2000.Proceedings edited by O.S. Verma, AK Singh and J.P. Yadav, New Delhi, ISEE. pp 201-222.

Rana, Manju. 1992. *Effectiveness of training methods among farm women*. Thesis, Ph.D., CCS Haryana Agricultural University, Hisar, p 156.

F. Citation/Reference from Institutional Publication

Department of Science and Technology, New Delhi. 1997. *General information on research and development funding schemes of Central Government departments/agencies*, New Delhi. GOI, Ministry of Science and Technology, Deptt. of Science and Technology, p 135.

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G. **Citing/Reference if name of author is not known then Anonymous is written in place of author.**
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H. Citing/Reference from Website
Write the surname and initials of author, if author's name is given otherwise write anonymous or start with acronym of institution. Write title of article and then website address.
Wienecke, M. A. 2001. Vernicular Hpusing and Building material in Namibia. At http://www.nuffic.nl/ciran/ikdm
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Abbreviations for Names of Journals
The names of journals should be abbreviated according to international standards/rules. Most journals give abbreviated forms on top/bottom side of each page. Some examples are as follows:
- Curr.Sci. ·
- Ind. J. Ext. Edu. ·
- Maha. J. Extn. Edu. ·
- Ind. J. Genet & Plant · Breeding
- Plant Physiol.
- Plant Dis. Rep.

Unit III Personality Development:

A. Meaning and definition of Personality

We all come in different shapes and sizes; we all have certain strengths and weaknesses. What is right for one person may not be right for another person and sometimes our behaviour does not make any sense to others. We do have ability to manage some situations and not others; to manage some people and not others. All these relate to the question what sort of a person we are and what is our personality style.
Meaning and definition
The word personality probably had its origin in the Latin verb **persona**, which means the mask worn by players in the theatre. This term was used to describe the voice of an actor speaking through a mask. At first the term persona referred directly to the mask worn by actors. Later it came to be applied to the actors themselves. During early Roman times, then, personality was regarded, as constituting what a person seemed to be.
Some of the better-known attempts at defining personality are presented below as expressions of various psychological interpretations of the term.
Personality consists of observable behaviour it is defined as an individual, typical or consistent adjustments to environment.
Personality is the organized system of behaviour, attitude and values that characteristics a given individual and accounts for his particular manner of functioning in the environment. Personality is multi-dimensional, heredity, learning, perception, thinking, motivation and emotion combine and interact differently in each of us producing the most complex aspects of human behaviour called 'personality'.

- Personality is that which makes one effective, or gives one influence over others. In the language of psychology it is one's social stimulus value **(May, 1932).**
- A man's personality is the total picture of his organised behaviour, especially as it can be characterized by his fellow men in a consistent way **(Dashiell, 1937).**
- Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment. **(Allport, 1937).**
- Personality is defined as the sum total of an individual's behaviour in social situations. Behaviour includes not only overt acts but also inward feeling tone produced by the situation as interpreted by the individual through introspection. **(Traxler)**
- Personality is the quality of an individual's total behaviour. **(Woodworth)**

Personality types

Personality typing is a tool with many uses. It is especially notable for its use in the areas of growth and self-development. It is used as a tool for discovery, rather than as a method for putting people into boxes, or as an excuse for behaviour.

(1) Physical types

According to Kretschmer, individuals can be classified into four groups in terms of their physical form and structure.

Athletic - Muscular and responsive to desirable adjustments

Asthenic - Tall and thin, critical of others but sensitive to criticisms of themselves.

Pyknic - Short and stout, easygoing and popular with people.

Dyplastic - Abnormal build with characteristics growing out of the abnormality.

(2) Somatypes

A recent classification of individuals by Sheldon on the basis of physical characteristics includes the following body or somatypes.

Endomorphic - Body soft and round, and behaviour dominated by massive digestive viscera.

Mesomorphic - Muscular and bony, hard and heavy physique and thick skin.

Ectomorphic - Fragile and sensitive to exposure

(3) Endocrine types

Attempts have been made to associate the possession of certain personality qualities with degree of balance or imbalance of the ductless glands, as illustrated in the following

Hyperthyroid - Over ambitious and domineering

Hypothyroid - Lazy and intellectually dull

Pituitary type - Good humored, patient, considerable, docile, diffident, tolerant of physical and mental pain.

Adrenal cortex (cortin) - The prematurely developed; in females leading to adiposity and beards.

Parathyroid (calcium metabolism) - The explosive type, showing aggressive conduct.

Gonads, hyper-active - The more aggressive personality.

Gonads, hypo-active - Less aggressive personality, interested in art, literature and music.

(4) Sociological types

Spranger classified individuals according to their reactions towards society as:

Theoretical - Metaphysician and pure scientist.

Economic - Typical "business" man

Esthetic - Sensuous gratification, unreliable.

Social - Interested in fellow beings and social movements.

Political - Desires power over others.

Religious - Either mystic and pietistic or missionary type

(5) Introvert, Extrovert and Ambivert type

Introvert: An introvert person is very conservative and suspicious of the motives of others. He is not social, avoid public speaking, absent minded, very reserved, self centered, not easily adopted, dislike change, never express his emotions and he is always day dreaming.

Extrovert: An extrovert person is alert to his environment, likes to make friends, has ups and down in mood, likes action and change, generally talkative, has a keen sense of observation and likely to adopt readily.

Ambivert: Ambivert are partly introverts and partly extroverts. They a liking for people as well as thoughts

EXTROVERT	INTROVERT
The few characters of extrovert and introvert are as below:	
1. Fluent in speech	1.Better at writing than at speaking
2. Free from worriers	2. Inclined to worry
3. Not easily embarrassed	3. Easily embarrassed
4. Usually conservative	4. Inclined to be radical
5. Interested in athletics	5. Fond of books and magazines
6. Governed by objective data	6. More influenced by subjective feelings
7. Friendly	7. Rather reserved
8. Likes to work with others	8. Likes to work alone
9. Neglectful of ailments and personal belongings	9. Careful of ailments and personal belongings
10. Flexible and adaptable	10. Lacking in flexibility

B. Factors influencing the personality

Different factors affect the development of personality of an individual. Some of these factors are discussed hereunder.

(1) Biological factors

(2) Environmental factors

1) Biological factors

Human nature begins with biology. No feature of personality is developed of hereditary influences, but it is mostly genes.

a) Physical structure

The physical structure grows and develops. Within the pattern of this growth may lie some of the elements that affect behaviour traits. A person may be unusually tall or unusually short, overly stout or very thin, large nosed or small footed, or symmetrical or asymmetrical featured. He may even suffer from a definite physical abnormality. The physical factors themselves may little or no effect upon a person's behaviour characteristics. However, the attitude towards him on the part of his associates as a result of that are a part of his personality.

b) Endocrine glands

The endocrine or ductless glands discharge their secretions (hormones) directly into the blood stream, appear to influence the behaviour of individuals according to their balance or imbalance. Over-secretion or under-secretion of any of these glands may exert a tremendous influence upon an individual's development and consequently upon his personality.

For example, the secretions of the pituitary, pineal, thyroid and sex glands control growth very definitely. Furthermore, the thyroid, islands of Langerhans, and adrenal influence metabolism and the use of food taken into the body.

(2) Environmental influences

The social or environmental factors affect the personality even of young infants is evidenced in the results of studies of their behaviour.

a) Home influences: The attitude of parents toward the child, toward one another, and toward other people, events, and objects exercises a potent influence upon the child's developing personality. Factors such as enjoyment of group family life, little if any work done away from home by the mother, amount of punishment, welcoming of the young people's friends to the home, emotional control and good health of the parents, and a sharing with the parents of joys and sorrows seem to lead good adjustment on the part of adolescents.

b) School experiences: The influence of school experiences upon a young person's developing personality is greater. Suitability of curricular offerings, teacher attitudes, playground activities, and home background of training that the child brings with him to the school - all are important factors of influence.

C) Birth order: The oldest child is said to be domination his position in the family and identify himself with his parents.

Shaping of Personality

1) Heredity: The nervous system, the ductless glands, the organic, drives, the emotions and capacities' of mental behaviours may lead to differences in personality.

2) Physical and Geographical Environment- Food and climate .is the most significant aspect of the physical environment as they influence biological development as such personality.

3) Culture: An individual gets the aspects .like cloths, tools and . skills, speech and occupation form his culture. Culture has impact on shaping attitudes and habits through the influence of folkways, customs and group ideas.

4) Unique Experience : The individual personality centres around . the concept of identity formation. As child develops, he imitates the personality characteristics of those, close to him If he matures properly, he will integrate this characteristic and achieve the senesce of identity.

Development of Personality

Development of personality is influenced by two major factors namely.

   (i)   The organic constitution of the individual - The organic constitution determines the personality of the individual. A large man has certain physical advantages over a smaller man. The smaller man may develop behaviour tendencies characteristics in which he is superior and away from his below average physique.

  (ii)   The stimulation provided by the environment - The environment influences that surround a person during the growth and development influence his personality.

C. Personality Traits

Personality traits reflect people's characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. Personality traits imply consistency and stability—someone who scores high on a specific trait like Extraversion is expected to be sociable in different situations and over time. Thus, trait psychology rests on the idea that people differ from one another in terms of where they stand on a set of basic trait dimensions that persist over time and across situations. The most widely used system of traits is called the Five-Factor Model. This system includes five broad traits that can be remembered with the acronym OCEAN: Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism. Each of the major traits from the Big Five can be divided into facets to give a more fine-grained analysis of someone's personality. In addition, some trait theorists argue that there are other traits that cannot be completely captured by the Five-Factor Model. Critics of the trait concept argue that people do not act consistently from one situation to the next and that people are very influenced by situational forces. Thus, one major debate in the field concerns the relative power of people's traits versus the situations in which they find themselves as predictors of their behavior

      The five factors are:

- **Openness to experience** (*inventive/curious* vs. *consistent/cautious*). Appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, unusual ideas, curiosity, and variety of experience. Openness reflects the degree of intellectual curiosity, creativity and a preference for novelty and variety a person has. It is also described as the extent to which a person is imaginative or independent and depicts a personal preference for a variety of activities over a strict routine. High openness can be perceived as unpredictability or lack of focus, and more likely to engage in risky behaviour or drug taking. Moreover, individuals with high openness are said to pursue self-actualization specifically by seeking out intense, euphoric experiences. Conversely, those with low openness seek to gain fulfillment through perseverance and are characterized as pragmatic and data-driven—sometimes even perceived to be dogmatic and closed-minded. Some disagreement remains about how to interpret and contextualize the openness factor

- **Conscientiousness** (*efficient/organized* vs. *easy-going/careless*). A tendency to be organized and dependable, show self-discipline, act dutifully, aim for achievement, and prefer planned rather than spontaneous behavior. High conscientiousness is often perceived as

stubbornness and obsession. Low conscientiousness is associated with flexibility and spontaneity, but can also appear as sloppiness and lack of reliability.

- **Extraversion** (*outgoing/energetic* vs. *solitary/reserved*). Energy, positive emotions, surgency, assertiveness, sociability and the tendency to seek stimulation in the company of others, and talkativeness. High extraversion is often perceived as attention-seeking, and domineering. Low extraversion causes a reserved, reflective personality, which can be perceived as aloof or self-absorbed.

- **Agreeableness** (*friendly/compassionate* vs. *challenging/detached*). A tendency to be compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious and antagonistic towards others. It is also a measure of one's trusting and helpful nature, and whether a person is generally well-tempered or not. High agreeableness is often seen as naive or submissive. Low agreeableness personalities are often competitive or challenging people, which can be seen as argumentativeness or untrustworthiness.

- **Neuroticism** (*sensitive/nervous* vs. *secure/confident*). The tendency to experience unpleasant emotions easily, such as anger, anxiety, depression, and vulnerability. Neuroticism also refers to the degree of emotional stability and impulse control and is sometimes referred to by its low pole, "emotional stability". A high need for stability manifests itself as a stable and calm personality, but can be seen as uninspiring and unconcerned. A low need for stability causes a reactive and excitable personality, often very dynamic individuals, but they can be perceived as unstable or insecure.