

SRS Institute of Agricultural and Technology

(Affiliated to Tamil Nadu Agricultural University)



THEORY

AEX 201 Communication Skills and Personality Development (1+1)

COURSE TEACHER

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SRS Institute of Agricultural and Technology
Vedasandur - Dindigul District
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AEX 201 Communication Skills and Personality Development (1+1)

Theory

Communication Skills: meaning and process of communication, verbal and nonverbal communication; listening

and note taking, writing skills, oral presentation skills; field diary and lab record; indexing, footnote and bibliographic procedures. Reading and comprehension of general and technical articles, precise writing, summarizing, abstracting; individual and group presentations, impromptu presentation, public speaking;

Group

discussion. Organizing seminars and conferences.

Unit I Communication Skills: meaning and process of communication, verbal and nonverbal communication

Unit II Listening and note taking, writing skills, oral presentation skills; field diary and lab record; indexing, footnote and bibliographic procedures.

Unit III Reading and comprehension of general and technical articles, precise writing, summarizing, abstracting

Unit IV Individual and group presentations, impromptu presentation, public speaking **Unit V**

Group discussion. Organizing seminars and conferences.

Practical

Listening and note taking, writing skills, oral presentation skills; field diary and lab record; indexing, footnote

and bibliographic procedures. Reading and comprehension of general and technical articles, precise writing,

summarizing, abstracting; individual and group presentations

Theory Schedule

36. Communication – meaning and process –Functions and Types of communication

37. Communication models - Aristotle, Shannon and Weaver, Schramm, Berlo Westly and Maclean, Leagan, Rogers and Shoemaker, Littererls model and Dance's Helical Model – Elements of communication – communication barriers

38. Verbal and Non verbal communication – Verbal communication – definition and meaning – Verbal vs Oral communication – Types – Styles - Barriers to effective verbal communication ;

39. Non verbal communication – definition and meaning – Proxemics, Chronemics, Movement and body position, Posture, Facial Expression, Gestures and Eye Contact – importance of non verbal communication

40. Listening – Definition – Listening vs Hearing – Active listening – Types of listening –Guidelines for effective listening – Developing listening skills - Barriers to listening – Listening misconceptions

41. Writing skill – Importance – Effective writing - Components of writing : Introduction , Audience and format ,Composition and style, Structure, Grammatical errors , Proofing and Conclusion – Ways to improve writing skills – Technical writing

42. Oral presentation skills – Basics of effective oral presentation : Planning , preparing (Introduction, Body

and conclusion), Delivery, Body language and Handling anxiety – Strategies for giving oral presentation

43. Field diary – Definition – Components to be included – Parts of field diary – Field diary in social sciences

9. Lab record : Definition –Importance of keeping a lab record - Features of a lab record - Contents of lab record – Guidelines for keeping a lab record

10. **Mid semester examination**

11. Indexing – Definition – Importance – Types of indexing with advantages and limitations

12. Footnote and Bibliographic procedure : Footnote system of citation ; Bibliographic procedures : Citation

in Text, Citation in Journal, Citation from Book(One author / Multiple authors), Citation from an Edited Book, Citation of Seminar/Conference Proceedings, Citation from Institutional Publication, Citing Government Publications, Abbreviations for Names of Journals, Paraphrasing, Abbreviations in citations (Art of publication)

13. Reading skills – Definition – Kinds of reading skills – Critical reading skills – Reading readiness skills Guidelines for effective reading- Extensive reading- Intensive reading. Comprehension : Definition and meaning – Comprehension skills-Readability Index

14. Precise writing – Derivation and Meaning – Skills required – Method or procedure – Guidelines; Summarizing – Meaning- Steps to write a summary

15. Abstracting : Definition - Purpose of abstract – Types of abstract - Abstract Styles – Steps for Writing Effective Abstracts- Some Do's Don'ts in preparing abstracts

16. Individual presentation - Meaning –Steps for individual presentation; Group presentation – Meaning – Stages of group presentation ; Impromptu presentation

17. Public speaking : meaning – Points to be considered in public speaking – Effective public speaking: Group Discussion: Meaning –Procedure – Advantages – Limitations ;Seminar Conferences : Definition and meaning – Steps in organizing seminar / conferences / symposium / workshop

Practical Schedule

10. Practicing active listening

11. Exercise on note taking methods

12. Exercise on technical writing and practicing proof correction

13. Practicing oral presentation

14. Exercise on writing field diary and Lab record

15. Visit to library and learn indexing

16. Exercise on preparing foot notes and citations

17. Practice on effective reading skills

18. Comprehension of technical article

19. Comprehension of general article

20. Exercise on precise writing

21. Practice on summarizing articles

22. Practice on preparing abstracts

14&15 Developing skill on individual presentation

14. Developing skill on group presentation

15. **Practical Examination**

Referecnce G.L. Ray and Sagar mondal. 2010. Journalism –Farm journalism and communication skills.

Kalyani publishers. Sagar Mondal. 2016. Agricultural extension , Kalyani publishers G. L. Ray 2007

Extension Communication and Management , Kalyani publishers Communication and Instructional

Technology, By: Indu Grover, Shusma Kaushik, Lali Yadav, Deepak Grover & Shashikanta Verma Indu Grover, Lali Yadav & Deepak Grover Extension Management, Agrotech Everett Rogers, and Floyd

Shoemaker, Communication of Innovation – a Cross Cultural Approach, New York Free Press. Knapp, Mark L., & Hall, Judith A .(2007) Nonverbal Communication in Human Interaction. (8th ed.) Wadsworth: Thomas Learning.

Kathleen M. German, Bruce E Gronbeck Principles of Public Speaking

e- Referecnce

1. www.managementstudyguide.com
2. www.ajms.co.in
3. www.mindtools.com

Lec 1	Communication – meaning and process –Functions and Types of communication
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COMMUNICATION

Origin

The word ‘Communications’ comes from the Latin word ‘*communis*’, meaning common. This implies that when we communicate, we are trying to establish ‘Commonality’ with someone through a message. Communication, then, is a conscious attempt to establish commonality over some idea, fact, feelings and the like, with others. In essence, it is a process of getting a source and a receiver tuned together for a particular message or a series of messages.

DEFINITIONS OF COMMUNICATION

- Communication is anything that conveys meaning, that carries a message from one person to another’ [Brooker, 1949]
- Communication is a process by which two or more people exchange ideas, facts, feelings, or impressions in ways that each gains a common understanding of meaning, intent and use of message.[Leagans, 1961]
- Communication may be defined as a process by which an individual – the communicator, transmits (usually verbal symbols) to modify the behaviour of other individuals Communicates’. [Hovland,1964]
- Communication has as its central interest those behavioural situations in which a source transmits a message to a receiver(s) with conscious intent to affect the latter’s behaviour’. [Miller,1966]
- Communication is the process of affecting an interchange of understanding between two or more people’. [Thayer,1968]
- Communication is a purposeful process, which involves sources, messages, channels, and receivers’. [Andersch et al, 1968].
- Communication is the process by which the messages are transmitted from the source to the receiver.[Rogers,1983]
- Communication is the process by which messages are transferred from a source to receiver (Rogers and Shoemaker, 1971).

- Communication is the process of sending and receiving messages through channels which establishes common meanings between a source and a receiver (*Van den Ban and Hawkins, 1988*).

FUNCTION OF COMMUNICATION

Communication has four basic functions

- 1) **Information function:** The basic requirement of adapting and adjusting oneself to the environment is information. There must be some information which concerns the people. The getting or giving of information underlies all communication functions, either directly or indirectly.
- 2) **Command or instructive function:** Those who are hierarchically superior, in the family, society or organization, often initiate communication either for the purpose of informing their subordinates or for the purpose of telling them, what to do, how to do, when to do etc. The command and instructive functions of communication are more observable in formal organizations.
- 3) **Influence or persuasive function:** According to *Berlo (1960)*, the sole purpose of communication is to influence people, persuasive function of communication is extremely important for extension in changing their behavior in the desirable direction.
- 4) **Integrative function:** A major function of communication is integration at the interpersonal or at the organizational level. This helps to maintain individual, societal or organizational stability and identity.

TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

Types of communication may be different according to media and means adopted. Communication is the flow of messages from communicator to the receiver. The organization is concerned with flow of communication. As such, it may flow by words, letters, symbols or messages. Thus, the total communication set up is broadly classified as follows:

According to organizational structure and function

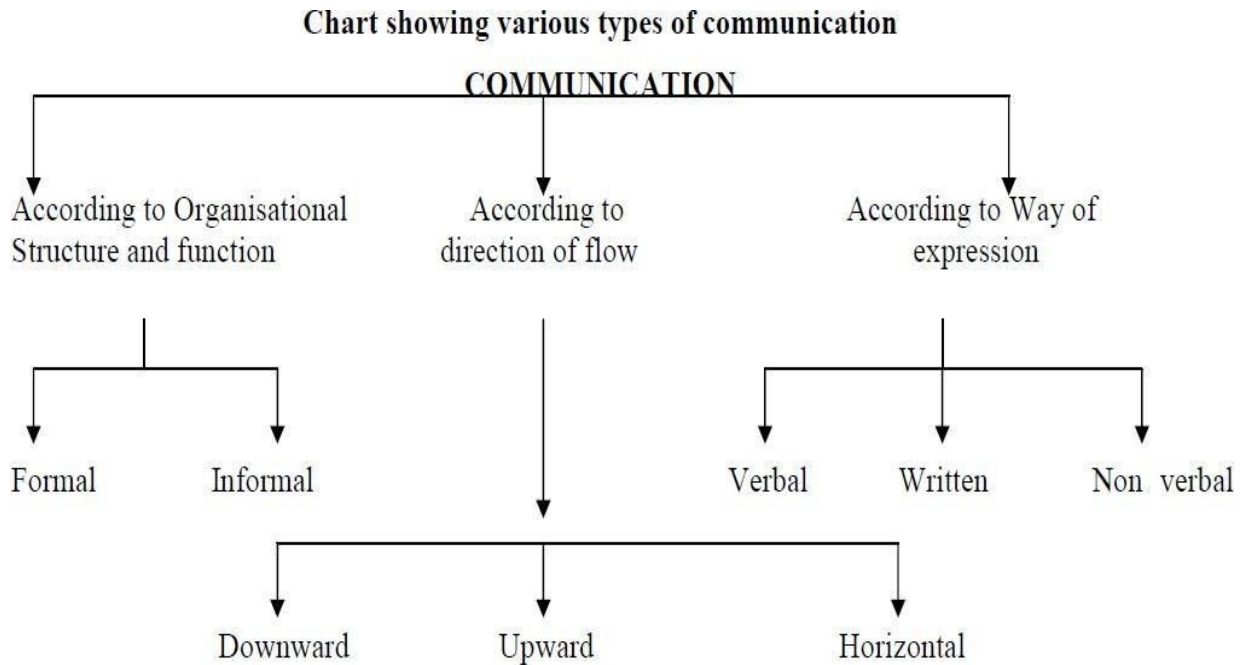
- a. Formal
- b. Informal

According to the directions of flow

- c. Downward communication
- d. Upward communications
- e. Horizontal Communication or lateral communication or cross wise Communication

2. According to way of expression

- a. Oral or verbal communication
- b. Written communication or black and white communication
- c. Non-verbal communication



I. ACCORDING TO ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

a. Formal communication

When information is transmitted by virtue of one's status, placement in the organization it is termed as formal communication. It flows through officially prescribed route in which there are officially recognized positions. E.g.: Executive instructs his subordinates. It is a two way communication

b. Informal or grapevine communication

When an informal channel is used to communicate it is termed as grapevine or informal communication. It is information communication network formed out of personal relationship, social and group relations but not out of position of line of authority, superior and Subordinate or based on organisational hierarchy. IT IS A QUICK VEHICLE FOR MESSAGE. E.g.: RUMOURS Informal communication may be conveyed by a simple glance, gesture, smile or mere silence.

II. ACCORDING TO DIRECTION OF FLOW

a. Down ward communication

When information comes from higher level to a lower level in the organisation structure, it is termed as downward communication. E.g. Information passes through written orders, reports, rules, Instructions, manuals, policy directives etc,

Down ward communication is needed

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

b. Up ward communication

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

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

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

III. ACCORDING TO THE WAY OF EXPRESSION

a. Verbal or oral communication

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

b. Written Communication

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

c. Non – Verbal communication

One of the multimedia of communication is non-verbal communication or communication by implication. Communicating a message without using arbitrary symbols i.e., words or meaning of words is termed as _non-verbal communication or word-less communication. Non – verbal messages consists of hidden messages. It is the **cues** which convey message. These messages are necessarily wordless or non-verbal, conveyed through without resorting to words or meaning of words, but conveyed through other media like spatial, Kinesics, oral cues, objective language, action etc., Kinesics is the most generally used medium of non-verbal communication. Non – Verbal communication includes all messages other than those expressed in oral or written words. Smile symbolizes friendliness, in much the same way as cordiality is expressed in words.

ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION

I. The Communicator

This is the person who starts the process of communication in operation. He is the source or originator of messages. He is the sender of messages. He is the first to give expression to message intended to reach an audience in a manner that results in correct interpretation and desirable response. When a communicator does not hold the confidence of his audience, communication as conceived will not take place.

Characteristics of good communicator

1. The Communicator Knows -

- The specifically defined objectives.
- The needs, interests, abilities etc. of the audience.
- The content, validity, usefulness and importance of the message
- The channels that will reach the audience and their usefulness
- The tactics of organising and treating the message
- His/her professional abilities and limitations.

2. The communicator is interested in -

- The intended audience and their welfare
- The specific message and its effects in helping the people
- The entirety of communication process
- The proper use and limitation of communication channels.

3. The communicator prepares -

- A specific teaching plan for communication
- Materials and equipments needed for communication
- A plan for evaluation of results.

4. The communicator has skill in

- selecting messages
- Treating messages
- Expressing messages in verbal and written forms
- The selection and use of channels

- Understanding the audience
- Collecting evidence of results.

Characteristics of Poor Communicator.

- Fail to have ideas to present that are really useful to the audience.
- Fail to give the complete story and show its relationship to people's problems
- Forget that time and energy are needed to absorb the material presented.
- Feel they are always clearly understood.
- Refuse to adjust to 'closed' minds.
- Talk while others are not listening.
- Get far too ahead of audience understanding.
- Fail to recognise others' view - point and develop presentation accordingly
- Fail to recognise that communication is a two-way process.
- Let their own biases over-influence the presentation.
- Fail to see that everyone understands questions brought up for discussion
- Fail to provide a permissive atmosphere.
- Disregard the values, customs, prejudices and habits of people with whom they attempt to communicate.
- Fail to start where people are, with respect to knowledge, skill, interest and need.

II. Message or content

A message is the information communicator wishes his audience to receive, understand, accept and act upon. Messages, for example, may consist of statements of scientific facts about agriculture, sanitation or nutrition; description of action being taken by individuals, groups or committees ; reasons why certain kinds of action should be taken ; or steps necessary in taking given kinds of action.

Characteristics of good message

A good message must be -

- In line with the objectives to be attained.
- Clearly understandable by the audience
- In line with the mental, social, economic and physical capabilities of the audience

- Significant-economically, socially or aesthetically to the needs, interests and values of the audience.
- specific in terms of audience and locale
- Accurate so as to be scientifically sound, factual and current in nature.
- Appropriate to the channel selected.
- Appealing and attractive to the audience signifying the utility values and immediacy of use.
- Adequate in such a way to have effective proportionate combination of principle and practice manageable so as to be handled by the communicator within the resources availability.

In contrast, poor communicators often commit the following which the effectiveness of message sending :

- Fail to clearly separate the key message from the supporting content or subject-matter.
- Fail to prepare and organise their message properly.
- Use inaccurate of 'fuzzy' symbols-words, visuals, or real objects-to represent the message.
- Fail to select messages that are sharply in line with the felt needs of the audience.
- Fail to present the message objectively-present the material, often biased, to support only one side of the proposition.
- Fail to view the message from the standpoint of the audience.
- Fail to time the message properly within a presentation or within a total programme.

Selecting and 'packaging' messages so they have a good chance of being understood, accepted and acted upon when received is a crucial step in the communication process. It is one of the six keys to success in efforts to influence people to change their ways of thinking and of doing, that lead to social and economic improvement.

III. Channels of Communication

The sender and the receiver of messages must be connected or 'tuned' with each other. For this purpose, channels of communication are necessary. They are the physical bridges between the sender and the receiver of messages-the avenues between a

communicator and an audience on which messages travel to and for. They are the transmission lines used for carrying messages to their destination. Thus, the channels serve as essential tools of the communicator.

A channel may be anything used by a sender of messages to connect him with intended receivers. The crucial point is that he must get in contact with his audience. The message must get through.

However, channels are no good without careful direction or use in the right way, at the right time, to do the right job, for the right purpose with the right audience, all in relation to the right message. So, proper selection and use of channels constitutes a third determinant of successful communication. Without proper use of channels, messages, no matter how important, will not get through to the intended audience. Many obstructions can enter channels. These are often referred to as '**noise**' - that is, some obstruction that prevents the message from being heard by or carried over clearly to the audience. 'Noise' emerges from a wide range of sources and causes.

Sources and causes for noise:

- ✓ ***Failure of a channel to reach the intended audience.*** Usually, no one channel will reach an entire audience. Some examples: Meetings-all people cannot or may not attend. Radio-all people do not have access to a receiving set or may not be tuned in if they did. **Written material**-many people cannot read, and others may not.
- ✓ ***Failure on the part of a communicator to handle channels skillfully.*** If a meeting, tour, radio programme or any other channel is not used according to good procedure and technique, its potential for carrying a message is dissipated.
- ✓ ***Failure to select channels appropriate to the objective of a communicator.*** All channels are not equally useful in attaining a specific objective.
- ✓ ***Failure to use channels in accordance with the abilities of the audience.*** Written materials, for example, cannot serve as useful channels for communicating information to people who are unable to read or to understand the level of complexity or abstraction of the message.
- ✓ ***Failure to avoid physical distraction.*** When using the channel of meetings, for example, distractions including people moving in and out, loud noises in or out of the group, heat, lighting, crowded condition and many other forms of distraction often obstruct successful message sending.

- ✓ ***Failure of an audience to listen or look carefully.*** The only messages that get through to an audience are those which are heard, seen or experienced. An unfortunate tendency of people is not to give undivided attention to the communicator. This is a powerful obstruction that prevents messages from reaching desired destination.
- ✓ ***Failure to use enough channels in parallel.*** The more channels a communicator uses in parallel or at about the same time,, the more chances he has for the message getting through and being properly received . No single channel will ordinarily reach all people who need to receive a message. Research indicates that up to five or six channels used in combination are often necessary to get a message through to large numbers of people with enough impact to influence significant changes in behaviour.
- ✓ ***Use of too many channels in a series.*** An important principle of communication is that the more channels used in a series the less chance a communicator has for getting his message through to the intended audience. In this context, the following principles are to be borne in mind : (1) The more steps by which the communicator is removed from his intended receiver, the greater are his chances of losing the proper message. (2) When lines of communication get too long for assured communication they can be improved in two primary ways : (a) by using additional channels in parallel, and (b) by eliminating some of the channels in the series.

IV. Treatment of Messages

Treatment has to do with the way a message is handled to get the information across to an audience. It relates to the technique, or details of procedure, or manner of performance, essential to expertness in presenting messages. Hence, treatment deals with the design of methods for presenting messages. Designing the methods for treating messages does not relate to formulation of the message or to the selection of channels, but to the technique employed for presentation within the situation provided by a message and a channel. The purpose of treatment is to make the message clear, understandable and realistic to the audience. Designing treatment usually requires original thinking, deep insight into the principles of human behaviour and skill in creating and using refined techniques of message presentation. Treatment of messages can be varied in an almost infinite number of ways. The following are the three categories of bases useful for varying treatment

a. Matters of general organisation:

- ✓ Repetition of frequency of mention of ideas and concepts
- ✓ Contrast of ideas.
- ✓ Chronological-compared to logical, compared to psychological.
- ✓ Presenting one side compared to two sides of an issue.
- ✓ Emotional compared to logical appeals.
- ✓ Starting with strong arguments compared to saving them until the end of presentation.
- ✓ Inductive compared to deductive.
- ✓ Proceeding from the general to the specific and *vice versa*.
- ✓ Explicitly drawing conclusions compared to leaving conclusions implicit for the audience to draw.

b. Matters of speaking and acting:

- ✓ Limit the scope of presentation to a few basic ideas and to the time allotted. Too many ideas at one time are confusing.
- ✓ Be yourself. You can't be anyone else. Strive to be clear, not clever.
- ✓ Know the facts. Fuzziness means sure death to a message.
- ✓ Don't read your speech. People have more respect for a communicator who is sure of his subject.
- ✓ Know the audience. Each audience has its own personality. Be responsive to it.
- ✓ Avoid being condescending. Do not talk or act *down* to people, or over their heads.
- ✓ Decide on the dramatic effect desired. In addition to the content of messages, a communicator should be concerned with 'showmanship'. Effective treatment requires sincerity, smoothness, enthusiasm, warmth, flexibility and appropriateness of voice, gestures, movements and tempo.
- ✓ Use alternative communicators when appropriate, as in group discussions, panels, interviews, etc. Remember that audience appeal is a psychological bridge to getting a message delivered.
- ✓ Quit on time. Communicators who stop when they are 'finished' are rewarded by audience goodwill.

c. Matters of symbol variation and devices for representing ideas:

To represent ideas by effective treatment with reference to the desired behavioural changes, a variety of audio-visual aids may be used. Communicators should be aware that teaching message to achieve maximum audience impact is a highly professional task. Treatment is a creative task that has to be 'tailor-made' for each instance of communication. Experience, thinking and planning, skill in verbalisation and writing, understanding of the principles of teaching and learning, knowledge of a) the subject b) the audience to be reached and c) skill in the use of channels etc will help the communicator to undertake the process of message treatment.

V. The Audience

An audience is the intended receiver of message. It is the consumer of messages. It is the intended respondent in message sending, and is assumed to be in a position to gain economically, socially or in other ways by responding to the message in particular ways. In good communication the communicator already identifies the audience aims at..

The importance of clearly identifying an audience cannot be over-stressed. The more homogeneous an audience, the greater the chances of successful communication. Likewise, the more a communicator knows about his audience and can pin-point its characteristics the more likely he is to make an impact.

The following are some of the issues to clarify the nature of audience:

- Communication channels established by the social organisation.
- The system of values held by the audience-what they think is important.
- Forces influencing group conformity-custom, tradition etc.
- Individual personality factors-susceptibility to change etc.
- Native and acquired abilities.
- Educational, economic and social levels.
- Pressure of occupational responsibility-how busy or concerned they are.
- People's needs as they see them, and as the professional communicator sees them.
- Why the audience is in need of changed ways of thinking, feeling and doing.
- How the audience views the situation.

It is useful to a communicator to understand these and other traits of an audience in making his plan for communication.

VI. Audience Response

This is the terminating element in communication applied to rural development programmes. Response by an audience to messages received is in the form of some kind of action of some degree, mentally or physically. Action, therefore, should be viewed as a product, not as a process; it should be dealt with as an end, not as a means. Consequently, the five elements hitherto analysed *viz.*, communicator, message, channel, treatment and audience are intended to be viewed as an organised scheme (means) for attaining the desired action (end) on the part of an intended audience.

VII. Feed back

Extension communication is never complete without feedback information. Feedback means, carrying some significant responses of the audience back to the communicator, communication work is not an end in itself communicator should know what has happened to the audience, the farmers, after the message has reached them.

For effective communication, feedback is of paramount importance. It concerns to and from communication. This return process is called feedback. It serves to control and the signals and go forward. It also serves to realign all the signals within the network in relation to one another. Feedback's an error-correcting mechanism that can overcome noise. It makes persons truly interacting members of a communication system and tells us how our message are being interpreted. An experienced communicator is attentive to feedback and constantly modifies his message in the light of what he observe in, or hears, from the audience.

Feedback provides the source with the information concerning his success in accomplishing his objective. In doing it exerts control over future messages which the source encodes.

Characteristics

Feedback has the following characteristics.

- ✓ Feedback is source oriented.
- ✓ Feedback varies in different communication situation
- ✓ Feedback affects the source or communicator.
- ✓ Feedback exerts control over future messages.
- ✓ Feedback affects communication fidelity.
- ✓ Feedback maintains the stability and equilibrium of communication system.

BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

In between the communicator and the receiver, certain barriers considerably affect the quality of information transmission. Some of the major barriers are discussed below.

➤ **Filtering**

Because of the many other concerns which constantly influence our ability to concentrate on what we hear, the average listener will normally "filter out" certain things that he hears. They will simply ignore a point made by the speaker, as though it had never been presented. This can be deliberate or unintended.

➤ **Distortion**

For the same reason, the human mind can also distort what it hears. It is an unconscious process. Every person tends to remember best what agrees with his own values.

➤ **Communication Overload**

Our minds can receive and retain only a limited amount of information without showing strain. This is called channel capacity. This ability can vary with different audiences. Overloading the system will in effect blow the mental fuse and defensively shut down the communication process.

➤ **Absence of Redundancy**

It is the use of repetition. Even under the best condition an audience can have problems grasping or fully appreciating the significance of something new which has been presented to them. By repeating it, or by illustrating it or by restating the same point in different ways a speaker can make it easier for an audience to understand and retain the information passed on by the speaker.

Further the barriers of communication can be classified under broad headings as follows

a. Relating to communicator

1. In-effective environment
2. Unorganized efforts to communicate
3. Standard of correctness
4. Standard of social responsibility
4. Cultural values and social organisations

5. Incorrect concept of communication process

b. Relating to the transmission of message

1. Incorrect handling of the channels
2. Wrong selection of channels
3. Physical distraction
4. Use of inadequate channels in Parallel

c. Relating to receiver

1. Attention of the listeners
2. Problems of cooperation, participation and involvement
3. Problem of homogeneity
4. Attitude of the audience towards the communicator

Lec 2	Communication models - Aristotle, Shannon and Weaver, Schramm, Berlo Westly and Maclean, Leagan, Rogers and Shoemaker, Littererls model and Dance's Helical Model – Elements of communication – communication barriers
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MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

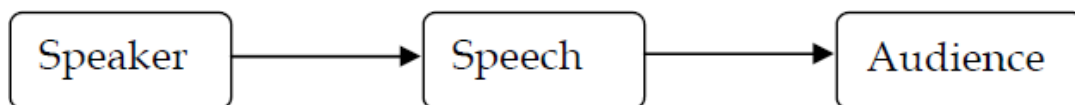
Different models have been developed by writers on communication to illustrate the key elements of the communication process.

- ❖ **Source:** Some person / group of persons with a purpose
- ❖ **Message:** The purpose of the source is expressed in this form called message.
- ❖ **Code :** System of signals for communication
- ❖ **Encode:** To put the message into code or cipher.
- ❖ **Encoder:** Takes ideas of source and put them in a code; thus, the source's purpose is expressed as message
- ❖ **Channel:** A medium / a carrier of message through which signals move.
- ❖ **Decoder :** Converts message in the code into ordinary language which may be easily understood
- ❖ **Receiver:** The target of communication.

A few important models are illustrated as follows:

I. ARISTOTLE MODEL: [384-322B-C] According to Aristotle Model, communication process has three elements

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



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



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

III. Berlo's Model of Communication (1966)

Berlo model is one of the most widely used and based on an impressive, background of behavioural theory and research. As a result it has exercised a far-reaching influence on communication research in the social sciences. According to this model, all human communication has some source. Given a source with ideas, needs intentions, information and purpose for communicating, a second ingredient is necessary for communicating. The purpose of the source has to be expressed in the form of message. This requires a third ingredient, an encoder. The communication encoder is responsible for taking ideas of the source and putting them into a code, expressing the source's the purpose in the form of message.

The fourth ingredient needed in a communication act is a channel. A channel is a medium, a carrier of a message. It is correct to say that message can exist only in some channel. However, the choice of a channel is an important factor in the effectiveness of communication. When we talk, somebody must listen; when we write somebody must read. The person(s) at the other end can be called the communication receiver(s), the target of communication. Just as a source needs an encoder to translate his purpose into a message, to express purpose in a code, the receiver needs a decoder to retranslate, to decode the message and to put into a form that the receiver can use. So, according to Berlo (1960), the ingredients in a communication process include

- the communication source
- the encoder
- the message
- the channel
- the decoder
- the communication receiver

In this model, communication is seen as a continuous process in which noise is reduced by a process called feedback. As stated earlier, this model includes four elements – source, message, channel and receiver. It is fairly explicit about the elements involved in each. In sources, we find that the source's communication skills, attitudes, knowledge and social and cultural systems are the important variables. The receiver has the same variables. Channels include seeing, hearing, touching, smelling and tasting, and messages are varied in their structure, elements, content, code and treatment. Berlo emphasizes that this model is far from static and needs feedback between a source and a receiver, when the source actually becomes a receiver and the receiver becomes a source. Once again, this is a linear model of communication with emphasis on the communicator. As stated earlier, this model has had a far-reaching influence on communication literature.

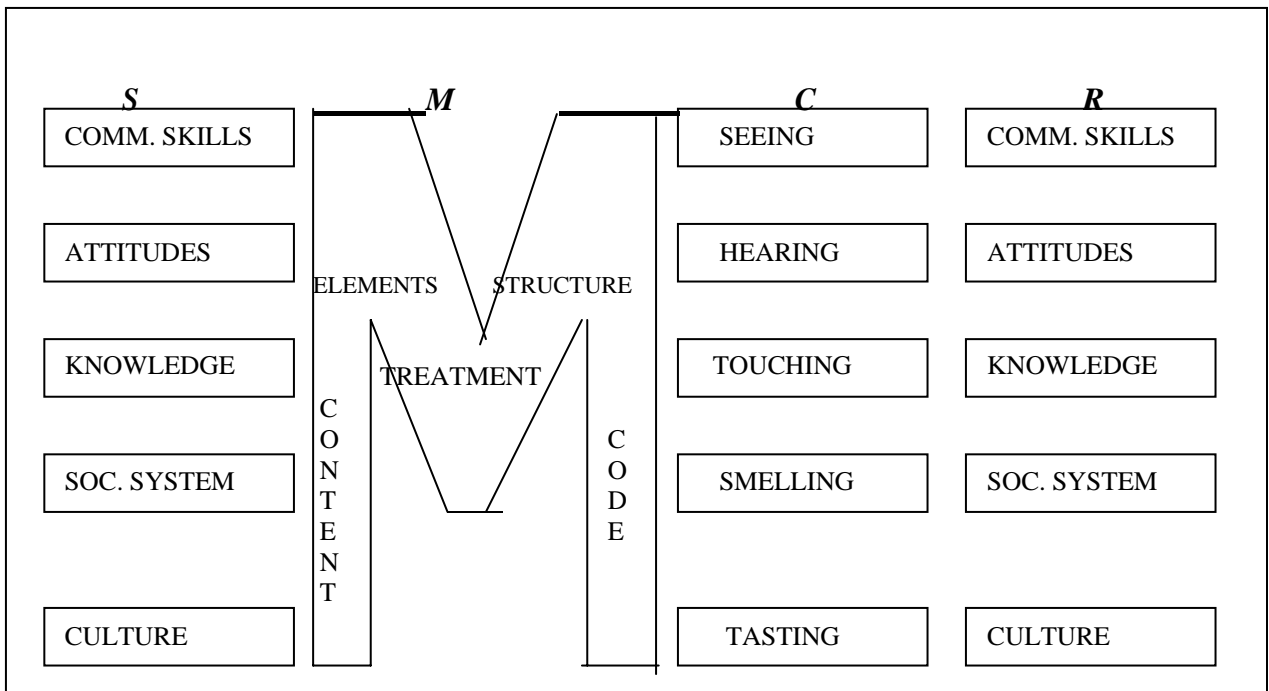
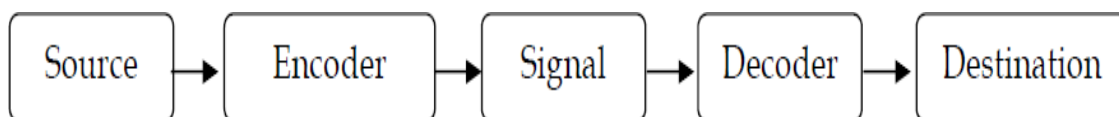


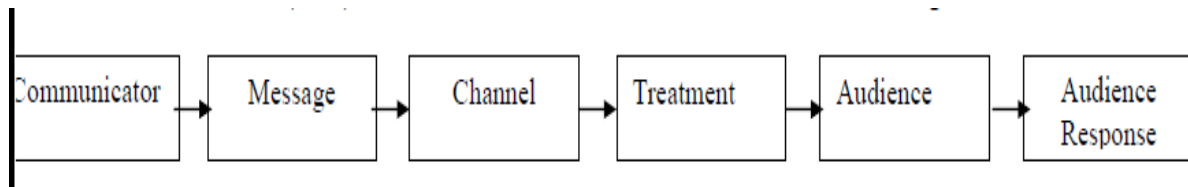
Fig : Berlo's Model of Communication

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

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



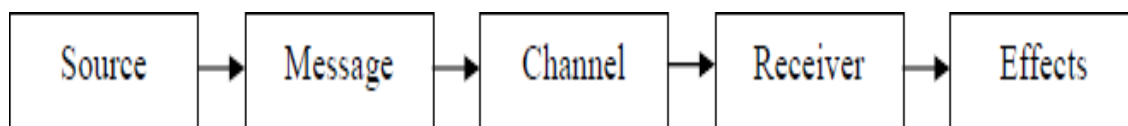
V. LEAGANS (1963) OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS has the following elements



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

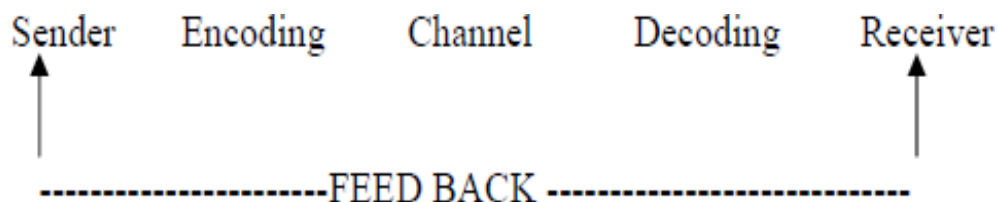
VI. ROGERS AND SHOEMAKER (1971)

Thought of communication process in terms of S-M-C -R-E model, the components of which are



According to them a source (S) sends a message (M) via certain channels (C) to the receiving individual (R), which cause some effects (E) i.e. changing the existing behavior pattern of the receiver. Communication in extension may also be thought of as two-way stimulus-response situation in which the necessary stimulus is provided by the communicator, the extension agent, in the form of a message, which produces certain response on the audience, the farmers and vice-versa. A favourable response by the audience reinforces learning.

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



VIII. Dance's Helical Model

Frank Dance proposed a communication model inspired by a helix in 1967, known as Helical Model of Communication. A helix is a three dimensional spring like curve in the shape of a cylinder or a cone.

Helix is compared with evolution of communication of a human since birth to existence or existing moment. Helical model gives geometrical testimony of communication. The model is linear as well as circular combined and disagrees the concept of linearity and circularity individually.

Concept of Helical Model of Communication

Helical model of communication introduces the concept of time where continuousness of the communication process and relational interactions are very important. Communication is taken as a dynamic process in helical model of communication and it progresses with age as our experience and vocabulary increases.

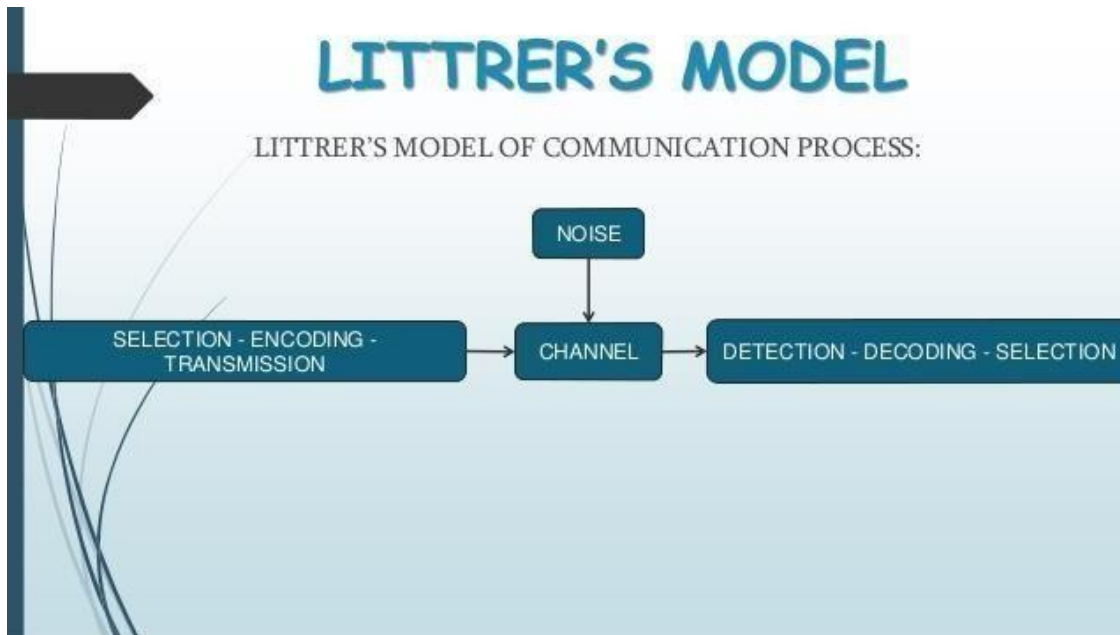
At first, helical spring is small at the bottom and grows bigger as the communication progresses. The same effect can be seen with communication of humans, where you know nothing about a person at first and the knowledge grows steadily as you know the person better. It considers all the activities of the person, from the past and present.

Communication is affected by the curve from which it emerges which denotes past behavior and experiences. Slowly, the helix leaves its lower levels of behavior and grows upward in a new way. It always depends on the lowest level to form the message. Thus, the communicative relationship reaches to the next level in which people share more information.

Communication is supposed to be continuous and non-repetitive. It is always growing and accumulative.



VIII. Littererls model



Lec 3	Verbal and Non verbal communication – Verbal communication – definition and meaning – Verbal vs Oral communication – Types – Styles - Barriers to effective verbal communication
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Verbal communication

The sharing of information between individuals by using speech. Individuals working within a business need to effectively use verbal communication that employs readily understood spoken words, as well as ensuring that the enunciation, stress and tone of voice with which the words are expressed is appropriate.

USAGE EXAMPLES

The company used memos as a way to communicate with the workers at large but management had found using more verbal communication better at resolving conflicts or problems.

You need to have strong verbal communication skills if you want to be able to move up in most any business job.

They had good verbal communication with each other and would always be able to pick up on how the other one was feeling.

Verbal communication vs non verbal communication

BASIS FOR COMPARISON	VERBAL COMMUNICATION	NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION
Meaning	The communication in which the sender uses words to transmit the message to the receiver is known as verbal communication.	The communication that takes place between sender and receiver with the use of signs is known as non-verbal communication.
Types	Formal and Informal	Chronemics, Vocalics, Haptics, Kinesics, Proxemics, Artifacts.
Time consuming	Not happen	
Chances of transmission of wrong messages	Rarely happens.	Happens most of the time.
Advantage	The Message can be clearly understood and immediate feedback is possible.	Helpful in understanding emotions, status, lifestyle and feelings of the sender.
Documentary Evidences	Yes, in case of written	No

	communication.	
Presence	The message can be transmitted through letters, phone calls, etc. so the personal presence of the parties, doesn't make any change.	The personal presence of both the parties to communication is a must.

FOUR TYPES OF VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Verbal communication include sounds, words, language, and speech. Speaking is an effective way of communicating and helps in expressing our emotions in words. This form of communication is further classified into four types, which are:

1. Intrapersonal Communication

This form of communication is extremely private and restricted to ourselves. It includes the silent conversations we have with ourselves, wherein we juggle roles between the sender and receiver who are processing our thoughts and actions. This process of communication when analyzed can either be conveyed verbally to someone or stay confined as thoughts.

2. Interpersonal Communication

This form of communication takes place between two individuals and is thus a one-on-one conversation. Here, the two individuals involved will swap their roles of sender and receiver in order to communicate in a clearer manner.

3. Small Group Communication

This type of communication can take place only when there are more than two people involved. Here the number of people will be small enough to allow each participant to interact and converse with the rest. Press conferences, board meetings, and team meetings are examples of group communication. Unless a specific issue is being discussed, small group discussions can become chaotic and difficult to interpret by everybody. This lag in understanding information completely can result in miscommunication.

4. Public Communication

This type of communication takes place when one individual addresses a large gathering of people. Election campaigns and public speeches are example of this type of communication. In such cases, there is usually a single sender of information and several receivers who are being addressed.

Verbal Communication Styles

Communication in literal terms means, transfer of information from one person to another.

Verbal communication means, transfer of information through talking. It uses numbers, words, symbols and sounds to construct a dialog for its listener. Communication intends to express, impress, warn and emote a certain message.

Various styles are adopted to achieve this purpose, depending on the audience, circumstance, event and the occasion. The manner in which a certain message is communicated decides the communication styles. A combination of personality, traits, vocabulary and gesticulations finally make up a verbal communication style. Let's try and understand the personality styles which impact ways of communication.

Expressive Style of Communication

An expressive style is often an outcome of an expressive personality. These are often seen as sociable and amicable people in the crowd. Their imaginative and creative streak helps them in finding new ways to communicate their ideas to the audience. This helps them develop an expressive style of communication free of any reservations and hesitations. The speech of an expressive personality is animated, spontaneous, jovial, and conversational while communicating both, negative and positive thoughts.

Aggressive Style of Communication

The aggressive style of communication is usually perceived as inconsiderate of others emotions. This style of communication stems from an aggressive personality. A person with an aggressive personality is often seen to interrupt others, has poor listening skills, monopolizes conversations and takes a controlling tone. Aggressive communicators think of themselves to be above others and thus try to impose themselves through stating their opinions rather violently. Their derogatory tone of talking, makes the audience feel humiliated. The speaker is usually expressing authority or passing a judgment while using this style of speaking. For instance, 'I want an explanation for this mess', is an aggressive style of speaking.

Passive Style of Communication

The passive style of communication is exactly the opposite of aggressive style of communication. In a passive way of communication a person finds it difficult to express feelings and emotions with honesty. The genesis of this style of communication is a passive personality. A passive personality chooses not to react to situations and thus refuses any kind of confrontations or explanations. Self-doubt, use of apologetic words and a timid body language are ways of recognizing a passive personality. Such people often speak in a manner of implying that others' needs are more important than theirs. In a

way they assume that others will know what is best for them. Thus they find it difficult to communicate and end up communicating incomplete messages.

Passive-Aggressive Style of Communication

The passive-aggressive style of communication stems from passive style of communication. The two are deeply interlinked, often resulting in defeating the purpose of communication. As passive person fails to communicate with honesty, his expectations are not met with, which thus results in passive-aggression. An aggressive style of communication is where the speaker states the objective clearly, although callously. In this way of communication, the speaker routes the message through indirect ways making things even more complicated. This makes the other person feel guilty for not understanding the situation properly. The speaker may also say things behind the person's back and would refuse to respond in case of a confrontation. The end result of this form of communication is often a misunderstanding.

Communication Styles As Per Roles

Directors

Directors hold an important role in an kind of a set-up. Thus, by the virtue of their role they become task-oriented and focused while communicating the audience. These role players come straight to the point, instead of beating around the bush. They truly believe that actions speaks louder than words. They are far more result-oriented than anyone else. The manner in which the message is communicated is crisp, correct and concise.

Relators

The development of interpersonal relationships is extremely important to relators. They consider the opinions of their audience or team members before communicating anything. They nurture positive and helpful environment. They try to keep the pressurizing situations at bay and encourage friendships amongst subordinates. They like to build spaces which succeed on mutual trust and respect.

Thinkers

The thinkers are also called the analyticals. These people play the role of perfectionists. They are known to be very specific and accurate in giving instructions. Mistakes are rare under their supervision and in case of any, they are taken very seriously. They communicate in a very supportive, patient and helpful way with their audience in order to explain the task perfectly and achieve the preset goal.

Socializers

The socializers love to interact with people and take on new challenges. They perform the

best when working in teams, as being with people is an intrinsic part of their nature. They communicate by initiating dialogs and open discussions. They always look for new ways of dealing with problems. This makes their communication style seems very easy and approachable.

Verbal styles of communications largely depends on the nature of the speaker. The personality type and the nature of the person dictates the style in which the person will communicate. To many a time, is the one that uses a combination of styles.

Barriers to effective verbal communication

Lacking clarity. Avoid abstract, overly-formal language, colloquialisms, and jargon, which obscure your message more than they serve to impress people.

Using stereotypes and generalizations. Speakers who make unqualified generalizations undermine their own clarity and credibility. Be careful not to get stuck in the habit of using stereotypes, or making generalizations about complex systems or situations. Another form of generalization is –polarization or creating extremes. Try to be sensitive to the complexities of situations, rather than viewing the world in black and white.

Jumping to conclusions. Confusing facts with inferences is a common tendency. Do not assume you know the reasons behind events, or that certain facts necessarily have certain implications. Make sure you have all the information you can get, and then speak clearly about the facts versus the meanings or interpretations you attach to those.

Dysfunctional responses. Ignoring or not responding to a comment or question quickly undermines effective communication. Likewise, responding with an irrelevant comment -- one that isn't connected to the topic at hand -- will quash genuine communication. Interrupting others while they are speaking also creates a poor environment for communication.

Lacking confidence. Lacking confidence can be a major barrier to effective communication. Shyness, difficulty being assertive, or low self-worth can hinder your ability to make your needs and opinions known. Also, a lack of awareness of your own rights and opportunities in a given situation can prevent you from expressing your needs openly. See Eison (1990)'s –Confidence in the Classroom: Ten Maxims for New Teachers for a set of maxims to think about when reflecting on your own confidence as a communicator

Lec 4	Non verbal communication – definition and meaning – Proxemics, Chronemics, Movement and body position, Posture, Facial Expression, Gestures and Eye Contact – importance of non verbal communication
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Non-verbal communication

Non-verbal communication occurs without using any oral or written word. Instead of written or oral words, it relies on various non-verbal cues like physical movements, tasks, colors, signs, symbols, signals charts etc. to express feelings, attitudes or information.

Although no word is used in non-verbal communication, it can effectively communicate many human feelings more accurately than verbal methods of communication.

Eye contact

Eye contact, an important channel of interpersonal communication, helps regulate the flow of communication. And it signals interest in others. Furthermore, eye contact with audiences increases the speaker's credibility. Teachers who make eye contact open the flow of communication and convey interest, concern, warmth, and credibility.

Facial expressions

The face is an important communicator. It is commonly said that face is the index of the mind. It expresses the type of emotions or feelings such as joy, love, interest, sorrow, anger, annoyance, confusion, enthusiasm, fear, hatred surprise, and uncertainty. Facial expressions are indicated through the mouth (open, wide or closed), eyelids (raised or lowered), nose (wrinkled or relaxed), cheeks (drawn up or back) and the forehead (lowered or raised). Within the facial area, eyes are especially effective for indicating attention and interest. However, interpretations of facial expressions differ from culture to culture.

Smiling is a powerful cue that transmits:

Happiness.

Friendliness.

Warmth.

Liking.

Affiliation.

Thus, if you smile frequently you will be perceived as more likable, friendly, warm and approachable. Smiling is often contagious and students will react favorably and learn more.

Gestures

If you fail to gesture while speaking, you may be perceived as boring, stiff and un-animated. A lively and animated teaching style captures students attention, makes the material more interesting, facilitates learning and provides a bit of entertainment. Head nods, a form of gestures, communicate positive reinforcement to students and indicate that you are listening.

Gestures are movements of the arms, legs, hands, and head.⁷ Some authors opine that gesture is the deliberate body movement as because they express specific and intentional meaning.

For example;

a wave of the hand has a specific meaning--hello or --good-bye!; a forefinger and a thumb touching to form a circle have the meaning --ok!.

Alike facial expressions, interpretations of some gestures also differ across cultures. For example, in Europe, raising thumb is used to convey that someone has done something excellent while in Bangladesh the same gesture means something idiotic.

Posture and body orientation

You communicate numerous messages by the way you walk, talk, stand and sit. Standing erect, but not rigid, and leaning slightly forward communicates to students that you are approachable, receptive and friendly. Furthermore,

Interpersonal closeness results when you and your students face each other. Speaking with your back turned or looking at the floor or ceiling should be avoided; it communicates disinterest to your class.

Body Language

Body language is another widely recognized form of non-verbal communication. Body movements can convey meanings and message. Body language may take two forms of unconscious movements and consciously controlled movements. For example;

When a person is bored, he may gaze around the room rather than look at the speaker or he may shift positions frequently. When a person is nervous, he may bite his nails or mash hair. These are usually made unconsciously. On the other hand, leaning forward toward the speaker to express interest is the case of conscious body movements.

Proximity

Cultural norms dictate a comfortable distance for interaction with students. You should look for signals of discomfort caused by invading students' space. Some of these are:

Rocking

Leg swinging

Tapping

Gaze aversion

Typically, in large college classes space invasion is not a problem. In fact, there is usually too much distance. To counteract this, move around the classroom to increase interaction with your students. Increasing proximity enables you to make better eye contact and increases the opportunities for students to speak.

Chronemics:

The use of time in communication is chronemics, which speaks about the personality of the sender / receiver like punctuality, the speed of speech, etc

Importance of Nonverbal Communication

Well Expression of the Speaker's Attitude

Various non-verbal cues of the speaker like physical movements, facial expression, a way of expression, etc. play important role in expressing the inner meaning of the messages in face-to-face conversation and interview.

For example, the facial expression of the speaker indicates his attitude, determination depth of knowledge etc.

Providing Information Regarding the Sender of The Written Message

The format, neatness, language and the appearance of the envelope used in a written message send a non-verbal message regarding the writer's tests, choice, level of education etc.

Expressing the Attitude of the Listener and Receiver

Sometimes the appearance of the listeners and receivers conveys their attitudes, feelings, and thoughts regarding the messages they have read or heard.

Gaining Knowledge about a Class of People

Clothing, hairstyle, neatness, jewelry, cosmetics, and stature of people convey impressions regarding their occupation, age, nationality, social or economic level, job status etc.

For example; students, policemen, nurses etc. can easily be identified through their dresses.

Gaining Knowledge about the Status of a Person

Non-verbal cues also help to determine the relative status of persons working in an organization. For example, room size, location, furnishings, decorations, lightings, etc. indicate the position of a person in the organization.

Communicating Common Message to All People

In some cases, non-verbal cues can effectively express many true messages more accurately than those of any other method of communication.

For example; use of red, yellow and green lights and use of various signs in controlling vehicles on the roads.

Communicating with the Handicapped People

Non-verbal cues of communication greatly help in communicating with the handicapped people.

For example; the language of communication with the deaf depends on the movements of the hands, fingers, and eyeball.

Conveying Message to the Illiterate People

Communication with illiterate people through written media is impossible. There may also be some situations that do not allow the use of oral media to communicate with them.

In such situations, non-verbal methods like pictures, colors, graphs, signs, and symbols are used as the media of communication.

For example; to indicate danger we use red sign and to mean dangerous we use a skull placed between two pieces of bone put in a crosswise fashion.

Quick Expression of Message

Non-verbal cues like sign and symbol can also communicate some messages very quickly than written or oral media.

For example; when drivers of a running vehicle are to be communicated that the road ahead is narrow or there is a turn in the road ahead, we generally use signs or symbols rather than using any written or oral message.

Presenting Information Precisely

Sometimes quantitative information on any issue may require a lengthy written message. But this quantitative information can be presented easily and precisely through tables, graphs, charts etc.,

Lec 5	Listening – Definition – Listening vs Hearing – Active listening – Types of listening –Guidelines for effective listening – Developing listening skills - Barriers to listening – Listening misconceptions
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What Is Listening?

Defining listening is like defining love. It is an interrelated concept that cannot only be defined by one word.

Listening can be defined in various ways but can be summarized by the following descriptions:

1- Listening is understanding what we hear the natural response of a human being when hearing a sound

According to Floyd, "Hearing is a passive process that occurs when sound waves cause the bones in your inner ear to vibrate and send signals to your brain, but listening requires much more than just perceiving the sound around you" (Floyd, 2009, p. 262). Listening actually completes the hearing process by understanding the meaning of the information.

2- Listening is a necessary skill for day-to-day communication

In various areas of our life, we need to listen. Family members and friends will not only love us because we have beautiful eyes, but because when they talk, we care about what they say by listening to them; our classmates and colleagues will be more than willing to work with people who show interest through understanding what they say.

3- Listening is an habit

Even though we are born with the ability to listen, it should be remembered that good listening requires practice and effort. As Cuban said, "Listening looks easy, but it's not simple. Every head is a world." .

Listening is not reflex, it is an habit. If a person puts food into his or her mouth, he or she will be more likely to make his or her teeth move instead of swallowing the aliment right away. When listening, in the other hand, having the info inside the head is not enough, there is a need to analyze it in order to fully understand its meaning

Sample of Listening Definitions

Tucker 1925 - An analysis of the impressions resulting from concentration where an effort of will is required.

Rankin 1926 - The ability to understand spoken language.

Nichols 1948 - The comprehension of expository materials presented orally in a classroom situation

Barbe & Meyers 1954 - The process of reacting to, interpreting, and relating the spoken language in terms of past experiences and further course of action.

Brown & Carlson 1955 - The aural assimilation of spoken symbols in a face-to-face speaker audience situation, with both oral and visual cues present.

Barbara 1957 - A definite, usually voluntary, effort to apprehend acoustically.

Spearritt 1962 - The active process involved in attach[ing] meaning to sounds.

Barker 1971- The selective process of attending to, hearing, understanding, and remembering aural symbols.

Weaver 1972 - A process that takes place when a human organism receives data orally. The selection and retention of aurally received data.

Kelly 1975 -A rather definite and deliberative ability to hear information, to analyze it, to recall it at a later time, and to draw conclusions from it.

Steil et al. 1983 - Consists of four connected activities – sensing, interpreting, evaluating, and responding.

Wolff et al. 1983 -A unitary-receptive communication process of hearing and selecting, assimilating and organizing, and retaining and covertly responding to aural and nonverbal stimuli.

Wovin & Coakley 1988 - The process of receiving, attending to, and assigning meaning to aural stimuli.

Brownell 1994 - An overt behavior that conceptualizes the teaching and training process

ILA 1996 - The process of receiving, constructing meaning from and responding to spoken and/or nonverbal messages.

Cooper 1997 - Listening competency means behavior that is appropriate and effective. Appropriateness means that the content is understood and effectiveness deals with the achievement of interactive goals.

de Ruyter & Wetzels 2000 -[as perceived by customers] A set of interrelated activities, including apparent attentiveness, nonverbal behaviors, verbal behavior, perceived attitudes, memory and behavioral responses.

Bostrom 2011 - The acquisition, process, and retention of information in the interpersonal context.

Meaning

Hearing refers to one's ability to perceive sounds, by receiving vibrations through ears. Listening is something done consciously, that involve the analysis and understanding of the sounds you hear.

BASIS COMPARISON	FOR	HEARING	LISTENING
What is it?		An ability	A skill
Nature		Primary & Secondary & temporary	Continuos
Psychological		Act	Physiological
Process		Passive bodily process	Active mental process
Occurs at		Subconscious level	Conscious level
Use of senses		Only one	More than one
Reason		We are neither aware	We listen to acquire knowledge and receive.
Concentration		Not required	Required

Types of listening :

Sympathetic listening

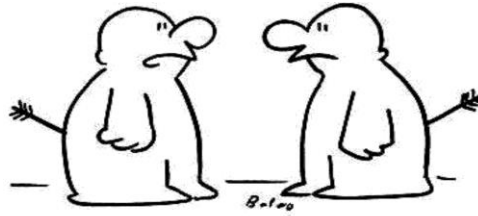
In sympathetic listening we care about the other person and show this concern in the way we pay close attention and express our sorrow for their ills and happiness at their joys.



Empathetic listening

When we listen empathetically, we go beyond sympathy to seek a truer understand how others are feeling. This requires excellent discrimination and close attention to the nuances of emotional signals. When we are being truly empathetic, we actually feel what they are feeling.

In order to get others to expose these deep parts of themselves to us, we also need to demonstrate our empathy in our demeanor towards them, asking sensitively and in a way that encourages self-disclosure



"I know exactly how you feel."

Evaluative listening

In evaluative listening, or critical listening, we make judgments about what the other person is saying. We seek to assess the truth of what is being said. We also judge what they say against our values, assessing them as good or bad, worthy or unworthy.

Evaluative listening is particularly pertinent when the other person is trying to persuade us, perhaps to change our behavior and maybe even to change our beliefs. Within this, we also discriminate between subtleties of language and comprehend the inner meaning of what is said. Typically also we weigh up the pros and cons of an argument, determining whether it makes sense logically as well as whether it is helpful to us.

Evaluative listening is also called critical, judgmental or interpretive listening.



Appreciative listening

In appreciative listening, we seek certain information which will appreciate, for example that which helps meet our needs and goals. We use appreciative listening when we are listening to good music, poetry or maybe even the stirring words of a great leader.



Comprehension listening

The next step beyond discriminating between different sound and sights is to make sense of them. To comprehend the meaning requires first having a lexicon of words at our fingertips and also all rules of grammar and syntax by which we can understand what others are saying.

The same is true, of course, for the visual components of communication, and an understanding of body language helps us understand what the other person is really meaning.

In communication, some words are more important and some less so, and comprehension often benefits from extraction of key facts and items from a long spiel. Comprehension listening is also known as content listening, informative listening and full listening.

COMPREHENSIVE LISTENING

- Comprehensive listening where the focus is on 'understanding the message.'




Critical listening

Critical listening is listening in order to evaluate and judge, forming opinion about what is being said. Judgment includes assessing strengths and weaknesses, agreement and approval.

This form of listening requires significant real-time cognitive effort as the listener analyzes what is being said, relating it to existing knowledge and rules, whilst simultaneously listening to the ongoing words from the speaker.

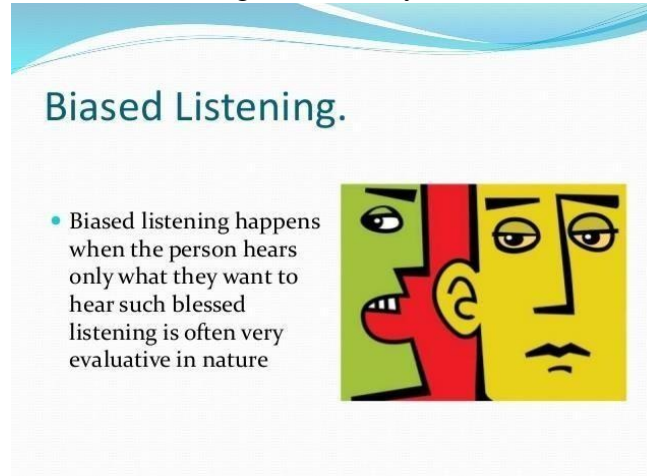
Critical Listening

The goal is to understand and evaluate the meaning of the logic of the arguments, the strength of evidence, the validity of the conclusion, the speakers motives and intentions.



Biased listening

Biased listening happens when the person hears only what they want to hear, typically misinterpreting what the other person says based on the stereotypes and other biases that they have. Such biased listening is often very evaluative in nature.



GUIDELINES FOR EFFECTIVE LISTENING

Stop talking! Remember, you cannot listen if you are speaking.

Pay attention! Give your full attention to the speaker. You cannot communicate if both parties are not actively involved in the process.

Read nonverbal cues. Along with hearing and processing the words of the speaker, you should pay careful attention to the nonverbal language being communicated. Watch for eye contact, facial expressions, gestures, posture changes, and any physical responses (i.e., fidgeting).

Ask questions. A good way to ensure that you have accurately understood the message is to ask questions.

Resist distractions. Stop doodling! Do not shuffle papers, draw, or doodle when you are listening.

Don't interrupt! Even though you may get angry or upset by something the speaker says, do not interrupt. Let the speaker finish, and resist the temptation to focus on your emotional response to the speaker's words.

Open your mind. Try to look at the situation from the speaker's point of view and not just your own. Be flexible.

Paraphrase. Use your own words to mirror what you have heard. Restating information in your own words helps you to remember what you have heard.

BARRIERS TO LISTENING

This handout talks through a number of different barriers to listening. As you're reading through them – identify if any of the barriers apply to you. Do some apply when you are listening to certain people!

Selective listening

We all listen selectively at some time or other. It is a necessary skill in order to survive in

often very noisy environments, however our selectivity can sometimes be based on two things.

- 1) our preconceptions about the other person
- 2) our preconceptions about the importance of what's being said

Identifying any preconceptions before the review meeting will help reduce this barrier.

Talking speed vs speed of thought

There is a considerable difference between the speed at which people talk and the speed at which they think. The average person speaks at about 125 words per minute, whereas thinking speed is in the region of 500 words per minute. We all think a lot faster than we realise! The result is that when listening to someone we are continually jumping ahead of what is actually being said. Try to avoid jumping to conclusions in the review meeting. Keep an open mind!

Lack of interest

This could be due to lack of interest in the individual speaking or being distracted by things that are happening to you personally (e.g. poorly child, deadline for research project funding/reporting) Remember, the review meeting is the opportunity for the reviewee to talk about themselves, their thoughts and feelings.

Beliefs and attitudes

We all have opinions on a variety of current issues; we feel strongly about certain subjects; we value certain behaviours. How do you react when someone inadvertently challenges your beliefs and attitudes? Try to avoid getting emotional particularly in the review situation, remember, the review is about the reviewee not you!

Reactions to speaker

Our reactions to the person speaking rather than what they are saying can cause us to listen less effectively.

Our preconceptions

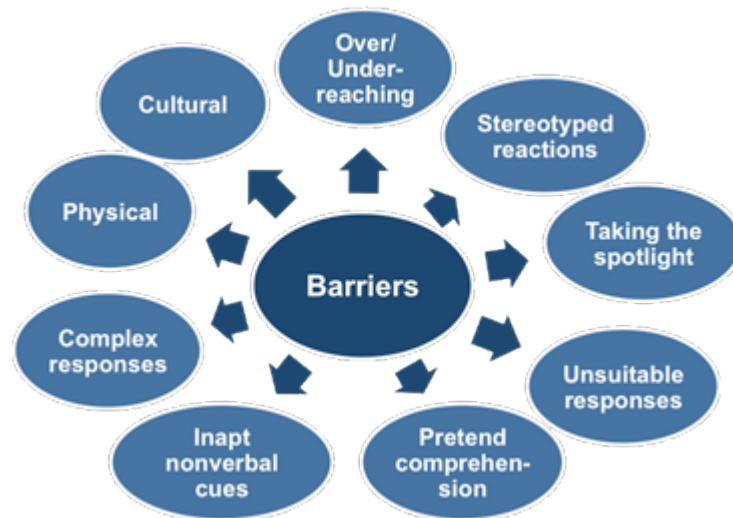
Our preconceptions often mean we don't even give another person a chance to speak. We can prejudge what they have to say. The implication of this behaviour is that it implies we don't value what they might have to offer.

The words we hear

Over-repetition of words and phrases is one distraction, the use of unfamiliar (e.g. jargon) words is another. Another important point to remember is that words can mean different things to different people. Good – to one person may mean only just acceptable, to another it might mean 'perfect'.

Physical distractions

This can come in a number of different guises and ranges from the background noises that are going on (i.e. a telephone ringing or a fire engine racing down the road), whether we are physically comfortable (i.e. too warm, too cold, the seat is uncomfortable – too high/too low, thirsty), the lighting in the room, to distracting pictures on the wall. Some distractions are within our control (i.e. telephone calls) and where possible it's important to try and stop them from becoming distractions (e.g. divert all calls).



MISCONCEPTION ABOUT LISTENING :

Listening is misunderstood by most people. Because these misunderstandings so greatly affect our communication, we need to take a look at four common misconceptions that many communicators hold.

1. Listening and Hearing Are Not the Same Thing

Hearing is the process in which sound waves strike the eardrum and cause vibrations that are transmitted to the brain. Listening occurs when the brain reconstructs these electrochemical impulses into a representation of the original sound and then gives them meaning. Barring illness, injury, or earplugs, hearing can't be stopped. Your ears will pick up sound waves and transmit them to your brain whether you want them to or not. Listening, however, isn't automatic. Many times we hear but do not listen. Sometimes we deliberately tune out unwanted signals: .

Listening consists of several stages.

a) After hearing, the next stage is **ATTENDING**—the act of paying attention to a signal. An individual's needs, wants, desires, and interests determine what is attended to, or selected

b) The next step in listening is **UNDERSTANDING**—the process of making sense of a message. In addition to these steps, understanding often depends on the ability to organize the information we hear into recognizable form. The successful understanding consists number of factors, most prominent among which were verbal ability, intelligence, and motivation.

c). **RESPONDING** to a message consists of giving observable feedback to the speaker. Offering feedback serves two important functions: It helps you clarify your understanding of a speaker's message, and it shows that you care about what that speaker is saying. Good listeners showed that they were attentive by nonverbal behaviors such as keeping eye contact and reacting with appropriate facial expressions. A slumped posture, bored expression, and yawning send a clear message that the audience are not tuned in to the speaker. Listening isn't just a passive activity. As listeners we are active participants in a communication transaction.

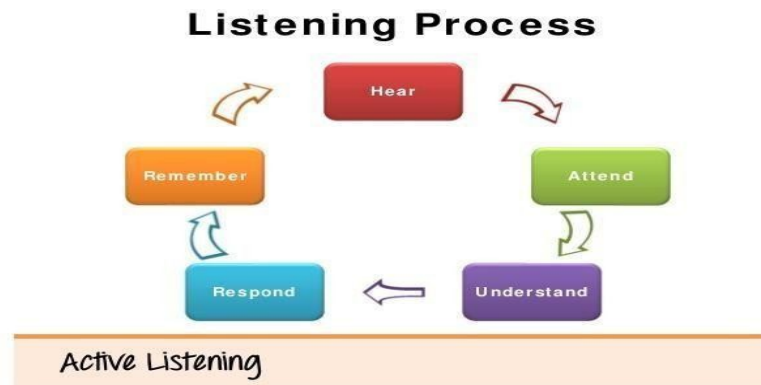
d)The final step in the listening process IS **REMEMBERING**. This is true even if people work hard at listening. A listener can be remembered only half of after were retained. Within two months half of the half is forgotten, that is we remember 25 percent

of the original message. People start forgetting immediately (within eight hours the 50 percent remembered drops to about 35 percent).

2. Listening Is Not a Natural Process

Another common myth is that listening is like breathing: a natural activity that people do well. The truth is that listening is a skill much like speaking: Everybody does it, though few people do it well. Listening requires Effort Most people assume that listening is fundamentally a passive activity in which the receiver absorbs a speaker's ideas, rather the way a sponge absorbs water. Every kind of listening requires mental effort by the receiver. And experience shows that passive listening almost guarantees that the respondent will fail to grasp at least some of the speaker's ideas and misunderstand others.

All Listeners Do Not Receive the Same Message When two or more people are listening to a speaker, we tend to assume that they all are hearing and understanding the same message. In fact, such uniform comprehension isn't the case. Physiological factors, social roles, cultural background, personal interests, and needs all shape and distort the raw data we hear into uniquely different messages.



Misconceptions On Listening

Here are the top **10 myths** about listening.

Myth 1: "Listening is a matter of intelligence."

Fact: "Careful listening is a learned behaviour."

Myth 2: "Speaking is more important than listening in the communication process."

Fact: "Speaking and listening are equally important."

Myth 3: "Listening is easy and requires little energy."

Fact: "Active listeners undergo the same physiological changes as a person jogging."

Myth 4: "Listening and hearing are the same process."

Fact: "Listening is a conscious, selective process while hearing is an involuntary act."

Myth 5: "Speakers are able to command listening."

Fact: "Speakers cannot make a person really listen."

Myth 6: "Hearing ability determines listening ability."

Fact: "Listening happens mentally—between the ears."

Myth 7: "Speakers are totally responsible for the communication success."

Fact: "Communication is a two-way street."

Myth 8: "Listening means only understanding a speaker's words."

Fact: "Nonverbal signals also help listeners gain understanding."

Myth 9: "Daily practice eliminates the need for listening training."

Fact: "Without effective listening training, most practice merely reinforces negative behaviors."

Myth 10: "Competence in listening develops naturally."

Fact: "Untrained people listen at only 25 percent efficiency"

Lec 6	Writing skill – Importance – Effective writing - Components of writing : Introduction , Audience and format ,Composition and style, Structure, Grammatical errors , Proofing and Conclusion – Ways to improve writing skills – Technical writing
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Introduction:

Writing is a visual representation of speech. In writing and speaking the language learner is engaged in communicating his ideas and feelings. In the case of speaking, a kind of give and take situation exists between the listener and the speaker. But, in the case of writing the message communicated is higher and to be effective. Writing is an act of forming letters or characters and artfully putting them together so as to express ideas; an essential component of any language learning. To learn written mode of second language, in addition to L1, one requires an additional ability and time.

For learning writing of L1, one need not learn words and their meaning without any kind of hindrance if he/she has literacy skill in L1, to correlate the sounds with graphemes and to sequence the graphemes into words and words into sentences, cohering the sentences with meaning and ability to organize them in a readable manner. But, to learning writing of L2 one requires learning deliberately and consciously each and every linguistic element through instruction or proper guidance.

Since writing is an essential component of language learning. Earlier, ‘writing’ skills were emphasizing on the correct use of grammatical forms. Students used to copy sentences, making discrete changes in person or tense. This philosophy grew as a result of audio-lingual method, where error was prevented and accuracy was expected to arise out of practice with structure. Subsequently, teachers were more aware of current practices in English composition and there was a shift from strictly controlled writing to guided writing. Writing was limited to structuring sentences often in direct answers to questions or by combining sentences - the result of which looked like a short piece of discourse. Like speaking, writing is a productive skill. It involves producing language rather than receiving it.

Writing involves communicating a message. In order to write, learners need to form letters and words, join these together to make words, sentences or a series of sentences that link together to communicate a message. Learning to write in a second language is not merely learning to put down on paper the conventional symbols of the writing system that represents the utterances one has in mind, but it is also purposeful section and organization of ideas, facts and experiences. In order words aims at compactness and precision in expression as well as grammatical, idiomatic and orthographic accuracy. Therefore, learning to write involves learning to use grammar with ease and present fact in a sequential order. Writing is required to communicate with other people, to understand them, talk to them, read what others have written and to write to them. The sub- skills of writing are planning, forming letter, punctuate correctly, linking, using the appropriate layout, paragraphing and so on.

Importance of writing skills:

Bacon (1989) rightly said, –Reading makes a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man. Writing is an important medium and it is used for different purposes. Writing performs many functions in a person's day to day life in different areas like academic, official, media, social, cultural and personal settings. Communication is the medium of writing personal correspondence, telegrams, circulars, reports, memos, minutes of meetings, instructions, email messages, assessment reports, projects etc. Knowledge of writing is important to access journals, magazines, books, bills, letters, etc. The need to learn to write in English for academic and occupational purposes is increasing.

In the field of education, writing plays a dominant role for writing projects, assignments, examinations etc. In the Indian educational system, assessing academic abilities is closely linked with proficiency in writing. In fact, writing is the only medium through which learners are assessed formally in Schools, Colleges and Universities. Written tests are administered, even for job placements. Writing virtually has become the tool for survival today. Certain jobs related to writing (content writing, technical writing, editing, etc) are the highly paid in India today.

Not only is writing an important academic skill, but it is also an important skill that translates into any career field. Since writing is used in all fields and jobs, it is a skill that all students and workers should learn and become better at. Without writing the flow of ideas halted shortly beyond the source. The importance of writing stems from the fact that writing is the primary basis upon which communication, history, record keeping, and art is begun. Writing is the frame work of our communication. We are encountered with writing every day of our lives. Importance of Writing Skills in Students. Be it any field or any profession, writing skill is required in some part of the journey in life. Moreover, writing also facilitates a person to think better. When students learn how to write, he or she becomes more capable of analyzing what they read, interpret, and think.

Effective writing skills:

Know your goal and state it clearly. ...

Tone can help your writing be more effective. ...

Explain in clear terms what you want the reader to do. ...

Language needs to be simple. ...

Less is more when it comes to length. ...

Using an active voice will strengthen your writing. ...

Good grammar and punctuation are very important.

Components of Writing:

Here are five steps towards creating or identifying your personal writing process.

*Prewriting_ You're ready to start

*Writing_ Now you have your plan and you're ready to start writing. ...

*Revision_ Your story can change a great deal during this stage. ...

*Editing_ You have overhauled your story.

*Publishing.

Many people may be able to get by with two out of three, but the greats have all three. These components are: Grammatical skill, compositional skill, and domain knowledge.

Audience&format:

Because focusing on audience will enhance your writing, your process, and your finished product, you must consider the specific traits of your audience members. Use your imagination to anticipate the readers' demographics, education, prior knowledge, and expectations.

An audience is a group of readers who read a particular piece of writing. Determining your Audience Type. Writers determine their audience types by considering:

Three Types of Audience.

Managerial Audience.

Academic Audiences.

Nonacademic Audiences

Format of writing:

Advertising is a type of communication whereby people promote or persuade customers to utilize their services.



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Composition & styles in writing skills:

Composition Writing Skills. To write a composition precisely, writers need to follow a few basic steps. They should brush up their skills, including writing skill, understanding skill, imagination skill, analyzing skill and others. They can focus on the structure and style of the composition.

Writing composition is adding words and making sentences by following a conventional pattern. Students must follow the right grammatical rules while expressing their ideas and opinions. In brief, it is an activity of writing, which is concerned with handwriting, basic knowledge of language and spelling. Additionally, it includes cognitive, meta-cognitive and other relevant aspects. However, writing composition is a process that allows students to write about something or express their views on something in an intelligible manner.

Styles

writing style is the manner of expressing thought in language characteristic of an individual, period, school, or nation. Thus, style is a term that may refer, at one and the same time, to both conventions that go beyond the individual writer and to singular aspects of individual writing. Beyond the essential elements of spelling, grammar, and punctuation, writing style in the choice of words, sentence structure, and paragraph structure, used to convey the meaning effectively.

The former are referred to as rules, elements, essentials, mechanics, or handbook; the latter are referred to as style, or rhetoric. The rules are about what a writer does; style is about how the writer does it. While following the rules drawn from established English usage, a writer has great flexibility in how to express a concept. The point of good writing style is to express the message to the reader simply, clearly, and convincingly. keep the reader attentive, engaged, and interested. not to display the writer's personality. demonstrate the writer's skills, knowledge, or abilities although these are usually evident and are what experts consider the writer's individual style.

TYPES OF WRITING STYLES

There are four main types of writing: expository, descriptive, persuasive, and narrative. Each of these writing styles is used for a specific purpose. A single text may include more than one writing style.

EXPOSITORY

Expository writing is one of the most common types of writing. When an author writes in an expository style, all they are trying to do is explain a concept, imparting information from themselves to a wider audience. Expository writing does not include the author's opinions, but focuses on accepted facts about a topic, including statistics or other evidence.

DESCRIPTIVE

Descriptive writing is often found in fiction, though it can make an appearance in nonfiction as well (for example, memoirs, first-hand accounts of events, or travel guides). When an author writes in a descriptive style, they are painting a picture in words of a person, place, or thing for their audience. The author might employ metaphor or other literary devices in order to describe the author's impressions via their five senses (what they hear, see, smell, taste, or touch). But the author is not trying to convince the audience of anything or explain the scene – merely describe things as they are.

PERSUASIVE

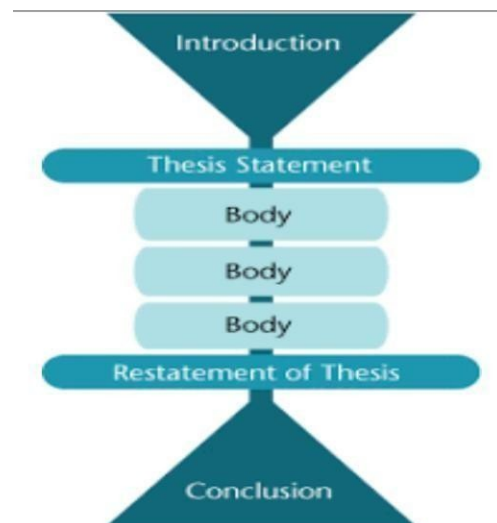
Persuasive writing is the main style of writing you will use in academic papers. When an author writes in a persuasive style, they are trying to convince the audience of a position or belief. Persuasive writing contains the author's opinions and biases, as well as justifications and reasons given by the author as evidence of the correctness of their position. Any argumentative essay you write in school should be in the persuasive style of writing.

NARRATIVE

Narrative writing is used in almost every longer piece of writing, whether fiction or nonfiction. When an author writes in a narrative style, they are not just trying to impart information, they are trying to construct and communicate a story, complete with characters, conflict, and settings.

Structure of writing skills

Structure refers to the order of ideas; the progression of your writing should feel smooth with similar points linked together. Structuring your work is a key aspect of good academic writing ensuring that related sections are linked together and that the ideas and arguments progress in a logical and orderly manner.



Grammatical error:

Effective writing does not contain errors. Here are some common grammatical errors that people make:

Affect and effect - "Affect" means "to influence" and it is a verb, like "It affected his work." "Effect" is a noun and means "result" like in "side effects."

Then and than - "Then" is an adverb which refers to a time, like "We ate and then saw a movie". "Than" is used in a comparison and is a conjunction, like "My car is bigger than yours."

Your and you're - "Your" is possessive, like "Is that your boat?" "You're" is a contraction for "you are" like "You're so funny."

Its and it's - "Its" is possessive, like "Its shape is oval." "It's" is a contraction for "it is" like "It's time to go."

Company's and companies - "Company's" is possessive, like "The company's logo is colorful." "Companies" is plural, like "He owns three companies."

There, their, and they're - "There" is an adverb meaning in or at that place, like "There it is!" "Their" is the possessive form of the pronoun "they", like "Their hair was soaked." "They're" is a contraction for "they are" like "They're going to get in trouble." Hopefully these tips and information about proper grammar will help you make your writing more effective.

Proofing & conclusion:

Writing is the most important skill in language teaching. Writing is one of the major literary skills. Writing has to be taught to the students even though it is developed by individuals. In this chapter discussed more about writing skills, defining writing, aim of writing, functions of writing, purposes of writing, process of writing, sub-skills in writing, micro-skills in writing, writing ability, importance of writing, writing as a complex skill, characteristics of writing, approaches to teaching writing, kinds of writing, forms of writing, teaching writing in the ESL classroom, use of writing skills, problems in teaching and learning in writing.

Way improve writing skills:

Brush up on the basic principles of writing, grammar and spelling.

Write like it's your job and practice regularly.

Read more so you develop an eye for what effective writing looks like.

Find a partner.

Join a workshop or meetup.

Technical writing:

Technical writing is a type of writing where the author is writing about a particular subject that requires direction, instruction, or explanation. This style of writing has a very different purpose and different characteristics than other writing styles such as creative writing, academic writing or business writing.

Uses for Technical Writing

Technical writing is straightforward, easy to understand explanations and/or instructions dealing with a particular subject. It is an efficient and clear way of explaining something and how it works.

The subject of technical writing can either be:

- Tangible - Something that can be seen or touched, such as a computer or software program, or information on how to assemble a piece of furniture.
- Abstract - Something that involved a series of steps that aren't related to a tangible object. One example of this might be steps required to complete an office process.

Some examples of technical writing include:

- Instruction manuals
- Policy manuals
- Process manuals
- User manuals
- Reports of analysis
- Instructions for assembling a product

- A summarization of a long report that highlights and shortens the most important elements

Tips for Good Technical Writing

Regardless of the type of document which is written, technical writing requires the writer to follow the properties of knowing their audience, writing in a clear, non-personal style and doing extensive research on the topic. By including these properties, the writer can create clear instructions and explanations for the reader.

- Know your audience. An expert in the field will understand certain abbreviations, acronyms, and lingo that directly applies to such a field. The novice will not understand in the same manner and, therefore, every detail must be explained and spelled out for them.
- Use an impersonal style. Write from a third person perspective, like a teacher instructing a student. Any opinions should be omitted.
- The writing should be straightforward, to the point, and as simple as possible to make sure the reader understands the process or instruction. This at times may appear as simply a list of steps to take to achieve the desired goal or may be a short or lengthy explanation of a concept or abstract idea.
- Know how to research. Gather information from a number of sources, understand the information gathered so that it can be analyzed thoroughly, and then put the information into an easy to understand format to instruct those who read it. The more inexperienced your audience, the more information you will need to gather and explain.
- Be thorough in description and provide enough detail to make your points; but, you also have to consider that you need to use an economy of words so that you do not bore your reader with gratuitous details.

A good technical writer can make a difficult task easy and can quickly explain a complex piece of information.

Lec 7	Oral presentation skills – Basics of effective oral presentation : Planning , preparing (Introduction, Body and conclusion), Delivery, Body language and Handling anxiety – Strategies for giving oral presentation
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ORAL PRESENTATION:

An oral presentation is similar to giving a speech but is usually not just a person behind a lectern. Visual aids and teaching tools are used to further enhance the spoken words. An oral presentation can be given as an individual or as part of a group. It also might add components of technology, such as a slide show, video clip or audio recording. Another term for an oral presentation with technology or other aids is a multimedia presentation, indicating that forms of media are being used. Most oral presentations require the presenter to use a combination of spoken words and visual aids to present an idea or explanation to their audience.

Oral presentations incorporate a variety of skills including intonation, eye-contact, speech preparation and engaging an audience. The presenter learns to hone their public speaking skills which includes keeping track of time and offering well-researched information. The presenter might also learn multimedia skills as they prepares visual and auditory aids for his presentation as well as research skills when studying the topic. If the presentation takes place in the classroom setting, the additional skill of teaching others a new subject is another benefit.

BASIC OF EFFECTIVE ORAL PRESENTATION:

The next phase towards improving your effective oral presentation skills is organizing your thoughts. There are a number of steps to this process:

Step #1 Brainstorm main ideas. Use index cards or post it notes and only use one idea per card.

Step #2 State the sub points. Ideally there should be between 2-5 sub points in your presentation. Be specific using explanations, data and evidence to back up your points.

Step #3 State the benefits. Specifically state the benefits before and at the end of the body of your presentation.

Step #4 Develop handouts. Handouts should reinforce important points, summarize action items and include supporting data.

Step #5 Develop visual aids (PowerPoint slides, charts and graphs). Visual aids should be used to focus the attention of your audience, reinforce the verbal message and to

stimulate interest. Keep in mind that effective presentations are people-centered, not media-centered. Too many presentations rely on the media to carry the message. While the media can certainly help, it's your interaction and rapport with the audience that makes the difference between an effective or ineffective presentation.

Step #6 Main idea preview/review sentence (i.e. Tell them what you're going to tell them, tell them, then tell them what you told them).

Step #7 Develop the introduction. Get the audience to focus their attention on you, provide background information and introduce yourself – who you are and why you're qualified.

Step #8 Develop the conclusion. Your conclusion should be persuasive like a –call to action. Spell out what specifically they need to do, when and how.

PLANNING:

Planning your presentation is another component to becoming an effective speaker and presenter. There are essentially two steps that should be followed prior to delivering a presentation: 1) develop your objectives and 2) analyze your audience. In preparation, one must identify the values, needs and constraints of the attendees and the level of knowledge of the audience. For example, do not use slang, jargon, acronyms, or technical terms without explanation. It should also be determined in advance –what will work and –what won't work. In other words, what will gain you the most favorable reaction. In order to ascertain these items in advance, you should put yourself in the shoes of the people who will be listening to your presentation.

PREPARING AND DELIVERY:

The delivery of your presentation is another key to a successful presentation. An effective presentation should be delivered in the following sequence:

- Introduction
- Preview Sentence
- Main Ideas and Sub Ideas
- Benefits
- Review Sentence
- Conclusion

In order to come across to your audience as confident and persuasive, you should consider the way you physically deliver your points to your audience. The following are some helpful tips to help you achieve a level of confidence in delivering your presentation

BODY LANGUAGE:

- **Posture** – Stand up straight, but avoid being stiff. Do not shift your weight from side to side.
- **Movement** – Keep yourself at least 4-8 feet from the front row – don't pace!
- **Gestures** – Your presentation should be a form of animated conversation. Avoid keeping your hands in your pockets or on your hips, crossing your arms or wringing your hands.
- **Eye Contact** – Do not look at the back of the room or over their heads. Maintain good eye contact to build rapport, trust and confidence.
- **Using your Voice** – Avoid being monotone which is generally caused by anxiety. Also avoid talking too fast. When people are nervous, they sometimes trip on their words. Be cognizant of your volume. Make sure that everyone can hear you.

At the conclusion of a presentation, there is generally a question and answer session that should be prepared for in advance. To prepare for this last hurdle, you should anticipate the questions that you could potentially be asked ahead of time. The key is to prepare for the worst and rehearse your responses to such questions. The more you prepare your answers the more well versed and confident you will be.

One tip you might employ during the question and answer session is to repeat the question being asked. This will give you some additional time to prepare your response. In general, we think five times faster than we speak! Whatever you do, it is important that you maintain your style. If you don't know the answer to the question you are being asked, be honest and say that you don't know but that you will find out. Remember to really listen to the questions, do not interrupt and make sure that you stay focused on the individual asking the question. Finally, don't forget to thank your audience for all of their excellent question.

HANDLING:

- Don't read your presentation word-for-word from a script or from PowerPoint slides - listening to someone read aloud is boring for an audience. Aim to talk instead.
- Written and spoken language are different. Use appropriate language; generally a formal but conversational tone is best (avoid slang or colloquial language).
- Speak clearly and at a moderate pace. Don't rush; nervous speakers tend to speed up, so try to pace yourself.
- Slow down to emphasise key points.
- Don't be afraid to pause. Short pauses can add emphasis to important points and give you a chance to collect your thoughts.
- Make eye contact with your audience. Don't just look at your tutor or stare off into space. A good technique is to divide the room into three sections (left, middle and right) and sweep your eyes across the audience. If you don't want to look anyone in the eye, look at a point in the middle of their foreheads.
- Keep your body turned toward the audience and your body language open and friendly.

ANXIETY:

- One of the most important techniques you can apply to become a more confident and effective speaker is to reduce anxiety. If implemented, the following tips could help reduce your anxiety
- **Organize** – Focus on your presentation.
- **Visualize** – Mentally rehearse a perfect presentation with questions and answers.
- **Practice** – Standing up, out loud, using visual aids. Obtain feedback from others.
- **Breathe** – Sit up or stand erect, not relaxed. Inhale deeply a number of times.
- **Focus on Relaxing!**
- **Release Tension** – Try isometric exercises. Tighten and release your muscles. Start with toes and end with fists.
- **Move** – Flex your muscles – don't lock! Use a cordless microphone.
- **Eye Contact with the Audience** – Think one on one. Connect with the audience and make yourself personable. Use the feedback and energy you receive from your audience.

Strategies for giving oral presentation

An oral presentation is more than just reading a paper or set of slides to an audience. How you deliver your presentation is at least as important in effectively communicating your message as what you say. Use these guidelines to learn simple tools that help you prepare and present an effective presentation, and design PowerPoint slides that support and enhance your talk.

Preparing an Effective Presentation

An effective presentation is more than just standing up and giving information. A presenter must consider how best to communicate the information to the audience. Use these tips to create a presentation that is both informative and interesting:

- *Organize your thoughts.* Start with an outline and develop good transitions between sections. Emphasize the real-world significance of your research.
- *Have a strong opening.* Why should the audience listen to you? One good way to get their attention is to start with a question, whether or not you expect an answer.
- *Define terms early.* If you are using terms that may be new to the audience, introduce them early in your presentation. Once an audience gets lost in unfamiliar terminology, it is extremely difficult to get them back on track.
- *Finish with a bang.* Find one or two sentences that sum up the importance of your research. How is the world better off as a result of what you have done?
- *Design PowerPoint slides to introduce important information.* Consider doing a presentation without PowerPoint. Then consider which points you cannot make without slides. Create only those slides that are necessary to improve your communication with the audience.

- *Time yourself.* Do not wait until the last minute to time your presentation. You only have 15 minutes to speak, so you want to know, as soon as possible, if you are close to that limit.
- *Create effective notes for yourself.* Have notes that you can read. Do not write out your entire talk; use an outline or other brief reminders of what you want to say. Make sure the text is large enough that you can read it from a distance.
- *Practice, practice, practice.* The more you practice your presentation, the more comfortable you will be in front of an audience. Practice in front of a friend or two and ask for their feedback. Record yourself and listen to it critically. Make it better and do it again.

PowerPoint Tips

Microsoft PowerPoint is a tremendous tool for presentations. It is also a tool that is sometimes not used effectively. If you are using PowerPoint, use these tips to enhance your presentation:

- *Use a large font.* As a general rule, avoid text smaller than 24 point.
- *Use a clean typeface.* Sans serif typefaces, such as Arial, are generally easier to read on a screen than serif typefaces, such as Times New Roman.
- *Use bullet points, not complete sentences.* The text on your slide provides an outline to what you are saying. If the entire text of your presentation is on your slides, there is no reason for the audience to listen to you. A common standard is the 6/7 rule: no more than six bulleted items per slide and no more than seven words per item.
- *Use contrasting colors.* Use a dark text on a light background or a light text on a dark background. Avoid combinations of colors that look similar. Avoid red/green combinations, as this is the most common form of color blindness.
- *Use special effects sparingly.* Using animations, cool transition effects, sounds and other special effects is an effective way to make sure the audience notices your slides. Unfortunately, that means that they are not listening to what you are saying. Use special effects only when they are necessary to make a point.

Presenting Effectively

When you start your presentation, the audience will be interested in what you say. Use these tips to help keep them interested throughout your presentation:

- *Be excited.* You are talking about something exciting. If you remember to be excited, your audience will feel it and automatically become more interested.
- *Speak with confidence.* When you are speaking, you are the authority on your topic, but do not pretend that you know everything. If you do not know the answer to a question, admit it. Consider deferring the question to your mentor or offer to look into the matter further.
- *Make eye contact with the audience.* Your purpose is to communicate with your audience, and people listen more if they feel you are talking directly to them. As you speak, let your eyes settle on one person for several seconds

before moving on to somebody else. You do not have to make eye contact with everybody, but make sure you connect with all areas of the audience equally.

- *Avoid reading from the screen.* First, if you are reading from the screen, you are not making eye contact with your audience. Second, if you put it on your slide, it is because you wanted them to read it, not you.
- *Blank the screen when a slide is unnecessary.* A slide that is not related to what you are speaking about can distract the audience. Pressing the letter B or the period key displays a black screen, which lets the audience concentrate solely on your words. Press the same key to restore the display.
- *Use a pointer only when necessary.* If you are using a laser pointer, remember to keep it off unless you need to highlight something on the screen.
- *Explain your equations and graphs.* When you display equations, explain them fully. Point out all constants and dependent and independent variables. With graphs, tell how they support your point. Explain the x- and y-axes and show how the graph progresses from left to right.
- *Pause.* Pauses bring audible structure to your presentation. They emphasize important information, make transitions obvious, and give the audience time to catch up between points and to read new slides. Pauses always feel much longer to speakers than to listeners. Practice counting silently to three (slowly) between points.
- *Avoid filler words.* Um, like, you know, and many others. To an audience, these are indications that you do not know what to say; you sound uncomfortable, so they start to feel uncomfortable as well. Speak slowly enough that you can collect your thoughts before moving ahead. If you really do not know what to say, pause silently until you do.
- *Relax.* It is hard to relax when you are nervous, but your audience will be much more comfortable if you are too.
- *Breathe.* It is fine to be nervous. In fact, you should be all good presenters are nervous every time they are in front of an audience. The most effective way to keep your nerves in check aside from a lot of practice before hand is to remember to breathe deeply throughout your presentation.
- *Acknowledge the people who supported your research.* Be sure to thank the people who made your research possible, including your mentor, research team, collaborators, and other sources of funding and support.

Lec 8	Field diary – Definition – Components to be included – Parts of field diary – Field diary in social sciences
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Definition:

Fieldnotes refer to qualitative notes recorded by scientists or researchers in the course of field research, during or after their observation of a specific phenomenon they are studying. The notes are intended to be read as evidence that gives meaning and aids in the understanding of the phenomenon.

Refers to notes created by the researcher during the act of qualitative fieldwork to remember and record the behaviors, activities, events, and other features of an observation. Field notes are intended to be read by the researcher as evidence to produce meaning and an understanding of the culture, social situation, or phenomenon being studied. The notes may constitute the whole data collected for a research study [e.g., an observational project] or contribute to it, such as when field notes supplement conventional interview data.

Components of Field diary:

Fieldnotes can also include sketches, diagrams, and other drawings. Visually capturing a phenomenon requires the observer to pay more attention to every detail as to not overlook anything.

Parts of Field diary:

However, all field notes generally consist of two parts:

Descriptive information: in which you attempt to accurately document factual data [e.g., date and time] and the settings, actions, behaviors, and conversations that you observe; and,

Reflective information: in which you record your thoughts, ideas, questions, and concerns as you are conducting the observation.

Field notes should be fleshed out as soon as possible after an observation is completed. Your initial notes may be recorded in cryptic form and, unless additional detail is added as soon as possible after the observation, important facts and opportunities for fully interpreting the data may be lost.

Field diary in social science:

The purpose of a field report in the social sciences is to describe the observation of people, places, and/or events and to analyze that observation data in order to identify and categorize common themes in relation to the research problem underpinning the study.

Field reports are most often assigned in disciplines of the applied social sciences [e.g., social work, anthropology, gerontology, criminal justice, education, law, the health care professions] where it is important to build a bridge of relevancy between the theoretical concepts learned in the classroom and the practice of actually doing the work you are being taught to do. Field reports are also common in certain science disciplines [e.g., geology] but these reports are organized differently and serve a different purpose than what is described below.

Professors will assign a field report with the intention of improving your understanding of key theoretical concepts through a method of careful and structured observation of, and reflection about, people, places, or phenomena existing in their

natural settings. Field reports facilitate the development of data collection techniques and observation skills and they help you to understand how theory applies to real world situations. Field reports are also an opportunity to obtain evidence through methods of observing professional practice that contribute to or challenge existing theories.

We are all observers of people, their interactions, places, and events; however, your responsibility when writing a field report is to create a research study based on data generated by the act of designing a specific study, deliberate observation, a synthesis of key findings, and an interpretation of their meaning.

Examples of Things to Document While Observing

Physical setting. The characteristics of an occupied space and the human use of the place where the observation(s) are being conducted.

Objects and material culture. This refers to the presence, placement, and arrangement of objects that impact the behavior or actions of those being observed. If applicable, describe the cultural artifacts representing the beliefs--values, ideas, attitudes, and assumptions--used by the individuals you are observing.

Use of language. Don't just observe but listen to what is being said, how is it being said, and, the tone of conversation among participants.

Behavior cycles. This refers to documenting when and who performs what behavior or task and how often they occur. Record at which stage is this behavior occurring within the setting.

The order in which events unfold. Note sequential patterns of behavior or the moment when actions or events take place and their significance.

Physical characteristics of subjects. If relevant, note age, gender, clothing, etc. of individuals being observed.

Expressive body movements. This would include things like body posture or facial expressions. Note that it may be relevant to also assess whether expressive body movements support or contradict the language used in conversation [e.g., detecting sarcasm].

Brief notes about all of these examples contextualize your observations; however, your observation notes will be guided primarily by your theoretical framework, keeping in mind that your observations will feed into and potentially modify or alter these frameworks.

Lec 9	Lab record : Definition –Importance of keeping a lab record - Features of a lab record - Contents of lab record – Guidelines for keeping a lab record
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LAB RECORDS:

Laboratory notebooks are the means for keeping a permanent record of the details of an individual's day-to-day research and development work in the laboratory or office. They provide a basic reference which the individual and others can refer to a later date; legal evidence with respect to the materials recorded, such as conception of an invention and the date thereof or date of reduction to practice and test results; in some instances are required for compliance with the provisions in many grant and contractual arrangements.

A **laboratory notebook** is a primary record of [research](#). Researchers use a lab notebook to document their [hypotheses](#), [experiments](#) and initial analysis or interpretation of these experiments. The notebook serves as an organizational tool, a memory aid, and can also have a role in protecting any [intellectual property](#) that comes from the research.

Importance of keeping a lab records:

An inventor is the person who contributes to the conception of the invention. Therefore, it is important that the scientist captures his/her ideas/conception of an invention in written format. Laboratory notebooks, if used properly, can serve as the basis of conception for proving inventorship.

For proper support of patenting application, good record keeping must have been done in the form of lab notebooks with appropriate witnessing. There are dos and don'ts in best practices for NIH scientists to follow for keeping lab records and notebooks:

Do:

- use a bound notebook
- write legibly
- write in ink
- explain acronyms, trademarks, code or unfamiliar jargon
- attach to your lab notebook loose notes, emails, letters, graphs, figures and charts containing any part of conception of an idea or result of an experiment
- title, sign and date each attachment, as well as each laboratory notebook page
- record the objective of an experiment as well as the results obtained in as much detail as possible
- have at least one non-inventor person who is familiar with your field sign and date each page, stating that he/she has —read and understood your work
- obtain a signed and dated statement from collaborators and/or contractors who carry out the experiments you designed, stating "experiments run by [insert

contractor/ collaborator name], under the direction of [insert the experiment designer's name]]

- record thoughts, conversations, lab meeting discussions, contractor oral reports and discussions, as well as wild speculations and future plans
- write in the active voice
- report completed experiments in the past tense
- give cross references to previous experiments and/or projects
- use a table of contents to provide cross references
- keep your lab notebook under lock and key when you are not in the lab
- track and save completed lab notebooks

Do not:

1. use binders, loose leaf or spiral notebooks
2. blot out or erase mistakes
3. modify the data
4. rip pages out
5. skip pages
6. leave a page blank
7. cover any writings in the notebook by affixing graphs and/or charts over them
8. write in the passive voice
9. use words such as -obvious or -abandoned as they have tremendous legal significance

Features of lab records:

Record keeping of laboratory activities is an essential requirement under Good Documentary Practices (GDP). An earlier article covered the importance of keeping record of all laboratory activities. A laboratory notebook is a record of experimental activities. In addition to the results a notebook includes following details:

- Calculations
- Experimental conditions
- Observations
- Weight records
- Support data such as chromatograms, spectra, etc

The backup data available in the laboratory notebook is of use in case a recheck of obtained values becomes necessary. In such cases you can refer to the earlier conditions under which a particular analysis was carried out.

Content of lab records:

- Data should be recorded honestly and concurrently
- Overwriting is not acceptable. Wrong entries should be crossed with a single line and correct entries made after putting initials and date over the corrected entries

- Changes in any standard test procedure should bear authentication of authorized persons
- Weighing records, absorbance readings, etc should be preserved in notebook or under reference in the data folder
- Entries should be made with indelible ink and under no circumstances should pencil entries be permitted
- It is illegal to make post dated or back dated entries in the notebook.

Issue and control of laboratory notebooks

- Each laboratory note notebook should be issued by laboratory incharge or quality assurance department and should be uniform in shape and size
- Pages should be serially numbered so that no page can be removed
- Enough space should be provided to show calculations alongside the entered data
- No one should be permitted to take a laboratory notebook out of the laboratory premises
- On completion each notebook should be returned to section in charge and only thereafter a fresh notebook should be issued. The section in charge should maintain a record of notebooks issued and received back

Guidelines for keeping a lab records:

On leaving a job the notebook in possession of the analyst should be returned to the section. The guidelines for lab notebooks vary widely between institution and between individual labs, but some guidelines are fairly common, for example, like those in the reference.^[3] The lab notebook is typically permanently bound and pages are numbered. Dates are given as a rule. All entries are with a permanent writing tool, e.g., a ballpoint pen (though a [permanent marker](#) may be undesirable, as the ink might bleed through multiple pages). The lab notebook is usually written as the experiments progress, rather than at a later date.

In many laboratories, it is the original place of record of data (no copying is carried out from other notes) as well as any observations or insights. For data recorded by other means (e.g., on a computer), the lab notebook will record that the data was obtained and the identification of the data set will be given in the notebook.^[4] Many adhere to the concept that a lab notebook should be thought of as a diary of activities that are described in sufficient detail to allow another scientist to replicate the steps. In laboratories with several staff and a common laboratory notebook, entries in the notebook are signed by those making them.

Lecture 11 - Indexing – Definition – Importance – Types of indexing with advantages and limitations

In general, indexing refers to the organization of data according to a specific schema or plan. In IT, the term has various similar uses including, among other things, making information more presentable and accessible.

-Indexing is a theory of news content and press-state relations first formulated as the **-in**

dexing hypothesis. ... **Indexing** theory thus attempts to predict the nature of the content of news about political and policy topics.

Importance of Indexing

Digital Index. Digital **indexing** is a way of finding documents but on a computer system, not in an office. Businesses use software to help file records, and **indexing** involves titling files and adding keywords. File names are **important** because they must be searchable.

Index is not something publishers put at the end of the book because of tradition. It is included to help readers locate **important** information contained in the text. Indexes should support all levels of user subject experience.

Book Index/Page Index

A **book or page index** involves a large bound volume set up alphabetically. It looks like a large version of an address book with the alphabet laid out on the right side of the index. This makes it easy to open the book to the right section. The records are notated within the book and state where each is located in the office. The files can be filed by name of the client, of their business, or however is easiest to remember. The system should be uniform throughout/

Card Index

Card indexing is usually seen in large libraries. The records are notated on strong quality cards of a uniform size, then filed in a cabinet in an order specific to the business. The cards can be filed alphabetically or numerically (i.e. invoice numbers). This allows for constant adding of records over time, because the cards can be added to the original set without any issues. Card indexing uses individual and unattached cards so the card can be pulled out of the file and put back when needed.

Strip Index

Strip indexing is a rarer form of indexing. Visualize a set of small strips on card stock, placed so each is visible. These strips are then attached on the left by binding string/ribbon or metal rings. This will make all records visible instead of having to thumb through them. The strip index can hang up on a wall. This also means that this system cannot carry as much information on the strip. The records can be indexed per the business need, alphabetically or numerically would be find

Rotary Index

A **rotary index** is the classic style that you see in the image above. It is similar to the card index but placed in a simple wheel, so the numeric or alphabetic filing system on top of the cards is visible. Rotaries can contain many files, and cards can be added as more records are created. Since most sit atop desks, rotary indexes are cumbersome, but they make records accessible to everyone.

Advantages

- Speed up SELECT query
- Helps to make a row unique or without duplicates(primary,unique)
- If index is set to full-text index, then we can search against large string values. for example to find a word from a sentence etc.

Disadvantages

- Indexes take additional disk space.
- Indexes slow down INSERT,UPDATE and DELETE, but will speed up UPDATE if the WHERE condition has an indexed field. INSERT, UPDATE and DELETE becomes slower because on each operation the indexes must also be updated.

Lecture 12 - Footnote and Bibliographic procedure : Footnote system of citation ; Bibliographic procedures : Citation in Text, Citation in Journal, Citation from Book(One author / Multiple authors), Citation from an Edited Book, Citation of Seminar/Conference Proceedings, Citation from Institutional Publication, Citing Government Publications, Abbreviations for Names of Journals, Paraphrasing, Abbreviations in citations (Art of publication)

CITATION STYLE GUIDE

The following examples were formatted using Endnote software. They are in the style proposed in

A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations, by **Kate L. Turabian**, sixth edition, revised by John Grossman and Alice Bennett, 1996. A copy of the Manual is available at the Reference Desk for further consultation, as are the manuals for several other styles. You may want to ask your professor which style is preferred.

- Note the differences between the format for a **footnote** and the format for a **bibliography** entry.
- The first footnote citation to an item should be a full reference, but later citations to the same item may be shortened in the style shown at the end of this guide.
- If you are using **parenthetical** citations instead of footnotes, the list of works cited is called the **reference list**, and the entries are in a different format

Footnote (Important points in the form of notes)

Footnotes are the notes meant for the simplification of a view point. This means that a particular point of expression or quotation, citation of sources, acknowledgement or authority / comments are explained separately from the body of the written text or in other words it is also known as explanatory notes. It is therefore, generally used in explaining quotations or points/text which may or may not be necessary for the immediate matter but still holds a value added supplementary content/ information. It is also used to acknowledge the source of information one has taken or what is called your copyright permission footnotes.

Footnotes are generally placed at the bottom of the page on which the quotation or text is given or appeared. The footnotes should be written with proper references based on the nature of sources, authors, page numbers etc. Some people use endnotes instead of footnotes on a separate page at the end of everything else.i.e. after the references.

Some important points/format in the writing up of footnotes are:

- The note number should be recorded successively in a superscripted form
- Notes are written single spaced while, the first line is always indented upto five spaces
- The space/distance between two notes are doubled spacing
- A space is maintained between the footnotes and the text usually by a typed line.

Let us have a look at this image of footnote:

This shows two sections, one is the text/content and other is the footnote divided by a typed line. In the body of the text, we observe note numbers which are successively recorded as 1,2,3 and 4 in a superscripted form. Now, at the bottom of the page, notes are written in single spacing while double spacing is reported in between the notes. You also might have noticed the abbreviations such as *ibid*, *op.cit*, etc. In a piece of work, if the very next quotation is again cited from the same source which has already mentioned in the previous quotation/note number then one uses the abbreviation *ibid* followed by a page reference. While, *op.cit*, is used when the first quotation or note is referenced fully in the endnote and this source is again used for citation in the same work. This is also meant short referencing in the work already quoted. *Ibid* and *op.cit*, are always followed by page number or numbers represented by p or pp.

However, recent trend in writing footnotes and also end notes avoided to use the Latin terms *ibid* and *op.cit* instead, it is becoming more common to use the author's last name or short title or any basic minimal information in case of the absence of author's name. And each of the entry is considered as one sentence or statement.

The whole idea of using footnotes is very common and recommended in the MLA (Modern Language Association) Style Guide while APA does not encourage for it. The use of *ibid* and *op.cit* is not considered in the APA Style Guide as in-text citation (source of information being provided in the text of the write up particularly author name and year of publication) is the mandate referencing style of it and referring to the same source can be done without the year of publication in the succeeding information however, upon the beginning of a new paragraph, author's name and year of publication is required to be used in the in-text citation.

Reference (lists of sources used in a paper or a report)

It is often misunderstood as the simplest or difficult task of recording all the significant sources or literatures one has worked in relation to a particular topic. In real sense, it is not that much simple or difficult but the product of regular practise where the students need to be well structured and diligent. For this, they need to find out the suggested format and follow a style guide to report the sources or citations mentioned in the report for developing a systematic way of keeping records of sources efficiently and effectively which will allow in authentication as well as credibility of the work without having any controversies of plagiarism.

Referencing is a good academic training to acknowledge the sources properly, referring the work of people also help in generating new ideas, gaining efficiency, strengthening one's arguments on a particular piece of work. But when referencing the sources, should we reference every source that we have read. We should use referencing each time whenever we read a source and referred something using a direct quote or words from a source and paraphrases meaning that putting someone's idea into our own words. And also, all the referencing should be kept in the reference list.

References generally appeared in the form of a list at the end of the papers (in case of articles) or reports (in case of a research study). The nature of position and its representation varies from one style guide to another. For example APA (American Psychological Association) style of referencing is different from the MLA (Modern Language Association) style of referencing. First step for learning referencing is familiarisation of a particular style guide so that you do not have problems in the future while following a prescribed style of referencing. Let us take APA style as one for your practise and try to understand the rules/format of referencing given under it.

Some important points for writing references: (APA style Guide)

- Reference list should be entered in alphabetic order.
- Authors' names are inverted i.e. last name is written first. Initials are abbreviated and used punctuations accordingly. If the authors are more than seven, first six would be listed and then would use ellipses and at the end after the ellipses the last author would be listed.
- Year of publication should be entered just after the authors' names followed by titles of the book, book chapters, journal articles, webpages, magazines etc.
- All major words in journal titles should be capitalized.
- Capitalization is only for the first letter of the first word of the title and subtitle and proper nouns. Capitalization is not done for the first letter of the second word in a hyphenated word in case of referencing books, articles, book chapters, or webpages or of any sources.
- Books and journal titles should be italicized including the volume number in case of the Journals.
- The titles of shorter works such as journal articles or essays in edited collections should not be italicised or quoted. Instead, italicization is done for the title of the edited collections.

- Referencing different articles by the same or multiple authors are listed in order by the year of publication, beginning with the first.

Let us discuss at the work sheet provided to understand the referencing format of APA Style:

Recommended format

Single Author Book:

- Kavoori , P. (1999). *Pastoralism in expansion: The transhumant herders of Western Rajasthan*. New Delhi: Oxford University Press.

Two authors book:

- Gadgil,M. &Guha, R. (1992). *This fissured land: An ecological history of India*. Delhi: Oxford University Press. [use ampersand (&) , not and in writing authors more than one however, it should be –and in case of in-text citation. i.e. when you refer the authors' name in the body of the text]

Articles in Periodicals:

- Kuehn, B. M. (2005).Experts charge new US dietary guidelines pose daunting challenge for the public. *JAMA (Journal of the American Medical Association)*, 293 (8), 918-920.

[Journal title is italicised along with the volume number. In case of APA style guide pagination is done without p/pp.]

If a student has difficulty in following and writing the full references, he/she may jot down only the short references. For example:

Kuehn, B. M. (2005).

However, this is only for the first time learners and is not encouraged rather go through the examples and analyse it carefully, practise frequently and you will gain familiarity with the format of referencing. Once you are familiar with a particular format/style guide, you will be able to pick up any of the referencing style conveniently.

Each of the references recorded in the list at the end of the article/report is the detailed account of the citations/quotations which was mentioned in the body of the text. We need to make sure that the necessary information is included and correct to the best level of knowledge meaning thereby that no discrepancy is surfaced. Now, let us try to practise/analyse a particular format of referencing a book source which is going to be helpful in familiarising on what we include in reference. They are:

- The author(s)/ Editor(s) (ed.)
- The author's initials
- Title (subtitle , if present)
- Year/Date of Publication
- Place of publication
- The publisher

In case of Journal articles, we may note the elements such as :

- The author(s)
- The author's initials

- Title of the article (subtitle , if present)
- Year of Publication
- Name of the journal
- The volume and issue number of the journal
- The starting and ending page numbers

Once it is noted, you would become familiarise to arrange the points in relation to the particular prescribed format which is supposed to be followed.

Bibliography (science of listing books)

Bibliography is the representation of a list of sources (books, journals, websites, periodicals, etc.) which includes information such as author, title, year of publication; publishing house/publisher etc. These sources are the one which a researcher used for researching a topic. This has got similarity with references or sometimes used as references however, the two terminologies are different in ideas and also in representation. References are the listing of those sources which are referred in the text or body of the paper or what is called in text-citation.

Thus, those references mentioned inside the text particularly in the form of quotations and paraphrases mentioning page numbers would be compulsorily listed in the references however, the sources enlisted in the bibliography may or may not be part of such references referred inside the text but remain relevant to the research topic. It is therefore the listing of all sources you have read including those you made references inside the text. And the listing format of bibliography remain same with the above discussed examples of referencing but the differences in between the two (references and bibliography) is in the enlisting of sources only.

Appendix

It is the information which cannot be included in the main body of a write up but need to be explained or provided at the end in case of any requirement. In other words, it is the extra information provided to the reader for the purpose of detail knowledge generation. Appendices are the materials/information which are too detailed, technical or complex one has used or referred but not always remain essential as part of the main body of the report. Appendices are listed in detail at the very end of the report which can be numbered clearly for convenience. The numbered appendices can be referred within the parenthesis inside the text.

It can be tables, questionnaire, data, figures, maps, local terminologies, or jargons related to the study topic which has already referred inside the text.

Suppose, you are reading a report or a book and a representative table is analysed in the text or main body, you may get the details of the data present in the table in the form of questionnaires/schedules at the end of the report as appendix where, good numbers of questions are set to gather the reported data in the table. This generally answers lot of queries of the readers or provided a good source of knowledge for related studies.

So, an appendix is the organised way of putting supplementary information that will provide a scope to the reader in understanding the material presented. The first step for making appendix is the systematic categorisation of the information. Next task is the

naming of the appendix. If there is a single appendix, it may be titled as Appendix or Appendix A and if it is more than one,

appendices can be Appendix A, Appendix B, Appendix C... and so on. After the finalisation of appendices, each appendix should be kept on its own separate pages. We should also try to follow the style we use in the main part of the text in order to maintain a consistency. One can use different font styles in the body but the major headings should be kept not below 7 points.

Conclusion

The way in which researchers and academicians use scientific writings to incorporate various elements are discussed in this module and this can be considered as the tip of a highly standardised self-conscious and reflexive domain of understanding writing up process of any essay or paper. The above descriptions and illuminations of the scientific terminologies of research write-up are in fact the powerhouse of gaining the credibility and efficiency of the overall product of a researching topic or a paper. All these are the representative body to show the relevance of what has been studied and recorded in answering a statement of problem. These are the points where, one can think of establishing or exploring new ideas or theories or in a way a lighted bulb to develop new avenues for study.

READING SKILLS

DEFINITION:

Reading skills is the ability of an individual to read, comprehend and interpret written words on a page of an article or any other **reading** material. The possession of a good **reading skill** will enable the individual to be able to assimilate a written work within a short period while **reading**.

KINDS OF READING SKILLS:

1. Loud reading
2. Silent reading
3. Intensive reading
4. Extensive reading
5. Supplementary reading

LOUD READING:

This is also known as oral or aloud reading. Loud reading should be introduced after the students have been given some training in two months on the points concerning pronunciation, intonation, stress, pitch and other aspects of spoken English.

Following exercises will help students,

1. Exercise with pace and pause.
2. Correcting your pitch range.
3. Practice using pitch to reflect the emotional content of your speech.

SILENT READING:

Silent reading is considered to be the best kind of reading as the mind is fully engaged in this act. The children should be initiated into reading silently as soon as they have mastered some degree of fluency of reading aloud. **Morrison** has said, — Loud reading by students should be followed by silent reading. Silent reading is a quick way of reading through a passage. Silent reading saves time and energy. The students find it an interesting way of reading.

INTENSIVE READING:

Intensive reading is a detailed study of the prescribed text in order to train the students is an important aspect of language teaching, i.e. reading. According to Jespersen,|| To keep them occupied with the text repeatedly in such a way that they do not lose sight in the meaning, so that they may thus become so familiar with it at last that they know it almost or entirely by heart, without having been directly required to commit it to memory.||

EXTENSIVE READING:

Extensive reading is also known as rapid reading or independent reading. Extensive reading to read silently and quickly in order to understand the subject matter and derive the meaning as a whole without the help of the teacher and expand passive vocabulary. Extensive reading: reading longer texts, usually for one's own pleasure. This is a fluency activity, mainly involving global understanding.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING:

Supplementary reading quite resembles intensive reading. It is carried out under the direct control and general supervision of the teacher. Extensive reading is the most important aspect of supplementary reading, as such it is also called subsidiary reading. The chief purpose of supplementary reading is to supplement intensive reading of a detailed prose lesson.

CRITICAL READING SKILLS:

Critical reading is a more ACTIVE way of **reading**. It is a deeper and more complex engagement with a text. **Critical reading** is a process of analyzing, interpreting and, sometimes, evaluating. When we read **critically**, we use our **critical** thinking **skills** to QUESTION both the text and our own **reading** of it.

Five critical reading skills were found to be very important for improvement:

- Phonemic awareness.
- Phonics.
- Fluency.
- Vocabulary.
- Comprehension.

READINESS SKILLS:

- Print awareness: Print awareness is the understanding that the print on a page represents words that have meaning and are related to spoken language.
- Letter knowledge.
- Phonological awareness.
- Listening comprehension.
- Motivation to read.

GUIDELINES FOR EFFECTIVE READING:

- Read actively, using judgement to pay attention to what the author is trying to convey through the printed text.
- Use ‘eye – span’ to read a group of words at one attempt instead of focusing on each individual word.
- Avoid vocalizing, i.e. uttering the individual words either loudly or saying them to yourself. This hampers the speed of reading to increase your reading speed.
- Remember every kind of reading requires the same fast reading rate. Some text need slow-in depth and intensive reading while others require a faster rate.
- Develop the habit of reading everyday to increase your reading rate.
- Note down the unfamiliar words you find in the reading material in a notebook.
- Consult a good dictionary to find the meaning and usage of new words you have come across reading. This will help you increase your vocabulary.

EXTENSIVE READING:

Extensive reading has been strongly recommended by Indian Education Commission (1964-66). This type of reading is also known as rapid reading or independent reading. The teacher plays the role of the supervisor while the students carry it out independently. Extensive reading to read silently and quickly in order to understand the subject matter and derive the meaning as a whole without the help of the teacher and expand passive vocabulary. According to Thompson and Wyatt,|| The main purpose of extensive reading is the cultivation of taste for reading and it seeks by encouraging the habit of visualizing what is read to make reading a form of visual instruction.||

Extensive reading: reading longer texts, usually for one's own pleasure. This is a fluency activity, mainly involving global understanding.

Objectives of extensive reading

The objectives of extensive reading are:

1. To develop the habit of self-study in the students.
2. To develop the taste for reading in the students.
3. To enable the students to understand the meaning of the given passage as early as possible.
4. To increase the passive vocabulary of the students.
5. To develop the power of concentration.
6. To read for pleasure and recreation.

INTENSIVE READING:

Intensive reading is a detailed study of the prescribed text in order to train the students is an important aspect of language teaching, i.e. reading. According to Jespersen,|| To keep them occupied with the text repeatedly in such a way that they do not lose sight in the meaning, so that they may thus become so familiar with it at last that they know it almost or entirely by heart, without having been directly required to commit it to memory.||

Intensive reading: reading shorter texts, to extract specific information. This is more an accuracy activity involving reading for detail.

Objectives of intensive reading

The objectives of intensive reading are:

1. The aim is to make a detailed study of words, phrases, word order and expressions, thus entirely dealing with the sentence structure.
2. The aim is to enable the students to comprehend the text, its sense and meaning.
3. The aim is to enable the students to improve and command over English and increase comprehension of the texts that they come across with expanding vocabulary.
4. It encourages the students to gather information from the text.

COMPREHENSION:**DEFINITION:****Durkins's definition:**

-Intentional thinking during which meaning is constructed through interactions between text and reader||

MEANING:

Comprehension is the complex cognitive process involving the intentional interaction between reader and text to extract meaning. It is the ability to construct meaning and learn from text using a variety of applied strategies.

COMPREHENSION SKILLS:

Examples of comprehension skills that can be taught and applied to all reading situation are as follows,

- Summarizing
- Sequencing
- Inferencing
- Comparing and contrasting
- Drawing conclusions
- Self – questioning
- Problem solving
- Relating background knowledge
- Distinguishing between fact and opinion
- Finding the main idea, important Facts and supporting details.

These skills are particularly important for comprehending what is generally known as information reading or expository reading.

READABILITY INDEX:

The **automated readability index (ARI)** is a [readability test](#) for [English](#) texts, designed to gauge the understandability of a text.

Formula for readability index is as follows,

$$ARI = 4.71(\text{characters /words}) + (\text{words/sentences}) - 21.43$$

In fact, this index was designed for real-time monitoring of readability on electric typewriters.

S.No	AGE	GRADE LEVEL
1	5-6	Kindergarden
2	6-7	First/Second grade
3	7-9	Third grade
4	9-10	Fourth grade
5	10-11	Fifth grade
6	11-12	Sixth grade
7	12-13	Seventh grade
8	13-14	Eighth grade

9	14-15	Ninth grade
10	15-16	Tenth grade
11	16-17	Eleventh grade
12	17-18	Twelfth grade
13	18-24	College student
14	24+	Professor

PRECISE WRITING:

DERIVATION:

‘Precis’ is a latin word derived from the french word ‘Praecissus’ which means cut off, to be brief and is connected with the English word ‘Precis’.

MEANING:

A precis is a summary or the list of the main ideas of written matter. Thus, precis writing means summarizing. It is an exercise in concentration, comprehension and condensation. In order to make a summary of an article, a speech or a story, one has to read it carefully and grasp its meaning.

SKILLS REQUIRED FOR PRECIS WRITING:

1) **Clarity:** A précis is a crisp formation of information of the passage and it should be as crisp as possible. It should convey what the writer is trying to say. Clarity is essentially getting your ideas loud and clear.

2) **Coherence:**

It clearly means that ideas and views that you have presented should be logical and the interconnections of the ideas should be proper.

3) **Correctness:**

Although your précis is a short information, it is equally important that you do not make any mistakes while writing it.

4) **Conciseness:**

Conciseness means that the précis should contain all the information required while not mentioning it in depth. It should not be too long either too short and both of these should not have any impact while writing a précis.

5) **Completeness:**

A good précis should be able to produce all the facts while being short. The important thing you should remember is it be a summary and not a short description of the passage.

METHODS OF PRECIS WRITING:

1) First of all, one should read the passage two or three times carefully to understand clearly its general theme. In short, comprehension of the passage is the first step in precis-writing .

2) Secondly, it is necessary to write down the main points of the passage by picking out the essential ideas and leaving out the unimportant details. Repetitions, illustrations and examples can be eliminated. Sentences and clauses may also be compressed into shorter by using, for instance, a word for a phrase, a phrase for a

clause and so on. In compressing a passage, selection, rejection and generalisation are often useful.

3) Next, write down a preliminary or a rough draft, keeping in mind the length of the précis.

4) If it is necessary to provide a title to the summary, a short title may be given which will express the ideas in the passage.

5) While making the final draft, one should make sure that all the main points are included in the précis. One should also check whether the précis reads well and is within the length prescribed.

PROCEDURE :

- Start your précis with the main idea so that the reader can quickly understand the essence of the précis.
- One should know beforehand as to what should they expect in the written précis.
- While writing a précis, make a suitable environment where all the points can be described and discussed equally.
- As the main idea or the essence is established , you can follow it up with some methods, facts, points, etc.
- Removing the irrelevant data or sentence is as important as writing the relevant points.
- Identify the superfluous data and facts and keep the core idea of the work only in the précis.
- Also, remember to put the purpose as to why you are writing a précis in the writing piece.
- This will help the reader understand what you wrote in the précis.

GUIDELINES FOR PRECISE WRITING:

- Decide theme of the passage.
- No reproduction of important sentences.
- Have brevity and clarity.
- Reflects the intelligence of the précis-writer.
- Use own language.
- Avoid direct speech and use indirect speech.
- Inclusion of statistical information.
- Observe proportion.
- No comments but conclusion.
- One third of the original passage.

SUMMARISING:

MEANING:

Summarising is an important skill that is often used when researching, gathering or presenting information. A summary is a shortened version of a longer text. It should not contain unnecessary detail or be written like an essay.

A good example of summarizing is preparing a curriculum vitae (CV). The person reading your CV should be able to make a decision about whether or not you have the necessary skills and experience for the job.

STEPS TO WRITE SUMMARY:

- Read the article to be summarized and be sure you understand it.
- Outline the article. Note the major points.
- Write a first draft of the summary without looking at the article.
- Always use paraphrase when writing a summary. If you do copy a phrase from the original be sure it is a very important phrase that is necessary and cannot be paraphrased. In this case put —quotation marks around the phrase.
- Target your first draft for approximately $\frac{1}{4}$ the length of the original.

Lecture 15 - Abstracting : Definition - Purpose of abstract – Types of abstract - Abstract Styles – Steps for Writing Effective Abstracts- Some Do's Don'ts in preparing abstracts

An abstract is a self-contained, short, and powerful statement that describes a larger work. Components vary according to discipline. An abstract of a social science or scientific work may contain the scope, purpose, results, and contents of the work. An abstract of a humanities work may contain the thesis, background, and conclusion of the larger work. An abstract is not a review, nor does it evaluate the work being abstracted. While it contains key words found in the larger work, the abstract is an original document rather than an excerpted passage.

Purposes for Abstracts:

Abstracts typically serve five main goals:

Help readers decide if they should read an entire article

Readers use abstracts to see if a piece of writing interests them or relates to a topic they're working on. Rather than tracking down hundreds of articles, readers rely on abstracts to decide quickly if an article is pertinent. Equally important, readers use abstracts to help them gauge the sophistication or complexity of a piece of writing. If the abstract is too technical or too simplistic, readers know that the article will also be too technical or too simplistic.

Help readers and researchers remember key findings on a topic

Even after reading an article, readers often keep abstracts to remind them of which sources support conclusions. Because abstracts include complete bibliographic citations, they are helpful when readers begin writing up their research and citing sources.

Help readers understand a text by acting as a pre-reading outline of key points

Like other pre-reading strategies, reading an abstract before reading an article helps readers anticipate what's coming in the text itself. Using an abstract to get an overview of the text makes reading the text easier and more efficient.

Index articles for quick recovery and cross-referencing

Even before computers made indexing easier, abstracts helped librarians and researchers find information more easily. With so many indexes now available electronically, abstracts with their keywords are even more important because readers can review hundreds of abstracts quickly to find the ones most useful for their research. Moreover, cross-referencing through abstracts opens up new areas of research that readers might not have known about when they started researching a topic.

Allow supervisors to review technical work without becoming bogged down in details

Although many managers and supervisors will prefer the less technical executive summary, some managers need to keep abreast of technical work. Research shows that only 15% of managers read the complete text of reports or articles. Most managers, then, rely on the executive summary or abstract as the clearest overview of employees' work.

Types of Abstracts

Although you'll see two types of abstracts—informative and descriptive—most writers now provide informative abstracts of their work.

Descriptive Abstract

A descriptive abstract outlines the topics covered in a piece of writing so the reader can decide whether to read the entire document. In many ways, the descriptive abstract is like a table of contents in paragraph form. Unlike reading an informative abstract, reading a descriptive abstract cannot substitute for reading the document because it does not capture the content of the piece. Nor does a descriptive abstract fulfill the other main goals of abstracts as well as informative abstracts do. For all these reasons, descriptive abstracts are less and less common. Check with your instructor or the editor of the journal to which you are submitting a paper for details on the appropriate type of abstract for your audience.

Informative Abstract

An informative abstract provides detail about the substance of a piece of writing because readers will sometimes rely on the abstract alone for information. Informative abstracts typically follow this format:

1. Identifying information (bibliographic citation or other identification of the document)
2. Concise restatement of the main point, including the initial problem or other background
3. Methodology (for experimental work) and key findings
4. Major conclusions

Informative abstracts usually appear in indexes like *Dissertation Abstracts International*; however, your instructor may ask you to write one as a cover sheet to a paper as well.

A More Detailed Comparison of Descriptive vs. Informative

The typical distinction between descriptive and informative is that the descriptive abstract is like a table of contents whereas the informative abstract lays out the content of

the document. To show the differences as clearly as possible, we compare a shortened Table of Contents for a 100-page legal argument presented by the FDA and an informative abstract of the judge's decision in the case.

Steps for writing effective abstracts:

Writing an effective abstracts involves a whole manuscript providing as much as new information as possible. The best way to write an effective abstract is to start with a draft of the complete manuscript and follow these 10 steps:

1. Identify the major objectives and conclusions.
2. Identify phrases with keywords in the methods section.
3. Identify the major results from the discussion or results section.
4. Assemble the above information into a single paragraph.
5. State your hypothesis or method used in the first sentence.
6. Omit background information, literature review, and detailed description of methods.
7. Remove extra words and phrases.
8. Revise the paragraph so that the abstract conveys only the essential information.
9. Check to see if it meets the guidelines of the targeted journal.
10. Give the abstract to a colleague (preferably one who is not familiar with your work) and ask him/her whether it makes a sense.

☐ Writing an effective abstracts involves will improve the chances of your manuscript being accepted, encourage people to read it, and increase its impact.

A number of studies have indicated that a badly written manuscript with poor use of English, even with good science, has less chance of being accepted and published.

Abstracts Do's and Don't's:

Do:

- ◆ Create a concise title that is interesting and descriptive of the technical paper or research.
- ◆ Limit use of abbreviation. Define them on their first use.
- ◆ State the paper or research objective clearly in the introduction/background.
- ◆ Make sure the result or conclusion relates to an argument presented or explanation provided.
- ◆ Relate the conclusion to the study objective
- ◆ Include scientific units, when appropriate.
- ◆ Read and follow all abstract specifications.
- ◆ Use clear and concise wording.
- ◆ Use the active voice rather than the passive voice.
- ◆ Have a colleague proofread your abstract.

Don't:

- ◆ Repeat the title (or paraphrase the title) in the abstract's objective.
- ◆ Include abbreviations in the abstract title.
- ◆ Use personal pronouns (I, We, Our, etc.)
- ◆ Overuse terms, acronyms, or professional -lingol.
- ◆ Have a conclusion that is unsubstantiated.
- ◆ Include reference citations.
- ◆ Include authors who have not not contributed significantly to the study.
- ◆ Include figures or tables.
- ◆ Exceed the allotted word count.

Lecture 16 - Individual presentation - Meaning –Steps for individual presentation; Group presentation – Meaning – Stages of group presentation ; Impromptu presentation
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Individual presentation-Meaning-steps:

Individual presentation:

In this presentation only one individual is the main and only working person. One person create the presentation and then himself present it infront of group of listeners or audience . No group cooperation required here .

Individual presentations enable a man to totally control the musings, thoughts, and techniques for exhibiting without outside impact on the off chance that they pick. A group presentation should be a topic with content that is settled upon by the majority of the individual's presence. This takes into consideration more perspectives and can prompt a general enhanced and compelling presentation.

While individual presentation enables somebody to work at their own relaxation and pace, group presentations require a forfeit of time and expanded the effort to meet outside of class and conceivably under insane circumstances. Group presentations generally offer less adaptability and can be substantially harder to achieve things if an excessive number of individuals are running in an excessive number of various directions.

Steps in Preparing individual Presentation:

Planning Your Presentation

An overwhelming experience if you allow it to be one. The strategies and steps below are provided to help you break down what you might view as a large job into smaller, more manageable tasks.

Step 1: Analyze your audience

The first step in preparing a presentation is to learn more about the audience to whom you'll be speaking. It's a good idea to obtain some information on the backgrounds, values, and interests of your audience so that you understand what the audience members might expect from your presentation.

Step 2: Select a topic

Next, if possible select a topic that is of interest to the audience and to you. It will be much easier to deliver a presentation that the audience finds relevant, and more enjoyable to research a topic that is of interest to you.

Step 3: Define the objective of the presentation

Once you have selected a topic, write the objective of the presentation in a single concise statement. The objective needs to specify exactly what you want your audience to learn

from your presentation. Base the objective and the level of the content on the amount of time you have for the presentation and the background knowledge of the audience. Use this statement to help keep you focused as you research and develop the presentation.

Preparing the Content of Your Presentation

Step 4: Prepare the body of the presentation

After defining the objective of your presentation, determine how much information you can present in the amount of time allowed. Also, use your knowledge about the audience to prepare a presentation with the right level of detail. You don't want to plan a presentation that is too basic or too advanced.

The **body** of the presentation is where you present your ideas. To present your ideas convincingly, you will need to illustrate and support them. Strategies to help you do this include the following:

- Present data and facts
- Read quotes from experts
- Relate personal experiences
- Provide vivid descriptions

And remember, as you plan the body of your presentation it's important to provide variety. Listeners may quickly become bored by lots of facts or they may tire of hearing story after story.

Step 5: Prepare the introduction and conclusion

Once you've prepared the body of the presentation, decide how you will begin and end the talk. Make sure the introduction captures the attention of your audience and the conclusion summarizes and reiterates your important points. In other words, "Tell them what you're going to tell them. Tell them. Then, tell them what you told them."

During the **opening** of your presentation, it's important to attract the audience's attention and build their interest. If you don't, listeners will turn their attention elsewhere and you'll have a difficult time getting it back. Strategies that you can use include the following:

- Make the introduction relevant to the listeners' goals, values, and needs
- Ask questions to stimulate thinking
- Share a personal experience
- Begin with a joke or humorous story
- Project a cartoon or colorful visual
- Make a stimulating or inspirational statement
- Give a unique demonstration

During the opening you want to clearly present your topic and the purpose of your presentation. Clearly articulating the topic and purpose will help the listeners focus on and easily follow your main ideas.

During the **conclusion** of your presentation, reinforce the main ideas you communicated. Remember that listeners won't remember your entire presentation, only the main ideas. By reinforcing and reviewing the main ideas, you help the audience remember them.

Practicing and Delivering

Step 6: Practice delivering the presentation

Most people spend hours preparing a presentation but very little time practicing it. When you practice your presentation, you can reduce the number of times you utter words and phrases like, "um," "well," and "you know." These habits can easily diminish a speaker's credibility. You can also fine-tune your content to be sure you make your most important points in the time allotted.

In addition to planning the content of your presentation, you need to give advanced thought to how you want to deliver it. Do you want to commit your presentation to memory, use cards to guide you, or read from a script? Or, you might want to use a combination of methods. To help you decide, read the advantages and disadvantages of the four delivery methods described below.

Speaking from Memory

A distinct advantage of speaking from memory is your ability to speak to the audience without relying on notes or a script. This allows you the flexibility to move away from the podium and to maintain eye contact with the audience. However, speaking from memory has disadvantages, too. Presentations from memory often sound rehearsed and the possibility exists that you'll forget an important point, present information that's inaccurate, or completely lose your train of thought. If you decide to deliver your presentation from memory, have notes handy to jog your memory just in case!

Speaking from Notes

Many people like to speak from notes. Typically these notes are either on cards or paper in outline form and contain key ideas and information. If you are using an electronic presentation tool, you may be able to include your notes in the presentation itself. The benefit of delivering a presentation from notes is that you sound natural rather than rehearsed and you can still maintain relatively good eye contact with the audience. The down side is that you might not express your key ideas and thoughts as well as you may have liked had you planned your exact words in advance.

Speaking from text:

Speaking from text involves writing your speech out, word for word, then basically reading from the text. As with speaking from memory, an advantage of this method is that you plan, in advance, exactly what you're going to say and how you're going to say it. A disadvantage is that you might appear to the audience to be stiff or rehearsed. You will need to make frequent eye contact and speak with expression to maintain the audience's interest.

Using a Combination of Methods

You may find the best method to be a combination of all three. For instance, experts suggest you memorize the first and last ten minutes of your talk so that you can speak flawlessly and without notes. Notes may be suitable for segments of your presentation that you know very well, for example, relating a personal story. Finally, speaking from a text might be appropriate when you have quotes or other important points that you want to make sure you communicate accurately and completely. You can make a smooth segue to written text by saying something like: "I want to read this quote to you verbatim, to ensure that I don't distort the original intent."

Individual presentations:

1. Individual Presentations allow a person to completely control the thoughts, ideas, and methods of presenting without outside influence if they choose
2. While individual presentations allow someone to work at their own leisure and pace, group projects require a sacrifice of time and increased effort.
3. Individuals can control how they present, what they present, and many other aspects when presenting individually.
4. An individual presentation is based solely on one person's thoughts, time, and effort.
5. An individual presentation is your own unique ideas and you can work at your own pace
6. Individual presentations are always easier. It's an individual's work, ideas and creativity that will either make the presentation successful or unsuccessful.
7. In individual presentations, the Whole burden is on a single individual.

Group presentation-Meaning-Stages of group presentation

Group presentation :

In the the group of few person are collaborate with each other and whole group make the presentation then divide this presentation to present it in front of other. The every participation of the group is important here and everyone have to participate.

Stages:

- **Stage 1: Forming**
- **Stage 2: Storming**
- **Stage 3: Norming**
- **Stage 4: Performing**
- **Stage 5: Adjourning**

This article provides background on each stage and an example of a team going through all five stages.

Stage 1: Forming

The "forming" stage takes place when the team first meets each other. In this first meeting, team members are introduced to each. They share information about their backgrounds, interests and experience and form first impressions of each other. They learn about the project they will be working on, discuss the project's objectives/goals and start to think about what role they will play on the project team. They are not yet working on the project. They are, effectively, "feeling each other out" and finding their way around how they might work together.

During this initial stage of team growth, it is important for the team leader to be very clear about team goals and provide clear direction regarding the project. The team leader should ensure that all of the members are involved in determining team roles and responsibilities and should work with the team to help them establish how they will work together ("team norms"). The team is dependent on the team leader to guide them.

Stage 2: Storming

As the team begins to work together, they move into the "storming" stage. This stage is not avoidable; every team - most especially a new team who has never worked together before - goes through this part of developing as a team. In this stage, the team members compete with each other for status and for acceptance of their ideas. They have different opinions on what should be done and how it should be done - which causes conflict within the team. As they go progress through this stage, with the guidance of the team leader, they learn how to solve problems together, function both independently and together as a team, and settle into roles and responsibilities on the team. For team members who do not like conflict, this is a difficult stage to go through.

The team leader needs to be adept at facilitating the team through this stage - ensuring the team members learn to listen to each other and respect their differences and ideas. This includes not allowing any one team member to control all conversations and to facilitate contributions from all members of the team. The team leader will need to coach some team members to be more assertive and other team members on how to be more effective listeners.

This stage will come to a closure when the team becomes more accepting of each other and learns how to work together for the good of the project. At this point, the team

leader should start transitioning some decision making to the team to allow them more independence, but still stay involved to resolve any conflicts as quickly as possible.

Some teams, however, do not move beyond this stage and the entire project is spent in conflict and low morale and motivation, making it difficult to get the project completed. Usually teams comprised of members who are professionally immature will have a difficult time getting past this stage.

Stage 3: Norming

When the team moves into the "norming" stage, they are beginning to work more effectively as a team. They are no longer focused on their individual goals, but rather are focused on developing a way of working together (processes and procedures). They respect each other's opinions and value their differences. They begin to see the value in those differences on the team. Working together as a team seems more natural. In this stage, the team has agreed on their team rules for working together, how they will share information and resolve team conflict, and what tools and processes they will use to get the job done. The team members begin to trust each other and actively seek each other out for assistance and input. Rather than compete against each other, they are now helping each other to work toward a common goal. The team members also start to make significant progress on the project as they begin working together more effectively.

In this stage, the team leader may not be as involved in decision making and problem solving since the team members are working better together and can take on more responsibility in these areas. The team has greater self-direction and is able to resolve issues and conflict as a group. On occasion, however, the team leader may step in to move things along if the team gets stuck. The team leader should always ensure that the team members are working collaboratively and may begin to function as a coach to the members of the team.

Stage 4: Performing

In the "performing" stage, teams are functioning at a very high level. The focus is on reaching the goal as a group. The team members have gotten to know each other, trust each other and rely on each other.

Not every team makes it to this level of team growth; some teams stop at Stage 3: Norming. The highly performing team functions without oversight and the members have become interdependent. The team is highly motivated to get the job done. They can make decisions and problem solve quickly and effectively. When they disagree, the team members can work through it and come to consensus without interrupting the project's progress. If there needs to be a change in team processes - the team will come to agreement on changing processes on their own without reliance on the team leader.

In this stage, the team leader is not involved in decision making, problem solving or other such activities involving the day-to-day work of the team. The team members

work effectively as a group and do not need the oversight that is required at the other stages. The team leader will continue to monitor the progress of the team and celebrate milestone achievements with the team to continue to build team camaraderie. The team leader will also serve as the gateway when decisions need to be reached at a higher level within the organisation.

Even in this stage, there is a possibility that the team may revert back to another stage. For example, it is possible for the team to revert back to the "storming" stage if one of the members starts working independently. Or, the team could revert back to the "forming" stage if a new member joins the team. If there are significant changes that throw a wrench into the works, it is possible for the team to revert back to an earlier stage until they are able to manage through the change.

Stage 5: Adjourning

In the "adjourning" stage the project is coming to an end and the team members are moving off into different directions. This stage looks at the team from the perspective of the well-being of the team rather than from the perspective of managing a team through the original four stages of team growth.

The team leader should ensure that there is time for the team to celebrate the success of the project and capture best practices for future use. (Or, if it was not a successful project - to evaluate what happened and capture lessons learned for future projects). This also provides the team the opportunity to say good-bye to each other and wish each other luck as they pursue their next endeavour. It is likely that any group that reached Stage 4: Performing will keep in touch with each other as they have become a very close knit group and there will be sadness at separating and moving on to other projects independently.

Group presentations:

1. A group presentation is supposed to be a subject matter with content that is agreed upon by all of the members present. This allows for more viewpoints and can lead to an overall improved and effective presentation.
2. Group presentations offer less flexibility and can be much harder to accomplish things if too many people are running in too many different directions.
3. Group presentations involve a team or group of people. These group presentations can be productive or not productive because of the different skills and levels of the group members.
4. A group presentation needs to incorporate the thoughts and opinions of the people in that group.
5. With a group presentation, you can get a variety of different opinions and combine each other's ideas and strengths.
6. A group presentation may be able to save time because of a lot of people are working on it; however, scheduling can delay time with a group as well.

7. Whereas, group presentations entails less stress and less overall work and allows people to get to know one another.

Group presentations require more responsibility.

Impromptu Presentation:

An impromptu speech, by definition is the one that a speaker delivers without any prior preparation on the topic. Impromptu, itself, means “doing something without preparation”

Rule of Three:

Organize your speech or [presentation](#) into three main categories: an opening, a body, and a closing. Managing these three pieces of the demonstration is a quick way to coordinate your information in a concise and simple way. Remember to use supporting visuals – pictures, graphs, media – and use technology to your advantage. For example, if you’re having trouble incorporating a video (a classic PowerPoint letdown), you can use plugins to [insert video into PowerPoint](#) for you. Taking the tech shortcuts allows you to speed the organization process up so you can focus on the actual content of your message.

Back to the structure. Your opening should be attention grabbing. Just because you’re on short notice doesn’t mean you should miss any opportunities to be humorous or witty. Chances are that if you’re asked to report on the fly, you’re going to do so on a specific subject—such as a status report on a remote team, or the progress of a particular project in your department. This knowledge should help you telescope your effort to contain only the most important information that you’ll place in the body of your message.

In the body of the meeting, you should plan to cover no more than three main pieces of information. It is generally regarded that people retain information better when it comes in [chunks of three](#) (A-B-C, 1-2-3, Three Blind Mice, Three Musketeers, etc.).

For example, in your body the three main points might be:

1. *This is where we are in the project*
2. *These are our budget restrictions/concerns/roadblocks*
3. *This is how we plan to traverse the roadblocks and move forward*

If the information being covered in these three points seems unclear or needs further explanation, now is the time to clarify.

When wrapping up the presentation, remember to summarize your main points and end with a closing statement. For example, a powerful closing statement could reference your

opening question or hook. [Finish the presentation by calling the audience to action](#) or reaffirming everyone's commitment or role in the project.

Lecture 17 - Public speaking : meaning – Points to be considered in public speaking – Effective public speaking: Group Discussion: Meaning –Procedure – Advantages – Limitations ;Seminar Conferences : Definition and meaning – Steps in organizing seminar / conferences / symposium / workshop

Public speaking-meaning:

It is the process of communicating information to an audience.it is usually done before a large audience like in school and workplace.

Points to be considered in making effective public speaking:

1. Prepare the speech
2. Research your audience
3. Don't read your speech
4. Think beyond the words
5. Practice makes perfect
6. Avoid the PowerPoint death sentence.
7. Personalize what you have to say
8. Being nervous is good
9. Hope for the best, prepare for the worst
10. Observe and learn from the experts

1. Prepare the speech:

If you are giving a presentation or seminar, preparation will be crucial. You will also have to practice and decide how much use you will make of the following:

- All written out or just notes?
- Will you use PowerPoint slides?
- Are you aware of your breathing while practicing?
- Are you familiar with the venue?
- Do you know what equipment is available?

2. Research your audience

In my case this was easy, as it was family and friends. Anecdotes about my brother were expected and appreciated. But when you are in front of a business audience, it is important to know their background. Are they colleagues, middle managers or trainees? Finding out about their business experience and their companies will be very important. Armed with this information, you can make a passing reference to their company's history or profile, which they can relate to.

3. Don't read your speech

There are several reasons why this could be disastrous:

- You may bore the audience
- You will almost certainly not succeed in getting their attention

- You will never make eye contact
- You are at risk of mumbling or failing to speak clearly.

4. Think beyond the words

Let's face it. You are communicating a message or information, or entertaining. Or it may be a combination of all three. The words you are using are merely a vehicle for conveying your ideas. They are not sufficient on their own. You also have to use the following:

- Body language
- Tone of voice
- Speed of delivery
- Pauses
- Emphasis
- gestures

Get the combination of all these right and you will make a great speech.

5. Practice makes perfect

You need to get really familiar with the contents of your speech. If you lack confidence, the best way to do this is to try and memorize the main points, and you can use a list of notes for this. You have to go over and over it again, timing yourself so that you do not go over the time allocated. If you prefer, you can also use cards with the main points on them, just in case you forget. A good idea is to number the cards, just in case you drop them!

6. Avoid the PowerPoint death sentence

People refer to 'death by PowerPoint' because these visuals, while an excellent tool, can become deadly boring, especially [if you read what is written on them](#). Your audience can read too!

It is important to keep the number of slides to a minimum. It is a visual aid and it is not supposed to substitute for you. Go for facts and figures, charts, graphs, or something visually stimulating such as a dramatic photo.

7. Personalize what you have to say

People still love stories. An anecdote or two can work wonders. Tell them about your personal involvement in a project and what went right or wrong. Jokes are great too, although these should be kept to a minimum. All these things are important for bonding with your audience.

8. Being nervous is good

You may think that all those irritating and embarrassing symptoms of butterflies in your stomach and a tremor in your voice and hand is going to mean you fail.

But look at it this way: These are just minor things that are happening because your adrenaline is flowing. This is giving you more energy, more determination, and also a much sharper you. [Concentrate on these aspects](#) so that you can power up rather than become a frightened mouse. These are primeval instincts to help you fight. Forget the flight bit. It will all be over soon.

9. Hope for the best, prepare for the worst

While remaining upbeat and confident, there's no harm in being aware of what could go wrong and to have a contingency plan up your sleeve. Here are some common situations you may encounter:

- Make sure there is a glass of water on the lectern. When your mouth becomes impossibly dry, this is a life saver.
- Check to see that everything is working beforehand and that the PowerPoint is all set up. Do a trial run, if possible.
- If you forget the next point, refer to your notes. These should be brief and clear, with main points highlighted.
- You will not be judged on your quivering voice. You are not doing an audition for a Hollywood film, so concentrate on getting your message across.

10. Observe and learn from the experts

When practicing your presentation or speech, watch people speaking on YouTube. Observe people who you think are great communicators and whom you admire. Watch how they use pauses for effect. Study their speed of delivery and also their body language. Remember that they started out like you and were probably just as nervous and phobic about the whole thing.

One comforting thought is that one journalist noted that President George Washington, in making his inaugural speech, was as nervous as hell. He was –so visibly perturbed that his hand trembled and his voice shook so that he could scarcely be understood. Nobody ever judged George Washington's achievements by his public speaking

Group discussion:

It is a systematic and purposeful interactive oral process. Here the exchange of ideas, thoughts and feelings take place through oral communication.

The exchange of ideas takes place in a systematic and structured way. The participants sit facing each other almost in a semi-circle and express their views on the given topic/issue/problem. **How does Group Discussion differ from a Debate?**

Debate is competitive in nature while group discussion is a co-operative group process. In a debate, a speaker can speak either _for‘ the topic or _against‘ the topic whereas in a GD, the speaker can express both. The final decision or result in a debate depends on voting while in a GD, the group reaches group consensus. Why is a group discussion an important activity at college level? As a student, it helps you to train yourself to discuss and argue about the topic given, it helps you to express your views on serious subjects and in formal situations. It improves your thinking, listening and speaking skills. It also promotes your confidence level.

It is an effective tool in problem solving, decision making and personality assessment.

GD skills may ensure academic success, popularity and good admission or job offer. Thus it is important to be able to take part in a GD effectively and confidently.

Participants should know how to speak with confidence, how to exhibit leadership skills and how to make the group achieve the goals.

The objective of a selection in GD is mainly to **check your team playing skills. You have to understand the other persons’ point of view**, while making your point and ensure that your team as a whole reaches a solution or agreement that is both feasible and accepted by all team members.

There are four major areas **of evaluation in selection GDs:**

subject knowledge,

oral communication skills,

leadership skills

team management.

Subject Knowledge:

Participants must possess a thorough understanding of the topic on which they are supposed to speak. You must prepare yourself to talk on a wide range of subjects.

The best way to equip yourself is to read daily newspapers, good magazines, national and international journals and also watch new bulletins and informative programmes on the television.

Internet is the greatest boon which provides you with everything you are looking for. **The World Wide Web** is a vast database of current authentic materials that present information in multimedia form and reacts instantly to a user's input.

The greater your knowledge of the subject, the more enthusiastic and confident you will be during the discussion.

Oral Communication Skills

If subject knowledge is important **The greater your knowledge of the subject, the more enthusiastic and confident you will be during the discussion** As the exchange of ideas in a group discussion takes place through speech, one of the pre-requisites of success in a GD is the ability to speak confidently and convincingly.

Good communication skills include active listening, clarity of thought and expression, apt language and proper non verbal clues.

Listening Skills:

One of the weaknesses of most human beings is that we love to listen to our own voice rather than listen to others. **Listening is as important as speaking in a GD, unless you listen, you cannot contribute to the stated purpose of communication.** It is extremely important to listen very carefully, only then you will be able to pick up the thread of discussion and continue. Only active participation as a listener in a group makes a person a good leader.

Team behavior:

Your group behavior is reflected in your ability to interact with the other members of the group. You must be mature enough to not lose your temper even if you are proved wrong. You must be patient and balanced.

Your success in a GD depends on how well you play the role of **initiator, information seeker, information giver, procedure facilitator, opinion seeker, opinion giver, clarifier, summarizer, social-supporter, tension reliever, compromiser, attacker, humorist and dominator.**

Advantages:

1. Since group members have different specialties, they tend to provide more information and knowledge. Also, the information tends to be more comprehensive in nature and the groups can generate a greater number of alternatives. There is often truth to the axiom that –two heads are better than one.

2. Implementation of the decision is more effective since the people who are going to implement the decision, either participated in the group themselves or had their representatives in it. This also increases the commitment of the people to see the implementation to success.

It is important that the decision be accepted by all, because even a low quality decision that has acceptance can be more effective than a higher quality decision that lacks general acceptance.

3. The input from a larger number of people eliminates the biases that are generally introduced due to individual decision making. It also reduces the unreliability of individual decisions.

4. The participative style of decision making process builds up foundations as a training ground for subordinates who develop the skills of objective analysis of information and deriving of conclusions.

5. The group decision making is more democratic in nature, while individual decision making is perceived to be more autocratic in nature. The democratic processes are more easily acceptable and are consistent with the democratic ideals of our society.

Disadvantages:

There are certain drawbacks in group decision making also. The group processes can negatively affect performance in a variety of ways.

1. The process is highly time consuming in terms of assembling the right group and usually a group takes more time in reaching a consensus since there are too many opinions to be taken into consideration. The time problem increases with the group size.

Accordingly, the urgency of arriving at a decision must be considered when group decision making style is selected.

2. Many times, the participants in group decision making have their own axes to grind or their own interests to protect. These self-centered interests lead to personality conflicts that may create interpersonal obstacles which may diminish the efficiency of the process as well as the quality of the decision.

3. Some members may simply agree with the others for the sake of agreement since there are social pressures to conform and not to be the odd-man out. Thus the desire to be a good group member tends to silence disagreement and favours consensus. The social pressures can be very strong inducing people to change their attitudes, perceptions and behaviours.

4. The group members may exhibit —focus effect. This means that the group may focus on one or few suggested alternatives and spend all the time in evaluating these and may never come up with other ideas, thus limiting the choices.

5. The decisions made by the group may not always be in accord with the goals and objectives of the organizations. This is especially true when the goals of the group and those of individuals do not reinforce each other. This will result in decisions that may be detrimental to organizational benefits.

6. The groups may shift either towards more risk taking or towards less risk taking and either of the shifts may be undesirable. Generally speaking, problems suitable for group decision making involve some degree of risk or uncertainty. But to take excessive risk is as bad as taking no risk at all.

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 answer are not available. A seminar may have two or more plenary sessions. This method has advantage of pooling together the opinions of a large number of persons.

Conference:

Pooling of experiences and opinion among a group of people who have special qualification in an area .the conference method mainly consists of small and large group discussion, steering committee and open plenary session. The conference help in clarifying various issues involved in a particular area as different points of view are expressed by experts in the conference.

Symposium:

This is a short series of lectures usually by 2 to 5 speakers. Each one speaks for a definite amount of time, and presents different phases or sub divisions of a general topic. The subject may or may not be controversial. It is important that the speakers are of approximately equal ability, to avoid one speaker dominating the meeting or giving the audience a distorted view of a subject. It is used primarily for information gathering at professional level. The advantage of symposium over a lecture is that 2 or more experts presents different facts of the topic.

Workshop:

Workshop is a special type of working conference of a week or more duration. In workshop emphasis is given on lecture, individual conference and working in group. This method is used for professional improvement and in-service training. The main item of the workshop or lectures by staff members, group meeting with selected group, individual consultation and study, informal discussion on problems, arranging inspirational or special events and providing library and other resources for the study.