MEASI INSTITUTE OF MANAGEMENT
CHENNAI-14
Approved by All India Council of Technical Education and Affiliated to the University of Madras, ISO 9001:2015 Certified Institute

SPOKEN AND PRESENTATION SKILLS ADVANCED LEVEL-PSSEB

STUDY MATERIAL

Ist SEMESTER (FULL TIME)

NEW REGULATION SYLLABUS 2018-19

MASTER OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

UNIVERSITY OF MADRAS

Notes Prepared

By

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VISION & MISSION STATEMENTS OF THE INSTITUTE

VISION;

- To emerge as the most preferred Business School with Global recognition by producing most competent ethical managers, entrepreneurs and researchers through quality education.

MISSION;

- **Knowledge through quality teaching learning process**; To enable the students to meet the challenges of the fast challenging global business environment through quality teaching learning process.
- **Managerial Competencies with Industry institute interface**; To impart conceptual and practical skills for meeting managerial competencies required in competitive environment with the help of effective industry institute interface.
- **Continuous Improvement with the state of art infrastructure facilities**; To aid the students in achieving their full potential by enhancing their learning experience with the state of art infrastructure and facilities.
- **Values and Ethics;** To inculcate value based education through professional ethics, human values and societal responsibilities.

PROGRAMME EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES (PEOs)

PEO 1 - Placement; To equip the students with requisite knowledge skills and right attitude necessary to get placed as efficient managers in corporate companies.

PEO 2 - Entrepreneur; To create effective entrepreneurs by enhancing their critical thinking, problem solving and decision-making skill.

PEO 3 - Research and Development; To make sustained efforts for holistic development of the students by encouraging them towards research and development.

PEO4 - Contribution to Society; To produce proficient professionals with strong integrity to contribute to society.

Program Outcome;

PO1 - Problem Solving Skill; Apply knowledge of management theories and practices to solve business problems.

PO2 - Decision Making Skill; Foster analytical and critical thinking abilities for data-based decision making.

PO3 - Ethical Value; Ability to develop value based leadership ability.

PO4 - Communication Skill; Ability to understand, analyze and communicate global, economic, legal and ethical aspects of business.

PO5 - Individual and Leadership Skill; Ability to lead themselves and others in the achievement of organizational goals, contributing effectively to a team environment.

PO6 - Employability Skill; Foster and enhance employability skills through subject knowledge.

PO7 - Entrepreneurial Skill; Equipped with skills and competencies to become an entrepreneur.

PO8 - Contribution to community; Succeed in career endeavors and contribute significantly to the community.

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SPOKEN AND PRESENTATION SKILLS ADVANCED LEVEL-PSSEB

Subject Code	Subject Name	L	T	P	S	C
PSSEB	SPOKEN AND PRESENTATION SKILLS – ADVANCED LEVEL	0	0	2	0	2

Course Objectives	
C1	To impart students general language knowledge and presentation.
C2	To show light on special language knowledge and presentation.
C3	To teach them the general communication skills for presentation.
C4	To enable students to develop professional communication skills for presentation.
C5	To Enable the students to develop social communication for presentation skills

SYLLABUS

Unit. No.	Details	Hours
Unit I	General Language Knowledge and Presentation	6
Unit II	Special Language Knowledge and Presentation	6
Unit III	General Communication Skills for Presentation	6
Unit IV	Professional Communication Skills for Presentation	6
Unit V	Social Communication Skills for Presentation	6
	Total Hours	30

Reference Books	
1.	Cathcart, Robert. S. and Larry A. Samovar. 1970. Small Group Communication; A Reader 5th Edition. Wm C. Brown Publisher.Lowa
2.	Tamblyn, Doni and Sharyn Weises, 2000. The Big Book of Humorous Training Games, 2004 Edition. Tata McGraw-Hill. New Delhi
3.	Andrew, Sudhir. 1988 How to succeed at Interview. 21st Reprint. Tata Mc Graw-Hill. New Delhi.
4.	Monipally, Mattukutty. M.2001. Bussiness Communication Strategies.11th Reprint. Tata Mc Graw-Hill. New Delhi.
E-Sources	
1.	https://www.examenglish.com/IELTS/IELTS_Speaking.htm
2.	http://letstalk.co.in/
3.	https://communicationdevelopment.com/
4.	https://www.businessballs.com/communication-skills/presentation-skills-and-techniques/

Assessment Tools Used		
1.	Assignments	
2.	Role Play	
3.	Group Discussion	
Content Beyond Syllabus		
1.	Time management and effective planning – identifying barriers to effective time management - prudent time management techniques -relationship between time management and stress management.	
2.	Stress management – causes and effect, coping strategies – simple physical exercises - simple Yoga and Meditation techniques - Relaxation techniques - stress and faith healing - positive forces of nature - relaxation by silence and music.	
Additional Reference Books		
1.	Richard Denny, "Communication to Win; Kogan Page India Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi, 2008.	
2.	"Value Education", VISION for Wisdom, Vethathiri Publications, Erode, 2009	
Course Outcomes		
CO No.	On completion of this course successfully, the students will;	**Program Outcomes (PO)**
C208.1	Possess general language knowledge & presentation.	PO4, PO6, PO7
C208.2	Acquire special language knowledge and presentation	PO4, PO6, PO7
C208.3	Understand the general communication skills for presentation.	PO4, PO6, PO7
C208.4	Know social communication skills for presentation.	PO4, PO6, PO7
C208.5	Possess professional communication skills for presentation	PO4, PO6, PO7

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General Language Knowledge and Presentation

Special Language Knowledge and Presentation

General Communication Skills for Presentation

Professional Communication Skills for Presentation

Social Communication Skills for Presentation

Introduction

Soft skills play an important role for achieving professional growth and employment. With the knowledge of soft skills, one stand out in a crowd of job seekers with even mediocre skill and talent. There is no doubt that hard skills i.e. knowledge and technical expertise are prime requirement, for employability but without soft skills it becomes difficult for even highly talented people to corner a job. The most common traits asked by every prospective employer are positive work ethics, good attitude, and desire to learn and be trained.

Good attitude being a behavioural skill cannot be taught. But consistent practice and training can instil that in a person. Right perspective and readiness to learn and turn the situation to a positive outcome, take responsibility of one‟s action with the capacity to take any challenge, so the job seekers must possess soft skill to attract the employer.

Soft Skills are the non-technical skills, abilities, traits that workers need to function in a specific employment environment. They include four sets of work place competencies:

1. Personal Qualities and Work Ethics
2. Problem- Solving and Decision making skills
3. Oral Communication Skills
4. Impersonal and EQ skills

What are Soft Skill?

Soft skills are a combination of interpersonal people skills, social skills, communication skills, character traits, attitudes, career attributes and emotional intelligence quotient (EQ) among others.

Technical knowledge of any subject is considered hard skill. Soft skills are also called corporate skills. Soft skills can be more useful and practical. A definition based on review literature explains soft skills as a cluster of productive personality traits that characterize one's relationships in a social environment with other people and the key three abilities/elements are people skills, social skills and personal career attributes, in other words social skills is an umbrella term for skills under under this functional elements.

Soft skills can be said to incorporate all aspects of generic skills that include the cognitive elements associated with non-academic skills. Soft skills are identified to be the most critical skills in the current global job market especially in a fast moved era of technology. The reorientation of education which is one trust of education for sustainability also relates the importance of these so-called - soft skills . Soft skills are related with insights, emotions, feelings, gut-instinct and (some would say) an inner knowing. Because of this they are not taught passively as in the way of "hard skills". Hence soft skills are associated with EQ (Emotional

Quotient) and EI (Emotional Intelligence) rather than with IQ.

Presentation Skills

Management is the art of getting things done. A Presentation is a fast and potentially effective method of getting the message through to people. In managing any project, presentations are used as a formal method for bringing people together to plan, monitor and review its progress. Effective presentations and public speaking skills are important in business, sales and selling, training, teaching, lecturing, and generally feeling comfortable speaking to a group of people.

Developing the confidence and capability to give good presentations, and to stand up in front of an audience and speak well, are also extremely helpful competencies for self-development and social situations.

The formats and purposes of presentations can be very different, for example: oral (spoken), multimedia (using various media - visuals, audio, etc), PowerPoint presentations, short impromptu presentations, long planned presentations, educational or training sessions, lectures, and simply giving a talk on a subject to a group on a voluntary basis.

Definition

A presentation is a means of **communication** which can be adapted to various

Speaking situations, such as talking to a group, addressing a meeting or briefing a team. To be effective, step-by-step preparation and the method and means of presenting the information should be carefully considered

Merriam Webster dictionary defines presentation as a descriptive or persuasive account (as by a salesman of a product).

A presentation is the process of presenting a topic to an audience. It is typically a demonstration, introduction, lecture, or speech meant to inform, persuade, or build good will. The term can also be used for a formal or ritualized introduction or offering, as with the presentation of a debutante. (Wikipedia)

A business presentation is a formal tutorial or introduction of business practices or products. A business presentation is typically carried out using audio/visual presentation material, such as projectors and statistical documents created with presentation software, or more rudimentary materials such as flip charts and whiteboards. (wisegeek.com)

Presenting information clearly and effectively is a key skill in getting your message across. Today, presentation skills are required in almost every field, and most of us are required to give presentations on occasions. While some people take this in their stride, others find it much more challenging.

It is, however, possible to improve your presentation skills with a bit of work. This section of SkillsYouNeed is designed to help.

Many people feel terrified when asked to talk in public, especially to bigger groups. However, these fears can be reduced by good preparation, which will also lay the groundwork for making an effective presentation.

There are any number of occasions when you may be asked to speak in public or to a group of people. They include:

- Presenting or making a speech at a conference or event.
- Objecting to a planning proposal at a council meeting.
- Making a speech at a wedding.
- Proposing a vote of thanks to someone at a club or society.
- On behalf of a team, saying goodbye and presenting a gift to a colleague who is leaving.

- Seeking investment or a loan to help you set up a new business.

These can all be considered presentations.

They do not, however, all require the same approach. You would not, for example, use PowerPoint to thank a colleague who was leaving. It would be unusual (though it has been done) to use it in a speech at a wedding. However, a conference audience would be somewhat surprised NOT to see slides projected onto a screen.

It follows, therefore, that there is no single set of rules that apply to all presentations. There are, however, some things that every presentation opportunity has in common. These include:

- **You will present better if you have prepared effectively**. This does NOT necessarily mean that you have written out your speech verbatim and rehearsed it until you know it off by heart—although that might work for some people. It does, however, mean that you have to be confident that you are saying the right thing, in the right way, to the right people.
- **You need to be clear about your audience and your message**. Every presentation will be better if you have clearly considered the message that you want or need to convey, and how best to convey it to your audience. These two pieces of information drive your style, structure, content, and use of visual aids.
- **You must never overrun your allocated time**. In other words, don't outstay your welcome. Almost every speech or presentation is better if it is shorter. Nobody minds going for coffee early or finishing before they expected to do so. Everybody minds being held up.
- **Generally speaking, your audience starts on your side.** As a rule, your audience is there (more or less) voluntarily. They have chosen to listen to you, and they want to enjoy your presentation. The occasion is yours to lose.

Guide to Effective Presentations

If you need to improve your presentation skills quickly, then a really good place to start is with our Top Tips for Effective Presentations.

This will give you some 'quick wins' that will help you improve your presentations. If you're already an experienced presenter, this page should be a useful refresher, or even take your skills from good to great.

Our tips include general ideas about connecting with your audience, information about the importance of voice and body language, and detailed tips about preparing slide-shows.

The most important tip of all, however, is to remember that it's all about your audience.

Keep that in mind, and your presentation skills will almost instantly improve.

If you have more time to develop your presentation skills… …then the Presentation Skills section of SkillsYouNeed is designed to help.

Our Presentation Skills section is split into two parts.

- The first gives you a step-by-step guide to putting together and delivering a professional and effective presentation.
- The second provides more detailed information about presenting and communicating in particular circumstances.

You can either use our step-by-step guide to walk you through the presentation preparation and delivery process, or you can focus on particular areas that are an issue for you.

Preparing for Your Presentation

The guide starts by explaining What is a Presentation?

Presentation as a means of communication that can be adapted to various speaking situations, such as talking to a group, addressing a meeting or briefing a team. Effective presentations usually require careful thought and preparation—although this preparation need not take very long.

Preparation is the most important part of making a successful presentation.

The most important aspects include the objective of the presentation, the subject, and the audience.

Irrespective of whether the occasion is formal or informal, you should always aim to give a clear, well-structured delivery. To do so, you need to organise your presentation material. You can either do this in your head, or use a technique like mind-mapping to help you identify links and good flow.

By the time you come to write your presentation, you should know exactly what you want to say and the order in which you want to say it. You may want to use one of the standard presentation structures, such as 'What, Why, How?'. You will also find it helpful to consider how to tell your story most effectively, and to use stories in your presentation to illustrate points.

You also need to decide on your presentation method. Presentations range from the formal to the informal.

Your choice of presentation method will depend on many factors, including the audience, the venue, the facilities, and your own preferences.

Visual aids can add another dimension to your presentation, helping to hold your audience's attention, and also act as a reminder of what you wanted to say. However, they need handling with care. Only use visual aids if they are necessary to maintain interest and assist comprehension. If visual aids are not used well, they can ruin a presentation.

See Working with Visual Aids to avoid falling into the trap of the dreaded '*Death by PowerPoint*'.

A particular case of visual aids is the use of data in a presentation.

There are times when using data in a presentation can really help you to tell the story better. It is, however, important not to blind your audience with statistics. You also need to remember that many people find numbers difficult to understand. Our page on Presenting Data gives some hints and tips about using data effectively in a presentation situation.

On the Day of the Presentation

There are a number of aspects to delivering your presentation on the day.

The practicalities of how you manage your presentation can make a significant difference to its success, and to your nerves! For example, turning up early means that you have will have a chance to see the room, and ensure that you can operate all the necessary equipment. There is more about how to cope, including managing sound systems, audio-visual equipment and lecterns in our page on Managing the Presentation Event.

Many people also feel very nervous before and during a presentation. This is entirely normal, and can even be helpful if you can channel it in the right way. There are some tried and tested strategies and techniques to manage your nerves so that you can concentrate on delivering an effective and engaging presentation.

See Coping with Presentation Nerves for some ideas that will help.

How you present yourself can also affect how your audience responds to your presentation.

You need to fit with your audience's expectations if they are not going to spend quite a large chunk of your presentation dealing with the differences between expectations and reality.

For more about aspects of self-presentation, see our page on Self-Presentation in Presentations.

You also need to consider how to manage your presentation notes.

Few people are able to give a presentation without notes. You will need to know your own abilities and decide how best to make the presentation. You might manage your talk by using full text, notes on cue cards, keywords on cue cards, or mind maps. There is more about this in our page on Managing your Presentation Notes.

After the presentation, you may be faced with a question-and-answer session. For many people, this is the worst part of the event.

Decide in advance how and when you wish to handle questions. Some speakers prefer questions to be raised as they arise during the presentation whilst others prefer to deal with questions at the end. At the start of your presentation, you should make clear your preferences to the audience. See our page on Dealing with Questions for more ideas about how to make the question session pleasant and productive, rather than something to dread.

Presenting Under Particular Circumstances

You may find that you need to give a presentation under certain circumstances, where your previous experience is less helpful.

Circumstances that may be new to you include:

- Presentations in Interviews
- Presenting to Large Groups and Conferences
- Giving Lectures and Seminars
- Giving a Speech, for example, at a wedding.

A formal presentation is divided into two broad categories:

Presentation Skill and

Personal Presentation.

These two aspects are interwoven and can be described as the preparation, presentation and practice of verbal and non-verbal communication. (G. Blair)

Thus, business presentation can be defined as a formal speech communication about a product, service or an organisation or any business proposal/ report, intended to inform or persuade the audience. A business presentation may use various aids to make the idea incorporated in the speech more explicit. These aids could vary from flipcharts to white boards, from audio-visuals to power-point.

Importance of Presentation

1. **Presentation is Important for Individual Success in the workplace:**

For many individuals the first important presentation they deliver might be to get selected in an organisation. It might be labeled as a "job interview" but it is really a presentation. Success rides on their presentation outshining the competition. In most organizations, schools, colleges, conferences etc, day-to-day life we may get an opportunity for presentation. Career growth necessitates presenting ideas to others Good presentations skills are useful both internally and externally. There are times when you need to give presentation to your superiors about various issues in relation to business activities or performance. Besides, you may need to stand in front of external audience or the clients. By virtue of good presentation skills you can attain professional development and success, while you are enabled to gain good reputation in the organization

2. **Presentations are Important for Business Success**

Having superior product is never enough to guarantee business success. Apple is acknowledged as offering leading edge technology and Steve Jobs is often modelled as a superior presenter. Business leaders are often expected to present their message with confidence and clarity to staff, clients, partners, investors and sometimes the public. Millions of rupees can ride on these presentations.

3. Presentations are Important for Stress Reduction

The financial cost of stress to organizations can be devastating. Work related stress can be demoralizing to staff, management and executives. Effective presentation skills reduce miscommunication, which is likely the biggest cause of work related stress. Better presentation skills also reduces the stress on presenters which means they will be more willing to present and more effective with their communication. The principles and techniques of presentations apply to other methods of communication.

4. Presentation Skills are Important for Time Management

Many presentations take too long and thus waste time - because the presenter tries to fill the time period. Better presenters get their message across in less time because they respect time, focus on the message and use the most effective techniques to communicate. Better presenters can deliver their 30 minute presentation in 5 minutes or 90 seconds when needed. Better presenters also save time while preparing because they prepare their presentation more efficiently. They know where they are going and how to get there faster.

5. Presentation Skills are Important for Leadership

Winston Churchill was praised for his inspiring presentations which helped England fight back against Nazi Germany. Narendra Modi ji is considered to be a great presenter and a communicator. Leadership in community, association or organization demands effective presentation skills. Every cause needs a leader. Every leader needs to be able to stand up and deliver a clear and inspiring message. The team and followers will often judge the leader and the cause on the presentation skills of that spokesperson. Often the best presenter leads.

6. Presentation skills are Important for Public Image & Opinion

It might seem unfair, but people will often judge a presenter, who represents an organization, an institution. Family and the product/ service on how the presenter or executive deliver a presentation. People tend to remember the extremes - really bad or really good. Remember that perception is relative to how everyone else presents.

Better presentations don't guarantee success but they give a stronger chance of success. Almost everything a presenter wants to accomplish is a battle. Therefore, we need to improve the presentation skills for ourselves and for our team.

SPEAKING AND PRESENTATION SKILLS

Introduction

Public speaking is a common source of stress for everyone. Many of us would like to avoid this problem entirely, but this is hard to do. Whether we work alone or with large numbers of people, eventually we will need to speak in public to get certain tasks accomplished. And if we want to be leaders or achieve anything meaningful in our lives, we will often need to speak to groups, large and small, to be successful.

Many of us have observed public speakers and thought to ourselves "Wow, I could never be that smart, calm, witty, entertaining, polished . . . or whatever." Well, you do not have to be brilliant, witty, or perfect to succeed. That is not what public speaking is all about. I know it may look that way, but it is not. You can be average. You can be below average. You can make mistakes, get tongue-tied, or forget whole segments of your talk. You can even tell no jokes at all and still be successful.

It is human nature to assume that when we communicate we are doing so effectively, and that if anything goes wrong consequently the responsibility for that must rest with the recipient. Here, we draw attention to six steps that constitute a typical two-way communication, and when the opportunities for mis-communication are considered you may view it as surprising how often communication works without a problem.

When, a speaker speaks to a recipient, we have the following possible processes:

- What the speaker thinks to say
- What he actually says
- What the recipient hears

None of these are necessarily the same and three chances already exist for a breakdown in communication. As a result of what a recipient hears, he may make a reply, giving:

- What he thinks to say
- What he actually says
- What the speaker thinks to hear.

Now, multiply that by the number of recipients that may be listening to the speaker and you begin to understand the opportunities for misinterpretations that may arise.

As you can see, communication is a complex two-way process this is why it so often breaks down and is ineffective. With the complexity apparent even in a simple communication, like the one illustrated, it should be apparent that there is a need for clarity and simplicity – as this will minimize the chance of misunderstandings.

Communication is a skill and like any skill, it requires practice. The skill enhancement is a gradual process through practice that differentiates a skill from one form to other forms of knowledge. Understanding the theory of communication and effective public speaking will not in itself make you a brilliant communicator or speaker but should make you aware of how to maximize the impact of your presentations.

The most important thing to remember is that the message that you intend to communicate is likely to be misunderstood. Therefore, in addition to carefully preparing and presenting your message, stay alert for any signs that your audience are mis-interpreting it. It is up to you, the speaker or presenter, to continually check that your message has been received, understood, correctly interpreted and filed in the receivers mind.

We will now examine each of the six steps of the communication model in slightly more detail - with a view to introducing some guidelines that should help to promote more effective two-way communication.

Step1 - Ensure that your audience are tuned in and paying full attention to what you are about to say. Once you have the attention of the audience the communication of the message can begin.

Step2 - Each recipient listens to the message.

Step3 - Each recipient will have some feeling about the message and will interpret its meaning. This is often done in the light of individual attitudes and prejudices or alternatively with reference to previous experience or associations. Your problem is that the audience may not feel and interpret in the way that you intended. The result may range from a simple failure for the message to hit home, through to a serious misunderstanding.

Step4 - Each recipient may respond to the original message.

Step5 - You have now become the receiver, and should listen carefully to the message.

Step6 - You will feel and interpret something about this message.

This may range from satisfaction that the communication is proceeding as you intended, to bewilderment at how your original message was mis-interpreted.

Encoding and Translating

The majority of people communicate in a way that is fundamentally flawed - in that they adopt the egocentric communication model. This involves the presenter deciding what they want to say and how they want to say it, with little or no regard for the characteristics or needs of their audience. This model is termed egocentric because of the significance that the presenter attaches to his or her own role in the communication process. The presenter is essentially adopting the following attitude: “I have decided what to say and the way I’m going to say it. I will then say it and assume that the audience agrees, more or less, with my interpretation”. This process, of packaging a message, is called encoding and it determines which human senses (hearing, vision, touch etc.) will be used to transmit the message.

The next step in a communication is to send the encoded message to the receiver. The receiver then has the difficult job of decoding the message in terms that they can relate to. It is at this point that they may misinterpret, change, filter or edit the message to fit into their own preconceived framework. In this way, egocentric communication often fails to convey the intended message.

To minimize the chance of your message being misinterpreted another step should be added to the communication model. This new step is called translating and involves you encoding the message as before, but then translating the message, to take into account a variety of issues from the audience's point of view. By translating the encoded message for its intended audience, the chance of misinterpretation is greatly reduced.

When done properly the result of this translation step is to frame the message in terms that are better suited to the audience - in other words a far more relevant and focused message for the audience to decode. This process will produce a message that has more impact.

Think about how many times you and your colleagues have attended the same meeting or presentation and yet have come away with different interpretations about what was meant. When preparing your messages, try to think of the different ways that it could be interpreted by your audience and try to translate it in a way that will minimize inaccurate interpretations.

Understanding Your Audience

You should be clear on the aim of your presentation, identify the personality types in your audience and adjust your presentation accordingly. You must be clear on the aim of your presentation at the outset in order that you can stay focused when preparing it. Think of your aim as the final destination, and your presentation as the journey.

Your objective is to ensure that the presentation delivers you, and your audience, to the correct and clearly defined destination. It is only if you are clear about your aim that you will carry conviction in your forthcoming presentation. The purpose of nearly all business presentations is either to inform or to persuade. You should decide which applies and then prefix your presentation with an aim statement that is worded accordingly.

Once you have decided on your aim and written this down you can begin to consider the content of your presentation. However before you can plan the content in detail you will need to know how to analyze the audience that you will be presenting to - in order to help you to translate the message in an appropriate way.

Audience Classification: There are three questions that you need to ask concerning the characteristics and composition of the audience; Firstly, what personality types are likely to be in your audience? Secondly, how can we recognize them in advance? Finally, what happens if you are presenting to a mixed audience? Analysis of audience characteristics can be undertaken based on a simple but effective model that classifies people as being one of four types. Each candidate should be classified as one of the four personality types shown:

1. Emotive people are people-oriented and they tend to be; sociable, animated, spontaneous, unstructured and welcome change. They prefer the broad picture but cant be bothered with the details. Emotive people often have a short attention span, so keep the presentation short and focused and keep it at the overview level, avoiding discussion of any details.

2. Directive people are high in dominance but low in sociability. They tend to be; aggressive, intense, pushy, determined and opinionated. Their goal driven nature can be misinterpreted as unfriendly, especially if they encounter resistance to their aims at work. When presenting to these people stick to the facts, cover each point clinically and proceed to the next.

3. Reflective people are low in both dominance and sociability. They tend to be; precise, questioning, aloof, serious, scientific and stuffy. They often occupy product related jobs - such as scientists and engineers, and they pay attention to detail. When presenting to these people supply lots of detail and have plenty of support information at hand in order to address the detailed questions that are likely to be raised.

4. Supportive people are high in sociability and low in dominance. Their traits make them easy to recognize, being; loyal, steady, solid and reliable good workers. The majority of people are from this group, but you should bear in mind that they tend to fear change and will worry if given cause. You should therefore avoid risking being seen as uncaring or aggressive and should take time to pre-empt any contentious issues.

Targeting Your Audience

It is important to target your message to the correct audience, if you prepare for reflective candidates and your audience is predominantly directive then they are likely to become bored - and being directives, they will probably make their feelings known.

Of course, this profiling depends, to some extent, on a familiarity with the audience. This will be easier with work colleagues than, for example, when creating a sales presentation for an external audience.

You will often have to piece together the audience profile from a variety of snippets of information - such as their job titles and ages. Other information that may prove useful includes any previous correspondence or conversations and anecdotal stories passed on by colleagues.

Audience profiling is an important precursor to preparing the content of your presentation and you may need to use all of your investigative instincts to get the most advantage from this process.

Targeting a Mixed Audience: Unfortunately presentations are normally targeted at an audience that is a mixture of personality types. So the question is who should you aim your presentation at? The answer will depend on the size and composition of the audience. Whilst there are an infinite number, of audience scenarios we will consider one example – to illustrate the kind of issues you should consider when deciding where to pitch your presentation.

In this scenario, you are presenting to a small mixed audience, but there isn't an identifiable key decision maker. Presenting to this kind of group will be your biggest challenge, and if you are unable to gain any further information about the group then your best strategy is likely to be to prepare a DIRECTIVE presentation.

This will keep any directives in the audience happy - and they are often influential. The emotive will be satisfied because your delivery will be fact based and punchy. To keep the reflective happy prepare a handout that will supply further details. The supportive will be influenced by the others during the presentation but may also warrant a pep-talk before or afterwards to address the specific concerns they may have.

Further Audience Analysis: As well as understanding the personality types that you will be presenting to there are some other key questions that you should ask about your audience.

- How many people will attend
- Why are they attending
- What do they want from the presentation
- How are they likely to react to the presentation
- What level of knowledge do they have already

Each of these questions should provide you with information that should help you to fine-tune the content of your presentation as well as making you better prepared when you come to deliver it. For example, audience members who have chosen to attend are likely to be more receptive than those who are there by obligation. In addition, an understanding of their existing knowledge will enable you to adjust the level at which you pitch your presentation.

The most important thing to remember is more you know about your audience the more you will be able to translate your presentation for them and therefore the clearer your message will be to them.

Designing a Presentation

Think of a presentation in terms of a journey; designed to take an audience to a pre-planned destination. Use this analogy to identify the key points of your message, prioritize them and allocate each one an appropriate time slot. Nearly all presentations should fit into a simple structure. This comprises three clearly identifiable parts - an introduction, followed by a main body and finally a conclusion. This is often expressed as:

- Tell them what you're going to tell them,
- Tell them,
- Tell them what you have told them.

A good guide for the breakdown of a presentation is the 10/80/10 rule - whereby the introduction and conclusion are each allotted 10% of the presentation time, with the main body comprising 80%. For example, a 30- minute presentation would have a 3-minute introduction and conclusion and main body lasting 24 minutes. This formula can be applied to any length of presentation - as it reflects a good breakdown from the audience’s perspective.

In researching and collating the material that you need and devising your key points you will have been concentrating on the main content of your presentation. This is fine, as the most effective and efficient way to prepare your presentation is to construct it in the order of: Introduction, Main Body, and then the Conclusion.

It is usually best to plan your presentation to have a question and answer session at the end. This will enable you to deliver your message and then end strongly with a clear and concise conclusion, before entering the relatively unpredictable area of tackling questions from the floor.

Identifying Key Points: In structuring your presentation, you may find it useful to divide your journey into a series of stages. You are then faced with the challenge of deciding how many stages there should be and what should constitute a stage.

It was also recommended that you should look at your aim statement and try to develop between three and five key points that you would like to drive home. This represents as much information as most people are able to take away from a presentation.

These key point messages can be considered as the intended destination for each stage of your journey. In other words key points are synonymous with stages in the same way that the aim statement is synonymous with the destination. If you are working in a familiar subject domain the key points may well be apparent; but what if the subject isn't familiar and the key points are not self-evident?

When you are preparing a presentation in an unfamiliar domain the most effective way to identify the key points is to ask other people. The people you should ask should be from a similar group as your intended audience. If they are predominantly directives, as is likely in the scenario of a sales manager making a case for equipping her field sales force with laptop computers then she should ask relatively senior people within the organization.

If she asked a colleague in the training department their comments would probably be heavily biased towards the training implications, whereas technical staff would be preoccupied with the specification and interfacing of IT systems. Neither group is likely to ask the sort of questions that are likely to be of most interest to senior management.

By asking a representative group, you should ensure that the key points are properly targeted and that the audience remains focused. You should ask them a question framed around your aim statement. 'What would you need to know which would' . . . followed by your aim statement. In the current example what would you need to know which would . . . demonstrate the competitive advantage of equipping the field sales force with laptop computers? Ask as many people, from a representative group as you can, and record their comments as potential key points.

The biggest advantage of this approach is its speed. It is quite common for people to spend hours sifting through information, collating it and then editing down into digestible chunks - whilst still struggling to devise a suitable presentation structure for it. Asking other people is a fast and effective way of devising potential key points and has the added advantage that the key points will be non-egocentric that is they will reflect what your audience wants to hear and not just what you want to tell them.

Key Points Example: This screen illustrates the sort of responses that you might expect when asking the question: 'What would you need to know which would . . . demonstrate the competitive advantage of equipping the field sales force with laptop computers?'

Here are some examples of what colleagues might ask when asked what the potential key point might be:

1. How will giving them laptops improve their sales volumes?

2. How much will all this cost and how long is the return on investment, in other words a detailed cost benefit analysis?

3. Would we be able to cut the sales force because of their increased productivity?

4. How long will it take to procure this equipment and software, and then how long will it take to carry out the training required?

5. What are the main business benefits, apart from cost-related issues - you know will the organization appear to be more professional, that kind of thing?

Prioritizing Key Points: Starting with the main body of your presentation, your first task is to decide on what your key points will be and order them in a way that will address the needs of your audience. Once again, you should be prioritizing what it is that the audiences want from the presentation.

The key points should be presented in the order that reflects their importance to the audience - with the most important first. If you do not do this you will find it difficult to hold their attention.

It may prove useful to write each key point on a piece of card and shuffle them in a variety of different presentation sequences and consider the effect of each on your audience. Ask yourself, or others, which will have the most impact?

Your next task is to divide the presentation up so that the correct amount of time is allocated to each of your key points. This will ensure that the overall time allotted to the main body of your presentation does not overrun. For example if the main body is planned to last 10 minutes and their are three

key points, as in this presentation, then you might divide it into two minute and one six minute segments. Alternatively, you might create three equal segments. Once again let the requirements of the audience determine this division.

Focus on the Message: The overall message of the presentation should be embodied in the aim statement. It is important to keep the focus of your presentation on the message and not on the information and facts that underpin that message. This can be very difficult; especially when the message is supported by a multitude of facts that you think the audience should know.

If your presentation does consist of a series of facts and supporting evidence, then the audiences are likely to assimilate these and draw their own conclusions. If this happens you will lose the opportunity to influence and shape the audiences interpretation. It is far more effective to communicate your messages and then support them with an adequate level of facts and information - so that the audience can line them up behind the message you wish to convey.

As you develop the content of the presentation you should devise a message, or messages, to communicate each key point. However, you should only include sufficient facts to support and validate these messages.

Depending on the size and scope of each stage, it may be necessary to devise one or more sub-messages to communicate the key point. Each message and sub-message should be supported by its own support facts and information.

From your research, you should have a surplus of facts and information available and the main challenge facing you should be the selection of an appropriate sub-set to support each of your messages. One of the best rules of thumb to adopt when screening your research information is to:

Stop adding facts when your point is clear and present them in order of importance. Remember, whilst quoting authoritative sources may be useful when presenting support facts and information, your audience are unlikely to want a detailed explanation of all the processes and investigations that you have carried out.

Your Presentation Style: Before creating a detailed presentation it is worth considering the pros and cons of the three presentation styles normally available to you. Firstly, you could memorize the presentation, secondly you could write a full script and read from it and thirdly you could use free, conversational speech aided by some form of notes or cue cards.

Committing a presentation to memory represents an enormous overhead in terms of time and effort and is unnecessary except in some situations where you may be need to present the same subject time and time again. Another drawback with a memorized presentation is that you have to concentrate so hard on remembering what to say that the style can become stilted.

Reading from a fully scripted presentation invariably leads to a dull and boring monologue. It is also likely to reduce eye contact and general spontaneity, with a resultant loss of impact. These problems can generally only be overcome by employing a professional speechwriter to write a presentation that will be delivered by a professional actor.

The use of natural conversational language assisted by pre-prepared cues is usually the best style for a business presentation. Adopting this approach will help you to sound normal, natural and spontaneous and it will also create a less formal and more relaxed relationship between you and your audience.

The use of this cue-assisted natural presentation style underpins the remainder of this section. However in situations where you need to adopt an alternative approach - be it a memorized or scripted presentation, then the content planning can follow a similar approach - but with a greater level of detail being added.

By placing each fact or piece of information on a separate card, you will have the ability to move him or her around independently when devising the optimum support information for each message and sub-message. Placing all of the information relating to a given message on the same card would impose an artificial restriction on your ability to do this.

Your Presentation Structure: Placing the facts and information that you have collated into the correct position within your presentation structure is a critical process. One of the best ways to put the facts into their optimum sequence to support the messages is to write each fact and piece of information on a separate planning card - these are typically the size of a small postcard. Then by shuffling the order around you will be able to experiment until you find a sequence that you feel delivers the best effect.

During this process, you may decide to alter your original structure, changing the sequence and relationships between certain messages. Remember, that it is the impact and clarity of the messages that is important, and not sticking rigidly to a structure that can be improved. You may also find that certain facts and pieces of information are more effective in supporting an alternative message to the one that you had originally envisaged - if that is the case, move the facts.

Remember that the best rule of thumb to adopt when screening your research information is to: stop adding facts when your point is clear and present them in order of importance.

When you are happy that you have taken this level of planning as far as you can you should apply a simple but unambiguous numbering convention to all of your planning cards.

It is also useful to annotate each card with the approximate time that you think each fact or piece of information will take to present effectively. As each stage of the presentation has a pre-defined time, you will then become aware as you approach its time limit. This is one of the most effective ways of avoiding the common problem - of preparing a presentation that is too long. This may only become apparent when you rehearse the presentation - and then realize, at the eleventh hour, that a serious redesign is required.

Designing Cue Cards: At this time, you should have a clear picture of your presentation; you will know the overall message - that is encapsulated in the aim statement. You will have devised a series of key points and the messages and sub-messages that you need to present in a way that is clear and convincing. Furthermore, you will have organized, in order of importance, the facts and information that you are going to use - and these will be clearly numbered.

The amount of detail you require will depend upon the nature and complexity of the material you are presenting, your level of familiarity with it, and your experience and confidence as a presenter.

The planning cards that you have may represent a sufficient level of detail from which to deliver a spontaneous presentation. However, it is more likely that you will want to convert your planning cards to cue cards. These are a common presentation aid and their role is precisely as their name suggests - cuing the presenter.

Cue cards should hold the level of information necessary to enable you to present in a natural and seemingly spontaneous way. They are so widely used that it is usually acceptable for the presenter to hold them in one hand and refer to them openly, as required. The cards recommended for the planning phase are also ideally suited for use as cue cards.

The first principle is to ensure that a clear and unambiguous numbering convention is applied to all of the cards - so that if you drop during your presentation you can quickly re-arrange them into the correct sequence.

Only write on one side of each cue card - this avoids the distracting behavior of flipping and manipulating cards and confusion as to whether or not you have addressed both sides of each spent card. Only communicate one theme or idea on each card - this way when you have covered the point you will be confident that you can move onto the next card. Once again this avoids distracting behavior - of re-scanning cards that you have already dealt with.

Preparing the Venue and Seating Arrangement

It is important to arrive early in order to familiarize yourself with the venue and any audio-visual equipment that you will be using. If you are presenting in a familiar setting, for example within your own organization the room and its layout will be familiar. However, you may be presenting at a location that you have never seen before - the boardroom of a host organization, a hotel suite or an exhibition. Where this is the case it is important to plan your arrival at the venue well ahead of time.

There are logistics involved when traveling to a remote location; organizing any travel tickets and accommodation, any specialist equipment and props, and packing the clothing and other belongings that you require, will need careful thought and planning. The best advice is to build in a significant safety factor - to allow for any unforeseen travel or accommodation problems.

When you are presenting at an external location you should try to pre- arrange access to the room that you will be presenting in. Even if it is being used immediately before your slot you could try and gain access to this event - as it is important to familiarize yourself with the surroundings. If you are unable to get there sufficiently early, then you should contact the venue in advance and request a copy of the floor plan and any seating arrangement options they offer.

The venue will set the mood for your presentation; an informal gathering in a small cheerful office will create a very different mood to a large conference room in a hotel. Where possible try to assess as many aspects of the room as you can - it's size, coloring, layout, lighting, position of power points, doorways, work surfaces and any refreshment facilities. Pay particular attention to the position that you, the presenter, will occupy and the location of any support equipment.

Stand in the position that you will occupy when presenting and check the line of sight to your audience. Are there any barriers to them seeing you clearly, such as columns or projection equipment? If so, can you alter the position of these obstacles or the seating arrangement? Practice speaking from the podium or stage to familiarize yourself with the surroundings and see how your voice carries. If you can, ask someone to stand at the back and confirm how you sound from there; but remember that your voice will carry less well when the room is full.

If you are able to adjust the temperature set it to just below what is comfortable as when the room fills up the temperature will rise. You don't want to be hot and flustered and neither do you want your audience dozing in excessive heat. If there is any chance of getting fresh air into the room this can help to keep your audience alert.

Make sure that any equipment you requested is present and working properly. It is very disconcerting to have to learn how to use unfamiliar equipment halfway through a presentation. Remember, even equipment that looks familiar may actually be a model you haven't used before. A single unfamiliar function or strangely placed button has the potential to stop you when you are in full flow.

Where your presentation will be dependent on a consumable item - such as an overhead projector bulb, check that you know how to replace it and ensure that a spare is handy. When you are presenting at an external location, make a note of the technical support extension number so that any equipment failure can be remedied as soon as possible.

Make sure that your audio-visual aids are installed in the correct position and sequence. If these include a slide show, it is worth checking through them - to confirm they are all present, sequenced and the right way up. This will also enable you to check that your images are in focus, and familiarize yourself with adjusting this setting.

If you will be using a PA system then perform a sound check. Pay particular attention to avoiding acoustic feedback, which is affected by both the volume and the position of the microphone in relation to the speakers. Also, check that your microphone will not be rubbing against your clothing as you gesture and move around.

Place any pointers, pens, remote control units and other hand held devices where they are easily accessible. Having water or another drink handy is important, if you do dry-up, it is much easier to take a quick sip than to hack your way through the remainder of your presentation.

Seating Arrangement: In small and medium size venues you will probably have considerable discretion over the seating layout. It is important to get the right balance when seating your audience; comfort is an issue but try not to make them so comfortable that they fall asleep.

Spacing chairs out so that everybody has sufficient room to store their bags and briefcases will also create a less claustrophobic feeling. If your audience are likely to make notes during your presentation you might want to provide chairs with armrests or supply complimentary clipboards - which may carry your organizations logo.

Whilst the seating layout is often fixed in large venues, you can experiment with the seating plan at smaller venues. A series of straight and narrow rows stretching back from you may permit easy eye contact but may restrict the ability of people at the back to see and hear clearly.

If this plan is switched to wide rows in front of you, then the majority of the audience will be able to see and hear clearly but it will be difficult for you to make eye contact with those people sitting at the periphery.

A semi-circular, or n arrangement provides an effective format as both the acoustics and visibility work well for the audience. You will also find it easy to engage all members of the audience with eye contact. This arrangement takes up slightly more space than the other options but is well worth the effort where there is sufficient room.

If your presentation involves a lot of note taking, or includes workgroup- based interaction, you might want to include tables in the seating plan. The plan shown is the classic schoolroom type layout and this can be significantly improved simply by turning the end of the tables towards the presenter.

By doing this the members of the audience will have a better view of your visual aids and each table will be able to accommodate twice the number of people - which is ideal for any group based working. If you want to use group interaction during your presentation then arrange the audience so that they are sitting in groups of between five and eight.

Research shows that people are most likely to contribute to group sessions when there are enough people to create some energy within the group but not so many that they feel excluded. Groups of between five and eight people have been shown to optimize this.

Final Point and Getting Start

A final point regarding floor plans where your audience is an unknown quantity is that you may find it helpful to remove the back row of seats. This avoids the common problem where the audience filters in and head for the seats furthest from the presenter. By placing potentially surplus seats at the sides of the room, latecomers can help themselves to a seat and join at the back.

When planning any pre-presentation food and drink think carefully; you don't want to spend a lot of money on lavish food and drinks just to put your audience to sleep. As with your own personal preparation, light snacks and sandwiches are best and it is advisable to avoid alcohol where possible. If possible, hold over part of the catering - such as desserts and any alcoholic drinks until a post presentation gathering.

Depending on the size and level of formality of your presentation, it may be a good idea to welcome members of your audience as they arrive. If you are present but wait impassively, or are preoccupied, as the audience filters in this can create a cold and unwelcoming atmosphere that can be difficult to overcome - regardless of how good your presentation is.

Getting Started: There are two key points about any presentation. Firstly, it is important to start well and inform your audience of the presentations overall structure and the style of interaction you would prefer. Secondly,you should then Focus on delivering your message and avoiding self- analysis during your presentation.

When your presentation actually begins, if you find that you are suffering from last minute nerves, you can calm yourself by not speaking immediately. Consciously deepen your breathing as you take in your audience, holding eye contact with two or three of them for 3-4 seconds. Then when you feel ready, start speaking as you maintain eye contact with one individual before moving on to another.

This is the time to switch your focus firmly onto the message. This does not mean that body language, eye contact and interaction with your audience are not important - they are. These vital presentation skills are dealt with in the next section.

Any presenter who asks he or she ‘how am I doing?’ is liable to deal his or her own presentation a critical blow. You cannot perform real-time self- assessments in mid-presentation. The human mind can only cope with one major task at a time and delivering your message should become that all encompassing task once your presentation has started.

The effect of gaining their attention; it is then your job to make sure that you keep it.

Presentation Styles: The presentation style that you adopt should be influenced by the size of your audience together with the level of formalitythat is appropriate. The following classification divides presentations into one of four broad categories:

Type 1

Examples of this type of presentation would be: a committee meeting, a sales pitch or an interdepartmental presentation. Here you should establish eye contact with each member of the audience early on and remain facing them at all times, in order to hold their attention.

Type 2

Examples of this type of presentation would be: the introduction of new products to established suppliers or the briefing of work colleagues. Here it is often best to interact with the audience by soliciting questions and letting individuals make meaningful, but brief, contributions.

Type 3

When presenting at large formal events such as a conference or a corporate AGM, check early on that all sections of the audience can hear you clearly. Punctuate your presentation with links, clear summing-ups and by repeating your main points.

Type 4

An informal presentation to a large audience is relatively rare, but might for example occur if you were asked, at very short notice, to contribute from the floor when attending a conference or similar event. In this case, make sure that you keep your message simple and speak slowly with clear enunciation. Only expand on your general point if requested to do so.

COMMUNICATION

Communication is transfer of information from one person to another, whether or not it elicits confidence. But the information transferred must be understandable to the receiver **–G.G. Brown**

American Society of Training Directors: 'The interchange of thought or information to bring about mutual understanding and confidence or good human relation."

Newman and Summer: "Communication is an exchange of facts, ideas, opinions, or emotions by two or more persons. Communication is also defined as an interrelated approach by words, letters, symbols, or messages and as a way that one organisation member shares meaning understanding with another.

"Leland Brown: "Communication is the transmission and interchange of facts, ideas, feelings, or course of action."

COMMUNICATION PROCESS

A famous English writer Francis Bacon has said, "Reading makes a full man, writing an exact man, and its symposium a ready man". In order to make a man 'exact' i.e. to say effectively what he wants to say, the writer has to make considerable effort. While speech comes to us very naturally and spontaneously, writing comes after serious practice and careful organization of thought. The word 'write' has been derived from the old English word 'writan' that meant to scratch draw or inscribe. It shows that man learnt writing through a long process of drawing, scoring or incising symbols on rock faces, dried skins, tree barks and clay tablets. The alphabet of any language is, therefore, a result of evolution.

In the same way, the combination of the characters or letters of alphabet into words, words into sentences and sentences into paragraphs have gone through a long history of man's attempt to communicate, and give some kind of permanence or preservation to his communication. For this purpose every language has evolved its own rules of grammar, though many languages grouped together have more or less similar rules.

It may be clear from the definition of communication discussed in the previous lesson that it is two-ways process that takes place when the receiver provides feedback to the sender. For instance, giving an instruction to a subordinate and receiving its acceptance is an example of two-way communication. On other hand, in case of one-way communication, feedback is absent. Here the sender communicates without expecting or getting feedback from the receiver. A policy statement from the chief executive is an example of one way communication. One-way communication takes less time than two-way communication. In certain situations, one-way communication is more effective to get work from the subordinates.

Two-way communication is superior to one way communication in the following respects:

(i) Two-way communication is more effective than one-way communication. The feedback allows the sender to refine his communication so that it becomes more precise and accurate.

(ii) Receivers' self-confidence is higher in case of two-way communication as they are permitted to ask questions and seek clarification from the senders.

However, in case of two-way communication, the sender may feel embarrassed when the receiver draws his attention to sender's mistakes and ambiguities. It is therefore, essential to discuss the communication process in comprehensive manner. This lesson discusses the same.

Understanding Communication Process

A conventional analysis of communication begins with a definition of the term. Many such definitions exist, so we would have no difficulty finding one suitable for our use. But our approach is not conventional. We do not use words to define words, for, as we will see, such definitions are dangerous. Instead, we use an operational definition. By operational definition we mean one that demonstrates how something works. The following pages present an operational definition in the form of a model.

In this presentation of the model, we strive to look with scientific diligence into the phenomenon of human communication. We take the event involving one human being communicating with another. We choose a face-to-face oral communication event because this is the communication situation with which we are best acquainted. Later in the chapter, we adapt the model to written communication. Our plan is to take the communication event and place it under the microscope of our minds. Our goal is to show how the process works and how it does not work.

In developing our model, we must incline heavily on the theoretical aspects, as we are not dealing with a subject that has received total factual support. The theoretical material presented, however, represents authoritative thinking on the subject: and research is constantly producing facts that lend support to this thinking. Regardless of its factual bases, this presentation will give us a meaningful understanding of communication and will provide us with principles that we can successfully apply to real-life communication problems.

The Common Misconception

Before beginning our analysis of the model, let us dispense with a common misconception. If you are like most people, you have never thought much about what communication really is. If you have thought about it, probably you have viewed communication as a very normal human activity. This assumption is far from correct.

Human communication at least the verbal part of it is far from being a natural function; that is, it is not the sort of thing we would do if left to nature's devices, as we would many of our other activities. Our hands, for example, would perform their natural functions of picking up and handling things whether we grew up with jungle animals or with civilized people. Likewise, our mouths would take in food and our teeth and jaws would chew it in either event. And most of our other body parts would function naturally without instruction from other human beings. However, we cannot say the same about the major organs used in communication. Our vocal apparatus would not make words if we were not taught to make them.

Neither would our brains know them nor our hands write them without instruction. Clearly, communication is a function that we must learn. It was originated by human beings, and it must be acquired from human beings.

The Communication Environment

Study of the communication process logically is preceded by an analysis of the environment in which communication occurs.This is the sensory environment, in which we find ourselves every moment. It is made up of all the signs existing in the world of reality that surrounds each of us. Your sensory environment is the real world surrounding you as you read these words. It consists of all the signs your senses can detect. More specifically, it is all you can see, taste, smell, hear, or feel in that part of the world that surrounds you.

By ‘world of reality’ or ‘real world’ we mean that what actually exists. It contrasts with the world that exists only in people's minds i.e. world of imagination. Of course, one may argue that what exists in the mind also is real that, right or wrong, the content of a mind exists in that mind. For our purpose, however, we must allow this variation in our definition. It is important to distinguish between what actually is in the world around a communicator and what the communicator says or thinks it is. Often the two are not the same.

By signs we mean everything from the real world that can act as a stimulus to us. In other words, it is everything that our sensory receptors can detect. It is what our eyes can see, our ears can hear, our nostrils can smell, our tongues can taste, and our flesh can touch. It may be a spoken word, the sound of objects crashing together, a printed word, the aroma of a flower, or the movement of a bird. Thus, an individual sign is a portion of the real world that can create a response within us.

From the preceding comment we can deduce the meaning of sensory receptors: those body organs that we use to detect the signs in the real world. Specifically, the term refers to our eyes, noses, ears, mouths, and flesh with its ability to detect surface and temperature differences.

I. Sign Detection

Our sensory receptors continuously pick up some of the infinite number of signs existing in our communication environment. Stated another way, the signs around us continuously produce responses within us through our receptors. Perhaps this phenomenon can best be explained by an example.

At this very moment, you are looking at this printed page. On it is the words (signs) that your eyes are picking up. We hope that these are the primary signs you are receiving, but there are others. Probably you are picking up some of them from time to time. Perhaps there are various noises around you -- voices from another room, the ticking of a clock, a radio playing in the distance, a roommate's movements and sounds. From time to time you may become aware of being hot or cold, or your back may itch, or your sitting position may become uncomfortable. Thus, as you read these pages your sensory receptors are continuously picking up signs from all these parts of the reality that surrounds you.

II. Sensory Limitations

The number and types of signs we can detect from the real world, however, are limited by our sensory abilities. In short, the human sensory receptors are restricted. They are not capable of detecting all the signs that we know exist in the real world. For example, our eyes can detect only a small part of the total spectrum of wavelengths; and the ability to detect within these wavelengths varies from person to person. We can see only a fraction of the distance a hawk can see. Our ears can pick up only a narrow band of the vast range of air vibrations, and people's ability to pick up sounds within these ranges varies. As we all know, dogs and birds can hear much that we cannot. Likewise, we can smell only the stronger odors around us, while dogs and most other animals do a much better job of smelling and so. Clearly, our senses are limited and can detect only a small portion of the reality surrounding us.

III. Selective Perception

Although incapable of detecting all that exists in the real world, our sensory receptors can select some signs and ignore others. Place yourself, for example, in a roomful of talking people, and notice how it is possible to tune in on one conversation and ignore others. Or notice how you are able to focus your vision on one minute object and then expand your view to a much broader picture. All of us have this ability to varying extents, and we can make use of it with all of our senses.

IV. Varying Alertness and Perception

Our detection or non-detection of signs also depends on our receptiveness to signs. There are times when we are keenly alert to our communication environment and times when we are less alert. Certainly you have experienced occasions when you were sleepy, in a daze, or just daydreaming. During such times, you missed many of the signs in your communication environment. When you are asleep, you detect almost none.

The Communication Process

To this point we have seen how each of us lives in an environment of signs and how these signs are with us throughout each day. We have also seen how our ability to detect these signs varies, how we can tune them in or tune them out, and how our alertness to them varies across time. With this knowledge of the communication environment as a foundation, we are now ready to describe the communication process.

Communication is a two-way process in which there is an exchange and progression of ideas towards a mutually accepted direction or goal. For this process to materialize, it is essential that the basic elements of communication be identified. These elements are:

Sender/Encoder/Speaker

Message

Medium

Receiver/Decoder/Listener

Feedback

Sender/Encoder/Speaker

The person who initiates the communication process is normally referred to as the **sender**. From his personal data bank he selects ideas, **Encoding of** encodes them and finally transmits them to the receiver in the form of a **message.** The entire burden of communication then rests upon the sender or encoder. His choice of images and words, and the combination of the two is what goads the receiver to listen carefully. In this process a number of factors come into play, primary among them being an understanding of the recipient and his needs. If the message can be formulated in accordance with the expectations of the receiver, the level of acceptance is going to be higher. For example, a consultant wishes to communicate with the HRD manager of a company. The objective is to secure consultancy projects on training of personnel. If the consultant wishes the HRD manager to communicate with him, he has to ensure that their goals converge. He has a tough task ahead of him. The manager has been interacting with many consultants. Why should he pay heed to the proposal of this consultant? In a situation such as this, a good strategy to be adopted is to expand the purview of the proposal and make it company specific. The result could be highlighted and spelt out in terms of increase in sales. If sufficient preparation has been done, the message too would be formulated in a manner conducive to the interests of the HRD manager.

Receiver/Decoder/listener

The listener receives an encoded message, which he attempts to decode. This process is carried on in relation to the work environment and the value perceived in terms of the work situation. If the goal of the sender is clear in the mind of receiver the job of **decoding** becomes quite easy and the listener find the **message** more receptive. The decoding of the message is done in almost entirely the same terms as were intended by the sender. In the example cited above, as soon as the HRD manager realizes that the proposal of the consultant is going to result in tangible benefits, he becomes more receptive and his interest in communication is reinforced.

Message

Message is the encoded idea transmitted by the sender. The formulation of the message is very important, for an incorrect patterning can turn the receiver hostile or make him lose interest. At this stage the sender has to be extremely cautious. What is the order in which he would like to present his ideas? Suppose he has four points to make. Would he (a) move in the stereotyped manner of presenting them in a sequence or (b) would he like to be innovative and proceed in a creative way? Probability is high that in the first case and he might become monotonous and in the latter case

(b) he might touch a wrong spot. How then should the message be formulated and transmitted? The ordering, as stated earlier, should be based on the requirements of the listener so that its significance is immediately grasped. The minute the receiver finds his goals codified in the message, he sits up, listens and responds. The message thus has made an impact.

Medium

Another important element of communication is the medium or channel. It could be oral, verbal or non-verbal. Prior to the composition of the message, the medium. channel should be decided. Each medium follows its own set of rules and regulations. For example, in oral communication one can afford to

be a little informal, but when using the written mode, all rules of communication need to be observed. It must be remembered that anything in writing is a document that would be field for records or circulated to all concerned.

Feedback

This is the most important component of communication. Effective communication takes place only when there is feedback. The errors and flaws that abound in business situations are a result of lack of feedback. Let us take a look at the typical responses of people involved in miscommunication: "This is not what I meant" or "This is not what I said" or "This was not my intention". If feedback is solicited on all occasions, this error can be minimized or even completely done away with. Fallacious statements or erroneous conclusions are made because of lack of confirmation through feedback and discrepancy between the message transmitted and message understood.

Process of Communication

The sender, according to his ideas, behaviour pattern and intention, selects a message, encodes it, and transmits it to the receiver through a medium-be it oral, verbal or non-verbal. As soon as the message reaches the receiver, he decodes it and gives an internal response to the perceived message. It is noteworthy that the response is not in relation to the actual content but rather to the "perceived content" of the original message. This completes the first phase of the communication process. Interestingly at this point words in themselves have no meaning. It is the perception of a particular word and the intention behind it that assign it meaning. The manner in which the sender and receiver perceive the same word could give rise to difference in encoding and decoding.

In the second phase, the receiver formulates his message, encodes it and transmits it to the original sender-now-turned-receiver. This stage is referred to as providing feedback and is most crucial. Unless and until there is feedback - be it in the verbal or the non-verbal form-, we cannot say that effective communication has taken place. If the feedback is in tune with the original intent of the sender, communication proceeds without a hitch. However, there could be moments when the receiver does not agree with the message of the sender. This does not mean that there is breakdown of communication. We can, in such instances, state that effective communication is stalled for the time being. It could resume after subsequent discussions.

For the process of communication to be effective, there should be a well defined goal in the mind of the sender. Harmony between the goals of the two communicators makes for good and easy progression of ideas and concepts. Whatever be the initial situation, the sender necessarily needs to adhere to the following stages:

1. Create awareness in the mind of the receiver on the topic.

2. Propose his own point of view with clarity and preciseness so as to eliminate possibilities of confusion in the mind of the receiver.

3. Enable smooth flow of discussion through observance of communication strategies.

4. Reinforce or correct ideas in the mind of the receiver concerning the goal of communication.

5. Achieve the goal of communication.

At the time of transmission and reception of message, all our five senses play an important role in grasping its intent. The sense that is predominantly active at a particular stage, helps in a higher degree of absorption, for example, in the course of the communication, if the visual sense at a particular moment, is highly active, we respond only to the visual cues.

COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Introduction

The science of communication is almost as old as civilization. From time immemorial, the need to share or to communicate had been felt. Different vehicles/channels were identified and subsequently improvised for the purpose of transmission of ideas and concepts. A study of these channels enables us to gain an insight into the process of communication within and outside an organization.

Since communication is the lifeblood of an organization so, without proper communication organization cannot stay alive. As such, the top management of an organization should ensure that adequate and smooth communication flows in all directions and it is effective as well. A periodic review of the existing pattern of communication effectiveness should be made. This review would, on the one hand, reveal the direction in which the existing situation falls short of organizational requirements and, on the other would reveal the underlying forces responsible for the prevailing state of affairs as also the actions required to remove those.

Communication is, however, one of the most difficult of all the managerial activities to measure. Quantitative and objective proof of the success of effectiveness is extremely hard to come by. However, in evaluating communication, much can be accomplished by a systematic approach utilizing a planned method of evaluation that likes for results in terms of stated objectives and takes into account both success and failure.

Any assessment of communication, as such, requires the determination of the criteria for this evaluation and fixation of norms in respect of these criteria. Both of these are, further, to be oriented to the basic objective of the process itself. In general terms, the objective of communication may be defined as the passing of ideas and understanding from the sender to the target with the view to getting the desired behavioural response from the latter. The finding out of the actual behavioural responses and comparing these with the expected ones, however, in case of this continuously on-going process, presents insurmountable difficulties. The ultimate objectives of the communication are related to the communication programmes through their relationships with immediate objectives.

Effective communication, as such, might be the accurate transmission and receipt thereof and its correct understanding. There are several elements in communication that can be evaluated to assess directly the effectiveness of communication.

Objectives of Business Communication

The main purpose of all communication in an organization is the general welfare of the organization. Effective communication is needed at all stages in order to ensure this welfare. At the planning stage, information is needed on the various aspects of the enterprise, the feasibility of the project being undertaken, finances involved, man-power required, marketing conditions, publicity campaigns, etc. At the execution stage, orders are issued to the employees to start work, the workers associated with the project are constantly motivated and kept involved, a sense of discipline is cultivated among them and their morale is kept high. All this requires constant two way communication between the managers and the employees. Then at the assessment stage, the manager is again required to communicate with various sources, both internal and external, to assess the success of the project, and if a need is felt, to envisage modifications in the future plans. In view of this elaborated and complex commercial structure, communication can be used for any or more of the following objectives:

1.	Information	2.	Advice
3.	Order	4.	Suggestion
5.	Persuasion	6.	Education
7.	Warning	8.	Raising morale
9.	Motivation		

INFORMATION

One of the most important objectives of communication is passing or receiving information about a particular fact or circumstance. It can be done either through spoken or written language or by using other system of signs or signals. Managers need complete, accurate and precise information to plan and organize; employees need it to translate planning into reality.

External information

Information on the following aspects is very vital for the existence and welfare of any organization:

1. Information about its products: (i) consumer response to its products in comparison with competing products with reference to quality as well as price, (ii) whether they are being produced in conformity with the latest trends.

2. Information about the availability of credit: the nature of the various financial institutions and the terms and conditions on which credit is offered by them.

3. Information about the availability of raw materials: how better quality raw materials can be procured on easier terms, or if there are any cheaper substitutes available.

4. Information about the Government rules and regulations: what kind of effect the rules and regulations of the Government and the changing political scene can have on the product policy of the organization.

5. Information about the advertising media: their efficiency, suitability, relative merits and the expenses involved.

6. Information about the latest development in the fields of science and technology: how latest innovations can be used to modernize the production techniques wither to improve the

quality of the products or to effect economy in labour, time, money, etc.

Internal information

Internally, information should be freely given to the employees on the following points:

1. Information on job assignments and procedures governing them: Information about the precise nature of every employee's job, its scope and the procedures governing it should be readily available with every employee as well as in the files of the organization.

2. Information on status and decision-making powers: The exact designation of the officers and their decision-making powers enjoyed by them should be clearly defined.

3. General information on the policies and activities of the organization: If the employees are kept well informed about the policies of the organization and other related aspects, it inculcates among a sense of belonging and gives them greater job satisfaction. It also helps them to acquire confidence in themselves.

ADVICE

Giving advice is another important objective of communication. Information is always factual and objective. But advice, since is involves personal opinions, is likely to be subjective. Information is neutral in itself. When it is offered to a person, he may use it as he likes. But advice is given to him either to influence his opinion or his behaviour. I may prove helpful, but it may also lead to disaster.

Importance of advice

Commercial activities in the modern world have become extremely complex. Each individual activity needs specialized handling, which cannot be expected from people working single-handed. However competent a businessperson may be, he cannot have specialized knowledge of all branches like fiancé, taxation, publicity, engineering, public relations, etc. If he wants to run his business successfully, he will have to seek expert advice quite frequently.

Within the organization, the supervisory staff is required to advise the junior employees. Supervisors are usually persons of long standing and have a great deal of experience at their command. Being in close contact with their superiors (usually the board of directors) they are well familiar with the policies and functioning of the organization. They are, therefore, in an excellent position to guide, counsel or advise their subordinate staff.

Advice flows horizontally or downwards

Advice by its very nature, flows horizontally or downwards. Expert advice from outside flows horizontally. The boards of directors advising one another on some policy matter are also engaged in a kind of horizontal communication. But advice soon starts flowing down to the management personnel, the supervisory staff and the subordinate staff or the operatives.

How to make advice effective

While offering advice, the advisor should keep the following points in mind:

1. Advice should be both man-oriented and work-oriented, i.e., it should be related to a specific piece of work, and should be given in such a way that it suits the individual needs of the recipient. It means that while explaining the complexities and subtleties of a job, the adviser ought to keep in mind the understanding power of the person he is advising.

2. Advice should not be given to a persons to make him feel conscious of his inferior knowledge or skill. If the adviser assumes a patronizing tone, the other person is bound to resent it. So the adviser ought to be very friendly in his attitude.

3. The only justified motive of giving advice is the betterment of the worker. The

adviser should genuinely feel this motive. And he should give this very feeling to the worker. He should so mould his tone and phrase his language that he makes the other persons feel absolutely at ease.

4. If given in a right tone, advice can often promote better understanding between the adviser and his subordinates. It can prove that the adviser is taking personal interest in his subordinate staff and is, therefore, interested in their welfare.

5. If the subordinate staff is given freedom to react, advice can become a two-way channel of communication. It may perhaps bring about someexcellent suggestions for the improvement of the organization's functioning.

COUNSELING

Counseling is very similar giving advice. Only, counsel is objective and impersonal. The counselor is a man of greater skill or knowledge on some specific subject and he offers his counsel without any personal interest or involvement. Advice has a personal touch about it; counsel is almost professional. Advice is often unsought and is unwelcome; counsel is eagerly sought.

A number of large business houses now have their counseling departments, which offer the employees advice on domestic or personal problems. Even an efficient employee may become tardy and indifferent if he is facing some personal problems at home. This may adversely affect the working of the organization. It may also infect other employees and lower their morale. Such employees are encouraged to consult the counseling department, which has on its staff a panel of doctors, psychologists and social workers. These experts hold a series of sittings with the employees and thrash out their problems. The employees are restored to their mental and physical health and the conditions in the organization are brought back to the normal.

ORDER

Order is an authoritative communication. It is a directive to somebody, always a subordinate, to do something, to modify or alter the course of something he is already doing, or not to do something. Whatever be the nature and size of an organization, orders are absolutely necessary for it. The downward flow of information is dominated by orders.

Types of order

Keeping different aspects of orders in mind, we can classify orders in various ways:

(a) Written and oral orders.

Written orders are usually given in the following cases:

1. The order is of a highly responsible nature. It is essential to keep a record of it and to make it absolutely specific.

2. The task is repetitive in nature. It is cumbersome and inconvenient to issue oral orders every time the task is to be done.

3. The person being ordered is remotely situated and it is not possible to give him oral orders.

Oral orders are given in the following cases:

1. The job is required to be done immediately.

2. It is ordinary job and there is no need of maintaining any written record.

3. There is a kind of permanent superior-subordinate relationship between the giver and

the receiver of the order and the order-giver does not feel the need of entering into the cumbersome process of issuing written orders.

(b) General and specific orders.

If orders are related to one particular activity, they are specific. If there are a number of activities having operational similarities, general orders may be issued to cover all of them. Again, in case it is not possible to foresee all the attendant situations connected with an activity, it may become necessary to issue general orders.

(c) Procedural and operational orders.

Procedural orders specify procedures to be adopted. They are general by nature. Operational orders are more closely related to the job in hand. They specify how a particular job is to be done.

(d) Mandatory and discretionary orders.

Mandatory orders have to be obeyed. Discretionary orders are usually in the nature of recommendations. They suggest what is desirable, what should be done. But it is up to the receive; to see their feasibility and to decide whether he ought to carry them out or not. The Head Office may issue discretionary orders to the branch manager, for the branch manager, being present on the spot, knows better whether the orders are to be carried out or not.

Characteristics of an effective order

1. I must be clear and complete so that the person who receives the order knows exactly what to do, how to do and when to do it.

2. It execution should be possible, that is, the person who has to execute it has the materials, tools, equipment, time and ability to execute it. If any hurdles are likely to be experienced,

the order should specify how they are to overcome.

3. It should be given in a friendly way so that it is not resented and is not carried out reluctantly.

Instruction

Instruction is a particular type of order in which the subordinate is not only ordered to do a job but is also given guidance on how to do it. If the accounts officer asks one of his clerks to prepare a voucher, he has issued an order. If he shows the clerk how to prepare a voucher and then asks him to prepare more, he has issued instructions.

SUGGESTION

It would be wrong to presume that the best ideas on a subject come only from the supervisory staff or the directors. The lower staff, in fact being actually in touch with the operative aspect, is capable of giving some positive suggestions on procedural and operational aspects.

Suggestion enjoys one great advantage over other means of communication like advice or order. Advice comes from an expert, order comes from a higher authority. In either case, the recipient of the communicator, is slightly conscious of his inferiority and may resent it. Accepting a suggestion is at his discretion, so a suggestion is usually welcome.

Suggestion is supposed to be a very mild and subtle form of communication. Still, since it flows horizontally or vertically upwards, it may hurt someone's ego to recognize its utility and readily accept it. But enlightened executives should set aside the ridiculous notions of false self-importance and welcome positive, constructive suggestions with an open mind.

These days, progressive houses make a provision for suggestion boxes, which are placed at some convenient place in the office or the factory. Workers are encouraged to drop their suggestions into these boxes. Sometimes these suggestions have to be written on specially prepared cards. If an employee does not want to reveal his name, there is a provision for it. These suggestion boxes are opened at regular intervals, the suggestions received are scrutinized and the employees offering the best suggestions are awarded prizes.

PERSUASION

Persuasion may be defined as an effort to influence the attitudes, feelings, or beliefs of others, or to influence actions based on those attitudes, feelings, or beliefs. Persuasion is an important objective of communication. Buyers have often to be persuaded to buy a particular article available with the seller in place of the one they actually wanted to buy. In the office of the factory, the lazy, the incompetent and the disgruntled workers have to be persuaded to do their work.

Human nature is not amenable to coercion or repression. Whenever force is applied to command a particular action, it breeds resentment and indignation.

It is better to use persuasion than compulsion. But even persuasion seeks to change beliefs and attitudes, which people do not like at all. So in order to be successful, persuasion has to be indirect and suggestive. The buyers and the workers should be so manipulated that they change their mind without getting conscious of the change, or if they are conscious, they believe that the change is to their advantage. Persuasion is an art, which has to be learnt with great care.

The art of persuasion

1. Persuasion needs conviction on your part. You should be genuinely convinced that the alternative course of action being suggested by you is in the interest of the organization as well as in the receiver's interest. You must not try to persuade others from a purely selfish motive.

2. Do not impose yourself on the receiver of your communication. Do not overwhelm

him with arguments. Give indirect hints and subtle suggestions. Gently channelise his thinking in such a way that he adopts the point of view or the course of action suggested by you as if he had arrived at it as a result of his own thinking.

3. If the other person is docile and has a flexible mind, he will be easily persuaded. But if he is headstrong, a self-opinionated person, try to meet him half-way. Concede a few points to hi in the beginning. Then gradually bring him round on the other points.

4. Bring yourself to the level of the other person. Try to look at the issue from his point of view and mould your arguments accordingly. Of the numerous arguments available with you, select those that may have special appeal to him.

The art of persuasion consists of four important steps:

1. Analyzing the situation. This is the preparatory step. The communicator analyses the situation to find out why the need of persuasion has arisen and what will be the advantages and disadvantages of the new course of action being suggested. He also studies the psychology of the man to be persuaded in order to plan a suitable strategy.

2. Preparing the receiver. It is but natural that people resent being persuaded to change their views or behaviour. The receiver has to be prepared for it. This can be done by putting him in a pleasant frame of mind. He may be complimented on some of his outstanding qualities and achievements. An appeal may be made to his adaptability and open-mindedness. The points on which the communicator agrees with him may be mentioned first, so that a kind of meeting ground for the communicator and the receiver is prepared. It is also necessary that the communicator discusses the whole issue from the receiver's point of view.

3. Delivering the message. The third step is to deliver the message. The message should be delivered stage by stage, with the help of forceful arguments, beginning with those parts of the

message, which are easier to accept, and delaying the unpleasant parts as much as possible.

4. Prompting action. Prompting action is but a logical consummation of the first three steps. If the first steps have been taken carefully, the receiver of the message will be easily persuaded to adopt a different course of action (or hold a different view).

EDUCATION

Education is a very conscious process of communication. It involves both teaching and learning and extends over considerably long periods. The main purpose of education is to widen knowledge as well as to improve skills. It is carried on at three levels: (a) at the management level; (b) at the level of the employees; and (c) at the level of the outside public.

1. Education for the management: Knowledge is multiplying fast. Each new day brings with it innovations, which if suitably applied can revolutionize the working of an organization. Managers are required to keep abreast of the latest innovations. In other words, they have to be educated. Their education can take place through books, lectures, seminars, case studies, study tours, etc. Junior managers have to be educated to assume responsibility when they succeed to higher positions.

2. Education for the employees. Just as the managers are required to keep abreast of the latest innovations in the field of commerce and technology, when these innovations are introduced in the office or the factory, the employees have to be educated to use them. Such a programme of education is called reorientation. Employees can be educated through talks, demonstrations, bulletins and house organs.

3. Education for the outside public. The outside needs knowledge on the new products being introduced into the market, the relative merits of the various brands already existing, the availability of the substitutes, complementary and supplementary products, comparative prices, concessions and discounts, if any. This useful knowledge is offered through advertisements, specially sponsored features in the newspapers, information talks and articles.

WARNING

If employees do not abide by the norms of the organization, or violate the rules and regulations, it may become necessary to warn them. Tardiness, negligence, defiance, tempering with the records, mishandling equipment, lack of regularity and punctuality, gossiping, pilfering office stationery and material, spreading rumours, misleading new employees are some of the actions that call for a reprimand or a warning. Warning is a forceful means of communication, for it demands immediate action. But in order to retain its effectiveness, it should be used sparingly and discreetly. While issuing warnings, the following points should be kept in mind:

1. Some warnings are general. 'No smoking', 'No talking', 'Beware of the dog' are general warnings. They are not aimed at any particular person, nor are they likely to hurt anybody's feelings. Such warnings are usually given in the form of notices. They are almost akin to information.

2. More often, warning are given to particular persons. They involve disciplinary action in the form of reprimand. Reprimands are very demoralizing; they may also evoke resentment. Before reprimanding an employee, it is very important to ascertain the truth of the charges leveled against him. Reprimand should never spring from personal prejudices. It should be as fair and dispassionate as possible. And it should never be accompanied with a display of rage.

3. Reprimand should not be administered to a person in the presence of others. It will make him feel humiliated and nobody likes to be humiliated. The worker should be summoned in the privacy of the supervisor's room and dispassionately talked to. He should be given an opportunity to explain himself. If his arguments fail to convince the supervisor, he should, without losing temper, clearly tell the worker what is expected of him.

4. It is also useful to investigate the causes of the worker's undesirable behaviour.He may be burdened by some domestic or personal problems. Or he may be nursing some personal

grudge against the supervisor or the organization. If the supervisor can succeed in talking him out of his problems, the warning given to him will become constructive.

5. The aim of giving a warning should be the betterment of the organization. It should not be used to cause disruption. It is very

important to be judicious in the choice of words used in administering warning and reprimands.

RAISING MORALE

Moral stands for mental health. It is the sum of several qualities like courage, fortitude, resolution and confidence. High morale and efficient performance go hand in hand. It acts as a kind of lubricant among people, binds them with a sense of togetherness and impels them to work in cooperation with one another in the best interest of their organization.

Factors conducive to the creation of a high morale

1. Every worker gets work suited to his physical and intellectual caliber.

He feels his work is important and it is appreciated by the authorities. He is free to do his work as he likes. He is encouraged to give suggestions.

2. The atmosphere in the premises is congenial. The superiors are efficient and their attitude is constructive. They enjoy the worker's respect.

3. Promotional avenues are available to the workers.

4. Genuine grievances of the workers are promptly removed.

MOTIVATION

Motivation energizes and activities a person and changeless his behaviour towards the attainment of desired goals. Motivation and behaviour are intimately related to each other. In order and persuasion, the communicator enjoys an upper hand. But in motivation he keeps himself in the background. He does not order his employees to work, he motivates them so that they work willingly and eagerly. A motivated worker does not need much supervision. He does his work as if it were his own, as if his own interests were closely tied up with the successful performance and completion of the work entrusted to him. An office or factory that enjoys the support of motivated workers shows much better results than another office or factory in which workers are commanded to work.

Offering monetary incentives is perhaps the most effective form of motivation. People working on contract basis are always motivated to work, for their earning increase in proportion to their work. People work reluctantly during the office hours but willingly stay back to work overtime. However, it may not be always possible, or even desirable, to offer monetary incentives. Such a practice is likely to set unhealthy precedents with the implication that whenever such motives are absent, the workers will just refuse to work.

Though earning money may be the most important motive for working harder, it is not the only motive. Other factors like job satisfaction, prestige, a sense of belonging to a great organization can also induce or motivate workers to work sincerely and efficiently. Motivation as a form of communication deals with these factors.

Human minds are not identical and are not stimulated to the same extent by the forces. It is for the supervisor to clearly understand all the motivating forces, analyze the psychological needs of the individual workers and to use proper motivation to make all his workers work in cooperation.

The following points deserve consideration in discussing motivation as a form of communication:

1. Workers should be invited to give suggestions and to participate in the decision-making process, if a suggestion coming from a junior employee is accepted, he will feel motivated to work hard and prove that his suggestion was really good.

2. If clear achievement goals are set before the workers so that they know what they are working for, they will work hard to achieve these goals.

3. Apart from the satisfaction of their basic human needs like food, clothing and shelter, all human beings yearn for security, healthy social relationships and a dignified and respectable existence. They would definitely feel motivated to work in an organization capable of offering them these things. The management should take effective steps to offer the workers security of work and a congenial atmosphere in which they can work in harmony with their colleagues.

4. Example, they say, is better than precept. If the supervisory staff is so sincere and competent that it can command the respect and confidence of the workers, the latter will feel motivated to work harder.

Effective Communication Skills

In any business environment, adherence to the 7 C's and the 4 S's helps the sender in transmitting his message with ease and accuracy. Let us first take a look at the 7 C's:

Credibility

Builds trust: If the sender can establish his credibility, the receiver has no problems in accepting his statement. Establishing credibility is not the outcome of a one-shot statement. It is a long-drawn out process in which the receiver through constant interaction with the sender understands his credible nature and is willing to accept his statements as being truthful and honest.

Courtesy

Improves relationships: Once the credibility of the sender has been established, attempts should be made at being courteous in expression. In the business world, almost everything starts with and ends in courtesy. Much can be accomplished if tact, diplomacy and appreciation of people are woven in the message.

Example

(a) Jane: "You can never do things right. Try working on this project. If you are lucky you may not have to redo it."

(b) Jane: "This is an interesting project. Do you think you would be able to do it. I know last time something went wrong with the project, but everyone makes mistakes. Suppose we sat down and discussed it threadbare I'm sure you would be able to do wonders".

The two statements convey totally different impressions. While the first statement is more accusative, the second is more tactfully and appreciative of the efforts put in by the receiver at an earlier stage. The crux of the message in both the statements is the same: You want an individual within an organization to undertake a project. The manner in which it is stated brings about a difference in approach. Further, expressions that might hurt or cause mental pain to the receiver should, as far as possible, be ignored. For this it becomes essential that the "I" attitude be discarded in favour of the "you" attitude. Development of interest in the "you" will perforce make the other individual also see the point of view of the other. At the time of emphasizing the "you-attitude", only the positive and pleasant "you-issues" should be considered. If it is being used as a corrective measure, then the results are not going to be very positive or encouraging.

Clarity

Makes comprehension easier: Absolute clarity of ideas adds much to the meaning of the message. The first stage is clarity in the mind of the sender. The next stage is the transmission of the message in a manner, which makes it simple language, and easy sentence constructions, which are not difficult for the receiver to grasp, should be used.

Correctness

Builds confidence: At the time of encoding, the sender should ensure that his knowledge of the receiver is comprehensive. The level of knowledge, educational background and status of the decoder help the encoder in formulating his message. In case there is any discrepancy between the usage and comprehension of terms, miscommunication can arise. If the sender decides to back up his communication with facts and figures, there should be accuracy in stating the same. A situation in which the listener is forced to check the presented facts and figures should not arise. Finally, the usage of terms should be nondiscriminatory, e.g., the general concept is that women should be addressed for their physical appearance whereas men for their mental abilities. This, however, is a stereotype and at the time of addressing or praising members of both the sexes, the attributes assigned should be the same. Similarly for occupational references. In the business world almost all professions are treated with respect. Addressing one individual for competence in his profession but neglecting the other on this score because of a so-called 'inferior' profession alienates the listener from the sender.

Consistency

Introduces stability. The approach to communication should, as far as possible, be consistent. There should not be too many ups and downs that might lead to confusion in the mind of the receiver. If a certain stand has been taken, it should be observed without there being situations in which the sender is left groping for the actual content or meaning. If the sender desires to bring about a change in his understanding of the situation, he should ensure that the shift is gradual and not hard for the receiver to comprehend.

Concreteness

Reinforces confidence. Concrete and specific expressions are to be preferred in favour of vague and abstract expressions. In continuation of the point on correctness, the facts and figures presented should be specific.

Abstractions or abstract statements can cloud the mind of the sender. Instead of stating: "There has been a tremendous escalation in the sales figure", suppose the sender made the following statement: "There has been an escalation in the sales figures by almost 50% as compared to last year”. The receiver is more apt to listen and comprehend the factual details.

Conciseness

Saves time. The message to be communicated should be as brief and concise as possible. Weighty language definitely sounds impressive but people would be suitably impressed into doing precisely nothing. As far as possible, only simple and brief statements should be made. Excessive information can also sway the receiver into either a wrong direction or into inaction. Quantum of information should be just right, neither too much nor too little, e.g. In most cases it has been seen that the date of the policy … Usually the policy date…

In the first example, the statement is rather long and convoluted. However, the second example gives it the appearance of being crisp, concise and to the point.

7 C's of Business Communication

C's **Relevance**

Credibility *Builds trust*

Courtesy *Improves relationships Clarity* *Makes comprehension easier Correctness* *Builds confidence Consistency* *Introduces stability Concreteness* *Reinforces confidence Conciseness* *Saves time*

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4 S's of Business Communication

An understanding of the 4 S's is equally important.

Shortness

Economizes. "Brevity is the soul of wit", it is said. The same can be said about communication. If the message can be made brief, and verbosity done away with, then transmission and comprehension of messages is going to be faster and more effective. Flooding messages with high sounding words does not create an impact. Many people harbour a misconception that they can actually impress the receiver, if they carry on their expeditious travails. Little do they realize how much they have lost as the receiver has spent a major chunk of his time in trying to decipher the actual meaning of the message.

Simplicity

Impresses. Simplicity both in the usage of words and ideas reveals a clarity in the thinking process. It is normally a tendency that when an individual is himself confused that he tries to use equally confusing strategies to lead the receiver in a maze. Reveal clarity in the thinking process by using simple terminology and equally simple concepts.

Strength

Convinces. The strength of a message emanates from the credibility of the sender. If the sender himself believes in a message that he is about to transmit, there is bound to be strength and conviction in whatever he tries to state. Half-hearted statements or utterances that the sender himself does not believe in add a touch of falsehood to the entire communication process.

Sincerity

Appeals. A sincere approach to an issue is clearly evident to the receiver. If the sender is genuine, it will be reflected in the manner in which he communicates. Suppose there is a small element of deceit involved in the interaction or on the part of the sender. If the receiver is keen and observed, he would be able to sense the make-believe situation and, business transactions, even if going full swing, would not materialize.

Barriers and Gateways of Communication

The success of a manager depends on how clear he is in his mind about his basic functions and how effectively he can transfer this clarity of thought to others. This involves a skill of helping others to understand the manager and to be understood by him. Thus, the need for better mutual understanding between labour and management in industry cannot be over-emphasized. It is, in fact, a prerequisite of congenial climate necessary for the overall advancement and productivity. The importance of communication in management for getting the work done may also be seen from the estimate of time which is spent by a manager in communication - verbal or written, in conferences or meetings, giving directions or receiving information. Most of the managers spend more than 60% of their time in communication with others.

Barriers in Communication: The various inadequacies that can be identified through communication evaluation are required to be analyzed in terms of various factors - obstructions and barriers - that impede flow communication. Any managerial action in this regard can be effective only when it strikes at the very root of the factors that lie at the very root of the problem. From this viewpoint, identification of different factors is necessary.

There might be a number of such barriers impeding the flow of communication in the organization. These may be classified as: (i) external (ii) organizational, and (iii) personal factors. However, such a classification does not suggest that these are mutually exclusive. Rather, such a classification is helpful in understanding the nature of communication barriers.

External Barriers

Barriers to communication may be either external to the parties involved or they might be internal to them. External barriers may affect communication in any context, whether organizational or otherwise. Such external barriers may be in the following forms:

1. **Semantic Barriers:** Semantic barriers are obstructions causes in the process of receiving or understanding of the message during the process on encoding and decoding ideas and words. These barriers arise from the linguistic capacity of the parties involved. Words are the principal communication instrument but a common difficulty with the words is that each word has several meanings. For example, in English language, the word 'round' has seventy five meanings. The

Oxford Dictionary records an average of twenty- eight separate meanings for each of the 500 most used words in the English language. Similar is the position in other languages. Thus, words sometimes fail to convey real meanings. Moreover, they work as barriers in communication in the following manner.

(i) Badly Expressed Message: Lack of clarity and precision in a message makes it badly expressed. Poorly chosen and empty words and phrases, careless omission, lack of coherence, bad organization of ideas, awkward sentence structure, inadequate vocabulary, platitudes, numbering repetition jargon, failure to clarify implications are some common faults found in this case.

(ii) Faulty Translations: Every manager receives various types of communications from superiors, peers, subordinates and he must translate information destined for subordinates, peers and superiors into language suitable to each. Hence the message has to be put into words appropriate to the framework in which the receiver operates, or it must be accompanied by an interpretation, which will be understood by the receiver. This needs a high level of linguistic capacity.

Approximate understanding of words and the consequent faulty translations lead to impaired efficiency and heavy costs.

(iii) Unclarified Assumptions: There are certain un-communicated assumptions, which underlie practically all messages. Though a message appears to be specific, it underlying assumptions may not be clear to the receiver.

(iv) Specialist's Language: It is often found that technical personal and special groups tend to develop a special, peculiar and technical language of their own. This increases their isolation from others and builds a communication barrier. Whatever be the intention of this special language, it hinders their communication with persons not in their specialty, because of the receiver's ignorance of that type of language.

2. **Emotional or Psychological Barriers:** Emotional or psychological factors are the prime barriers in inter-personnel communication. The meaning ascribed to a message depends upon the emotional or psychological status of both the parties involved. In a communication, apart from the message, there is a meta-message, that is, what one gets out of a message when decoding. Meta-message, the emotions of the receiver play a vital role and he may not be at a wavelength as that of the communicator. Keith Davis opines that these "exist in the people's minds or because of their actions, such as being hard to contact or difficult to understand. These barriers to communication are just at effective as an actual physical wall. Often these human barriers are more like filter paper then a brick wall. They let through some communications, but hold back others, thereby making communication inadequate….This 'half-way' communication gets 'half-way' results". Following are some emotional barriers:

(i) Premature Evaluation: Rogers and Roethlisberger in 1952, first pointed out this barrier. Premature evaluation is the tendency of prematurely evaluating communications, rather than to keep an un-compromised position during the interchange. Such evaluation stops the transfer of information and begets in the sender a sense of futility. This barrier can be remedied by 'empathy', non-evaluative listening, where the communication is listened to in a non-committal and unprejudiced way, so that sagacious decision and action can follow.

(ii) Inattention: The preoccupied mind of a receiver and the resultant non-listening is one of the major chronic psychological barriers. It is a common phenomenon that people simply fail to react to bulletins, notices, minutes and reports.

(iii) Loss by Transmission and Poor Retention: When communication passes through various levels in the organization, successive transmissions of the same message are decreasingly accurate. It is said that in case of oral communications about 30 percent of the information is lost in each transmission. Even in case of written communication, loss of meaning might occur as far as the appended interpretation, if any, is concerned. Poor retention of the information is again a malady. It is shown that employees retain about 50 percent of information only, whereas supervisors retain about 60 percent of it.

(iv) Undue Reliance on the Written Word: Written word is no substitute for sound face-to-face relationships and that employees cannot be persuaded to accept companies' viewpoint and policies through 'slick', easy to read, will-illustrated publications, unless there is a fair degree of mutual trust and confidence between the organization and its employees. Further, a written communication might fail to explain the purpose of order, procedure or directive. Chester Barnard has laid down that a communication must appeal to the receiver as consonant with the organization's purpose and with his own personal interest. Written communication often tells what is to be done, but not why it should be done, and it lacks the persuasive quality. Moreover, a written communication can be above the level of readership, and failure to ascertain the response to communication is also there.

Hence written media must be considered as supplementary to productive face-to-face relationships.

(v) Distrust of Communicator: It arises out of ill-considered judgements or illogical decisions or frequent countermanding of the original communication by the communicator. Repeated experience of this kind gradually conditions the receiver to delay action or act unenthusiastically, hence making the communication unsuccessful, though apparently it is complete.

(vi) Failure to Communicate: It is quite accepted fact that managers often fail to transmit the needed messages. This might be because of laziness on the part of the communicator, or assuming that 'everybody knows', or procrastination or 'hogging' information or deliberately to embarrass.

Organizational Barriers

An organization being a deliberate creation for the attainment of certain specified objectives, day-to-day happenings within it required being regulated in such a manner that they contribute to attain these objectives in the most efficient manner. This is usually attempted through a variety of official measures such as designing the organizational arrangements for performance of various activities, prescribing of various policies, rules, regulations and procedures, laying down of norms of behaviour, instituting a reward-and-punishment system, etc. All the inner processes, including communication in different directions, are markedly affected by these prescriptions. As such major organizational barriers may be as follows:

(i) Organizational Policy: The general organizational policy regarding communication acts as an overall guideline to every one in the organization regarding how he is normally expected to behave in this matter. The policy might be in the form of explicit declaration in writing, or as is very commonly the case, it has to be interpreted from the behaviour of organization members, particularly people at the top.

If this policy is not supportive to the flow of communication in different directions, communication flow would not be smooth and adequate.

(ii) Organizational Rules and Regulations: Organizational rules and regulations affect the flow of communication by prescribing the subject-matter to the communicated and also the channel through which these are to be communicated. The rules may restrict the flow of certain messages and may leave many important ones. On the other hand, communication through proper channel in a specified way prescribed by these rules delays it and works against the willingness of persons to convey the message. This barrier is strongly operative in Indian public sector enterprises where observance of rules and regulations is more rigid.

(iii) Status Relationships: The placing of people in superior subordinate capacity in the formal organization structure also blocks the flow of communication and more particularly in upward direction. Greater the difference between hierarchical positions in terms of their status, greater would be the possibility of communication breakdown.

(iv) Complexity in Organization Structure: In an organization where there are a number of managerial levels, communication gets delayed, chances of communication getting distorted are more and the number of filtering points are more. This is more true in case of upward communication, because people generally do not like to pass up the adverse criticism either or themselves or of their superiors.

(v) Organizational Facilities: Organizational facilities provided for smooth, adequate, clear and timely flow of communication may take a number of forms. Some of these have been mentioned earlier in the communication media such as meetings, conferences, complaint box, suggestion box, open door system, social and cultural gatherings, etc. If these are not properly emphasized generally people fail to make effective communication.

Personal Barriers

While the organizational factors discussed above are, no doubt, important influences operating on communication, a host of factors internal to the two parties-sender and receiver-to this process also exert important influences on its operation, as communication is basically an inter-personal process. Here, for the sake of convenience in the analysis, these barriers have been analyzed separately and these are relevant in the case of downward and upward communication.

Barriers in Superiors

The role of superiors in communication is very vital. Because of their hierarchical relationships with subordinates, they act as barriers in a number of ways discussed below:

(i) Attitude of Superiors: The attitudes of superiors towards communication in general or in any particular direction affect the flow of messages in different directions. For example, if this attitude in unfavourable, there is a greater possibility that messages would not flow adequately from and / or to superiors.

(ii) Pear of Challenge to Authority: A person in the organization always tries to get a higher position and prestige to satisfy his needs. As such, managers in general try to withhold the information coming down the line or going up as frequent passing of information may disclose their weakness.

(iii) Insistence on Proper Channel: One of the basic features of superiors exercising of the authority is that they wish to remain in communication links and they do not like any type of bypassing in communication. Communication through bypassing may, sometimes, be necessary but superiors treat this as the warting of their authority and blocks the flow of communication.

(iv) Lack of Confidence in Subordinates: Superiors generally perceive, correct or otherwise, that their subordinates are less competent and capable, they are not able to advise superiors or they may not have some information coming downwards.

(v) Ignoring Communication: Sometimes superiors consciously and deliberately ignore the communication from their subordinates to maintain their importance. This works against the willingness of subordinates to communicate.

(vi) Lack of Time: Superiors feel, whether correct or otherwise, that they are overburdened with the work and they have time to talk to their subordinates.

(vii) Lack of Awareness: Sometimes, superiors may lack the awareness about the significance and usefulness of communication in different directions in general or of particular subject-matter. In such a case, communication flow is blocked.

Barriers in Subordinates

Vertical communication in either direction can take place only when subordinates also actively participate in this process. There are various factors in the subordinates that adversely affect such active participation on their part. Some factors, which have been traced in the case of superiors, are also applicable have such as attitude, time availability, awareness about the significance, etc. Tow factors are more important in the case of subordinates and these are responsible for blocking communication in upward direction.

(i) Unwillingness to Communicate: Sometimes, subordinates do not communicate upwards certain information because they are not willing to do so. Thus, if a subordinate feels that he is likely to be adversely affected by a particular piece of information to his superior, he would not be willing to supply it. Information going up is utilized for control purposes and subordinates would not be willing to give any information to their superiors about any unfavourable happening and

if its supplication is necessary they would modify the information in such a way so as to protect their own interest.

(ii) Lack of Proper Incentive: Lack of motivation to communicate also refrains subordinates to communicate upwards. The reward and punishment system of the organization is more responsible for this. Thus, if a novel suggestion by a subordinate does not evoke any attention from the organization, he would not convey it.

Gateways in Communication: Considering the importance of effective communication in the successful functioning of business organizations, it is essential on the part of the management to overcome these barriers. Though it may not be possible to eliminate these barriers altogether, yet suitable managerial actions in this direction can minimize the effect of these barriers to such an extent that adequate and objective information flow in different directions. Following measures can be adopted in this regard:

1. It is imperative that organizational policy must be clear and explicit and encouraging the communication flow so that people at all levels realize the full significance of communication. The organizational policy should express in clear and unambiguous terms that organization favours the promotion of communication in the organization.

2. This policy should also specify the subject matter to be communicated. This does not mean that contents of communication are to be prescribed in a completely exclusive manner but that the list should be illustrative and it should emphasize that the subject matter of communication should be determined by the needs of the organization.

3. Though communication through proper channel is essential for orderly flow of information, it should not always be insisted upon. The system of communication through proper channel serves the purpose adequately as far as routine types of information are concerned.

However, when and whatever the situation so warrants, this has to be overlooked and persons concerned need being told explicitly that insistence on proper channel is not necessary in all cases.

4. Every person in the organization shares the responsibility of good communication; however, persons at the top have special responsibility in this regard. A successful communication system will only be achieved if top management is determined that it is to be so. It must set good examples itself, clearly expects others to follow them, and check from time to time that there are no bottlenecks.

5. Organization should have adequate facilities for promoting communication. Adequate provision of these facilities is not sufficient, but proper attention must be given towards their proper and effective use. These need being carefully looked into and the responsibility of superior managers in encouraging the use of these facilities through the adoption of supportive attitude and behaviour needs being emphasized.

6. Communication being an inter-personal process, the development of inter-personal relationships based on mutual respect, trust and confidence is essential for its promotion. In large organization, status differentials and class distinctions are overemphasized making inter- personal relationships amongst the executives highly impersonal and official. The organizational climate, therefore, should be radically modified to make it more intimate and personal. A modification in the attitude and behaviour of persons is essential for promotion of communication. Towards this end, an educative programme in communication should be organized for managers at all levels. In this programme, managers should be instructed in the need and significance of communication, need for developing close personal contacts amongst individuals.

7. These should be continuous programme of evaluating the flow of communication in different directions. This would highlight problems

in this area identify their causes and thereby enable the adoption of suitable corrective actions.

Shannon'sModelof theCommunicationProcess

Shannon's (1948) model of the communication process is, in important ways, the beginning of the modern field. It provided, for the first time, a general model of the communication process that could be treated as the common ground of such diverse disciplines as journalism, rhetoric, linguistics, and speech and hearing sciences. Part of its success is due to its structuralist reduction of communication to a set of basic constituents that not only explain how communication happens, but why communication sometimes fails. Good timing played a role as well. The world was barely thirty years into the age of mass radio, had arguably fought a *world war in its wake, and an even more powerful, television, was about to assert itself. It was time to create the field of communication as a unified discipline, and Shannon'smodelwasasgoodanexcuseasany.*

Aninformationsource. Presumablyapersonwhocreatesamessage.

Themessage, which is both sent by the information source and received by the destination.

Atransmitter. For Shannon's immediate purpose a telephone instrument that captures an audio signal, converts it into an electronic signal, and amplifies it for transmission through the telephone network. Transmission is readily generalized within Shannon's information theory to encompass a wide range of transmitters. The simplest transmission system, that associated with face-to-face communication, has at least two layers of transmission. The first, the mouth (sound) and body (gesture), create and modulate a signal. The second layer, which might also be described as a channel, is built of the air (sound) and light (gesture) that enable the transmission of those signals from one person to another. A television broadcast would obviously include many more layers, with the addition of cameras and microphones, editing and filtering systems, a national signal distributionnetwork(oftensatellite), andalocalradiowavebroadcastantenna.

Thesignal, which flows through achannel. There may be multiple parallel signals, as is the case in face-to-face interaction where sound and gesture involve different signalsystemsthatdependondifferentchannelsandmodesof transmission. There may be multiple serial signals, with sound and/or gesture turned into electronic signals, radiowaves, orwordsandpicturesinabook.

A carrier orchannel, which is represented by the small unlabeled box in the middle of the model. The most commonly used channels include air, light, electricity, radiowaves, paper, andpostalsystems. Notethattheremaybemultiple channelsassociatedwiththemultiplelayersof transmission, asdescribedabove.

Noise, in the form of secondary signals that obscure or confuse the signal carried. Given Shannon's focus on telephone transmission, carriers, and reception, it should not be surprising that noise is restricted to noise *that obscures or obliteratessome portion of the signal within the channel. This is a fairly restrictive notion of noise, by current standards, and a somewhat misleading one. Today we have at least some media which are so noise free that compressed signals are constructed with an absolutely minimal amount information and little likelihood of signal loss. In the process, Shannon's solution to noise, redundancy, has been largely replaced by a minimally redundant solution: error detection and correction. Today we use noise more as a metaphor for problems associated with effective listening.*

Areceiver. InShannon'sconception, thereceivingtelephoneinstrument. Infaceto face communication a set of ears (sound) and eyes (gesture). In television, several layersof receiver, includinganantennaandatelevisionset.

Adestination. Presumablyapersonwhoconsumesandprocessesthemessage.

Like all models, this is a minimalist abstraction of the reality it attempts to reproduce. The reality of most communication systems is more complex. Most information sources (and destinations) act as both sources and destinations. Transmitters, receivers, channels, signals, and even messages are often layered both serially and in parallel such that there are multiple signals transmitted and received, even when they are converged into a common signal stream and a common channel. Many other elaborations can be readily described.. It remains, however, that Shannon's model is a useful abstraction that identifies the most important components of communication and their general relationship to one another. That value is evident in its similarity to real world pictures of the designs of new communication systems, including Bell's original sketches of the telephone.

Bell's sketch visibly contains an information source and destination, transmitters and receivers, a channel, a signal, and an implied message (the information source is talking). What is new, in Shannon's model (aside from the concept of noise, whichisonlypartiallyreproducedbyBell'sbatteries), isaformalvocabularythatis now generally used in describing such designs, a vocabulary that sets up both Shannon's mathematical theory of information and a large amount of subsequent communication theory. This correspondence between Bell's sketch and Shannon's modelisrarelyremarked(seeHopper, 1992foroneinstance).

Shannon's model isn't really a model of communication, however. It is, instead, a model of the flow of information through a medium, and an incomplete and biased model that is far more applicable to the system it maps, a telephone or telegraph, than it is to most other media. It suggests, for instance, a "push" model in which sourcesof informationcaninflictitondestinations.

In the real world of media, destinations are more typically self-selecting "consumers" of information who have the ability to select the messages they are most interested in, turn off messages that don't interest them, focus on one message in preference to other in message rich environments, and can choose to simplynotpayattention.

Shannon's model depicts transmission from a transmitter to a receiver as the primary activity of a medium. In the real world of media, messages are frequently stored for elongated periods of time and/or modified in some way before they are accessedbythe"destination".

The model suggests that communication within a mediumis frequently direct and unidirectional, but in the real world of media, communication is almost never unidirectionalandisoftenindirect.

DerivativeModelsoftheCommunicationProcess

One of these shortcomings is addressed in Figure 2's intermediary model of communication (sometimes referred to as the gatekeeper model or two-step flow (Katz, 1957)). This model, which is frequently depicted in introductory texts in mass communication, focuses on the important role that intermediaries often play inthecommunicationprocess.

Mass communication texts frequently specifically associate editors, who decide what stories will fit in a newspaper or news broadcast, with this intermediary or gatekeeper role. There are, however, many intermediary roles (Foulger, 2002a) associatedwithcommunication.

Many of these intermediaries have the ability to decide what messages others see, the context in which they are seen, and whenthey see them. They often have the ability, moreover, to change messages or to prevent them from reaching an audience (destination). In extreme variations we refer to such gatekeepers as censors.

Under the more normal conditions of mass media, in which publications choose some content in preference to other potential content based on an editorial policy, we refer to them as editors (most mass media), moderators (Internet discussion groups), reviewers (peer-reviewed publications), or aggregators (clipping services), amongothertitles.

Delivery workers (a postal delivery worker, for instance) also actas intermediaries, and have the ability to act as gatekeepers, but are generally restricted fromdoing soasamatterof ethicsand/orlaw.

Onthelisteningend:

- *Have an open mind. Remember: seek understanding rather than employing judgment.*

- *If communicatinginperson, payattentiontobody languageaswellasthecontent of the message being conveyed. Listen to what is not said. Pay attention to their toneof voice.*

- *Ask for clarification about what the person has said before jumping to conclusions(i.e.,"WhatIthinkI'mhearingyousayis<insertwhatyouthoughtyou heard>...Isthatcorrect?")*

- *Acknowledge the other person's feelings and try to put yourself in their shoes. Empathygoesalongway!*

Onthespeakingend:

- *Show responsibility for how you're interpreting things (i.e., "This is what I perceivethesituationtobe")*

- *Beassertiveandsaywhat'sonyourmind, butthekeyistodoitdiplomatically.*

- *Bewareof yourtoneof voice.*

- *Askif you'rebeing understoodandclarifyanymisunderstandings.*

Remember that in the extreme, communication breakdown can cost you relationshipsandinbusinesscanalsocostyoumoney.

Telephone

Thetelephone, colloquiallyreferred to as aphone, is atelecommunication device thattransmitsand receivessounds, usually thehuman voice. Telephones are apoint-to-pointcommunication systemwhose most basic function is to allow two people separated by large distances to talk to each other. Developed in the mid-1870s byAlexander Graham Belland others, the telephone has long been considered indispensable to businesses, households and governments, is now one of the most commonappliancesin thedeveloped world. The word "telephone" has beenadaptedtomanylanguagesandisnowrecognizedaroundtheworld.

All modern telephones have amicrophoneto speak into, anearphone(or 'speaker') which reproduces the voice of the other person, aringerwhich makes a sound to alert the owner when a call is coming in, and akeypad(or on older phones atelephone dial) to enter thetelephone numberof the telephone to be called. The microphone and earphone are usually built into a handsetwhich is held up to the face to talk. The keypad may be part of the handset or of a base unit to which the handsetwouldbeconnected.

Alandlinetelephoneisconnectedbyapairof wirestothe telephonenetwork, while amobile phone(also called a cell phone) is portable and communicates with the telephone network byradio. Acordless telephonehas a portable handset which communicates by radio transmission with the handset owner's base station which is connected by wire to the telephone network, and can only be used within about 50feetfromthebasestation.

The telephone network, consisting of a worldwide net of telephone lines, fiber optic cables, microwave transmission, cellular networks, communications satellites, andundersea telephone cables connected byswitching centers, allows any telephone in the world to communicate with any other. Each telephone line has an identifying number called its telephone number. To initiate a telephone callthe userenterstheothertelephone'snumberintoanumerickeypadonthephone.

Although originally designed for simple voice communications, most modern telephones have many additional capabilities. They may be able torecord spoken messages, send and receivetext messages, take and display photographs orvideo, play music, andsurf the Internet. A current trend is phones that integrate all mobilecommunicationandcomputingneeds; thesearecalledsmartphones.

Teleconferencing

The word ‗tele' means distance. The word ‗conference' means consultations, discussions. Through teleconferencing two or more locations situated at a distance are connected so that theycan hear or both seeand hear each other. It allows the distantsitestointeractwitheachother.

The interactions occur in real time. This means that the participants and the resourcepersonsarepresentatthesametimeindifferentlocationsandareableto communicatewitheachother. Insomesituations, questionscanbefaxed/e-mailed early for response by the resource persons. The telecommunications system may support the teleconference by providing one or more of the following: audio, video, and/ordataservices by one or more means, such astelephone,computer, telegraph, teletypewriter, radio, andtelevision.

Internet teleconferencing includes internettelephone conferencing,videoconferencing, web conferencing, andAugmented Reality conferencing.

Internet telephonyinvolves conducting a teleconference over the Internetor aWide Area Network. One key technology in this area is Voice over Internet Protocol (VOIP).

Popular software for personal use includes Skype, Google Talk, Windows Live MessengerandYahoo!Messenger.

Advantages

- *Oneof themajoradvantagesof teleconferencingisitspotentialtoreducethe costof groupmeetings. Savingscomeprimarilyfromreducedtravelcosts.*
- *Although saving money is a big advantage of teleconferencing, there are severalotheradvantages:*
- *People (including outside guest speakers) who wouldn't normally attend a distantFTFmeetingcanparticipate.*
- *Socializing is minimal compared to an FTF meeting; therefore, meetings are shorterandmoreorientedtotheprimarypurposeof themeeting.*
- *Some routine meetings are more effective since one can audio conference fromanylocationequippedwithatelephone.*
- *Communication betweenthehomeofficeandfieldstaffsismaximized.*
- *Severe climate and/or unreliable transportation may necessitate teleconferencing.*
- *ParticipantsaregenerallybetterpreparedthanforFTFmeetings.*
- *It's particularly satisfactory for simple problem solving, information exchange, andproceduraltasks.*
- *Group members participate more equally in well moderated teleconferences thaninanFTFmeeting.*

Disadvantages

While teleconferencing is characterized by many advantages, it does have disadvantages:

Technicalfailureswithequipment, includingconnectionsthataren'tmade.

o *Unsatisfactory for complex interpersonal communication, such as negotiationorbargaining.*
o *Impersonal, lesseasytocreateanatmosphereof grouprapport.*
o *Lack of participant familiarity with the equipment, the medium itself, and meetingskills.*
o *Acousticalproblemswithintheteleconferencingrooms.*
o *Difficulty in determining participant speaking order; frequently one person monopolizesthemeeting.*
o *Greaterparticipantpreparationandpreparationtimeneeded.*
o *Informal, one-to-one, socialinteractionnotpossible.*

To minimize some of the potential problems, users should carefully evaluate their meeting needs and goals to *determine if teleconferencing is appropriate. Users shouldalsoassesstheiraudience.*

For example, consider the size of the group, their level of experience with teleconferencing, and the extent of their familiarity with each other. These precautions won't eliminate all the problems that could arise, but they should reducethelikelihoodof theiroccurring.

Webchat

Awebchatis a system thatallows users to communicate in real time using easily accessible web interfaces. It is a type of internet online chatdistinguished by its simplicityandaccessibilityto userswhodonot wishtotakethetimetoinstall and learn to use specialized chat software. This traitallows users instantaneousaccess.

and only aweb browseris required to chat. Users will always get the latest version of achatservicebecausenosoftwareinstallationorupdatesarerequired.

Memos

Amemorandum(abbrev.: memo) was from theLatinverbal phrasememorandum est, thegerundiveform of the verbmemoro, "to mention, call to mind, recount, relate", which means "It must be remembered (that)...". It is therefore a note, documentorothercommunicationthathelpsthememorybyrecordingevents or observations on a topic, such as may be used in a business office. The plural formof the Latin nounmemorandumso derived is properlymemoranda, but if the word is deemed to have become a word of the English language, the pluralmemorandums, abbreviatedtomemos, maybeused.

A memorandummay haveany format, or it may have a format specific to an office or institution. In law specifically, a memorandum is a record of the terms of a transaction or contract, such as a policymemo, memorandumof understanding, memorandum of agreement,ormemorandumof association.

Alternative formats include memos, briefing notes, reports, letters or binders. They could be one page long or many. If the user is a cabinet ministeror a senior executive, theformatmightberigidlydefinedandlimitedtooneortwo pages. If the user is a colleague, the format is usually *much more flexible. At its most basic level, amemorandumcanbeahandwrittennotetoone'ssupervisor*

Reports

Areport is a textual work (usually of writing, speech, television, or film) made with the specific intention of relaying information or recounting certain events in a widelypresentableform.

Written reports are documents which present focused, salient content to a specific audience. Reports are often used to display the result of an experiment, investigation, or inquiry. The audience may be public or private, an individual or the public in general. Reports are used in government, business, education, science, andotherfields.

Reports use features such as graphics, images, voice, or specialized vocabulary in order to persuade that specific audience to undertake an action. One of the most common formats for presenting reports isIMRAD: Introduction, Methods, Results and Discussion. This structure is standard for the genre because it mirrors the traditional publicationofscientificresearchandsummonstheethosandcredibility of that discipline. Reports are not required to follow this pattern, and may use alternativepatternslikethe problem-solutionformat.

Additional elements often used to persuade readers include: headings to indicate topics, tomorecomplexformatsincludingcharts, tables, figures, pictures, tablesof contents,abstracts,summaries, appendices, footnotes, hyperlinks, andreferences.

Some examples of reports are: scientific reports, recommendation reports, white papers, annual reports, auditor's reports, workplace reports, censusreports, trip reports, progress reports, investigative reports, budget reports, policy reports, demographic reports, credit reports, appraisal reports, inspection reports, military reports, boundreports, etc.

Minutes

Minutes, also known asprotocolsor, informally, notes, are the instant written record of ameetingorhearing. They typically describe the events of the meeting, starting with a list of attendees, a statement of the issues considered by the participants, andrelatedresponsesordecisionsforthe issues.

Minutes may be created during the meeting by atypistorcourtrecorder, who may useshorthandnotation and then prepare the minutes and issue them to the participants afterwards. Alternatively, the meeting can be audio recordedor a group's appointed or informally assigned Secretary may take notes, with minutes preparedlater.

It is usually important for the minutes to be terse and only include a summary of discussion and decisions. Averbatimreport is typically not useful. The minutes of certaingroups, suchasacorporateboardof directors, mustbekeptonfileandare importantlegaldocuments.

BusinessCorrespondence

Business correspondenceis the communication or exchange of information in a written format for the process of business activities. Business correspondence can take place between organizations, within organizations or between the customers and the organization. The correspondence is generally of widely accepted formats thatarefolloweduniversally.

Needforwrittencommunication

- *Maintainingaproperrelationship.*
- *Servesasevidence.*
- *Createandmaintaingoodwill.*
- *Inexpensiveandconvenient.*
- *Formalcommunication.*
- *Independentof interpersonalskills*

TypesofBusinesscorrespondence

Businessletters

Business letters are the most formal method of communication following specific formats. Theyareaddressedtoaparticularpersonororganisation.

A good business letter follows the sevenC's ofcommunication. The different types of *businesslettersusedbasedontheircontextareasfollows,*

- *Lettersof enquiry*
- *Lettersof claim/complaints*
- *Lettersof application*
- *Lettersof approval/dismissal*
- *Lettersof recommendations*
- *Lettersof sales.*

Officialletterscanbehandwrittenorprinted. Modernisationhasledtotheusageof newmeansof businesscorrespondencesuchasE-mailandFax.

E-mail

Email is the least formal method of business communication. It is the most widely usedmethodof writtencommunicationusuallydoneinaconversationalstyle.

Memorandum

Memorandum is a document used for internal communication within an organization. Memo may be drafted by management and addressed to other employees.

10goodopeninglines

We need an opening line in a business letter or professional email: to make reference to previous correspondence; to say how we found the recipient's name/address; tosaywhywearewritingtotherecipient.

- *Withreferencetoyourletterof8June,I ….*
- *Iamwritingtoenquireabout….*
- *Afterhavingseenyouradvertisementin…,Iwouldlike….*
- *Afterhavingreceivedyouraddressfrom…,I ….*
- *Ireceivedyouraddressfrom…andwouldlike….*

- *We/Irecentlywrotetoyouabout….*
- *Thankyouforyourletterof8May.*
- *Thankyouforyourletterregarding….*
- *Thankyouforyourletter/e-mailabout….*
- *Inreplytoyourletterof8May,…*

Business Communication

Objective: The primary objective of this lesson is to make the students learn about the Legal Aspects of Business Communication

Introduction

Every business correspondence must conform to certain widely accepted principles of effective writing. In order to make a correspondence an effective medium of communication, it must be equipped with certain basic requirements. It must have a good command over the language and be capable of having appropriate words and phrases. Your correspondence should be familiar with the technical terms and phraseology that are generally used in business communication and presentation skills. You must also posses all facts and details of the subject matter of correspondence. You should be methodical in your approach to the task of writing such correspondence.

It is utterly foolish to believe that "Commercial Correspondence English" has a style of its own. Strictly speaking, it is only in the nature of contents and construction that 'Commercial Correspondence' differs from 'Ordinary correspondence'. However, a suitable style plays a predominant part in all correspondence including commercial correspondence. Every business letter should conform to the important essentials of effective business correspondence viz., completeness, correctness, conciseness, comprehensiveness, courtesy, consideration, concreteness and clearness.

The legal writing skills trains anyone working in legal profession to write effectively, especially lawyers, attorneys, judges etc. Many a times, the business managers are also put in such a situation where they are supposed to know the legal aspects of business communications particularly while writing the letters and reports. They convene the meetings and attend the same as representative of their respective organizations.

In such cases they are supposed to record the minutes as per requirements of different laws like company law, consumers protection law and income tax law, etc. Therefore, the business managers need to improve their legal orientation as well as business communication more particularly the written communication. The legal aspects of business communication takes you through every step in the process of deciding with your company what types of minutes to take, preparing for taking minutes, recording your notes, translating the notes into clear minutes, and distributing the minutes.

As a matter of legal requirement, a business manager needs to have a clear objective of any such writing; should know the reader; should write with clear openings for new information; Use explicit guideposts for readers; Use strategies to have the impact you want; Quote and cite correctly; Use key words, definitions, explanations, and examples; Write using clear, simple words; Write clear, simple sentences; Write clear, simple paragraphs Write concisely; Use an attractive, easy-to-follow format; and ultimately should go for proofreading for legal correctness.

In order to make communication legally authentic, the manager needs to avoid letting personal biased and unfounded opinions influence your interpretation and presentation of the data. Sometimes you will be asked to draw conclusions and to make recommendations, and such judgments inherently involve a certain amount of subjectivity. You must make a special effort to look at the data objectively and to base your conclusions, solely on the data. Avoid letting your personal feelings influence the outcomes. Something the use of a single word can unintentionally convey bias.

Moreover, the business manager should give enough evidence to support your conclusions. Make sure that your sources are accurate, reliable, and objective and that is enough evidence to support your position. Sometimes your evidence (the data you gather) may be so sparse or of such questionable quality that you are unable to draw a valid conclusion. If so, simply present the findings and don’t draw a conclusion. To give the reader confidence in your statements, discuss your procedures thoroughly and cite all your sources.

Management needs comprehensive, up-to-date, accurate, and understandable information to achieve the organization's goals. Much of this information is communicated in the form of legal communications.

The most common types of business legal communications are periodic legal communications, proposals, policies and procedures, and situational legal communications. Each of these types is discussed and illustrated in the following sections

Informational legal communications relate objectively the facts and events surrounding a particular situation. No attempt is made to analyze and interpret the data, draw conclusions, or recommend a course of action. Most periodic legal communications, as well as policies and procedures, are examples of informational legal communications. In most cases, these types of legal communications are the easiest to complete. The writer's major interest is in presenting all of the relevant information objectively, accurately, and clearly, while refraining from including unsolicited analysis and recommendations.

Authorized legal communications are written at the specific request of some higher authority. Thus, the reader has an inherent interest in the report. Voluntary legal communications, on the other hand, are prepared on the writer's own initiative. Therefore, the reader needs more background information and frequently more persuasive evidence than do readers of authorized legal communications. Authorized legal communications may be either periodic or situational. Periodic legal communications are submitted on a recurring, systematic basis. Very often, they are form legal communications, with space provided for specific items of information. Readers of periodic legal communications need little introductory or background information because of the report's recurring nature. Readers of situational, one-time legal communications, on the other hand, need more explanatory material because of the uniqueness of the situation.

Legal Aspects of Business Correspondence

When faced with a writing task, some people just think and start legal business writing. They try to do everything at once, figuring out what to say and how to say it, visualizing an audience and a goal, keeping watch on spelling and grammar, and choosing their words and building sentences – all at the same time. It's not easy to keep switching back and forth from one of these distinct writing tasks to another and still make headway. In fact, unless you are an expert writer, it is harder and slower than breaking the job up into steps and completing each step in turn.

The idea of writing step by step may at first sound as if it will prolong the job, but it will not. The step of planning, for example, gives you a sense of where you want to go and that, in turn, makes getting there faster and easier. The clearer you are about your goals, the more likely your writing will accomplish those goals. In addition, if you save a separate step for proofreading, that job will go more smoothly and efficiently. After all, it is difficult to spot a typo while you are still trying to think up the "big ending" for your report.

There is single "best" writing process. In fact, all good writers develop their own process that suits their own ways of tackling a problem. However, one way or another, competent communicators typically perform the following five steps when faced with a business situation that calls for a written response.

1. Planning: Determining what the purpose of the message is, who the reader will be, what information you need to give the reader to achieve your purpose, and in what order to present the information.

2 Drafting: Composing a first draft of the message.

3. Revising: Revising for content, style, and correctness.

4. Formatting: Arranging the document in an appropriate format.

5. Legal vetting: Vetting in the light of legal requirements.

6. Proofreading: Reviewing the document to check for content, typographical, and format errors.

The amount of time you will devote to each step depends on the complexity, length, and importance of the document. Not all steps may be needed for all writing tasks. For example, you may go through all the steps if you are writing a business plan to get funding for a small business from a bank but not if you are answering an email message inviting you to a meeting. Nevertheless, these steps are a good starting point for completing a writing assignment – either in class or on the job.

Any legal business communication – no matter how routine – involves more than just information dumping. You must select and organize the information with a specific audience and purpose in mind. In a real sense, persuasion is a major purpose of any communication. Whether your goal is to sell, to motivate, to convey bad news, or simply to inform, your ability to persuade ultimately determines the degree of success or failure that you will achieve. Your motivations may vary from greed to altruism, and your methods may vary from overt to subtle, but in the end, you seek to direct others' behavior toward a desirable course of action or point of view.

Persuasion, of course, is not coercion – far from it. In some cases, people may be forced to do something, but they cannot be forced to believe something. They must be persuaded in ways that are agreeable to them. The word, persuade, in fact, stems from a Latin root that means agreeable with common and legal sense.

In his work Rhetoric, Aristotle identified three methods by which people can be persuaded: Ethos, an appeal based on credibility; Pathos, an appeal based on emotion; and Logos, and appeal based on logic. These methods remain as relevant today as they were when Aristotle wrote about them more than two thousand years ago.

Ethos: Ethos is an ethical appeal based on who you are and how your audience perceives you. Advertisers use this type of appeal frequently – for example, in celebrity endorsements. Your audience must believe that you know what you are talking about. Sometimes your credibility comes from your audience's prior knowledge and experience in dealing with you; at other times, you must first establish your credibility with your audience before they will buy your message. To grasp the importance of credibility, assume that you just heard that a giant meteor would crash into Earth in 24 hours. How would your reaction differ if this announcement came from the Psychic Hot Line versus Stephen Hawking?

Legally competent communicators know their audience – and ensure that their audience knows them.

Pathos: Pathos appeals to an audience's emotions. You might, for example, use examples or what if situations to make an audience happy, sad, or scared. You are probably familiar, for example, with the American Express commercials highlighting the problems faced by customers who lost their credit cards while vacationing abroad. The message: "To avoid this type of stress and fraud, always carry American Express."

Legally competent communicators are careful in their use of emotional appeals, however, recognizing that such appeals can be overused and those audiences may assume that you are appealing to emotions because you are short on objective, logical reasons.

Logos: For most business communication situations, logic is the most effective form of persuasion – presenting facts, inferences, and opinion. Aristotle defined a fact as that which is indisputably true, an inference as that which is probably true, and an opinion as that which is possibly true. The more factual data you can bring to bear on your position, the more likely you are to persuade. Nevertheless, inferences that can be drawn based on available data and opinion (especially expert opinion) are also persuasive.

Legally competent communicators tend to rely on logical appeals and ensure that the facts, inferences, and expert opinion they use have relevance

– both to their position and to their audience.

Once you have determined the purpose of your message and identified the needs and interests of your audience, the next step is to decide what information to include. For some letters and simple memos, this step presents few problems. However, many legal communication tasks require numerous decisions about what to include. How much background information is needed? What statistical data best support the conclusions? Is expert opinion needed? Would examples, anecdotes, or graphics aid comprehension? Will research be necessary, or do you have what you need at hand?

The trick is to include enough information that you do not lose or confuse the reader, yet avoid including irrelevant material that wastes the reader's time and obscures the important data. Different writers use different methods for identifying what information is needed. Some simply jot down notes on the points they plan to cover. For all but the simplest communications, the one thing you should not do is to start drafting immediately, deciding as you write what information to include. Instead, start with at least a rudimentary outline of your message – whether it is in your head, in a well-developed typed outline, or in the form of notes on a piece of scratch paper.

One useful strategy is **legal brainstorming** – jotting down ideas, facts, possible leads, and anything else you think might be helpful in constructing your message. Aim for quantity, not quality. Do not evaluate your output until you have run out ideas. Then begin to refine, delete, combine, and otherwise revise your ideas to form the basis for your message.

Another possible strategy is **legal mind mapping** (also called clustering), a process that avoids the step-by-step limitations of lists. Instead, you write the purpose of your message in the middle of a page and circle it. Then, as you think of possible points to add, write them down and link them by a line either to the main purpose or to another point. As you think of other details, add them where you think they might fit. This visual outline offers flexibility and encourages freethinking. Figure 6.3 shows an example of mind mapping for our frequent-stay memo.

Having now finished planning, you are finally ready to being **legal drafting** – that is, composing a preliminary version of a message. The success of this second stage of the process depends on the attention you gave to the first stage. The warning given earlier bears repeating: Do not begin writing too soon. Some people believe they have weak writing skills; when faced with a writing task, their first impulse is therefore to jump in and get it over with as quickly as possible. Avoid the rush. Follow each of the five steps of the writing process to ease the journey and improve the product.

Probably the most important thing to remember about drafting is to just let go – let your ideas flow as quickly as possible onto paper or computer screen, without worrying about style, correctness, or format. Separate the drafting stage from the revising stage. Although some people revise as they create, most find it easier to first get their ideas down on paper in rough- draft form, and then revise. It is much easier to polish a page full of writing than a page full of nothing. As one writing authority has noted,

So, avoid moving from author to editor too quickly. Your first legal draft is just that – a draft. Do not expect perfection, and do not strive for it. Concentrate, instead, on recording in narrative form all the points you identified in the planning stage. When you have finished and then begin to revise, you will likely discover that a surprising amount of your first draft is usable and will be included in your final legal draft.

Legal writing is an art. Business writing is craft. Mix the two at your caution. If you let your inner editor (who, according to popular theory, lives in the left side of your brain) into the process too early, it is liable to overpower your artist, blocking your creative flow.

Some important factors naturally interfere with legal creativity and concentration. In addition, they undermine the writer's self-image and make him or her even more reluctant to tackle the next writing task. The treatment for writer's block lies in the strategies, from legal point view, discussed hereunder:

1. **Choose the appropriate legal environment:** The ability to concentrate on the task is one of the most important components of effective legal writing. The appropriate legal environment may not be the same desk where you normally do your other work. Even if

you can turn off the phones and shut the door to visitors, silent distractions can bother you – a notation on your calendar reminding you of an important upcoming event, notes about a current project, even a photograph of a loved one. Many people write best in a library-type environment, with a low noise level, relative anonymity, and the space to spread out notes and other resources on a large table. Others find a computer room conducive to thinking and writing, with its low level of constant background noise and the presence of other people similarly engaged.

2. **Schedule a reasonable block of time:** If the legal writing task is short, you can block out enough time to plan, draft, and revise the entire message at one sitting. If the task is long or complex, however, schedule blocks of no more than two hours or so. After all, writing is hard work. When your time is up or your work completed, give yourself a reward – take a break or get a snack.

3. **State your purpose in legal writing:** Having identified your specific purpose during the planning phase, write it at the top of your blank page or tack it on the bulletin board in front of you. Keep it visible so that it will be uppermost in your consciousness as you compose.

4. **Engage in free writing:** Review your purpose and your audience, then, as a means of releasing your pent-up ideas and getting past the block, begin **free writing**; that is, write continuously for five to then minutes, literally without stopping. Although free writing is typically considered a pre-drafting technique, it can also be quite useful for helping writers "unblock" their ideas.

While free writing, do not look back and do not stop writing. If you cannot think of anything to say, simply keep repeating the last wordor keep writing some sentence such as, "I'll think of something soon." Resist the temptation to evaluate what you have written. (If you are composing at a computer, you may want to darken your screen so that you will not be tempted to review what you have written thus far; this technique is called invisible writing.) At the end of five or ten minutes, take a breather, stretch and relax, read what you've written, and then start again, if necessary.

5. **Avoid the perfectionism legal syndrome:** Remember that the product you are producing now is a draft – not a final document. Do not worry about style, coherence, spelling or punctuation errors, and the like. The artist in you must create something before the editor can refine it.

6. **Think aloud with legal aptitude:** Some people are more skilled at speaking their thoughts than at writing them. Picture you are self- telling a colleague about what you are writing, and explain aloud the ideas you are trying to get across. Hearing your ideas will help sharpen and focus them.

7. **Write the easiest parts first:** The opening paragraph of a letter or memo is often the most difficult one to compose. If that is the case, ship it and begin in the middle. In a report, the procedures section may be easier to write than the recommendations. Getting something down on paper will give you a sense of accomplishment, and your writing may generate ideas for other sections.

Try each of these legal strategies for avoiding writer's block at least once; then build into your writing routine those strategies that work best for you. Just as different athletes and artists use different legal strategies for accomplishing their goals, so do different writers. There is no single bestway to make legal business communication, so choose what is effective way of business communication for you.

Technical Aspects of Business Correspondence

While business correspondence must conform to the essential qualities of effective business letter writing, you cannot disregard the elementary rules of grammar and composition. The interests of your business will be certainly prejudiced by a business letter in slipshod English. Even though other rules of grammar are occasionally broken, more than 90 per cent of ungramatical expressions in ordinary composition can be prevented by a thorough knowledge of the following rules :

(i) A relative pronoun must have an antecendent.

(ii) A relative pronoun must agree with its antecendent in person and number.

(iii) Double negatives destroy each other. (iv) The infinitive must not be "split".

(v) 'Like' is an adjective, not a conjunction.

(vi) 'Then' used as a conjunction takes the same case after it as before it. (vii) A verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

(viii) Transitive verbs and propositions govern nouns in the objective case. (ix) The parts of the verb "to be" are followed by the nominative case.

(x) The distributives each, every, either neither are singular.

(xi) The demonstratives this and that are singular; these and those are plural.

(xii) A particle must not be detached or unrelated.

Instead of giving commentary on the various types of incorrect sentences a list of "Common Mistakes with correction" and the table that follows are prepared to suggest the correct sentences or substitutes as follows :

COMMON MISTAKES WITH CORRECTIONS

Observe the following common mistakes, italicised with the corrections (correct words) in brackets.

1. The letter with enclosures *were* (was) received.

2. The large warehouse with the whole of its contents *were* (was)destroyed.

3. It is *me* (I).

4. The committee *were* (was) unanimous in its decision.

5. Eighty rupees a month *are* (is) sufficient pay for him.

6. More than one workmen *were* (was) killed.

7. There should be no secrets between you and *I* (me).

8. If I *was him* (were he) I should act differently.

9. Every member of the house have *their* (has his/her) own views.

10. We cannot accept *these* (this) kind of goods.

11. I have never seen *nothing* (anything) so good as this.

12. She has been more successful than *me* (I).

13. I never go to businessmen *whom* (who) I knew are dishonest.

14. Every order *are* (is) carefully handled.

15. If you allow me discount *like* (as) you did last time, I may place an order.

16. We have received your order of 10th July, 20.... and the *same* (it) is receiving attention.

Managers have to write letters for many purposes such as commercial, administrative, legal and personal. When they have to write to their employees, such letters are known as employment letters. Since employees are guided by the service rules and also enjoy a lot of legal protection, the employment letters written to them must be carefully drafted and laid out to avoid any problems at a later stage. Also, in case the managers are not very careful while drafting letters, they might not be able to convey their message across to the employees. Their message might be misinterpreted and they might enter into an avoidable conflict with their employees. In addition to the content, the employment letters must also have the components of a standard letter, as listed below:

(i) Letterhead

(ii) Reference Number

(iii) Date

(iv) Special Markings

(v) Inside address (vi) Attention Line (vii) Salutation

(viii) Subject Heading

(ix) Main Body

(x) Complementary close

(xi) Signatory

(xii) Enclosures/copies circulated/ Annexures

Generally, it is printed stationery, carrying essential information about a company/ organization. It carries the logo of the company, name and the postal address of the company along with the contact numbers.

This list is not complete as there are hundreds of purposes for which managers in an organization write letters to their subordinate employees. It must be noticed

that the employers do not restrict their mode of communication with their employees to letters only. Some of the other modes of communication between the employees and the employers are:

(i) Inter-office communication

(ii) Office Orders

(iii) Memoranda

(iv) Circulars

(v) Notices/Notification

(vi) Enquiries

(vii) Telegrams

(viii) E-mail

(ix) Telephone

(x) Representation

The choice of the mode of communication would depend on many factors such as the type of information to be communicated, level of formality, position of the employee, speed of action desired, medium of communication available and the capabilities of both the employers and employees.

1. **Jargon:** The 'Jargon' refers to the special language of a trade, profession, or field of study. It may refer to words as well as to the style of writing. In the medical field, jargon will be mostly confined to the choice of words.

2. **Letter Head:** Generally, it is printed stationery, carrying essential information about a company/ organization.

3. **Employment Letter:** Managers have to write letters for many purposes such as commercial, administrative, legal and personal. When they have to write to their employees, such letters are known as employment letters.

General Communication Skills for Presentation

COMMUNICATION FOR MEETINGS AND OTHER CORRESPONDENCE

Objective: The primary objectives of this lesson are to develop and use an agenda to lead discussion of the meeting's key objectives; to understand the politics of meeting with subordinates, peers or superiors; to identify personality types and target your own message for maximum impact; and to encourage participation, so that all of the decisions made are owned by the group.

Introduction

Most people must have heard the story of the American corporate president who had the hourly salaries of his senior board members entered into an

electronic display, which updated the cost of each meeting as it progressed. The president would periodically turn to the display and ask the meeting participants if they had justified the accumulated cost. No doubt this was an effective way of keeping minds focused, but even that approach seriously underestimates the true cost of a meeting.

Simple salary based calculations take no account of the other costs associated with a meeting. Every meeting has associated with it a time and a cost – but how many half hour meetings actually last 30 minutes? Far more overrun than finish early, so even quantifying the time of the meeting isn't that easy.

Preparation & Follow Up

You would normally expect to spend some time ahead of a meeting - preparing for it. You would also spend some time following the meeting in pursuing tasks that have arisen from it. Typically, a meeting could occupy three to five times the scheduled duration of the meeting.

Overhead and Administration costs: This category includes the fixed costs of the meeting venue, whether it is in-house or external, as well as the cost of hiring any presentation equipment that may be required. It will include all of the communication and production costs associated with the meeting - items such as stationery, printing, telecommunications and postage. If the meeting uses videoconferencing, then this can be quite a significant cost.

Travel costs : People often travel quite long distances in order to attend meetings and not only must this cost be factored in, but also an appropriate allowance for any non-productive time.

Opportunity costs: Whilst people are in meetings they are not able to carry out their normal duties. For example, a sales meeting may take a number of key sales staff off the road for a day. Sales opportunities will inevitably be missed and this needs to be considered when estimating the true cost of the meeting?

Reducing the Number of Meetings You Attend: Learning to say no to unnecessary meetings will be an important part of your meetings strategy. It is only by declining inappropriate, or poorly planned, meetings that you will find the time to prepare for and attend those that are of real value.

How often have you agreed to attend a meeting, only to find out that there was nothing to it that couldn't have been dealt with via email or the telephone?

How many meetings have you attended where your presence was entirely superfluous? What about those meetings where the other party's agenda meant that you were put on the spot, and you wished you hadn't attended?

If you start to take responsibility for every meeting, whether you are chairing it or just attending, you will soon find that you are going to fewer and better meetings. You will become more specific about what it is that you want to accomplish and you'll be more focused on achieving a positive outcome.

If you decide that there are some meetings that you would either like to avoid or would like to see restructured, then there are a variety of approaches that you can adopt. Foe example:

Ask for clarification of the objective : If you ask the leader of a forthcoming meeting to clarify the meeting objective, this will encourage them to re-evaluate the best way that this might be achieved. You could also ask about other aspects of the proposed meeting: are the planned attendees the best group, is the timing right and is all relevant information available?

Identify the deficiencies : If your main objection to a forthcoming meeting is that one or more aspects of it are missing or poorly planned, you should communicate this to the meeting leader. This is best done in a constructive working environment, where these comments are unlikely to cause insult or confusion. This strategy works well because it not only affects the meeting in question, but should result in better planned meetings in the future.

Question the need for your attendance : This is easier to do if the meeting leader is your subordinate or a peer, rather than your boss. Where you wish to extricate yourself from a meeting called by your boss a good approach can be to couch your request in terms of an opportunity cost. For example, “Two other people from my section are already attending, so I think it would be a better use of my time to complete the plan for the new project, rather than attend this meeting”. This couches your request in terms of an opportunity to complete another urgent task. Always make these requests from the team player perspective and stress the benefits, which should be in the best interests of your boss.

Try making your contribution on the telephone : Calling the meeting leader to make your contribution ahead of the meeting may preclude the need for you to attend it. You may wish to follow this up with a written contribution that the leader can table on the day. This approach is can prove

very useful if your involvement is superficial, for example if you are needed for your technical opinion in a fairly narrow area.

Simply be unavailable : In some cases you will have other commitments that mean you cannot attend a meeting. You may choose to use this as a valid excuse for skipping a meeting. You may even distance yourself from the message by asking a secretary or colleague to communicate this on your behalf.

Deciding which meetings to attend, or influence in some way, is best done in a considered and direct way. It is in everyone's best interest to attend effective and well-structured meetings. Remember, your time is your responsibility, if you decide that you should not attend a meeting, then take action to avoid it.

Clarify Your Objectives : How often do you enter a meeting with a clear idea of what you hope to achieve, what decision should be made or what problem will be solved?

This is not the same as a general perception of what the meeting is about. A lot of meetings are called and run on the basis that everybody knows what the goal of the meeting is. Don't assume that this is the case or that you all share a common purpose. Without a clear consensus about the goal of a meeting, the chance of success is minimal. Generally speaking, the fewer tasks that are undertaken, the more successful the meeting is likely to be. It is important to set measurable objectives prior to each meeting that you attend, especially if your role is that of chairperson. This gives you something to strive for during the meeting, and you will know when the meeting ends whether or not it has been successful. Some meetings will lend themselves to readily identifiable success criteria whereas others will not. Here are some examples:

Sales Meeting : In a final sales meeting where success is measured by getting the written order the criteria for success would be to secure an order. Failure to do so would normally indicate a failed meeting.

Negotiation : You would usually enter a negotiation with a checklist of things you would like to secure from the other side, together with a list of points you would be willing to concede. These represent objective criteria against which the meeting can be assessed.

Presentation Meeting : At a meeting designed to inform, the success criteria could be the amount of information imparted. However, this takes no account of the information that is actually received and understood by the attendees. In reality, this makes objective success criteria very difficult to establish.

If you are able to set measurable objectives, then share them with the meeting group. Set out a route for the meeting with clear milestones and then assess its success in achieving the objectives you set for it. Adopting this approach may convince you that a meeting is not always the right course of action, and you may find yourself calling fewer meetings.

Think Ahead for Effectiveness: Over the past decade meetings have started to consume an increasing proportion of the working day. This trend seems set to continue, with more and longer meetings occupying the time

of senior staff. Despite predictions that the impact of high technology in the workplace would reduce the need for meetings, the reverse is proving to be the case.

More than ever before, organizations need staff that posses total meetings skills, including the ability to limit and shape the increasing demand for meetings. Meetings that last too long or that are held too often will be seen for what they are, an expensive liability, wasting the organizations resources and money.

This course will help you to develop effective meeting skills, whether you are attending as the chairperson or as a participant. All aspects of meetings are covered in detail, including preparation, communicating effectively and maintaining control throughout the meeting process.

Meetings often represent the most dramatic and powerful events in the workplace. When a meeting works well the added value can be enormous. However, meetings that give rise to poorly considered decisions and inappropriate follow-up actions will leverage this failure throughout the organization.

Each type of meeting should be carefully planned to achieve its specific objective. For example: If the main objective of the meeting is to inform people, then the meeting will usually involve some form of presentation followed by a question and answer session. This type of meeting should focus on the person presenting the information and the opportunity for discussion will often be limited.

If the meeting is held to solve a problem or brainstorm new ideas then everyone should be encouraged to participate from the outset. This kind of meeting should be relatively unstructured, and free flowing discussion should be encouraged. This will be helped by selecting the most appropriate venue and seating arrangement.

When meetings are successful they achieve a dynamic interchange between the participants in which they can achieve more than they could by working alone - or by communicating by some other means. However, when the outcome is evaluated objectively, many meetings are not successful and often leave the participants feeling that the meeting was a waste of time.

Preparing Your Case: If you are presenting, or supporting, one case against another then you must give careful consideration to the preparation and management of your case. Carry out some background research before a meeting, to help you to make an informed contribution. Sources of information may well include: colleagues who have worked in similar fields, research material and other relevant publications and notes or minutes from previous group meetings. Your research should include finding out whatever you can about the other attendees, for example their views and interests in the areas being discussed.

If your views are likely to meet strong resistance, try to identify your opponents and negotiate a compromise, or at least an understanding, in advance. This way neither party will be undermined in public and the atmosphere at the meeting can be kept far more positive and constructive.

Plan the content of any case you will present at a meeting around the message or messages you want to convey, in order to achieve your objective. It is important to keep the focus of your presentation on the message and not on the information and facts that underpin that message. This can be very difficult; especially when the message is supported by a multitude of facts that you think the audience should know.

If your presentation does consist of a series of facts and supporting evidence, then the audience is likely to assimilate these and draw their own conclusions. If this happens you will lose the opportunity to influence and shape the audiences' interpretation. It is far more effective to communicate your messages and then support them with an adequate level of facts and information - so that your meeting partners can line them up behind the message you wish to convey.

The Meeting Agenda

The best way to ensure that those attending a meeting are clear about its purpose is to send them an agenda well in advance. The agenda should state which issues will be discussed and in what order. It suggests the outline for the meeting minutes and to some extent predicts the results of the meeting. An agenda should be short, simple and clear.

The meeting agenda has three distinct purposes. Firstly, it acts as a reference against which to prepare for a meeting. Secondly, it is a script for the meeting itself a mechanism for control and order. Finally, it represents a standard by which the meeting can be judged a success or failure.

It is often said that the person who controls the agenda controls the meeting. The agenda is often treated with almost legal reverence by those attending the meeting. When you are leading a meeting you owe it to yourself and your meeting partners to have prepared and circulated an agenda.

If you are asked to attend a meeting expect, or even request, an agenda. Attending a meeting with an unseen agenda could leave you vulnerable to an issue for which you are not prepared.

The Meeting Agenda Illustrated

Finance Committee Meeting 1

24 February 09.30 - 11.45 hrs Board Room

1. Apologies for Absence
2. Minutes of Last Meeting
   Approval of minutes of meeting of November 10, Minutes are attached.
3. Chairpersons Remarks
   This will be an opportunity for a general discussion, report attached.
4. Budget for Next Fiscal Year Action item.
   Next years budget was approved, in principle, by the Board at their January meeting. Action was then deferred pending receipt of a report on the research budget allocated to project Lazarus. A copy of this report is available to all meeting attendees from the Finance Secretary. Approval of the budget is being recommended.

Finance Committee Meeting 2

24 February 09.30 - 11.45 hrs Board Room

5. Committee Reports
   (a) Ethics Committee : Action Item.
   The management summary from this report is attached, together with recommended actions. The full report is filed in the study room.

   (b) Planning Committee : Discussion Item.
   The management summary from this report is attached, together with recommended actions. The full report is filed in the study room. We are expecting to seek approval for this at the next meeting (May).
6. Any Other Business
7. Adjournment

The best way to ensure that those attending a meeting are clear about its purpose is to send them an agenda well in advance. The agenda should state which issues will be discussed and in what order. It suggests the outline for the meeting minutes and to some extent predicts the results of the meeting. An agenda should be short, simple and clear.

The agenda should be headed with the date, time and location of the meeting. The overall time should be shown on the agenda. In this example,the duration is indicated at the top; an alternative to this is to place a start time against each item on the agenda. It is important that an agenda displays the overall duration of the meeting as this enables participants to plan their day in advance.

Furthermore it enables the chairperson to keep control of the meeting with reference to the published time-frame.

It is usual to number each item on the agenda and to formally introduce each one. The apologies for absence, involves naming those who were invited but unable to attend. Minutes of last meeting, this is a formal process, normally involving agreement followed by the chairpersons' signature. Specific headings are then given for each topic that needs to be addressed.

Any other business: Many organizations prefer to drop this item from agendas, restricting the meeting to specific items. The risk with including this option is that it can invite almost any point of discussion and meetings can drag on indefinitely.

Any relevant background information should be sent out with the agenda. Aim to make the agenda as informative as practical, it should encourage participants to turn up and play as full a role as possible. If the agenda is dull then the attendees are less likely to prepare well, or they may even decide not to turn up at all.

Remember, the key items discussed at the meeting are presented in the same order within the meeting minutes as was shown on the meeting Agenda.