

UNIT-1

Features of Indian English:

Indian English or South Asian English comprises several dialects or varieties of English spoken primarily in the Indian subcontinent. These dialects evolved during and after the colonial rule of Britain in India. English is one of the official languages of India, with about ninety million speakers according to the 1991 Census of India. Fewer than a quarter of a million people speak English as their first language.[1] With the exception of some families who communicate primarily in English, as well as members of the relatively small Anglo-Indian community numbering less than half a million, speakers of Indian English use it as a second or third language, after their indigenous Indian language(s), such as, Hindi, Bengali, Tamil, Marathi, Telugu, Malayalam, Kannada, Assamese, Oriya, Gorkhali, Urdu, Gujarati, Punjabi, Sindhi, Maithili, Pushto, Balochi etc.[2]. Several idiomatic forms, derived from Indian literary and vernacular language, also have made their way into Indian English. Despite this diversity, there is general homogeneity in syntax and vocabulary among the varieties of Indian English.

Idioms and popular words/phrases

Addressing others

Medical terms

Food

Interjections and casual references

Grammar

Phonology

Vowels

Consonants

Spelling pronunciation

Supra-segmental features

Correction of sentences :

Directions: The following questions consist of sentences that are either partly or entirely underlined. Below each sentence are five versions of the underlined portion of the sentence.

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Choice (A) is a copy of the original version. The four other answer choices change the underlined portion of the sentence. Read the sentence and the five choices carefully and select the best version.

These questions test your knowledge of correct grammatical usage and your sense of clear and economical writing. Choose answers according to the norms of standard written English for grammar, word choice, and sentence construction. Your selected answer should express the intended meaning of the original sentence as clearly and precisely as possible, while avoiding ambiguous, awkward, or unnecessarily wordy constructions.

There are two things you should note about these directions:

1. "Standard Written English" Standard Written English is not what we use for casual communication, and it is not as formal as the English used in scholarly writing.
2. "Clearly and precisely" You are also looking for answers that are concise and not redundant.

This chapter is divided into two parts:

- I. Eight Types of Errors in the Sentence Correction Section (this is an overview of grammar rules-many students can skim through this section because some parts are basic).
- II. Three Step Method for the Sentence Correction Questions (this is an overview of strategy to approach the Sentence Correction section).

I. Eight Types of Errors in the Sentence Correction Section

- A. Subject-Verb Agreement
- B. Modifiers
- C. Parallelism
- D. Pronoun Agreement
- E. Verb Time Sequences
- F. Comparisons
- G. Idioms

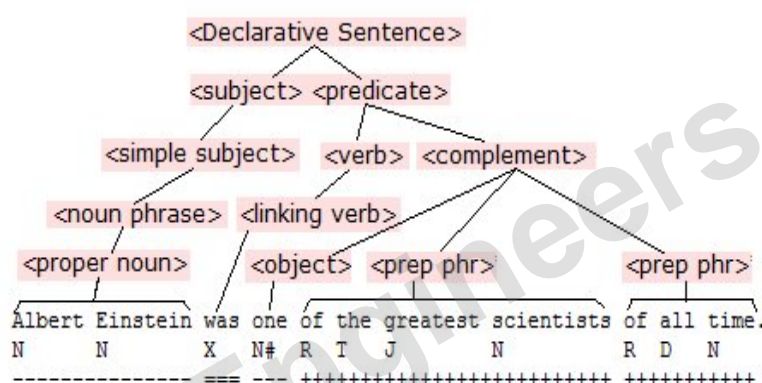
II. Three-Step Method to the Sentence Correction Questions

- A. Read the sentence.
- B. Figure out what the question is testing.

C. Eliminate answer choices.

Structures of Indian English:

This manual provides an overview of common English sentence structures. The manual differs from traditional books on English grammar by providing [formal descriptions](#) that will enable a student of English to generate correctly formed sentences easily. Persons studying English as a second language (ESL) or those who would like to use English language interfaces in computer-based applications will find this approach particularly useful because it avoids the ambiguities encountered in traditional English grammars. The description uses the notation below.



<noun> Items in carets "< >" are variables which represent a class of words or other variables. The variable <noun> could represent the words "Mary", "car", <proper noun>, etc.

"string" Items in quotes represent the word itself.

= The equal sign "=" is interpreted as *consists of*. For example, <X> = <Y> <Z> means that X consists of Y immediately followed by Z.

X | Y Items separated by a vertical bar "|" represent mutually exclusive choices. Choose either X or Y.

(X | Y) Parentheses "(" and ")" are used to group variables or strings to avoid ambiguity. For example, C (D | E) (F | G) means that only the following strings are valid: CDF, CDG, CEF, and CEG.

[X] Items in brackets are optional. X may or may not be chosen. For example, [X[Y]]Z means that only Z, XZ, and XYZ are valid strings.

***** An asterisk "*" means that a variable may be repeated zero or more times. X *

represents X, XB, XBB, XBBB, etc.

Tenses:

Table of English Tenses

tense	Affirmative/Negative/Question	Use	Signal Words
<u>Simple Present</u>	A: He speaks. N: He does not speak. Q: Does he speak?	action in the present taking place once, never or several times facts actions taking place one after another action set by a timetable or schedule	always, every ..., never, normally, often, seldom, sometimes, usually if sentences type I (<i>If Italk, ...</i>)
<u>Present Progressive</u>	A: He is speaking. N: He is not speaking. Q: Is he speaking?	action taking place in the moment of speaking action taking place only for a limited period of time action arranged for the future	at the moment, just, just now, Listen!, Look!, now, right now
<u>Simple Past</u>	A: He spoke. N: He did not speak. Q: Did he speak?	action in the past taking place once, never or several times actions taking place one after another action taking place in the middle of another action	yesterday, 2 minutes ago, in 1990, the other day, last Friday if sentence type II (<i>If Italked, ...</i>)
<u>Past Progressive</u>	A: He was speaking. N: He was not speaking. Q: Was he speaking?	action going on at a certain time in the past actions taking place at the same time action in the past that is interrupted by another	when, while, as long as

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		action	
<u>Present Perfect Simple</u>	A: He has spoken. N: He has not spoken. Q: Has he spoken?	<p>putting emphasis on the result</p> <p>action that is still going on</p> <p>action that stopped recently</p> <p>finished action that has an influence on the present</p> <p>action that has taken place once, never or several times before the moment of speaking</p>	<p>already, ever, just, never, not yet, so far, till now, up to now</p>
<u>Present Perfect Progressive</u>	A: He has been speaking. N: He has not been speaking. Q: Has he been speaking?	<p>putting emphasis on the course or duration (not the result)</p> <p>action that recently stopped or is still going on</p> <p>finished action that influenced the present</p>	<p>all day, for 4 years, since 1993, how long?, the whole week</p>
<u>Past Perfect Simple</u>	A: He had spoken. N: He had not spoken. Q: Had he spoken?	<p>action taking place before a certain time in the past</p> <p>sometimes interchangeable with past perfect progressive</p> <p>putting emphasis only on the fact (not the duration)</p>	<p>already, just, never, not yet, once, until that day</p> <p>if sentence type III (<i>If I had talked, ...</i>)</p>
<u>Past Perfect Progressive</u>	A: He had been speaking. N: He had not been speaking. Q: Had he been speaking?	<p>action taking place before a certain time in the past</p> <p>sometimes interchangeable with past perfect simple</p> <p>putting emphasis on the duration or course of an action</p>	<p>for, since, the whole day, all day</p>
<u>Future I Simple</u>	A: He will speak. N: He will not speak. Q: Will he speak?	<p>action in the future that cannot be influenced</p> <p>spontaneous decision</p> <p>assumption with regard to</p>	<p>in a year, next ..., tomorrow</p> <p>If-Satz Typ I (<i>If you ask her,</i></p>

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		the future	<i>she will help you.) assumption: I think, probably, perhaps</i>
<u>Future I Simple</u> (going to)	A: He is going to speak. N: He is not going to speak. Q: Is he going to speak?	decision made for the future conclusion with regard to the future	in one year, next week, tomorrow
<u>Future I Progressive</u>	A: He will be speaking. N: He will not be speaking. Q: Will he be speaking?	action that is going on at a certain time in the future action that is sure to happen in the near future	in one year, next week, tomorrow
<u>Future II Simple</u>	A: He will have spoken. N: He will not have spoken. Q: Will he have spoken?	action that will be finished at a certain time in the future	by Monday, in a week
<u>Future II Progressive</u>	A: He will have been speaking. N: He will not have been speaking. Q: Will he have been speaking?	action taking place before a certain time in the future putting emphasis on the course of an action	for ..., the last couple of hours, all day long
<u>Conditional I Simple</u>	A: He would speak. N: He would not speak. Q: Would he speak?	action that might take place	if sentences type II (<i>If I were you, I would go home.</i>)
<u>Conditional I Progressive</u>	A: He would be speaking. N: He would not be speaking. Q: Would he be speaking?	action that might take place putting emphasis on the course /duration of the action	
<u>Conditional II Simple</u>	A: He would have spoken. N: He would not have spoken. Q: Would he have spoken?	action that might have taken place in the past	if sentences type III (<i>If I had seen that, I would have helped.</i>)

Conditional II Progressive	A: He would have been speaking. N: He would not have been speaking. Q: Would he have been speaking?	action that might have taken place in the past puts emphasis on the course /duration of the action	
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Ambiguity:

Ambiguity means something that can mean two different things. Such things are **ambiguous**. Sometimes the word is used to mean something that can mean several things or that is unclear. In the proper sense it should mean "two different meanings" because "ambi" comes from the [Greek](#) word for "two".

Words or sentences that are ambiguous can lead to misunderstandings (people get the wrong meaning). This can sometimes be serious, but it can also be funny. [Jokes](#) often rely on ambiguity.

The sentence "The peasants are revolting" is ambiguous because it could mean:

- 1) The peasants are standing in the streets with placards shouting "We want more pay" ("revolting" is a [verb](#) here).
- 2) The peasants are horrible, disgusting ("revolting" as an [adjective](#)).

The [British comedian Ronnie Barker](#) said that he loved the [English language](#) because there are so many jokes you can make using ambiguity. He gave this example:

A mother says to her little boy: "Johnny, go over the road and see how old Mrs Jones is". The boy comes back and says to his mother: "Mrs Jones says it is none of my business".

The mother meant "old" in a friendly way ("dear old Mrs Jones"), but the sentence could also mean: find out Mrs Jones's age. This is obviously how Johnny understood his mother's instruction.

The opposite of ambiguous is **unambiguous** (meaning that something is perfectly clear and can only have one meaning).

Idiomatic Distortions:

An idiom is a phrase where the words together have a meaning that is different from the dictionary definitions of the individual words, which can make idioms hard for ESL students and learners to understand. Here, we provide a dictionary of 3,360 English idiomatic expressions with definitions.

If you have a question about idioms, ask us about it in our Idioms Discussion Forum. If you know of an idiom that you would like to be listed here, please use our online form to suggest an idiom.

Eg:

A bit much

If something is excessive or annoying, it is a bit much.

A bridge too far

A bridge too far is an act of overreaching- going too far and getting into trouble or failing.

A chain is no stronger than its weakest link

This means that processes, organisations, etc, are vulnerable because the weakest person or part can always damage or break them.

A day late and a dollar short

(USA) If something is a day late and a dollar short, it is too little, too late.

A fool and his money are soon parted

This idiom means that people who aren't careful with their money spend it quickly. 'A fool and his money are easily parted' is an alternative form of the idiom.

A fool at 40 is a fool forever

If someone hasn't matured by the time they reach forty, they never will.

A fresh pair of eyes

A person who is brought in to examine something carefully is a fresh pair of eyes.

A hitch in your giddy-up

If you have a hitch in your giddy-up, you're not feeling well. ('A hitch in your gittie-up' is also used.)

A lick and a promise

If you give something a lick and a promise, you do it hurriedly, most often incompletely, intending to return to it later.

A little bird told me

If someone doesn't want to say where they got some information from, they can say that a little bird told them.

A little learning is a dangerous thing

A small amount of knowledge can cause people to think they are more expert than they really are. eg. he said he'd done a course on home electrics, but when he tried to mend my table lamp, he fused all the lights! I think a little learning is a dangerous thing

A long row to hoe

Something that is a long row to hoe is a difficult task that takes a long time.

A lost ball in the high weeds

A lost ball in the high weeds is someone who does not know what they are doing, where they are or how to do something.

A month of Sundays

A month of Sundays is a long period of time: I haven't seen her in a month of Sundays.

A OK

If things are A OK, they are absolutely fine.

A penny for your thoughts

This idiom is used as a way of asking someone what they are thinking about.

A penny saved is a penny earned

This means that we shouldn't spend or waste money, but try to save it.

A picture is worth a thousand words

A picture can often get a message across much better than the best verbal description.

A poor man's something

Something or someone that can be compared to something or someone else, but is not as good is a poor man's version; a writer who uses lots of puns but isn't very funny would be a poor man's Oscar Wilde.

A pretty penny

If something costs a pretty penny, it is very expensive.

A problem shared is a problem halved

If you talk about your problems, it will make you feel better.

A rising tide lifts all boats

This idiom, coined by John F Kennedy, describes the idea that when an economy is performing well, all people will benefit from it.

Formal and informal conversation:

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Formal Conversation

Greetings		Introductions		Good-byes	
<i>Sample sentence</i>	<i>Sample response</i>	<i>Sample sentence</i>	<i>Sample response</i>	<i>Sample sentence</i>	<i>Sample response</i>
Hello, Mr. Smith	Hello.	Dr. White, I'd like to introduce you to Rachel.	It's a pleasure to meet you. / Pleased to meet you.	It was nice meeting you.	It was nice meeting you too.
Hello, doctor.	Hello.				
Good morning.	Good morning.			It was nice to see you.	Same to you.
Good afternoon.	Good afternoon.				
Good evening.	Good evening.			Have a good day.	Thank you. You too.
How are you?	Fine, thank you.			Good night / Goodbye.	Good night / Goodbye.

Informal Conversation

Greetings		Introductions		Good-byes	
<i>Sample sentence</i>	<i>Sample response</i>	<i>Sample sentence</i>	<i>Sample response</i>	<i>Sample sentence</i>	<i>Sample response</i>
Hey. Hi.	Hey. Hi.	Ann, this is Jim. He's in my class.	Hi Jim. Nice to meet you.	Nice meeting you.	You too.
How are ya?	I'm good. All right.			Take it easy.	

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How are things?	Pretty good.	Hi. My name's John.	I'm Dave. Nice to meet you.	Take care.	
How's it goin'?	OK. Not bad.			I'm off.	OK, bye.
How ya doin'?	I'm doin good.			I gotta go.	See ya. See ya later. Bye.
What's up?	Nothin much. Not a whole lot. Nothin. Nothin special. Not much.			So long.	
What's new?				See ya.	
What's happenin'?				See ya later.	
What are you up to?				Bye.	
What's goin on?					

What is informal conversation?

public speaking is when you get up in front of a group (big or small) of people and talk about a certain issue. Teachers do this to get us ready for high school and collage. So pretty much act like you like it and get it over with.

Answer:

Public speaking a is a form of performance art. Alternately it is known as oration. It is done in front of a group of people either in a public or private venue.

The purpose is two-fold: to transfer information and to sell a point of view.

If these two factors are not present then it is not generally public speaking. Without the "selling" component public speaking is reduced into instruction - e.g. what a teacher does. Without the transfer of information public speaking becomes essentially rabble rousing or acting a role - getting folks emotions up without a good rationale.

Strangely enough, the fear of public speaking is one of the more common and extreme phobias.

Verbal vs. non verbal communication:

Oral communication involves words through talking. It is spoken communication.

Verbal communication includes rate, volume, pitch as well as articulation and pronunciation. Verbal communication also includes sign language and written forms of communication.

Non verbal communication includes those important but unspoken signals that individuals exhibit, specifically : carriage/posture, appearance, listening, eye contact, hand gestures and facial expressions.

A very good example is: A man comes home late, hears from the kitchen the slamming of pots and pans and cupboard doors. He enters the kitchen, asks his wife "What's wrong, honey?" She answers, "Nothing!" as she slams another cupboard door and rolls her eyes toward the ceiling.

She has spoken the word "Nothing", but it is her unspoken communication that tells him that "nothing" is not the real answer. It is clearly communicated by her actions.

A truly effective communicator will train him or herself in nonverbal communication as well as verbal and oral.

Barriers to effective communication:

D.E. McFarland has defined Communication as the process of meaningful interaction among human beings. More specifically, it is the process by which meanings are perceived and understandings are reached among human being. But there may be some faults /barriers in the communication system that prevents the message from reaching the receiver, these barriers are as follows:-

1. Language Barrier; - Different languages, vocabulary, accent, dialect represents a national/ regional barriers. Semantic gaps are words having similar pronunciation but multiple meanings like- round; badly expressed message, wrong interpretation and unqualified assumptions. The use of difficult or inappropriate words/ poorly explained or misunderstood messages can result in confusion.

2. Cultural Barriers: - Age, education, gender, social status, economic position, cultural background, temperament, health, beauty, popularity, religion, political belief, ethics, values,

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motives, assumptions, aspirations, rules/regulations, standards, priorities can separate one person from another and create a barrier.

3. Individual Barrier: - It may be a result of an individual's perceptual and personal discomfort. Even when two persons have experienced the same event their mental perception may/may not be identical which acts as a barrier. Style, selective perception, halo effect, poor attention and retention, defensiveness, close mindedness, insufficient filtration are the Individual or Psychological barrier.

4. Organizational Barrier: - It includes Poor Organization's culture, climate, stringent rules, regulations, status, relationship, complexity, inadequate facilities/ opportunities of growth and improvement; whereas; the nature of the internal and external environment like large working areas physically separated from others, poor lightening, staff shortage, outdated equipments and background noise are Physical Organizational Barrier.

5. Interpersonal Barrier: - Barriers from Employers are :- Lack of Trust in employees; Lack of Knowledge of non-verbal clues like facial expression, body language, gestures, postures, eye contact; different experiences; shortage of time for employees; no consideration for employee needs; wish to capture authority; fear of losing power of control; bypassing and informational overloading, while Barriers from Employees includes Lack of Motivation, lack of co-operation, trust, fear of penalty and poor relationship with the employer.

6. Attitudinal Barrier: - It comes about as a result of problems with staff in the organisation. Limitation in physical and mental ability, intelligence, understanding, pre-conceived notions, and distrusted source divides the attention and create a mechanical barrier which affects the attitude and opinion.

7. Channel Barrier: - If the length of the communication is long, or the medium selected is inappropriate, the communication might break up; it can also be a result of the inter-personal conflicts between the sender and receiver; lack of interest to communicate; information sharing or access problems which can hamper the channel and affect the clarity, accuracy and effectiveness.

To communicate effectively one need to overcome these barriers. Working on breaking the barrier is a broad-brush activity and here are certain measures.

DO'S FOR BREAKING THE BARRIER:

- Allow employees access to resources, self expression and idea generation.
- Express your expectations to others.
- Use less of absolute words such as "never", "always", "forever", etc.
- Be a good, attentive and active listener.
- Filter the information correctly before passing on to someone else.
- Try to establish one communication channel and eliminate the intermediaries.

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- Use specific and accurate words which audiences can easily understand.
- Try and view the situations through the eyes of the speaker.
- The "you" attitude must be used on all occasions.
- Maintain eye contact with the speaker and make him comfortable.
- Write the instructions if the information is very detailed or complicated.
- Oral communication must be clear and not heavily accented.
- Avoid miscommunication of words and semantic noise.
- Ask for clarifications, repetition where necessary.
- Make the organisational structure more flexible, dynamic and transparent.
- Foster congenial relationship which strengthens coordination between superior and subordinate.
- Focus on purposeful and well focused communication.
- The message of communication should be clear and practical.
- Get Proper Feedback.

DONT'S FOR BREAKING THE BARRIER:

- Be a Selective Listener, this is when a person hears another but selects not to hear what is being said by choice or desire to hear some other message.
- Be a "Fixer", a fixer is a person that tries to find other person's fault.
- Be a daydreamer.
- Use long chain of command for communication.
- Use too many technical jargons.
- Jump to conclusions immediately.
- Interrupt the speakers and distract him by asking too many irrelevant questions.

Kinesics

Kinesics is the interpretation of [body language](#) such as [facial expressions](#) and [gestures](#) — or, more formally, non-verbal behavior related to movement, either of any part of the body or the body as a whole.

The term was first used (in 1952) by [Ray Birdwhistell](#), an [anthropologist](#) who wished to study how people communicate through posture, gesture, stance, and movement. Part of Birdwhistell's work involved making film of people in social situations and analyzing them to show different levels of communication not clearly seen otherwise. The study was joined by several other anthropologists, including [Margaret Mead](#) and [Gregory Bateson](#).

Drawing heavily on [descriptive linguistics](#), Birdwhistell argued that all movements of the body have meaning (ie. are not accidental), and that these non-verbal forms of language (or [paralanguage](#)) have a [grammar](#) that can be analyzed in similar terms to spoken language.

Thus, a "kineme" is "similar to a [phoneme](#) because it consists of a group of movements which are not identical, but which may be used interchangeably without affecting social meaning" (Knapp 1972:94-95).

Birdwhistell estimated that "no more than 30 to 35 percent of the social meaning of a conversation or an interaction is carried by the words."^[citation needed] He also concluded that there were no universals in these kinesic displays - a claim disproved by [Paul Ekman](#)'s analysis of universals in [facial expression](#).

A few Birdwhistell-isms are as follows:

- Social personality is a temporo-spatial system. All behaviors evinced by any such system are components of the system except as related to different levels of abstractions.
- Even if no participant of an interaction field can recall, or repeat in a dramatized context, a given series or sequence of body motions, the appearance of a motion is of significance to the general study of the particular kinesic system even if the given problem can be rationalized without reference to it.
- All meaningful body motion patterns are to be regarded as socially learned until empirical investigation reveals otherwise.
- No kineme ever stands alone.

In one current application, kinesics are used as signs of [deception](#) by interviewers. Interviewers look for clusters of movements to determine the veracity of the statement being uttered. Some related words may be:

- **Emblems** - Substitute for words and phrases
- **Illustrators** - Accompany or reinforce verbal messages
- **Affect Displays** - Show emotion
- **Regulators** - Control the flow and pace of communication
- **Adaptors** - Release physical or emotional tension

Kinesics are an important part of non-verbal communication behavior. The movement of the body, or separate parts, conveys many specific meanings and the interpretations may be culture bound. As many movements are carried out at a subconscious or at least a low-awareness level, kinesic movements carry a significant risk of being misinterpreted in an intercultural communications situation

Types of communication :

Communication is a process that involves exchange of information, thoughts, ideas and emotions. Communication is a process that involves a sender who encodes and sends the message, which is then carried via the communication channel to the receiver where the receiver decodes the message, processes the information and sends an appropriate reply via the same communication channel.

Types of Communication

Communication can occur via various processes and methods and depending on the channel used and the style of communication there can be various types of communication.

Types of Communication Based on Communication Channels

Based on the channels used for communicating, the process of communication can be broadly classified as verbal communication and non-verbal communication. Verbal communication includes written and oral communication whereas the non-verbal communication includes body language, facial expressions and visuals diagrams or pictures used for communication.

- **Verbal Communication**

Verbal communication is further divided into written and oral communication. The oral communication refers to the spoken words in the communication process. Oral communication can either be face-to-face communication or a conversation over the phone or on the voice chat over the Internet. Spoken conversations or dialogs are influenced by voice modulation, pitch, volume and even the speed and clarity of speaking. The other type of verbal communication is written communication. Written communication can be either via snail mail, or email. The effectiveness of written communication depends on the style of writing, vocabulary used, grammar, clarity and precision of language.

- **Nonverbal Communication**

Non-verbal communication includes the overall body language of the person who is speaking, which will include the body posture, the hand gestures, and overall body movements. The facial expressions also play a major role while communication since the expressions on a person's face say a lot about his/her mood. On the other hand gestures like a handshake, a smile or a hug can independently convey emotions. Non verbal communication can also be in the form of pictorial representations, signboards, or even photographs, sketches and paintings.

Types of Communication Based on Style and Purpose

Based on the style of communication, there can be two broad categories of communication, which are formal and informal communication that have their own set of characteristic features.

- **Formal Communication**

Formal communication includes all the instances where communication has to occur in a set formal format. Typically this can include all sorts of business communication or corporate communication. The style of communication in this form is very formal and official. Official conferences, meetings and written memos and corporate letters are used for communication. Formal communication can also occur between two strangers when they meet for the first time. Hence formal communication is straightforward, official and always precise and has a stringent and rigid tone to it.

- **Informal Communication**

Informal communication includes instances of free unrestrained communication between people who share a casual rapport with each other. Informal communication requires two people to have a similar wavelength and hence occurs between friends and family. Informal communication does not have any rigid rules and guidelines. Informal conversations need not necessarily have boundaries of time, place or even subjects for that matter since we all know that friendly chats with our loved ones can simply go on and on.

Oral Communication:

Oral communication is a process whereby information is transferred from a sender to receiver; in general communication is usually transferred by both verbal means and visual aid throughout the process.. The receiver could be an individual person, a group of persons or even an audience. There are a few of oral communication types: discussion, speeches, presentations, etc. However, often when you communicate face to face the [body language](#) and your voice tonality has a bigger impact than the actual words that you are saying.

A widely cited and widely mis-interpreted figure, used to emphasize the importance of delivery, is that "communication is 55% body language, 38% tone of voice, 7% content of words", the so-called "7%-38%-55% rule".^[5] This is not however what the cited research shows – rather, when conveying *emotion*, if body language, tone of voice, and words *disagree*, then body language and tone of voice will be believed more than words.^[6][\[clarification needed\]](#) For example, a person saying "I'm delighted to meet you" while mumbling, hunched over, and looking away will be

interpreted as insincere. (Further discussion at [Albert Mehrabian: Three elements of communication](#).)

You can notice that the content or the word that you are using is not the determining part of a good communication. The "how you say it" has a major impact on the receiver. You have to capture the attention of the audience and connect with them. For example, two persons saying the same joke, one of them could make the audience die laughing related to his good body language and tone of voice. However, the second person that has the exact same words could make the audience stare at one another. ^[citation needed]

In an oral communication, it is possible to have visual aid helping you to provide more precise information. Often enough, we use a [presentation program](#) in presentations related to our speech to facilitate or enhance the communication process.

Aural Communication:

Aural communications include all communications that rely on the recipient hearing the communication. This includes spoken words, sirens, alarm bells, and so on.

Aural communications can be useful over long distances (as is the case with fog horns on ships). They are useful for communicating to several people at once and also in situations where the exact recipient of the communication is not known (for example, warning sirens).

Aural communications can be very effective for gaining the attention of people, perhaps as a prior warning for another type of communication. As with visual communications, aural communications rely on the recipient understanding the meaning of the communication.

An example of an aural communication used for technical communications is the warning beep that is often sounded if you press the wrong key in a software application, or the chime that plays when new e-mail arrives. In the latter case, the communication informs the user (of the system) of an event without interrupting what they are doing (as would be the case with, for example, a dialog box).

Writing:

Writing, the art of communicating thoughts to the mind through the eye, is the great invention of the world ... enabling us to converse with the dead, the absent, and the unborn, at all distances of time and space.

Reading:

It is probably self-evident that the conceptions educators hold about the nature of reading shape their approaches to helping students improve their reading abilities. Some current approaches to supporting adolescent reading improvement address students' word-level reading problems as a precondition for working on other levels of reading improvement. Our reading apprenticeship approach is different because our understanding of the nature of reading is different. Here is a brief outline of what we have learned from existing research and our own observation.

Reading is not just a basic skill.

Many people think of reading as a skill that is taught once and for all in the first few years of school. In this view of reading the credit (or blame) for students' reading ability goes to primary grade teachers, and upper elementary and secondary school teachers at each grade level need teach only new vocabulary and concepts relevant to new content. Seen this way, reading is a simple process: readers decode (figure out how to pronounce) each word in a text and then automatically comprehend the meaning of the words, as they do with their everyday spoken language. This is not our understanding of reading.

Reading is a complex process.

Think for a moment about the last thing you read. A student essay? A school bulletin? A newspaper analysis of rising conflict in another part of the world? A report on water quality in your community? A novel? If you could recapture your mental processing, you would notice that you read with reference to a particular world of knowledge and experience related to the text. The text evoked voices, memories, knowledge, and experiences from other times and places—some long dormant, some more immediate. If you were reading complex text about complex ideas or an unfamiliar type of text, you were working to understand it, your reading most likely characterized by many false starts and much backtracking. You were probably trying to relate it to your existing knowledge and understanding. You might have stumbled over unfamiliar words and found yourself trying to interpret them from the context. And you might have found

yourself having an internal conversation with the author, silently agreeing or disagreeing with what you read.

As experienced readers read, they begin to generate a mental representation, or *gist*, of the text, which serves as an evolving framework for understanding subsequent parts of the text. As they read further, they test this evolving meaning and monitor their understanding, paying attention to inconsistencies that arise as they interact with the text. If they notice they are losing the meaning as they read, they draw on a variety of strategies to readjust their understandings. They come to texts with purposes that guide their reading, taking a stance toward the text and responding to the ideas that take shape in the conversation between the text and the self (Ruddel & Unrau, 1994).

While reading a newspaper analysis of global hostilities, for example, you may silently argue with its presentation of "facts," question the assertions of the writer, and find yourself revisiting heated debates with friends over U.S. foreign policy. You may picture events televised during earlier wars. Lost in your recollections, you may find that even though your eyes have scanned several paragraphs, you have taken nothing in, so you reread these passages, this time focusing on analysis

Reading is problem solving.

Reading is not a straightforward process of lifting the words off the page. It is a complex process of problem solving in which the reader works to make sense of a text not just from the words and sentences on the page but also from the ideas, memories, and knowledge evoked by those words and sentences. Although at first glance reading may seem to be passive, solitary, and simple, it is in truth active, populated by a rich mix of voices and views—those of the author, of the reader, and of others the reader has heard, read about, and otherwise encountered throughout life.

Fluent reading is not the same as decoding.

Skillful reading does require readers to carry out certain tasks in a fairly automatic manner. Decoding skills—quick word recognition and ready knowledge of relevant vocabulary, for example—are essential to successful reading. However, they are by no means sufficient, especially when texts are complex or otherwise challenging.

Yet many discussions about struggling readers confuse decoding with fluency. Fluency derives from the reader's ability not just to decode or identify individual words but also to quickly process larger language units. In our inquiries into reading—our own and that of our students—we have seen that fluency, like other dimensions of reading, varies according to the text at hand.

When readers are unfamiliar with the particular language structures and features of a text, their language-processing ability breaks down. This means, for example, that teachers cannot assume that students who fluently read narrative or literary texts will be equally fluent with expository texts or primary source documents.

Fluency begins to develop when students have frequent opportunities to read texts that are easy for them. Multiple rereadings of more difficult texts help broaden a reader's fluency (Pikulski, 1998). Perhaps most important for adolescent readers, fluency grows as they have opportunities, support, and encouragement to read a wide range of text types about a wide range of topics.

Reading is situationally bounded.

A person who understands one type of text is not necessarily proficient at reading all types. An experienced reader of dessert cookbooks can understand what is meant by "turn out on a wire rack to finish cooling" but may be completely unable to make sense of a legal brief. A political science undergraduate can understand that the phrase "on the other hand I will argue" leads into the author's main point and that the main point will be in contrast to the earlier discussion. But that same undergraduate may feel lost when trying to read the poetry recommended by a friend. A good reader of a motorcycle repair manual can make sense of directions that might stump an English literature professor, but may be unable to comprehend her son's chemistry text. And a chemistry teacher may feel completely insecure when trying to understand some of the original source history materials on a colleague's course reading list.

In other words, reading is influenced by situational factors, among them the experiences readers have had with particular kinds of texts and reading for particular purposes. And just as so-called good or proficient readers do not necessarily read all texts with equal ease or success, a so-called poor or struggling reader will not necessarily have a hard time with all texts. That said, researchers do know some things about those readers who are more consistently effective across a broad range of texts and text types.

Wordpower:

If you want to be a great communicator, do you need to have a great vocabulary?

English Language Communication Skills

You might be surprised to learn that a really big vocabulary is not necessary in order to express yourself clearly and to move others with your words.

Some of the most dramatic messages that have ever been uttered in the English language actually used very simple words to stir the blood, or touch the heart.

Look at any well-known passage in the Bible. Chances are that the passage does not rely on sophisticated words to create its power.

Think of Lincoln's Gettysburg Address. Although President Lincoln spoke in a style that is very different from the way we usually speak today, his words still have the power to move us deeply with their clarity and their deep emotion. During the darkest days of World War II, Winston Churchill's rousing speeches to the British people used very simple, common, powerful words to successfully ignite the courage and determination of his people.

So if it's possible to communicate effectively without using a lot of very big words, why should we bother to try to expand our vocabulary? The reason is that learning new words expands our understanding and improves our "mental muscles". Every new word we learn entices our mind to stretch into new areas.

When we have a larger bank of words to draw on, we improve our ability to think and express ourselves. Our thinking will become more fluid and supple, and we will understand more of the world around us and within us, when we have a larger vocabulary. In the modern world the ability to use words effectively is often highly rewarded.

The English language has an enormous number of words, perhaps more than half a million of them. Most people however, use a vocabulary of just a few thousand common words on a daily basis. It is possible to get by in the English language with a limited number of words, but you expand your options as you expand your vocabulary. When you understand very few words, you are limited in your ability to learn new information.

If you want to increase your vocabulary, there are many approaches you can use. One good way is to read books or articles that are slightly more difficult than what you are accustomed to. When you come across a word you don't know, see if you can figure out its meaning from the context. Look at the way the word is made up, with its letters and syllables. Does it remind you of any words you already know? What parts of it are familiar?

Many words in the English language are made up of common roots they share with other words. You may be able to deduce the meaning of the new word from the way the syllables are put together and the way it is used. You should consult a dictionary to be sure.

If you come across a word you don't understand during the course of a lecture or a conversation, you can ask someone to explain the meaning of the word. Many people are reluctant to do this because they are afraid of exposing their ignorance by asking.

English Language Communication Skills

It is occasionally true that other people may choose to look down on you if you confess that you don't understand a certain word. On the other hand, they may be happy to teach you something new. If you decide you don't want to ask anyone else for the meaning of words you don't know, be sure to make a note of those new words and look them up later.

Should you try to learn new words directly from a dictionary? It depends on your learning style and your preference. Some people will become bored very quickly while reading a dictionary, while others will find it fascinating.

All dictionaries are not alike, and you may find a certain version far more useful than the rest. Good dictionaries will do more than just give a definition of a word. Some will show you an example of the word used in a sentence. Often they will show you alternate spellings, and give the plural forms of nouns and the past tense of verbs. Most dictionaries will show you correct pronunciation. Some will tell you the historical derivation of the word. Many English words have their roots in ancient Anglo-Saxon, French, or German.

Language is always evolving and new words are being created every day. New words can come from technology, from scientific discoveries, from other languages, from pop culture, and from the streets.

When learning new vocabulary, you can better integrate it into your brain if you actively involve yourself in the learning process.

When you encounter a new word, write out a definition of it in your own words, and write one or more sentences using the new word in context. Visualize the word in its printed form. Say the word out loud, and spell it out loud. Say a sentence out loud that uses the new word. Make up an image in your mind that will help you remember the word. If you make the image funny or bizarre, you will probably remember it better.

To improve your use of language and your ability to think, practice summarizing the theme of an entire article or book using just one or two paragraphs. After you have read an article or book, try writing out two different versions summarizing your ideas. Do one version using very simple, everyday words. Make it as clear and simple as you possibly can while still maintaining accuracy. Do another version that uses very complex sentences and advanced vocabulary, like you imagine a university professor might write.

This will give your brain a good work-out and increase your verbal and mental flexibility.

If you are committed to expanding your vocabulary, how many new words should you try to learn in a day? It's up to you. Just two new words a day will add up to more than 7000 words in ten years. Ten words a day would add 36,000 words in ten years.

Once you have learned a lot of new words, should you work them into your conversation every chance you get? The kind of vocabulary you use should always be appropriate to the context in

which you are writing or speaking. For example, if you are speaking to a group of high school dropouts you may want to use different words than if you are speaking to a group of scientists.

Don't use an impressive vocabulary merely as a means of showing off, always using big words when small ones would do. People can often intuitively feel when you are using fancy words merely for effect, and not because you need them to communicate.

But if your new vocabulary really has become a part of you and has a useful place in your writing and conversation, by all means, go ahead and use it!

Vocabulary:

A person's **vocabulary** is the set of [words](#) they are familiar with in a [language](#). A vocabulary usually grows and evolves with age, and serves as a useful and fundamental tool for [communication](#) and [acquiring knowledge](#).

Types of vocabulary

Listed in order of most ample to most limited:

Reading vocabulary

A person's [reading](#) vocabulary is all the words he or she can recognize when reading. This is the largest type of vocabulary simply because it includes the other three.

Listening vocabulary

A person's [listening](#) vocabulary is all the words he or she can recognize when listening to speech. This vocabulary is aided in size by context and tone of voice.

Writing vocabulary

A person's writing vocabulary is all the words he or she can employ in [writing](#). Contrary to the previous two vocabulary types, the writing vocabulary is stimulated by its user.

Speaking vocabulary

A person's speaking vocabulary is all the words he or she can use in [speech](#). Due to the spontaneous nature of the speaking vocabulary, words are often misused. This misuse – though slight and unintentional – may be compensated by facial expressions, tone of voice, or hand [gestures](#).

Focal vocabulary

"Focal vocabulary" is a specialized set of terms and distinctions that is particularly important to a certain group; those with a particular focus of experience or activity. A lexicon, or vocabulary, is a language's dictionary, its set of names for things, events, and ideas. Some linguists believe that lexicon influences people's perception on things, the [Sapir-Whorf hypothesis](#). For example, the Nuer of Sudan have an elaborate vocabulary to describe cattle. The [Nuer](#) have dozens of names for cattle because of the cattle's particular histories, economies, and environments. This kind of comparison has elicited some linguistic controversy, as with the number of "[Eskimo words for snow](#)". English speakers can also elaborate their snow and cattle vocabularies when the need arises.^{[5][6]}

Vocabulary growth

Initially, in the infancy phase, vocabulary growth requires no effort. [Infants](#) hear words and mimic them, eventually associating them with objects and actions. This is the [listening vocabulary](#). The [speaking vocabulary](#) follows, as a child's thoughts become more reliant on its ability to express itself without gestures and mere sounds. Once the [reading](#) and [writing vocabularies](#) are attained – through questions and [education](#) – the anomalies and irregularities of language can be discovered.

In [first grade](#), an advantaged student (i.e. a literate student) knows about twice as many words as a disadvantaged student. Generally, this gap does not tighten. This translates into a wide range of vocabulary size by age five or six, at which time an English-speaking child will know about 2,500–5,000 words. An average student learns some 3,000 words per year, or approximately eight words per day.^[7]

After leaving school, vocabulary growth reaches a plateau. People may then expand their vocabularies by engaging in activities such as reading, playing [word games](#), and participating in vocabulary programs.

Passive vs. active vocabulary

Even if we learn a word, it takes a lot of practice and context connections for us to learn it well. A rough grouping of words we understand when we hear them encompasses our "passive" vocabulary, whereas our "active" vocabulary is made up of words that come to our mind

immediately when we have to use them in a sentence, as we speak. In this case, we often have to come up with a word in the timeframe of milliseconds, so one has to know it well, often in combinations with other words in phrases, where it is commonly used.

The importance of a vocabulary

- An extensive vocabulary aids expressions and communication.
- Vocabulary size has been directly linked to reading comprehension.^[8]
- Linguistic vocabulary is synonymous with thinking vocabulary.^[9]
- A person may be judged by others based on his or her vocabulary.

Native-language vocabulary

Native speakers' vocabularies vary widely within a language, and are especially dependent on the level of the speaker's education. A 1995 study estimated the vocabulary size of college-educated speakers at about 17,000 word families^[clarification needed], and that of first-year college students (high-school educated) at about 12,000.^[10]

Foreign-language vocabulary

The effects of vocabulary size on language comprehension

Francis and Kucera^[11] studied texts totaling one million words and found that if one knows the words with the highest frequency, they will quickly know most of the words in a text:

Vocabulary Size	Written Text Coverage
1000 words	72.0%
2000	79.7
3000	84.0
4000	86.8

5000	88.7
6000	89.9
15,851	97.8

By knowing the 2000 words with the highest frequency, one would know 80% of the words in those texts. The numbers look even better than this if we want to cover the words we come across in an informally spoken context. Then the 2000 most common words would cover 96% of the vocabulary.^[12] These numbers should be encouraging to beginning language learners, especially because the numbers in the table are for word [lemmas](#) and knowing that many word families would give even higher coverage.

Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition

Learning vocabulary is one of the first steps of learning a second language, yet a learner never finishes vocabulary acquisition. Whether in one's native language or a second language, the acquisition of new vocabulary is a continuous process. Many methods can help one acquire new vocabulary.

Memorization

Although memorization can be seen as tedious or boring, associating one word in the native language with the corresponding word in the second language until memorized is considered one of the best methods of vocabulary acquisition. By the time students reach adulthood, they generally have gathered a number of personalized memorization methods. Although many argue that memorization does not typically require the complex cognitive processing that increases retention (Sagarra & Alba, 2006)^[13], it does typically require a large amount of repetition. Other methods typically require more time and longer to recall.

Some words cannot be easily linked through association or other methods. When a word in the second language is phonologically or visually similar to a word in the native language, one often assumes they also share similar meanings. Though this is frequently the case, it is not always true. When faced with a false cognate, memorization and repetition are the keys to mastery. If a second language learner relies solely on word associations to learn new vocabulary, that person will have a very difficult time mastering false cognates. When large amounts of vocabulary must be acquired in a limited amount of time, when the learner needs to recall information quickly,

when words represent abstract concepts or are difficult to picture in a mental image, or when discriminating between false cognates, rote memorization is the method to use. A neural network model of novel word learning across orthographies, accounting for L1-specific memorization abilities of L2-learners has recently been introduced (Hadzibeganovic & Cannas, 2009).^[14]

The Keyword Method

One useful method to build vocabulary in a second language is the keyword method. When additional time is available or one wants to emphasize a few key words, one can create mnemonic devices or word associations. Although these strategies tend to take longer to implement and make take longer in recollection, they create new or unusual connections that can increase retention. The keyword method requires deeper cognitive processing, thus increasing the likelihood of retention (Sagarra & Alba, 2006)^[13]. This method uses fits within Paivio's (1986)^[15] dual coding theory because it uses both two verbal and image memory systems. However, this method should be used only with words that represent concrete and imageable things. Abstract concepts or words that do not bring a distinct image to mind are difficult to associate. In addition, studies have shown that associative vocabulary learning is more successful with younger aged students (Sagarra & Alba, 2006)^[13]. As students advance and age, they tend to rely less on creating word associations to remember vocabulary.

Basic English vocabulary

Several word lists have been developed to provide people with a limited vocabulary either quick language proficiency or an effective means of communication. In 1930, Charles Kay Ogden created [Basic English](#) (850 words). Other lists include [Simplified English](#) (1000 words) and [Special English](#) (1500 words). The [General Service List](#),^[16] 2000 high frequency words compiled by [Michael West](#) from a 5,000,000 word corpus, has been used to create a number of adapted reading texts for English language learners. Knowing 2000 English words, one could understand quite a lot of English, and even read a lot of simple material without problems.

Jargon:

Generally speaking, jargon, in its most positive light, can be seen as professional, efficient shorthand. The word "jargon" can be traced to 14th century Old French, but the actual origin is unknown. "Jargon" is derived from the fourteenth century term for "twittering or warbling of birds," which in turn has the root 'garg' from which also stem such words as "gargle," and "gurgle." The original meaning was "to make a twittering noise or sound," but by modern standards, it has three derivations. One current or modern definition of jargon is "an outlandish, technical language of a particular profession, group, or trade." Another meaning is "unintelligible writing or talk." Yet another definition is "specific dialects resulting from a mixture of several languages." Since the reoccurring problem with jargon is that only a few people may understand the actual terminology used by different groups, this may explain its origin from "twittering" which, of course, would be misunderstood by most people. However, a jargonaut, one who studies jargon, may claim that jargon was invented simply as a professional shorthand, developed out of convenience rather than intentional

Rate of Speech:

We've all heard speakers who talk so fast we are left in the dust. Listeners may end up ten words behind, especially if the topic is complex or unfamiliar. In sales, a rapid rate of speech can result in a lost potential sale.

People talk so fast because others around them do this, because they think erroneously that others will not take the time to listen to them, and because they do not realize the listeners are struggling. In some cultures, speaking quickly is a sign of professional competence.

The average speech rate in the mid-Atlantic states is 120 - 140 words per minute. It is faster in some places such as New York City, and slower in other locales. What matters is not how many words a speaker can get out, but how many (well-chosen) words are understood by the listener.

Speech rate becomes a problem in any location when the listener does not understand. The speaker either may have to repeat himself, or some information gets ignored. In a healthcare setting, this can be a real danger as instructions may get confused and patient compliance may slip. Young children and senior citizens may also process information more slowly.

If you are listening to a fast speaker, and do not understand the information, ask for the confusing parts to be repeated if possible. Tell the speaker exactly what was unclear, such as "the part after 'Ben's department' ", or "the name of the muscle". Make sure the speaker knows you want to understand.

English Language Communication Skills

If you are the fast speaker, and you know this is a problem, start by listing the reasons you want to slow down. Maybe you want a promotion, but need clearer speech. Possibly your colleagues are getting frustrated with your speech. Perhaps you are tired of repeating yourself. Possibly phone calls are not returned because others cannot understand your telephone number or name.

Start by taking some slow, deep breaths. Then count slowly to ten, prolonging the vowels if needed. Then say your ten digit telephone number at that slow rate. Visualize someone writing it down from a telephone message. Can he write it correctly at that pace?

Try saying some basic sentences at that slow pace, such as "I see a ____" or "____ are great !" Then slowly recite a shopping list. Can you slightly prolong the vowels? Other ways to think of it are to go at a 25 mph pace with your words, or visualize yourself rocking in a rocking chair, slowly talking.

Often your listener will not even realize what you are doing. You will not sound "stupid", just clearer.

Talk about a topic that is not important to you, such as a minor interest or a description of a person you casually noticed earlier. Speak at this more relaxed rate. Tape yourself if possible, and listen to it.

The real test comes when speaking about a topic that is important to you, such as family or work. Can you still maintain this slower rate, or at least use it when you notice the listener is confused?

Enlist some others to help you by discretely indicating when you are going too fast again. This may happen when making a presentation or when under other stress. Change does not happen overnight; be patient

Pitch:

Pitch represents the perceived [fundamental frequency](#) of a sound.^[1] It is one of the four major [auditory](#) attributes of [sounds](#) along with [loudness](#), [timbre](#) and [sound source location](#).

Pitch allows the construction of melodies; pitches are compared as "higher" and "lower", and are quantified as [frequencies](#) (cycles per second, or [hertz](#)), corresponding very nearly to the repetition rate of sound waves. However, pitch is not an objective physical property, but a subjective [psychophysical](#) attribute of [sound](#).^[2]

Tone:

Tone is the use of [pitch](#) in [language](#) to distinguish lexical or grammatical meaning—that is, to distinguish or [inflect](#) words. All verbal languages use pitch to express emotional and other paralinguistic information, and to convey emphasis, contrast, and other such features in what is called [intonation](#), but not all languages use tones to distinguish words or their inflections, analogously to consonants and vowels. Such tonal [phonemes](#) are sometimes called **tonemes**.

In the most widely-spoken tonal language, [Chinese](#), tones are distinguished by their shape (contour), most syllables carry their own tone, and many words are differentiated solely by tone. Moreover, tone plays little role in modern Chinese grammar, though the tones descend from features in [Old Chinese](#) that did have [morphological](#) significance. In many tonal African languages, such as most [Bantu languages](#), however, tones are distinguished by their relative level, words are longer, there are fewer [minimal tone pairs](#), and a single tone may be carried by the entire word, rather than a different tone on each syllable. Often grammatical information, such as past versus present, "I" versus "you", or positive versus negative, is conveyed solely by tone.

Many languages use tone in a more limited way. [Somali](#), for example, may only have one high tone per word. In [Japanese](#), less than half of the words have [drop in pitch](#); words contrast according to which syllable this drop follows. Such minimal systems are sometimes called [pitch accent](#), since they are reminiscent of [stress accent](#) languages which typically allow one principal stressed syllable per word. However, there is debate over the definition of pitch accent, and whether a coherent definition is even possible.

Clarity of voice:

clarity is the quality of being clearly heard and easily understood; while voice modulation refers to the adjustment of the pitch or tone of voice to become enough to be clearly heard and understood by the audience.

Unit: 2

Technical Presentations:

Technical presentations serve engineering, scientific and high tech purposes, describing advances in technology, problem resolution, product design and project status. In general, technical presentations serve one of two purposes: (1) to inform (e.g., knowledge transfer, classroom instruction) or (2) to persuade (e.g., convincing others to adopt a design approach or accept the results of an evaluation process).

Subject Matter Experts (SMEs), individuals who are well-versed in the topic being presented, generally make technical presentations. Audiences may range from highly technical (fellow engineers and technologists) to non-technical, and part of the challenge of preparing and presenting technical material is gauging the knowledge level of the audience.

Challenges

Technical presenters usually augment their presentations with [presentation programs](#) most often using [Microsoft PowerPoint](#) slides. One common criticism of technical presentations is that slides and other visuals (handouts, documentation) are often complex and too detailed to be effective in a presentation. Gauging one's audience and assessing the purpose of the presentation (i.e., what outcome is desired) are essential steps to perform to ensure slides and handouts are useful and effective.

Another common criticism of technical presentations is that they're dull, dispassionately delivered, often hard to sit through. Even though the material may be relatively interesting, in some cases even ground-breaking, there's a cultural expectation among engineers, scientists and high tech professionals that the "professional" delivery of technical presentations are, by definition, lackluster occasions.^[1]

One reason for this is that, unlike other [public speaking](#) occasions, technical presenters are not usually expert presenters. Instead, they're usually experts in the material, but not in projecting, engaging the audience, demonstrating enthusiasm, using humor and other [best practices](#) successful presenters use. They may have little or no preparation for, or background in, [public speaking](#), yet they are required to do so. Often they present material as if the material should speak for itself, no additional enthusiasm or expression required.

In his book, *Presentations for Dummies*, Malcolm Kushner's chapter on "Technical and Financial Presentations" includes comments by Dr. David Haussler, the mastermind of the human genome project and an expert on technical presentations. Dr. Haussler says that enthusiasm is the most important element of a technical presentation. "Enthusiasm and belief in what you are trying to convey are more important than the technical details," says Dr. Haussler. "You can be technically perfect, but if you're not enthusiastic about what you're saying, people will fall asleep or walk out. They'll never remember it."

Formats

Technical presentations take various forms ranging from lecture-style to large audiences, like professional conferences, to small groups around a table in a conference room. Other, even more challenging, occasions for technical presentations depend on teleconferencing technology, bringing people together across geography and, often, time zones. Presenters, then, have the additional difficulty of trying to connect with audiences whom they can't see (in the case of conference calls) or aren't physically present with (as in the case of videoconferencing).

The increasing [globalization](#) of the workforce, especially in engineering and high tech, will continue to challenge technical presenters to teach and reach audiences separated by geography but whose knowledge of the material presented is essential to continued progress.

Types of presentations:

There are many different types of presentations that meet specific needs. These are some examples:

- **Sales:** Outlines the benefits, features, and reasons to buy a product or service
- **Persuasion:** Provides the reasons or support to pursue a particular idea or path
- **Status report:** Details the progress of a project, a task force, or product sales
- **Product demonstration:** Shows how something works
- **Business plan or strategy:** Sketches out what an organization plans to do next, or articulates the company's goals

Sharing detailed information is not a good use of a presentation. Audiences will not remember detail. You can use a presentation to inform an audience about a major change or initiative, but use written forms of communication for the detail. Thus, your purpose drives the type of presentation you choose.

Types of Presentations:

The first step in preparing a presentation is to define the purpose of your presentation.

The following is an overview of several common types of presentations and their purpose. Each

presentation type requires a specific organization technique to assure they are understood and remembered by the audience. The suggested organizational structure is also provided.

1. Informative

Keep an informative presentation brief and to the point. Stick to the facts and avoid complicated information. Choose one of the following organizational structures for an informative presentation:

Time

Explains when things should happen

Works best with visual people or people who can see the overall organization or sequence of events

Use words like first, second, third, to list order

Place

Explains where things should happen

Works best with people who understand the group or area you are talking about

Use words like Region 1, 2, 3, or 4 to explain order

Cause and Effect

Explains how things should happen

Works best with people who understand the relationship between events

Use phrases like Because of _____, we now have to _____

Logical Order

Simply list items in their order of importance

Works best with people who are accustomed to breaking down complex data into components in order to digest the material

2. Instructional

Your purpose in an instructional presentation is to give specific directions or orders. Your presentation will probably be a bit longer, because it has to cover your topic thoroughly. In an instructional presentation, your listeners should come away with new knowledge or a new skill.

Explain why the information or skill is valuable to the audience

Explain the learning objectives of the instructional program

Demonstrate the process if it involves something in which the audience will later participate using the following method

Demonstrate it first without comment

English Language Communication Skills

Demonstrate it again with a brief explanation

Demonstrate it a third time, step-by-step, with an explanation

Have the participants practice the skill

Provide participants the opportunity to ask questions, give, and receive feedback from you and their peers

Connect the learning to actual use

Have participants verbally state how they will use it

3. Arousing

Your purpose in an arousing presentation is to make people think about a certain problem or situation. You want to arouse the audience's emotions and intellect so that they will be receptive to your point of view. Use vivid language in an arousing presentation-- project sincerity and enthusiasm.

Gain attention with a story that illustrates (and sometimes exaggerates) the problem

Show the need to solve the problem and illustrate it with an example that is general or commonplace

Describe your solution for a satisfactory resolution to the problem

Compare/contrast the two worlds with the problem solved and unsolved

Call the audience to action to help solve the problem

Give the audience a directive that is clear, easy, and immediate

4. Persuasive

Your purpose in a persuasive presentation is to convince your listeners to accept your proposal.

A convincing persuasive presentation offers a solution to a controversy, dispute, or problem. To succeed with a persuasive presentation, you must present sufficient logic, evidence, and emotion to sway the audience to your viewpoint.

Create a great introduction because a persuasive presentation introduction must accomplish the following:

Seize the audiences attention

Disclose the problem or needs that your product or service will satisfy

Tantalize the audience by describing the advantages of solving the problem or need

Create a desire for the audience to agree with you by describing exactly how your product or service will fill their real needs

Close your persuasive presentation with a call to action

Ask for the order

Ask for the decision that you want to be made

Ask for the course of action that you want to be followed

5. Decision-making

Your purpose in a decision-making presentation is to move your audience to take your suggested action. A decision-making presentation presents ideas, suggestions, and arguments strongly enough to persuade an audience to carry out your requests. In a decision-making presentation, you must tell the audience what to do and how to do it. You should also let them know what will happen if they don't do what you ask.

Gain attention with a story that illustrates the problem

Show the need to solve the problem and illustrate it with an example that is general or commonplace

Describe your solution to bring a satisfactory resolution to the problem

Compare/contrast the two worlds with the problem solved and unsolved

Call the audience to action to help solve the problem and give them a way to be part of the solution

Videoconference:

A **videoconference** or **video conference** (also known as a *videoteleconference*) is a set of interactive [telecommunication technologies](#) which allow two or more locations to interact via two-way video and audio transmissions simultaneously. It has also been called 'visual collaboration' and is a type of [groupware](#).

Videoconferencing differs from [videophone calls](#) in that it's designed to serve a conference rather than individuals. It is an intermediate form of [videotelephony](#), first deployed commercially by [AT&T](#) during the early 1970s using their [Picturephone](#) technology.

Videoconferencing uses telecommunications of audio and video to bring people at different sites together for a meeting. This can be as simple as a conversation between two people in private offices (point-to-point) or involve several sites (multi-point) with more than one person in large rooms at different sites. Besides the audio and visual transmission of meeting activities, videoconferencing can be used to share documents, computer-displayed information, and whiteboards.

The manner in which a person makes a presentation is important both in face-to-face meetings and video conference meetings. Listed on this page are some guidelines and presentation tips that will be helpful for your next video conference.

What to Wear

Solid shades of blue or gray are usually best. These colors (depending on the background) bring out healthy skin tones and do not create a visual distraction. On a television monitor, black and white clothing colors can also enhance the skin tones, however, if they contrast sharply with your skin tone, it is usually best to wear a less contrasting color. Similarly, try not to dress in colors that match your skin and hair tones. These will tend to wash out your natural coloration. Avoid wearing red, green and orange, especially in bright or bold shades. These colors can cause an unfriendly hue that is distracting to the viewer.

Sounds and Movements

Noises that you may not notice in a personal meeting can become distracting in a video conference. Avoid tapping on a desk, whispering to others or shuffling papers. Modern high quality microphones are designed pick up even the softest voice and so while whispering may seem harmless, the parties on the other end of your video conference may hear every word you speak.

Avoid unnecessary movements such as rocking in a chair or moving side to side. Video systems are sensitive to motion and movements you make that may seem slight can be magnified depending on the framing of your position in the video window. Allow the viewer to concentrate on what you have to say and not on the movements that you make. If you do move substantially, do so when trying to emphasize a statement or key phrase as you speak. In this way, you can use the cameras to your advantage by allowing a key word or phrase to create a picture as well as a statement.

Speaking and Eye Contact

Eye to eye contact is important and video conferencing systems are quite good at transmitting facial expressions including the line of your eyes. When speaking, look towards the monitors and gesture as you would if the other parties were sitting right in front of you. The camera is usually located above the monitor and this makes it unnecessary to look directly at the camera in order to look natural as you speak. Instead, look at the monitors that will be showing you the images of the other meeting participants.

Managing Motion and Sound Delay

Meeting through a video conference is very similar to a face-to-face meeting except some participants may be half-way around the world. This can cause some important differences in the way we interact. Most people tend to interrupt one another in meetings and we do this without even thinking about it. Video conference meetings highlight interruptions especially when there is a slight delay between speakers due to the network connection. This usually happens when network connections are of slow speed and over long distances. Do your best to be patient while waiting to speak. Wait until a speaker is finished talking before you begin to speak.

Participation in meetings:

A meeting can be led (or misled) from any chair in the room. Here's how to make sure that you add value to your next meeting.

1) Focus on the issue. Avoid stories, jokes, and unrelated issues. These waste time, distract focus, and mislead others. Save the fun for social occasions where it will be appreciated.

2) Take a moment to organize your thoughts before speaking. Then express your idea simply, logically, and concisely. People are more receptive to ideas that they understand. Long, complex explanations always work against you.

3) Use positive comments in the meeting. Negative comments create defensive reactions that distract from your goals.

4) If it is your meeting, ask a facilitator to lead the group through major solution finding activities. This frees you to participate in them and gives responsibility for keeping order to an impartial party.

5) Test your comments by asking, "How does this add value to our work?" If you sense it subtracts, keep silent or jot down the idea. This frees you to think about what others are saying, and that idea may be more appropriate later.

6) Use structured activities. These process tools ensure equitable participation and systematic progress toward results.

7) Respect others. Different views force us to think. After all, if we were all the same, they would need only one of us.

8) If you notice that you are speaking more than anyone else in a meeting, take a rest. You are either dominating the meeting with monologues or conducting a conversation with a minority of the participants. In either case, you're preventing the participants from working together as a team.

9) When voting give the participants veto power over ideas they strongly oppose. This avoids sabotage or partial support from people who were forced to accept decisions that harm them.

10) Rescue wayward meetings by challenging seemingly unrelated comments. Ask, "How does that contribute to the issue?"

Chairing session:

1. Prior to departure for the meeting, check the program on the APS web-site to determine the number and order of the abstracts to be presented, the time allocated to each abstract, and if there are any supplementary abstracts assigned to the session you are chairing.
2. Upon arrival at the meeting, check the Corrigenda distributed with the printed Bulletin and the "program changes board" to determine if any supplementary abstracts have been assigned to the session you are chairing, or if any abstracts have been withdrawn.
3. If possible, arrive at the meeting room about 15 minutes prior to the start of the session and familiarize yourself with the controls for lights, microphones, a-v equipment and the timer. If you encounter problems, you should immediately alert the Meetings Manager (at APS Registration Desk) and/or the A-V technician.
4. At the start of the session, briefly introduce yourself and explain the timing system to the audience, and as often during the session as you think necessary.
5. Start the session on time - announce the first abstract and author, and start the timer.
6. Make sure the speaker has the lavalier microphone placed no lower than 6" below his/her chin.

7. Please adhere to the time schedule listed in the Bulletin so that simultaneous sessions are as closely synchronized as possible. Many attendees move from session to session in order to hear specific abstracts.

8. The normal allotted time for contributed abstracts is 12 minutes (10 minutes to present; 2 minutes for Q & A). If you are chairing a session that includes both contributed and invited abstracts please be aware of the different times allocated for each and set the timer as follows:

- **Contributed abstracts** - set timer for 8 minutes to give initial warning, then set the final bell to go off 2 minutes later to signal the end of the talk. When this time is up, allow 2 additional minutes for questions relating to the abstract, thank the speaker and promptly introduce the next abstract and speaker.
- **Invited abstracts** - set timer for 25 minutes for initial warning, and the final bell to ring 5 minutes later to signal the end of the prepared talk. Then set the timer for 6 additional minutes for questions from the audience.

9. Speakers must be asked to stop when their allotted time is up in a courteous but firm manner. Keep in mind that the session must end on time, and that the last speaker has just as much right to an audience as does the first speaker. Should a speaker fail to appear, call the author of the first supplementary abstract assigned to the session, if any. If that author is not in attendance, call the author of the following supplementary abstract, and so on. If there are no supplementary abstracts assigned to your session, allow the preceding discussion to continue, or recess the session until it is time for the next scheduled abstract. At the end of the session, call again for the regularly scheduled abstract, if time allows.

10. When two or more abstracts are submitted by a first author, only one of these will be assigned a scheduled presentation time within that session. It is assumed that the first author listed in the abstract is the person who will present the paper at the meeting. Other abstracts with the same first author may be assigned as supplementary abstracts, to be called for if time permits. If you notice that an author who has already presented an abstract rises to present another, you should request that this abstract be presented at the end of the regular program as a supplementary abstract, if time allows.

11. If any problems arise that you are unable to handle relative to successfully chairing the session, either go, or immediately send, someone to the APS registration desk to alert the Meetings Manager of the problem.

Formal and Informal interviews :

Informal interview:

The informal interview has its advantages and its drawbacks for both the interviewer and the interviewee. In this style of interviewing, the discussion takes the shape of a general dialogue with no specific planned direction, and usually no prepared questions. The employer prefers to let the conversation flow in its natural direction.

There are several possible reasons an employer may take the informal interview approach:

- It could be a test to see the candidate's ability to take charge of the discussion.
- Or possibly the employer has no doubt of the candidate's qualifications, and is merely assessing the individual's potential to fit into the culture of the organization.
- Or it could simply be the way things are done at this company...a clue to you as to how the workdays might flow under such a loose structure.

On the "pros" side, a friendly, conversational approach may take some of the stress off for the interviewee.

On the "cons" side, the burden is left entirely on the job seeker to find or create opportunities to plant pertinent information into the discussion, and make an impression.

This won't be easy. It's difficult to bring focus to your strengths and skills without the benefit of specific questions to answer.

But there are a few things you can do to make the best of the informal interview, and succeed at leaving your mark:

Take the lead. If the interviewer isn't asking any question, you do the asking. Bring up specific questions about the job and the responsibilities, then link the answers back to your own experiences.

Make reference to things the employer has said, and segue to a pertinent point. Say things like "to touch on what you were saying..." or "you bring up a good point..." followed up with an example of a related achievement you want to convey.

Assert yourself. Don't wait to see where the interviewer goes next. After 15 or twenty minutes of casual dialogue, he's more likely to pull out photos of his kids than start asking serious questions. Politely impose your agenda by stating things you really want him to know about you.

Do his work for him. His interview style is probably indicative of his overall management style too, so extensive comprehensive training is not likely to form part of the initial job orientation. Demonstrate that you have done your homework and that you are a candidate who will require

little in the way of training. You will make a strong impression by showing how much you already know about the industry, the company, and the role.

As with any other style of interview, your preparation will dictate your success. Do your homework, ask questions, and remain professional, and you should more than succeed at making a lasting impression.

Formal Interview:

The Formal Interview

Record	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>Record formal interviews for self-protection.</u> This is a safety mechanism to fight back against unfair journalism and inaccurate reporting. In addition, listen to the recording afterwards to improve your interviewing skills.
Prepare	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>Know the reporter's story needs.</u> Make sure that you have obtained in advance the parameters of the interview. • <u>Prepare three or four points</u> you want to make, including effective company "tie-ins" to the interview topic. State them at the beginning of the interview. • <u>Practice short, catchy sentences</u> involving your main points that the writer could pick up easily as quotes for the story. • <u>Anticipate difficult questions.</u> Make your answer a positive statement, rather than a response to what might be a negative tone of the question. • <u>Speak to the target audience of the publication.</u>
Tactics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>Use Sound Bites.</u> Make your point immediately and concisely. You probably won't have time to build a lengthy argument that concludes with your point. • <u>Don't be a Slave to a Question.</u> Think about the question and analyze its significance. Then build a bridge to your agenda by using such phrases as "Let me put that into perspective" or "Let me put that into a different context." • <u>Listen Carefully.</u> Don't be afraid to ask interviewer for clarification, if you don't understand the question. Ask your own question, such as "Do you mean... or ... ?" • <u>Silence is OK.</u> Give your answer and then stop talking. Don't

	be intimidated by silence into saying more than you should. Use silence to collect your thoughts and compose yourself.
Take Charge	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Be assertive.• Support your statement.• Be colorful.• Avoid being stiff.

Ambience:

ambience

Noun

1. a particular environment or surrounding influence; "there was an atmosphere of excitement"
(synonym) atmosphere, ambience
(hypernym) condition, status
(hyponym) genius loci
2. the atmosphere of an environment
(synonym) ambience
(hypernym) environment, environs, surroundings, surround

The Art of Cafe Ambiance:

Holly and I agree that . . .

They have to look good to those eating in them.

They must provide comfort to the guest.

They have to create as much interest as possible.

These three conditions are considered "good" when all three elements go together properly. Entering a restaurant you expect certain things. As you sit and observe everything around you, your expectation is either fulfilled or rejected. We assume folks go to a restaurant to experience more than the menu selection. They seek nourishment, social interaction, mothering, and to restore their psyche. But, they may feel either comfortable or uneasy in the restaurant's environment.

This feeling of comfort, or lack of it, is perceived by the senses as awareness of the tangibles

such as seating, lighting, sound, color, textures and aromas. These plus the intangible elements normally referred to as theme and hospitality all combine to influence the senses in an environment we call ambiance. This is a critical element which makes customers return again and again.

The influence of ambiance on customers' selection of dining places leads some restaurant operators to ask if the interior decorator's activity take precedence over the restaurant designer's and architect's? My reply is, "If those responsible for interior decoration don't do their best job, the operation won't fly as high as it should. But, it takes a combination of the owner, architect, restaurant designer and interior decorator to make the correct decisions as to the type of ambiance. It requires a unanimity of effort by everyone concerned with development to settle on the right atmosphere."

Ambiance has grown to be an important factor in a restaurant's success. When chain restaurants were first developing, they needed to make a strong statement in contrast to competitive independents. These chains hired "experts" to design their facilities. These interior decorators were specialists in the psychology of designing restaurants. They had the feel and close intuitive understanding of what the dining public wanted when dining away from home. They succeeded in creating unique concepts and dining environments for their chain clients. Once these chains standardized their specific ambiance, these were installed throughout the country. Whereas an independent restaurant's decor environment might be exposed to two or three thousand customers per week, a nationwide chain could expose their ambiance to hundreds of thousands of people each week. The cumulative effect of this wide exposure over time produced a generation of customers with a high level of decorative awareness and sophistication.

As more and more chains developed and expanded, the application of unique ambiance became more widely exposed to the mass market. Their customers began to anticipate the pleasurable experience they felt when surrounded by a chain's distinct ambiance presentation. They began to expect similar imagery wherever they chose to dine. With this background, I believe that an adroit interior decorator must take steps to accomplish this same effect in any new or remodeled food facility whether a chain or independent.

Holly and I agree on these initial steps to take.

First, meet with the planning committees who are usually the owner, architect, restaurant designer, and whoever is responsible for the menu development.

Second, know the theme or concept to be followed.

Third, make quick sketches to give a first impression of what the ambiance might be.

Fourth, try to develop as many environmental ideas as the restaurant suggests.

Fifth, narrow it down to two of the best.

Sixth, prepare general sketches of both selections so that the planning committee can make an intelligent decision on which is best suited for the project.

Finally, detail the materials, furnishings, and furniture that are needed so the ambiance makes the greatest impression.

These steps can provide the basis not only for a successful presentation to the planning committees, but will result in an acceptable atmosphere on the dining public.

If you have a modest budget and wish to create a great decor, mandate the restaurant designer to plan the needed operating efficiencies and to work closely with the interior decorator to achieve the greatest degree of ambiance acceptable to your target audience.

Definition of "ambiance", a feeling or mood associated with a particular place, person, or thing.

When you walk into a restaurant with great ambiance or atmosphere, whether it be lovely furnishings, soft, or mood lighting, beautiful decor, paintings, fresh flowers, whatever it is, it makes you more comfortable in your surroundings. The chances are in this type of place the food will be delicious, as well as deliciously served on china, with cloth napkins, etc. You might be so impressed with the surroundings, it makes everything taste good. It will be something you will not soon forget.

This is someplace you would not dine at every day, but it surely is a nice treat once in a while. Unless, you are one of those who find bright overhead lights, loud noise, shiny top tables, really turn you on.

Polemics:

A **polemic** (pronounced /pəˈlɛmɪk/) is a variety of argument or controversy made against one opinion, doctrine, or person. Other variations of argument are [debate](#) and [discussion](#). The word is derived from the Greek *polemikos* (πολεμικός), meaning "warlike, hostile".

A polemic is a form of [dispute](#), wherein the main efforts of the disputing parties are aimed at establishing the superiority of their own points of view regarding an issue. Along with debate, polemic is one of the more common forms of dispute. Similar to debate, it is constrained by a definite thesis which serves as the subject of controversy. However, unlike debate, which may seek common ground between two parties, a polemic is intended to establish the supremacy of a single point of view by refuting an opposing point of view.

Polemic usually addresses serious matters of [religious](#), [philosophical](#), [political](#), or [scientific](#) importance, and is often written to dispute or refute a widely accepted position.

Interviewing different settings:

There are many possible settings for conducting interviews. The first one to become familiar with is the seated interview. Whether it be in a permanent studio or someone's living room, you need to arrange the interviewer, guest(s) and cameras to achieve the look and feel which best suits your objectives.

There are a number of common floorplans from which you can choose. Often you will be limited by factors such as space and number of cameras. The guidelines below include options for most settings.

The Interview—Different Types

There are many different types of interviews. Once you are selected for an interview, you may experience one or more of the situations described below. When you schedule an interview, try to get as much information as possible about whom you will be meeting. Note that it is rare to have only one interview prior to a job offer. Most employers will bring back a candidate a number of times to be sure a potential employee will fit into the company culture.

Traditional Face-to-Face Interview

- Most interviews are face-to-face. The most traditional is a one-on-one conversation.
- Your focus should be on the person asking questions. Maintain eye contact, listen and respond once a question has been asked.
- Your goal is to establish rapport with the interviewer and show them that your qualifications will benefit their organization.

Panel/Committee Interview

- In this situation, there is more than one interviewer. Typically, three to ten members of a panel may conduct this part of the selection process. This is your chance to put your group management and group presentation skills on display.
- As quickly as possible, try to 'read' the various personality types of each interviewer and adjust to them. Find a way to connect with each interviewer.
- Remember to take your time in responding to questions. Maintain primary eye contact with the panel member who asked the question, but also seek eye contact with other members of the panel as you give your response.

Behavioral Interview

- The basic premise behind this type of interview is that your past behavior is the best predictor of your future actions. These types of questions may be asked in any interview format—telephone, panel or one-on-one.
- If the employer asks behavior-oriented questions, they are no longer asking hypothetical questions but are now asking questions that must be answered based on facts.
- With a behavioral question, the interviewer is looking for results, not just an activity list. They are listening for names, dates, places, the outcome and especially what your role was in achieving that outcome.
- This type of question generally starts with the words "Give me an example when..." or "Tell me about a time when..."

Case Interview

- In some interviews you may be asked to demonstrate your problem-solving skills. The interviewer will outline a situation or provide you with a case study and ask you to formulate a plan that deals with the problem.
- You do not have to come up with the ultimate solution. The interviewers are looking for how you apply your knowledge and skills to a real-life situation. Speak and reason aloud so interviewers have a full understanding of your thought process.
- Before answering a case interview question, be prepared to ask the employer numerous questions for clarity and informational purposes. Most employers will provide responses that could result in additional inquiries.
- The more you are able to analyze and dissect the case study, the more you will likely impress your interviewer.
- This is the only interview for which it is acceptable, even encouraged, to bring a pad of paper and pencil. Most interviewers will allow you to take notes and jot down thoughts as you work through the case.

Telephone Interview

- Many organizations will conduct interviews by telephone to narrow a field of candidates. Telephone interviews may also be used as a preliminary interview for candidates who live far away from the job site.
- It is important to treat this interview as you would a face-to-face connection. Arrange for a quiet space and time to schedule the conversation. Clear a work surface to minimize distractions.
- Focus on the conversation. Listen to the questions carefully before you answer. Since your voice is key, convey energy with inflection in your voice.
- Have a copy of your resume nearby as a reference.
- Avoid using a phone with call waiting. You do not want to be interrupted during an interview.
- Try to use a landline phone or a cell phone that is not prone to dropping calls.

Group Interview

- A group interview is usually designed to uncover the leadership potential of prospective managers and employees who will be dealing with customers.
- The front-runner candidates are gathered together in an informal, discussion type interview. A subject is introduced and the interviewer will start off the discussion.
- The goal of the group interview is to see how you interact with others and how you use your knowledge and reasoning to influence others.

Lunch/Dinner Interview

- The same rules apply at a meal as those in an office. The setting may be more casual, but remember that it is a business meal and you are being watched carefully.
- Use the interview to develop common ground with your interviewer. Follow his/her lead in both selection of food and etiquette.
- Avoid messy foods and do not drink alcohol at any point in this part of the interview process.
- See the CPCC tip sheet "The Interview—Etiquette" for additional tips.

Stress Interview

- This form of interview was more common in sales positions and is rare today. However, you should be aware of the signals. The stress interview is usually a deliberate attempt to see how you handle yourself under pressure.
- The interviewer may be sarcastic or argumentative, or may keep you waiting. Do not take it personally. Calmly answer each question. Ask for clarification if you need it and never rush into an answer.
- The interviewer may also lapse into silence at some point during the questioning. This may be an attempt to unnerve you. Sit silently until the interviewer resumes the questions. If a minute goes by, ask if he/she needs clarification of your last comment.

Recruiting:

Recruitment refers to the process of attracting, screening, and selecting qualified people for a [job](#) at an [organization](#) or firm. For some components of the recruitment process, mid- and

large-size organizations often retain [professional recruiters](#) or outsource some of the process to recruitment agencies.

The recruitment industry has five main types of agencies: [employment agencies](#), recruitment websites and job search engines, "[headhunters](#)" for executive and professional recruitment, niche agencies which specialize in a particular area of staffing and in-house recruitment. The stages in recruitment include sourcing candidates by [advertising](#) or other methods, and screening and selecting potential candidates using tests or interviews.

Process:

Job analysis

The proper start to a recruitment effort is to perform a [job analysis](#), to document the actual or intended requirement of the job to be performed. This information is captured in a [job description](#) and provides the recruitment effort with the boundaries and objectives of the search.^[2] Oftentimes a company will have job descriptions that represent a historical collection of tasks performed in the past. These job descriptions need to be reviewed or updated prior to a recruitment effort to reflect present day requirements. Starting a recruitment with an accurate job analysis and job description ensures the recruitment effort starts off on a proper track for success.

Sourcing

[Sourcing](#) involves 1) [advertising](#), a common part of the recruiting process, often encompassing multiple media, such as the Internet, general newspapers, job ad newspapers, professional publications, window advertisements, job centers, and campus graduate recruitment programs; and 2) recruiting research, which is the proactive identification of relevant talent who may not respond to job postings and other recruitment advertising methods done in #1. This initial research for so-called passive prospects, also called name-generation, results in a list of prospects who can then be contacted to solicit interest, obtain a resume/CV, and be screened (see below).

Screening and selection

Suitability for a [job](#) is typically [assessed](#) by looking for skills, e.g. communication, [typing](#), and computer skills. Qualifications may be shown through [résumés](#), [job applications](#), [interviews](#), educational or professional experience, the testimony of references, or in-house testing, such as for software knowledge, typing skills, [numeracy](#), and [literacy](#), through [psychological tests](#) or [employment testing](#). Other [resume screening](#) criteria may include length of service, job titles and length of time at a job. In some countries, employers are legally mandated to provide [equal opportunity](#) in hiring. Business management software is used by many recruitment agencies to automate the testing process. Many recruiters and agencies are using an [applicant tracking system](#) to perform many of the filtering tasks, along with software tools for [psychometric testing](#).

Onboarding

"[Onboarding](#)" is a term which describes the process of helping new employees become productive members of an organization. A well-planned introduction helps new employees become fully operational quickly and is often integrated with a new company and environment. Onboarding is included in the recruitment process for retention purposes. Many companies have onboarding campaigns in hopes to retain top talent that is new to the company; campaigns may last anywhere from 1 week to 6 months.

Internet recruitment and websites

Such sites have two main features: job boards and a [résumé](#)/curriculum vitae (CV) database. Job boards allow member companies to post job vacancies. Alternatively, candidates can upload a résumé to be included in searches by member companies. Fees are charged for job postings and access to search resumes. Since the late 1990s, the recruitment website has evolved to encompass end-to-end recruitment. Websites capture candidate details and then pool them in client accessed candidate management interfaces (also online). Key players in this sector provide e-recruitment software and services to organizations of all sizes and within numerous industry sectors, who want to e-enable entirely or partly their recruitment process in order to improve business performance.

The online software provided by those who specialize in online recruitment helps organizations attract, test, recruit, employ and retain quality staff with a minimal amount of administration. Online recruitment websites can be very helpful to find candidates that are very actively looking for work and post their resumes online, but they will not attract the "passive" candidates who might respond favorably to an opportunity that is presented to them through other means. Also,

some candidates who are actively looking to change jobs are hesitant to put their resumes on the job boards, for fear that their current companies, co-workers, customers or others might see their resumes.

Job search engines

The emergence of [meta-search](#) engines, allow job-seekers to search across multiple websites. Some of these new search engines index and list the advertisements of traditional job boards. These sites tend to aim for providing a "one-stop shop" for job-seekers. However, there are many other job search engines which index pages solely from employers' websites, choosing to bypass traditional job boards entirely. These vertical search engines allow job-seekers to find new positions that may not be advertised on traditional job boards, and online recruitment websites.

Performance appraisal:

A **performance appraisal**, **employee appraisal**, **performance review**, or **(career) development discussion**^[1] is a method by which the [job performance](#) of an [employee](#) is evaluated (generally in terms of quality, [quantity](#), [cost](#), and [time](#)) typically by the corresponding [manager](#) or [supervisor](#)^[2]. A performance appraisal is a part of guiding and managing [career development](#). It is the process of obtaining, analyzing, and recording information about the relative worth of an employee to the organization. Performance appraisal is an analysis of an employee's recent successes and failures, personal strengths and weaknesses, and suitability for promotion or further training. It is also the judgement of an employee's performance in a job based on considerations other than productivity alone.

Aims

Generally, the aims of a performance appraisal are to:

- Give employees feedback on performance
- Identify employee [training](#) needs
- [Document](#) criteria used to allocate organizational [rewards](#)
- Form a basis for personnel decisions: [salary](#) increases, [promotions](#), [disciplinary actions](#), bonuses, etc.

- Provide the opportunity for organizational diagnosis and development
- Facilitate communication between employee and administration
- Validate selection techniques and human resource policies to meet federal [Equal Employment Opportunity](#) requirements.
- To improve performance through counselling, coaching and development.

Methods

A common approach to assessing performance is to use a numerical or [scalar](#) rating system whereby managers are asked to score an individual against a number of [objectives](#)/attributes. In some companies, employees receive assessments from their [manager](#), peers, subordinates, and [customers](#), while also performing a self assessment. This is known as a [360-degree appraisal](#) and forms good communication patterns.

The most popular methods used in the performance appraisal process include the following:

- [Management by objectives](#)
- [360-degree appraisal](#)
- [Behavioral observation scale](#)
- [Behaviorally anchored rating scales](#)

[Trait](#)-based systems, which rely on factors such as [integrity](#) and [conscientiousness](#), are also commonly used by businesses. The scientific literature on the subject provides evidence that assessing employees on factors such as these should be avoided. The reasons for this are two-fold:

- 1) Because trait-based systems are by definition based on [personality traits](#), they make it difficult for a manager to provide feedback that can cause positive change in employee performance. This is caused by the fact that personality [dimensions](#) are for the most part [static](#), and while an employee can change a specific [behavior](#) they cannot change their [personality](#). For example, a person who lacks integrity may stop lying to a manager because they have been caught, but they still have low integrity and are likely to lie again when the threat of being caught is gone.
- 2) Trait-based systems, because they are vague, are more easily influenced by [office politics](#), causing them to be less reliable as a source of information on an employee's true performance. The vagueness of these instruments allows managers to fill them out based on who they want to/feel should get a raise, rather than basing scores on specific behaviors employees should/should not be engaging in. These systems are also more likely to leave a company open

to [discrimination](#) claims because a manager can make [biased](#) decisions without having to back them up with specific behavioral information.

Criticism

Performance appraisals are an instrument for social control. They are annual discussions, avoided more often than held, in which one adult identifies for another adult three improvement areas to work on over the next twelve months. You can soften them all you want, call them *development discussions*, have them on a regular basis, have the subordinate identify the improvement areas instead of the boss, and discuss values. None of this changes the basic transaction... If the intent of the appraisal is learning, it is not going to happen when the context of the dialogue is evaluation and judgment

Unit-3

Communication

Communication is a process of transferring [information](#) from one entity to another. Communication is commonly defined as the **impacting** or interchange of thoughts, opinions, or information by speech, writing, or signs. Communication is the exchange and flow of information and ideas from one person to another; it involves a sender transmitting an idea, information, or feeling to a receiver.

Communication is a process whereby information is enclosed in a package and is channeled and imparted by a sender to a receiver via some medium. The receiver then decodes the message and gives the sender a feedback. All forms of communication require a sender, a message, and an intended recipient, however the receiver need not be present or aware of the sender's intent to communicate at the time of communication in order for the act of communication to occur. Communication requires that all parties have an area of communicative commonality. There are [auditory](#) means, such as speech, song, and tone of voice, and there are [nonverbal](#) means, such as [body language](#), [sign language](#), [paralanguage](#), [touch](#), [eye contact](#), through media, i.e., pictures, graphics and sound, and [writing](#).

Effective communication occurs only if the receiver understands the exact information or idea that the sender intended to transmit. Many of the problems that occur in an organization are the either the direct result of people failing to communicate and/or processes, which leads to confusion and can cause good plans to fail.

Studying the communication process is important because you coach, coordinate, counsel, evaluate, and supervise throughout this process. It is the chain of understanding that integrates the members of an organization from top to bottom, bottom to top, and side to side.

The Communication Process

- **Source(thought)** : First, information exists in the mind of the sender. This can be a concept, idea, information, or feelings.
- **Encoding**: Next, a message is sent to a receiver in words(**channel**) or other symbols.
- **Decoding**: lastly, the **receiver** translates the words or symbols into a concept or information that he or she can understand.

During the transmitting of the message, two elements will be received: content and context.

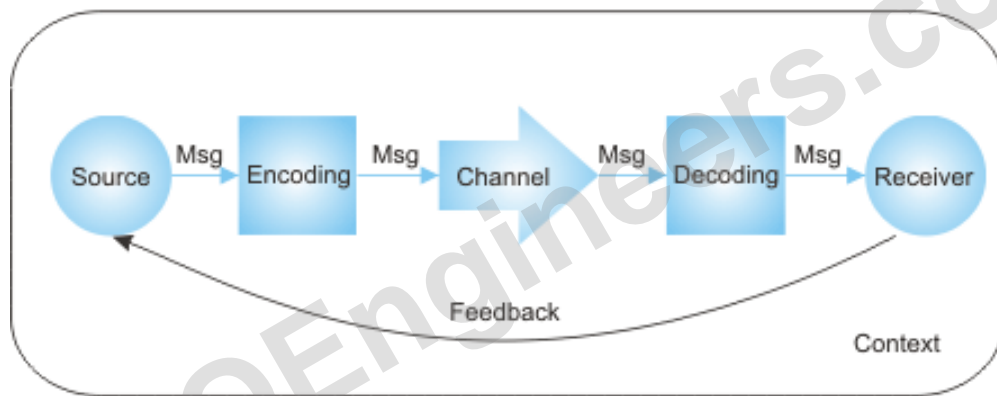
Content is the actual words or symbols of the message that is known as *language* — the spoken and written words combined into phrases that make grammatical and semantic sense. We all use and interpret the meanings of words differently, so even simple messages can be misunderstood. And many words have different meanings to confuse the issue even more.

Context is the way the message is delivered and is known as *paralanguage* — it is the nonverbal elements in speech such as the tone of voice, the look in the sender's eyes, body language, hand gestures, and state of emotions (anger, fear, uncertainty, confidence, etc.) that can be detected. Although paralanguage or context often cause messages to be misunderstood as we believe

what we see more than what we hear; they are powerful communicators that help us to understand each other. Indeed, we often trust the accuracy of nonverbal behaviors more than verbal behaviors.

Some leaders think they have communicated once they told someone to do something, "I don't know why it did not get done. I told Jim to do it." More than likely, Jim misunderstood the message. A message has NOT been communicated unless it is understood by the receiver (decoded). How do you know it has been properly received? By two-way communication or feedback. This feedback tells the sender that the receiver understood the message, its level of importance, and what must be done with it. Communication is an exchange, not just a give, as all parties must participate to complete the information exchange.

The Communications Process



Please draw the above diagram in the exam.its compulsory!

Types of Communication

Communication can occur via various processes and methods and depending on the channel used and the style of communication there can be various types of communication.

Types of Communication Based on Communication Channels

Based on the channels used for communicating, the process of communication can be broadly classified as verbal communication and non-verbal communication. Verbal communication includes written and oral communication whereas the non-verbal communication includes body language, facial expressions and visuals diagrams or pictures used for communication.

- **Verbal Communication**

Verbal communication is further divided into written and oral communication. The oral communication refers to the spoken words in the communication process. Oral communication can either be face-to-face communication or a conversation over the phone or on the voice chat over the Internet. Spoken conversations or dialogs are influenced by voice modulation, pitch, volume and even the speed and clarity of speaking. The other type of verbal communication is written communication. Written communication can be either via snail mail, or email. The effectiveness of written communication depends on the style of writing, vocabulary used, grammar, clarity and precision of language.

- **Nonverbal Communication or Kinetics or Body Language**

Non-verbal communication includes the overall body language of the person who is speaking, which will include the body posture, the hand gestures, and overall body movements. The facial expressions also play a major role while communication since the expressions on a person's face say a lot about his/her mood. On the other hand gestures like a handshake, a smile or a hug can independently convey emotions. Non verbal communication can also be in the form of pictorial representations, signboards, or even photographs, sketches and paintings.

- **Eye contact:** This helps to regulate the flow of communication. It signals interest in others and increases the speaker's credibility .
- **Facial Expressions:** Smiling is a powerful cue that transmits happiness, friendliness, warmth, and liking. So, if you smile frequently you will be perceived as more likable, friendly, warm and approachable.
- **Gestures:** If you fail to gesture while speaking you may be perceived as boring and stiff. A lively speaking style captures the listener's attention, makes the conversation more interesting, and facilitates understanding.
- **Posture and body orientation:** You communicate numerous messages by the way you talk and move. Standing erect and leaning forward communicates to listeners that you are approachable, receptive and friendly.
- **Proximity:** Cultural norms dictate a comfortable distance for interaction with others. You should look for signals of discomfort caused by invading the other person's space
- **Vocal:** Speaking can signal nonverbal communication when you include such vocal elements as: tone, pitch, rhythm, timbre, loudness, and inflection.

Types of Communication Based on Style and Purpose

Based on the style of communication, there can be two broad categories of communication, which are formal and informal communication that have their own set of characteristic features.

- **Formal Communication**

Formal communication includes all the instances where communication has to occur in a set formal format. Typically this can include all sorts of business communication or corporate communication. The style of communication in this form is very formal and official. Official conferences, meetings and written memos and corporate letters are used for communication. Formal communication can also occur between two strangers when they meet for the first time. Hence formal communication is straightforward, official and always precise and has a stringent and rigid tone to it.

- **Informal Communication**

Informal communication includes instances of free unrestrained communication between people who share a casual rapport with each other. Informal communication requires two people to have a similar wavelength and hence occurs between friends and family. Informal communication does not have any rigid rules and guidelines. Informal conversations need not necessarily have boundaries of time, place or even subjects for that matter since we all know that friendly chats with our loved ones can simply go on and on.

Differences Between Oral and Written Communication

Most of us intuitively understand that there are differences between oral and written language. All communication includes the transfer of information from one person to another, and while the transfer of information is only the first step in the process of understanding a complex phenomenon, it is an important first step. Writing is a fairly static form of transfer. Speaking is a dynamic transfer of information. To be an effective speaker, you must exploit the dynamism of oral communication, but also learn to work within its limitations. While there is a higher level of immediacy and a lower level of retention in the spoken word, a speaker has more ability to engage the audience psychologically and to use complex forms of non-verbal communication

The written language can be significantly more precise. Written words can be chosen with greater deliberation and thought, and a written argument can be extraordinarily sophisticated, intricate, and lengthy. These attributes of writing are possible because the pace of involvement is controlled by both the writer and the reader. The writer can write and rewrite at great length, a span of time which in some cases can be measured in years. Similarly, the reader can read quickly or slowly or even stop to think about what he or she has just read. More importantly, the reader always has the option of re-reading; even if that option is not exercised, its mere possibility has an effect upon a reader's understanding of a text. The written word appeals more to a contemplative, deliberative style.

Speeches can also be precise and indeed they ought to be. But precision in oral communication comes only with a great deal of preparation and compression. Once spoken, words cannot be retracted, although one can apologize for a mistake and improvise a clarification or

qualification. One can read from a written text and achieve the same degree of verbal precision as written communication. But word-for-word reading from a text is not speech-making, and in most circumstances audiences find speech-reading boring and retain very little of the information transmitted.

On the other hand, oral communication can be significantly more effective in expressing meaning to an audience. This distinction between precision and effectiveness is due to the extensive repertoire of signals available to the speaker: gestures, intonation, inflection, volume, pitch, pauses, movement, visual cues such as appearance, and a whole host of other ways to communicate meaning. A speaker has significantly more control over what the listener will hear than the writer has over what the reader will read. For these techniques to be effective, however, the speaker needs to make sure that he or she has the audience's attention--audiences do not have the luxury of re-reading the words spoken. The speaker, therefore, must become a reader of the audience.

Reading an audience is a systematic and cumulative endeavor unavailable to the writer. As one speaks, the audience provides its own visual cues about whether it is finding the argument coherent, comprehensible, or interesting. Speakers should avoid focusing on single individuals within an audience. There are always some who scrunch up their faces when they disagree with a point; others will stare out the window; a few rude (but tired) persons will fall asleep. These persons do not necessarily represent the views of the audience; much depends upon how many in the audience manifest these signals. By and large, one should take the head-nodders and the note-takers as signs that the audience is following one's argument. If these people seem to outnumber the people not paying attention, then the speech is being well-received. The single most important bit of evidence about the audience's attention, however, is eye contact. If members of the audience will look back at you when you are speaking, then you have their attention. If they look away, then your contact with the audience is probably fading.

Speeches probably cannot be sophisticated and intricate. Few audiences have the listening ability or background to work through a difficult or complex argument, and speakers should not expect them to be able to do so. Many speakers fail to appreciate the difficulties of good listening, and most speakers worry about leaving out some important part of the argument. One must be acutely aware of the tradeoff between comprehensiveness and comprehension. Trying to put too much into a speech is probably the single most frequent error made by speakers.

As a rule of thumb, the audience will remember about one-half of what was said in a twenty-minute talk. After twenty-minutes, recall drops off precipitously. Oral arguments should therefore be parsed down as much as possible. There are very few circumstances in which an audience will recall a great deal of the information in a speech longer than twenty minutes. Most evidence suggests that audience recall declines precipitously after 16 and one-half minutes.

Oral communication uses words with fewer syllables than the written language, the sentences are shorter, and self-referencing pronouns such as I are common. Oral communication also

allows incomplete sentences if delivered properly, and many sentences will begin with "and," "but," and "except."

The upshot of these differences is that one should not think about speeches as oral presentations of a written text. Speeches are genuinely different from written prose, and one should not use the logic of writing as a basis for writing a speech.

Features/Strategies of Effective writing:

The five Features of Effective Writing are **focus, organization, support and elaboration, style, and conventions.**

Focus:

Focus is the topic/subject established by the writer in response to the writing task. The writer must clearly establish a focus as he/she fulfills the assignment of the prompt. If the writer retreats from the subject matter presented in the prompt or addresses it too broadly, the focus is weakened. The presence, therefore, of a focus must be determined in light of the method of development chosen by the writer.

Organization

Organization is the progression, relatedness, and completeness of ideas. The writer establishes for the reader a well-organized composition, which exhibits a constancy of purpose through the development of elements forming an effective beginning, middle, and end. The response demonstrates a clear progression of related ideas and/or events and is unified and complete.

Support and Elaboration

Support and Elaboration is the extension and development of the topic/subject. The writer provides sufficient elaboration to present the ideas and/or events clearly. Two important concepts in determining whether details are supportive are the concepts of relatedness and sufficiency. To be supportive of the subject matter, details must be related to the focus of the response. Relatedness has to do with the directness of the relationship that the writer establishes between the information and the subject matter. Supporting details should be relevant and clear. The writer must present his/her ideas with enough power and clarity to cause the support to be sufficient. Effective use of concrete, specific details strengthens the power of the response.

Style

Style is the control of language that is appropriate to the purpose, audience, and context of the writing task. The writer's style is evident through word choice and sentence fluency. Skillful use of precise, purposeful vocabulary enhances the effectiveness of the composition through the use of appropriate words, phrases and descriptions that engage the audience.

Conventions

Conventions involve correctness in sentence formation, usage, and mechanics. The writer has control of grammatical conventions that are appropriate to the writing task. Errors, if present, do not impede the reader's understanding of the ideas conveyed.

HOW TO ORGANISE A FORMAL MEETING

When you are working in the corporate world, you have to learn how to run a meeting. Your career success relies on your ability to run a meeting. The ability to run a meeting is a hallmark of a great leader.

- **The first step** to run a meeting is to prepare a simple and clear meeting agenda. You must know the purpose of the meeting. You have to know how to achieve the objective of the meeting. You have to prepare well in advance to run a meeting successfully. You have to make sure that the meeting participants have adequate time to prepare for the meeting.
- **The second step** to run a meeting is to start the meeting on time. You should not allow the participants to come late for the meeting.
- **The third step** to run a meeting is to stick to the allocated time. In your meeting agenda, you have stated the allocated time for each item. You have to stick to the allocated time. When someone brings out additional points for consideration, you can arrange another meeting to discuss.
- **The fourth step** to run a meeting is to encourage participation. You can encourage participation by asking all the participants for their opinions. You have to make sure that everyone has a chance to speak out. When all have voice their opinions, you can consolidate the key points. This is the time to discuss solutions. This is the time to brainstorm for the best solution.
- **The fifth step** to run a meeting is to narrow the workable solutions. You have to use elimination method to eliminate solutions that cost too much money or too much time to implement. You have to narrow the workable solutions. You can request the participants to vote for the best workable solution.
- **The last step** to run a meeting is to summarize the meeting. You can thank the participants for their time and effort to make the meeting a success. You can summarize the process to find the best workable solution. You have to assure the participants that you will report to the management, and seek resources to implement the workable solution.

Unit-5

Technical report writing:

1. Document Structure

One major difficulty with a large document is the rather onerous task of addressing a full pad of blank paper. Additionally, the task of achieving good structure from the start is compounded by

the myriad of thoughts which one juggles, in an attempt to sort out the logical progression of the document. Failure in this endeavour will surely result in structural changes at a later stage, which are the most costly of revisions. The key to achieving both good structure (from the start) *and* decomposing the initially large problem into bite-sized chunks lies in the *contents list*.

1.1 The contents list

For most people, the contents list is a summary of the chapter and section headings, together with a page index, and is normally written when the document is already complete. However, the contents list is the one place in the document where overall structure can be examined, so why not get the structure right at the start? Early organisation of the contents list is certainly not a trivial problem and may take up to a few days to draft. The level of detail should go down to (probably) subsubsections, where the final level contains one key idea and takes up, at most, two to three paragraphs of text. It may even be useful to title each paragraph, though this may not appear in the final contents list as a formal heading.

Again, it is important to stress that laying out the contents list is not easy. However, some hard work at this stage will save a lot of grief later on and is pro-active in ensuring good structure. A badly structured document inherits its own inertia and will be very difficult (and laborious) to correct at a later stage.

1.2 Logical structure

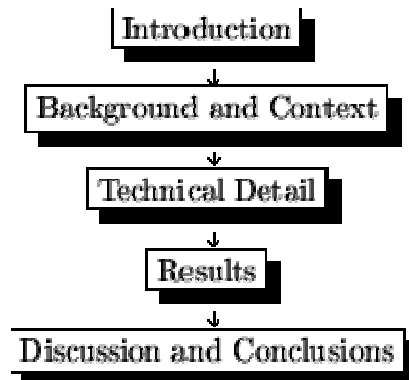
By logical structure is meant the natural unfolding of a story as the reader progresses through the document. This is achieved by going from the general to the specific, with the background material preceding the technical expose, which should lead *logically* to the conclusions. Consider a *good* joke. It has the structure as shown in Fig.1:

Figure 1: Joke structure

Context → Detail (core) → Punchline

In our case, the punchline is the set of conclusions. Everything should support the conclusions and naturally lead up to them. Remember this when constructing your contents list! A typical technical report has the following progression:

Figure 2: Report structure



If some of the detail is standard, but possibly difficult to obtain, it can be included as an appendix. More information on appendices is given in Section [1.5](#).

1.3 Bite-sized chunks

From the hierarchical structure in the contents list, it should now be possible to write each of the subsubsections (or paragraphs) as a more-or-less independent entity, observing however, the relationship between different sections. The *a priori* establishment of the contents list also allows section numbers to be assigned to the different document sections, making cross-referencing relatively simple.

1.4 Chapter order

With a technical document, it is often beneficial to write the technical chapters first i.e., the core material, leaving the introduction, discussion and conclusions until the end. This is especially important when some results are still not available and the time has come to begin writing your document. Even in cases where all results are available, leaving the introduction until the end allows a better perspective to be had on the document as a whole.

1.5 Appendix material

Many authors are uncertain as to what to include in the appendix section. Generally, appendices should contain relatively standard derivations and perhaps lists of parameter values, which would interfere with the continuity of the main body of the document. In particular, the appendix section should not contain:

- All the figures corresponding to the document. Ideally these should appear alongside the appropriate text, or else after the references in a separate section.
- Photocopies of data sheets, or other easily-accessible material.
- Any material which is crucial to the continuity or flow of the 'story' in the main technical sections.

As with the main document sections, the appendices should reference all material which is not the authors original work (see Section [2.5](#)). All appendices should be numbered consecutively, for example Appendix A1, Appendix A2, etc., in order to allow cross-referencing from the text.

1.6 Typical report sections

Depending on the nature of your document, it may (optionally) have the following sections:

Title page

with name, affiliation, date, etc.

Dedication

to a friend, family member, or loved one

Declaration

that the material in the report is the author's own work

Acknowledgement

to those who have helped or influenced your work

Contents list

which lists items from here on with appropriate page references, see Section [1.1](#)

Abstract

which summarises the report contents

Introduction

which introduces the work, provides the motivation and context and outlines other related work

Main technical chapters

which document the core technical work

Conclusions

which may also identify appropriate future work, see Section [2.6](#)

References

see Section [2.5](#)

Appendices

see Section [1.5](#)

2. Writing Style

Writing style is probably the most individual aspect of a report, but again there are useful guidelines which aid the readability, professionalism, objectiveness and impact of a report.

2.1 Who is the rapporteur?

All reports should be written in the third person i.e., as an *objective* observer! Avoid using terms such as "I did this experiment and ..". Instead substitute terms, such as "The experiment was performed ...". Note that the best written description is not necessarily the same as the best verbal description.

2.2 Who is the reader?

Decide, in advance of writing, who the likely reader of the document is. The document must be pitched at an appropriate level with sufficient background to allow understanding by the target audience. Examples of target audiences are shown in Table [1](#).

Table 1: Example target audiences

Report type	Target audience
Final year proj. report	Engineers not specifically au fait with your project area
MEng/PhD thesis	Researchers familiar with the subject area, but not necessarily with your approach
Research paper	Researchers familiar with the approach, but not your specific results

Failure to pitch the level correctly will also inevitably result in failure to communicate your ideas effectively, since the reader will either be swamped with complexity, or bored with blandness!

2.3 Form

This section deals with items related to general appearance and professionalism of the report.

2.3.1 Spelling

This may seem a small and unimportant point for an engineering text, but poor spelling makes a document seem sloppy and may convey an impression that the engineering content is as loose as the general appearance! There are spelling checkers in virtually every word processor now, so use them! However, don't assume that a spelling checker will get all your typos, so long as the word is in its dictionary, it won't flag an error. These checkers are good, but they can't read your mind (yet!). If the report language is not your first language, get a natural speaker to check your document (see Section [5.2](#)).

2.3.2 Grammar

Same here as for spelling. Many word processors now have grammar checkers as well as spell checkers, but the usefulness of these is debatable, so don't rely on them. If in doubt, keep your sentences short and don't be afraid to ask somebody how to use punctuation correctly.

2.3.3 The capital dilemma

Avoid excessive use of capital letters. One recommendation is to only use capitals for proper nouns (such as place names, company names, etc) and in places where acronyms are being defined, e.g., Asynchronous Transfer Mode (ATM). Acronyms should be defined at the first point of usage and the acronym can then be used freely. Try to avoid the use of capitals for emphasis, use boldfacing or italics instead. Capitals can be used effectively to differentiate between different section heading levels, such as in this document i.e., the next level up uses capitals to start each word in the subsection title. However, if you wish to do this, or differentiate between different heading levels in a different way, make sure you are *consistent* in the way you do this.

2.4 Justification and rationale

Engineers and scientists are constant sceptics and need to be constantly re-assured that your work is pragmatic. For each idea presented, you should establish some *rationale* or motivation for its undertaking and any assumptions made must be *justified*. Similarly, critical assessment should be made of your results.

2.5 Observing the outside world

Plagiarism is an unacceptable breach of copyright, where an author presents methods, text or results as his/her own, without reference to the original source. Ignorance of the original source

or a forgetful omission is no excuse and the consequences for plagiarism are serious where it appears in examinable documents. However, in addition to referencing work which is included in your report, it is also necessary to be aware (as fully as possible) of other work which has been carried out which relates to your research. This becomes very important in MEng/PhD theses and research papers, which sit on the world stage and require that the author be aware of *all* related works. Searching for related literature can be performed by computerised searches through databases, such as INSPEC and Compendex, or by directly searching through journals. The Internet can also sometimes be a useful source of information.

Make sure that your referencing method is one of the popular ones (such as the Harvard or MLA styles [1]). There's absolutely no point in inventing another system of your own. Ensure you know how to correctly reference:

- A journal paper [2]
- A conference paper [3]
- A PhD/MEng thesis, final-year project or research report [4,5]
- A book [6]
- An Internet source (via the URL) [7].

As a basic requirement, you should provide enough information to allow the reader to access the source of your material. The examples shown follow the general form used by the IEEE: numerical order, in order of appearance. This form is frequently used in other engineering journals and books, though the Harvard style [1] is also popular.

2.6 Writing conclusions

Conclusions must *conclude*! They must give some overall insight into the value of your work in general and inform the reader of what the major impact is, together with any caveats which the reader should be aware of. A popular 'cop-out' is to fill the conclusions section with a summary of what's in the technical chapters. This concludes nothing! The summary (if present) should be at the start of the document as an abstract. It may be helpful to flag items on a list, which are appropriate for the conclusions section, while writing the technical chapters. The key to your conclusions is then provided by the list.

3. Multimedia and Visual Balance

A technical report can contain information in a variety of forms. These include text, figures, tables and equations. The following subsections contain some information regarding the appropriate use of each. However, choosing different means of representation can also be used to give visual balance to the document, for example by breaking up long sections of text with equations, tables or figures. In cases where several options are available for representing a

particular piece of information, the author can choose appropriately to make the document a less daunting prospect to the reader through visual balance. In most cases, however, the appropriate choice of medium is dictated by the type of information to be communicated.

3.1 Figures

“A picture tells a thousand words”? There is great substance in this statement, and nowhere more obvious than in technical reports. Use figures liberally to communicate specific results (graphs) and show an overview of the system being described through block diagrams, etc. Where possible, put multiple plots on the same axes, so that comparative conclusions can be drawn. Ensure that each figure has a number and a title, so that it can be referenced from the text.

3.2 Tables

Tables are an excellent means of giving an overview of numerical results or providing information in a form which lends itself to comparison. Again, ensure that each table has a number and a title, so that it can be referenced from the text.

3.3 Equations

Some authors shun the formality of equations, preferring to describe the required relationships in textual form. However, it is generally possible to encapsulate a whole paragraph of such text in a single equations. Use equations in a technical report where possible! Number *all* equations consecutively to allow reference from the text. Be careful that *all* the notation you use is defined and beware of using the same mnemonic for two different variables!

3.4 Text

Text is the ‘filler’ and provides the bridge between the equations, figures, tables and references. See Section 2 for more information on the form of the text.

4. Choosing a Word Processor

There is currently a great variety of word processor software available. Two of the popular packages for producing technical documents are briefly reviewed here, along with comparative advantages and disadvantages. See Table 2 for some itemised comparisons.

4.1 Microsoft Word

This popular piece of bloatware (you can tell that this author is not a great fan!) from Bill Gates is by far the most popular worldwide. It sits happily in the WindowsTM environment and provides inter-operability between other WindowsTM applications, giving you the opportunity to pull in graphs (e.g., from MATLABTM) or tables (e.g., from Excel) from other WindowsTM applications. The main benefit is that Word is WYSIWYG i.e., your document appears on the screen as it will be (barring a few Microsoft funnies) in printed form. Word also has an equation editor and an in-

built drawing package (neither of which this author is very fond of) and a table 'wizard', for easy generation of tables. Overall, easy to use and quick to learn, but the 'intelligent' automatic corrections it does are particularly infuriating with a technical document, which may have a lot of non-standard text. The major drawbacks are the relatively large file sizes, which can lead to other problems, such as unexpected software crashes, with possible loss of input. This author's personal experiences with Word wouldn't be a major sell for Bill Gates!

4.2 LaTeX

LaTeX [8] is a suite of (largely shareware) typesetting software, which gives excellent output. The main drawback is that it isn't WYSIWYG, a mark-up language (similar to HTML) being used to specify formatting commands, math symbols, etc. As a result, the learning curve for LaTeX is considerably longer than for Word, explaining its relative lack of popularity. However, some context-sensitive editors are available for LaTeX (such as WinEdt), which are a considerable help for people used to a WindowsTM menu-based system. It is probably true to say that the LaTeX system has been adopted by the majority of researchers in the area of mathematical sciences for the preparation of technical documents. The main advantages are that file sizes are small and it has excellent (and easy-to-use) cross referencing systems for:

- References
- Equations
- Tables, and
- Figures

as well as good facilities for producing mathematical mark-up (symbols, equations, etc). This document was produced in LaTeX.

Table 2: Comparison of word processing software

Facility	Word	LaTeX
Drawing	Poor (inbuilt)	Good (LaTeXCad)
Equations	Poor	Excellent
WYSIWYG	Excellent	V. Poor
Speed of input	Good	Good

Storage format	Proprietary	Text (ASCII)
Output	Any printer	Postscript only
File sizes	Rel. Large	Rel. Small

5. Quality Control

Having completed the major chore of writing the document, you may consider that your work is complete. If there is a higher authority to whom the project/document is done under the guidance of, you may consider that it is their duty to do the quality control on it. Wrong! While your supervisor may suggest modifications to structure or provide suggestions on some technical points, it is not their job to correct spelling, grammar, etc. The primary responsibility for the quality of your document lies with yourself. It is worth taking that extra small amount of time to ensure that your document is professional and is free from grammatical and spelling mistakes.

5.1 The schizophrenic author?

In proof-reading the document yourself, you should attempt to look at the document in a fresh light as a reader completely new to the material. The capacity to adopt this 'schizophrenic' stance will greatly aid your ability to improve the document. Don't be tempted to gloss over sections or speed-read the text, happy in the knowledge that you know what's in there!

5.2 Some friendly help

If you are fortunate to have a colleague or friend from the target reader group who is willing to give you a little time, the view of an objective and completely fresh reader can be of great benefit. This person may also be able to pick up spelling or grammatical errors which you yourself are unaware of. *The use of a friend or colleague at this stage is vital in cases where the document is not written in the author's first language.*

5.3 Your supervisor

Given that the document is a clear read (ensured by the two previous stages of quality control), your supervisor can provide some help regarding the technical accuracy of your report. The converse is also true, in that the lack of clarity in the first place will inhibit the refinement of the technical content! If you want to get the best, in terms of advice on possible technical improvement, the document must be relatively error free. If a supervisor is prepared to correct

typos, grammar, etc., it is unlikely that he/she is going to have time to focus on the more important technical points. In short, you should get the best out of your document by ensuring that you observe the 3 stages of quality control. When you become well practiced at technical documents, just reviewing the document yourself (critically) may suffice.

6. Conclusions

This note has attempted to highlight the salient features of technical report writing. It is not a comprehensive guide. It is motivated by a large number of reports which this author has seen which have not nearly done justice to the work which they were intended to report on. It is as important to report well on the work as to perform good technical work. Consider the case of a BEng project report in the School of Electronic Engineering at DCU, as an example, where 60% of the marks are allocated on the basis of the report alone. This mark is indicative of the relative importance attached to reporting in the wider industrial community. For further reading see, for example, the volume by Beer [10].

Learn by example! Make sure you have a critical look at a similar type of document before you take your first steps. Is this report, in your opinion, clear and well written? Try not to make the same mistakes as that author made!

Finally, this report was specifically structured to demonstrate sections, subsections and the use of tables, figure and references. It was written according to the methodology in Section 1, where each subsection has a core idea, making it very easy to write. No doubt, it has imperfections - here's your chance to improve on it! Aim to excel at your report writing. The professional nature of your reports will stand to you. Remember that ideas committed to print will potentially be perused by a considerable number of people (including potential employers!) over a considerable period into the future.

Business and Technical Reports:

The purpose of a **Business report** is to communicate information to assist in the business [decision making process](#). Some reports might propose solutions for business problems or might present relevant information to assist in the problem solving process. A [Business plan](#) is a kind of report which serves to communicate the [Business model](#), [Business management](#) model and the commercial objectives of a business.

In general when writing a business report the following steps have to be followed

1. Preparing to write the business report

2. Determining the scope of the report
3. Understanding the Target Audience
4. research to collect supporting information
5. formatting and organizing the report

Preparing to write the business report

Preparation is key to write a business report. As part of preparation, doing preparatory research is imperative. The author uses available technology to find valid information using the following steps:

1. Identifying good search tools
2. Doing a topic search to speed up the process
3. Searching using boolean operators, wild cards, exact phrases

Then, the writer must manage the outcome of the research. The best ways to manage sources found online are to:

1. Bookmark the pages
2. Repeating the research frequently to find updated information
3. Establish the credibility of all the sources (are they current?, who published them?, are they biased?)

After having found the best sources during this preliminary research, the author can now begin to think about who to write it.

Determining the scope of the report

In this step the author has to determine the scope of the report. This process would involve what topics would be covered in the report and what elements are not necessary. This step would also help to determine how detailed the report would be.

Understanding the Target Audience

A [target audience](#), or target group is the primary group of people that something, is aimed at appealing to. A target audience can be people of a certain [age group](#), gender, [marital status](#), etc. (ex: teenagers, females, single people, etc.) A certain combination, like men from twenty to thirty is often a target audience. Other groups, although not the main focus, may also be interested. Discovering the appropriate [target market](#)(s) to market a product or service to is one of the

most important stages involved with [market research](#). Without knowing the target audience, a company's advertising and the selling efforts can become difficult and very expensive.

In this step potential requirements of the readers have to be considered and the target audience has to be identified. Questions such as who will use the report?, educational level of the audience?, [knowledge level](#) of the reader?, what is the reader expecting from this report?, personal demographics of the audience?, What should be the level of technical complexity?

Collection of Information

In this step all previous reports, surveys and publications about the topic should be studied. A lot of reports would require some form of Data collection. Many times Investigative research might be needed. It is important that the process and methods used for research are explained. Data which is collected during this process should be presented clearly in the report. Recommendations and proposed solutions have to be studied and reviewed in this process.

Formatting and organizing the report

This is usually the final step before actually writing a business report. In this step the format of the report has to be decided. The following questions might rise during this step, how would the data be presented?, what charts/diagrams will be used to complement the information presented in the report?, how would the report be presented?, what medium of presentation would be used?.

Types of reports:

A report is a dreadfully official document that is written to serve the range of purpose in the engineering and business disciplines; sciences and social sciences. Therefore, they need to be clear-cut and accurate. Good report writing call for--- professionalism, profound knowledge of the subject, attentiveness, and outstanding writing proficiency.

Types of Report Writing ---

- Research Report Writing
- Business Report Writing
- Science Report Writing

Research Report Writing--- To presents the tangible proof of the conducted research is the major intention of the academic assignment. When writing on research report, you must ponder over clarity, organization, and content. Research reports are all the more same to technical reports, lab reports, formal reports and scientific papers which comprise a quite consistent format that will facilitate you to put your information noticeably, making it crystal clear.

Business Report Writing--- In business milieu, Business report writing happens to be an indispensable part of the communication process. Executive summary is written in a non-technical manner. By and large, audience for business reports will consist of upper level manager, for that reason you should take the audience needs in consideration. Go on with the introduction to articulate the problem and determine the scope of the research. To attain the desired results, don't fail to state about the precise quantitative tools.

Science Report Writing--- Parallel to a business report, science report writing also corresponds with the line of investigation. To report upon an empirical investigation, these reports make use of standard scientific report format, portraying technique, fallout and conclusions. As an assignment in undergraduate papers within the scientific disciplines, it is required frequently.

The main objective of the Science report is to boast an aim, the technique which enlightens how the project has been analyzed, the outcomes which presents the findings and the conclusion. This embraces advance research suggestions and your own biased opinion on the topic which has been talked about.

When writing a science report, do not fail to remember to use heading and subheadings in order to direct a reader through your work. In the form of tables and graphs, Statistical evidence should be incorporated in appendices. Than refer to it in the body of your scientific report.

Reports are a common form of writing because of the inclusion of recommendations which are helpful in implementing the decision.

Other Types of Reports:

- 1 Incident Report a report describing how close you are to completing something you planned
- 2 Accident Report a report describing how many goods or services were sold, and the reasons for any differences from the plan
- 3 Sales Report a report on what has happened in a place, and how close your [organisation](#) is to finishing construction
- 4 Progress Report an academic report on how and why something has changed over time
- 5 [Feasibility](#) Study / Report a report describing something that has happened
- 6 Recommendation Report a report on how practical a proposal is
- 7 Site a report on what your organisation should do
- 8 Case Study a report describing how someone was hurt or something was damaged

Progress reports:

Once you have written a successful proposal and have secured the resources to do a project, you are expected to update the client on the progress of that project. This updating is usually handled by progress reports, which can take many forms: memoranda, letters, short reports,

formal reports, or presentations. What information is expected in a progress report? The answer to this question depends, as you might expect, on the situation, but most progress reports have the following similarities in content:

1. *Background on the project itself.* In many instances, the client (a manager at the National Science Foundation, for instance) is responsible for several projects. Therefore, the client expects to be oriented as to what your project is, what its objectives are, and what the status of the project was at the time of the last reporting.
2. *Discussion of achievements since last reporting.* This section follows the progress of the tasks presented in the proposal's schedule.
3. *Discussion of problems that have arisen.* Progress reports are not necessarily for the benefit of only the client. Often, you the engineer or scientists benefit from the reporting because you can share or warn your client about problems that have arisen. In some situations, the client might be able to direct you toward possible solutions. In other situations, you might negotiate a revision of the original objectives, as presented in the proposal.
4. *Discussion of work that lies ahead.* In this section, you discuss your plan for meeting the objectives of the project. In many ways, this section of a progress report is written in the same manner as the "Plan of Action" section of the proposal, except that now you have a better perspective for the schedule and cost than you did earlier.
5. *Assessment of whether you will meet the objectives in the proposed schedule and budget.* In many situations, this section is the bottom line for the client. In some situations, such as the construction of a highway, failure to meet the objectives in the proposed schedule and budget can result in the engineers having to forfeit the contract. In other situations, such as a research project, the client expects that the objectives will change somewhat during the project.

Routine Reports:

Routine reporting means being able to:

- identify appropriate forms or documents to use
- accurately record data from manual inspections and/or electronic systems
- write clear observations as required.

Written reports are usually a summary of readings from the routine performance of the reticulation system. These reports might be summaries of:

- pump hours

- levels in storages
- flow rates
- water quality parameters.

The appropriate workplace form should be completed on a timely basis as required by your water authority. These forms then become a permanent record of the performance of the water distribution system.

Many water authorities have intranets (internal websites) where all documentation such as SOPs and forms are kept. Examples of various forms can be found on the Central Water intranet site.

Annual Reports:

An **annual report** is a comprehensive report on a [company's](#) activities throughout the preceding year. Annual reports are intended to give [shareholders](#) and other interested people information about the company's activities and financial performance. Most jurisdictions require companies to prepare and disclose annual reports, and many require the annual report to be filed at the company's registry. Companies listed on a [stock exchange](#) are also required to report at more frequent intervals (depending upon the rules of the stock exchange involved).

Typically annual reports will include:

- [Chairman's](#) report
- [CEO's](#) report
- [Auditor's](#) report on corporate governance
- [Mission statement](#)
- [Corporate governance](#) statement of compliance
- Statement of directors' responsibilities
- Invitation to the company's AGM

as well as [financial statements](#) including:

- [Auditor's report](#) on the financial statements
- [Balance sheet](#)
- [Statement of retained earnings](#)
- [Income statement](#)
- [Cash flow statement](#)

- [Notes to the financial statements](#)
- Accounting policies

Other information deemed relevant to stakeholders may be included, such as a report on operations for manufacturing firms or [corporate social responsibility](#) reports for companies with environmentally- or socially-sensitive operations. In the case of larger companies, it is usually a sleek, colorful, high gloss publication.

A company's annual report is the most important document that they release each year. In short, it's a reliable summary of the company's financial position for that year that's been checked and approved by an auditor.

This information is always released in a standard annual report format. This helps shareholders and future investors to quickly find the information that they're looking for about the company.

Investment expert Dan Fournier summarizes some of the most important purposes of the annual report:

"You can use the annual report to assess a company's profitability, its potential for growth, to learn about its problems or challenges, or to find out about risks and other factors that may affect its performance and, inherently, its stock price."

Annual Reports Formats:

Standard Format for annual reports:

Fortunately, most companies follow a similar industry practice in their annual report presentation, making it simple to understand and compare the company's financial position. There are seven sections that make up the standard annual report format:

1. Letter to the shareholder
2. Highlights of the past year
3. Management discussion and analysis
4. Auditor's report
5. Financial statements (Income Statement, Balance Sheets, and Cash Flow Statement)
6. Notes to financial statements

7. Corporate information

The most important components are the financial statements, but when they stand alone they can be misleading. It's only when you compare these statements to other company annual reports that you can understand how the company has performed financially for that year.

Much More Company Reports:

Learn more about each of the components of annual reports by visiting the Ordering page on the left-hand menu. Here you'll find loads of information about Dan Fournier's book, which has an entire section on the topic.

For additional information about annual company reports, such as sample annual reports and free annual reports, simply follow the links below. They lead to pages with more detail on related topics.

Analysis of sample reports from industry:

Sample Market Analysis

Market Analysis

Customers

Family Farmers Choice has developed a database of present customer who buy on a regular basis and customers who have bought only occasionally as the opportunity presents itself, such as at farmers markets. Customer demographics show the current customers are in an income

range of \$45,000 or more, two income families, professional occupations, concerned about the environment and located primarily in urban areas. Research also shows these customers are Internet users and willing to order product from our business via the Internet.

Research conducted by Farmers Choice has verified that there is a market segment large enough to justify the investment in the processing facility. Further, the premium these consumers are willing to pay will allow the shipment of products to nearly all geographic locations in the country. Focus groups, market surveys and product demonstrations at several locations were used to develop demographic profiles of each promising location so that zip codes could be used to easily identify future markets when expansion is deemed appropriate. (Note: Results of the surveys can be provided if additional information is desired.)

A significant number of consumers are concerned about where their meat products are coming from and how these products are processed. The company will market directly to that group. Since they are highly informed consumers, however, a major task will be to establish credibility.

In the farmers markets targeted for sales there are an estimated 100,000 potential customers (based on census estimates). At present, Farmers Choice has reached only a fraction of that customer base.

Based on data in the U.S. Census Bureau databases, estimated customer potential is as follows:

Big Town Farmers Market	55,000
Lotus	10,000
Keeper	10,000
Sagmore	15,000
Cool Springs	5,000

Market Size and Trends

1997..... 18.2 billion pounds of pork produced
1998..... 19.0 billion pounds of pork produced
1999..... 19.4 billion pounds of pork produced

Source: Steve Meier, National Pork Producers Council. 1999 figures based on USDA estimate.

Average prices received by the producer have decreased in recent years:

1997.....	\$52.90 per hundred weight
1998.....	\$34.40 per hundred weight

U.S. per capita consumption of pork is declining:

1980.....	57.3 pounds per person
1996.....	49.1 pounds per person

In spite of declining per capita consumption of pork, consumers still spend more money on pork per year than on poultry and fish. Average annual expenditures for pork in 1998 were \$146 per person per year, second only to beef at \$218. The expenditures for all meat (beef, pork, poultry and fish) decreased slightly from the 1997 annual expenditures. (Source: Consumer Expenditures Survey, 1984-98, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics)

According to USDA data, higher expenditures for pork versus poultry may have been due to retail prices. For example, in June 1998, the average retail price for pork was \$2.29 per pound, compared to chicken at \$1.55 per pound.

Consumer Perceptions of Pork

According to a survey conducted by the National Pork Producers Council, more than three out of four family cooks believe pork is a healthful choice. The same study indicated families prefer pork because it tastes good. Survey respondents also cited pork's versatility, nutrition and value as key reasons for its popularity.

Ranking of the favorite cuts:

1. Chops
2. Tenderloins
3. Roasts
4. Ribs

Pork producers work hard to deliver the product that the consumer wants. Consumers wanted leaner pork and they got it! Compared to 1983, pork of 2000 has about 31 percent less fat content.

General Trends in Meat Consumption

There are a number of new and emerging trends in meat marketing which are relevant to the interest of this feasibility study. In general there are three consumer preferences today which are driving major changes in the meat industry.

- Consumers are demanding meats that require little preparation time. Population and labor trends are driving this preference. An unprecedented number of women are in the

workforce today. There is an increasing number of single adult households in the U.S.; of those, the number of single parent, female-headed households is increasing, resulting in more than ever limited time for meal preparation within U.S. households. A Yankelovich poll (reported by the American Meat Institute) claims that half of all Americans spend less than 45 minutes cooking an evening meal compared to the two-hour meal preparation typical in American households 30 years ago. People have a limited amount of time and don't want to spend it cooking. Add to this the fact that at 4 p.m., 60 percent of Americans do not know what they will eat for dinner. The implications are that the meat marketing industry has a whole new challenge for capturing palates and dollars.

- Consumers have little knowledge of and skills for cooking. Studies report that many consumers feel that their knowledge of cooking and skills for meal preparation are more limited than those of their parents and grandparents. Furthermore, the American Meat Institute reports that many American consumers find meat preparation to be challenging. Implications for meat marketing are that meats are becoming increasingly available as meal-ready or with minimal preparation.
- Consumers are concerned about health and nutrition when buying meat. The Food Marketing Institute claims that nearly 80 percent of Americans want to eat food they perceive to be extremely healthy and that 42 percent are willing to pay more for low-fat versions of commonly consumed products. In the lunch meat and hot dog markets, a record 50 percent of the products offered are items with reduced or low fat.
- Consumers are demanding changes from the meat industry and the industry is responding. Numerous options and innovations can be observed at all levels in production, processing and packaging. The retail point of sale is taking on a new look.

Emerging Trends in Meat Marketing

Case-Ready Meat: These are value added fresh meat products that the supermarket purchases in precut packages. Due to new packaging technologies, precut, tray-ready packages tend to offer a longer shelf life than conventional products. Often hermetically sealed, they offer customers trimmed, individually wrapped, consistent portions. Case-ready meats eliminate extra steps in handling for retailers and consumers alike.

Consumer-Ready Products: These products go a step beyond the case-ready meat products by including preparation tips, cooking instructions, spices, or seasoning packets. Portions are indicated on the package. Consumer-ready products include items such as marinated meats, stuffed chops, kabobs and seasoned steaks and roast which are ready to take home and pop into the oven, microwave or place on the grill.

Home Meal Replacement: These are fully prepared products which free the consumer from all responsibility of meal preparation. They often come packed and portioned as entrees with

options to purchase complementary side dishes or extras. Also known as TOTE (Take Out To Eat), these dinners in a bag are the way in which supermarkets and grocery stores are competing with restaurants to gain business from Americans who choose not to prepare their own meals.

The market analysis shows a broad range of prospective clients. The green labeled, eco-labeled, naturally labeled, food industry is in a boom period. While there are a growing number of items from a growing number of vendors becoming available, Family Farmers Choice is approaching the market as a multi-choice provider of products with a face.

The owner/members of Family Farmers Choice have spent 10 years carefully laying the groundwork and learning the methods for success. The value-added cooperative is now poised to make the most of established connections with consumers and other marketers of natural items handcrafted on family farms.

Family Farmers Choice is set to offer food, fiber and manufactured products that nourish, provide comfort or address a desired taste or want. The members of Family Farmers Choice have proven an ability to adjust their product lines while also displaying a tenacious desire to provide whatever level of sweat equity is required to preserve their independent ways of life as family farmers. The owners/members have also provided 50 percent of the equity requirements per early feasibility estimates.

The food-with-a-face concept of marketing is still relatively new and enjoys some sense of novelty in the marketplace. The genuine authenticity that can be verified by Family Farmers Choice is not yet common in the commercial consumer marketplace, which gives the Family Farmers group a leg up on the competition.

The industry of specialized foods and handmade, one-of-a-kind products is on a steady upward growth curve; and Family Farmers Choice is poised to capitalize on the consumer's desire for these items.

While a bouncing economy can affect many areas, specialty food items and unique crafted goods are generally less affected than the main, with unique items typically finding favor in the marketplace. The following article, reprinted, provides a degree of verification.

Farmers Rated Best in Ensuring Food Safety

Survey Identifies Consumer and Editor Opinions about Food Issues

DES MOINES, Iowa— Tuesday, September 29, 1998— Food safety has surpassed issues such as crime prevention, health and nutrition, environmental protection, water quality and recycling as the most important public issue facing consumers. However, **consumers give farmers high marks for their efforts to assure a safe food supply**, a survey by the International Food Safety Council, a restaurant and foodservice industry coalition, shows.

Fifty-nine percent of consumers surveyed **said farmers are doing an excellent job to ensure a safe food supply**. Supermarkets came in a close second at 57 percent, followed by food processors (44 percent), restaurants (42 percent), consumers (38 percent), government agencies (34 percent), and meat/poultry packers (29 percent).

"The survey clearly shows that **consumers hold farmers in high regard for their efforts to produce safe and wholesome products**," said Bill Brewer, public relations counsel for the Food Practice Group. **"This offers an opportunity for the agricultural community..."**

English Language Communication Skills

1998 Food Issues Survey News Release

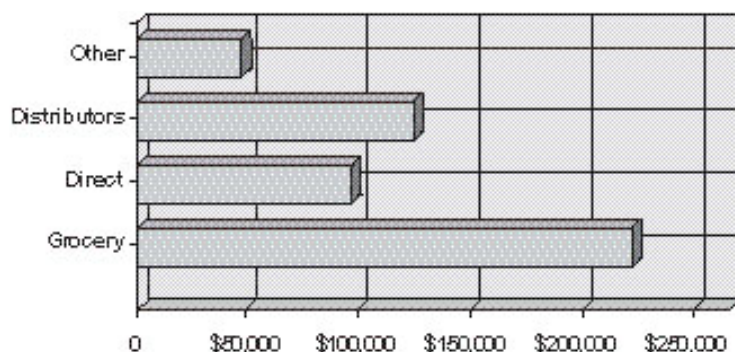
Presented in association with the International Food Safety Council, a restaurant and foodservice industry coalition.

Family Farmers Choice Products			
Chops	Ham	Pork Roasts	Other
Smoked Boneless Pork Chops	Bone-In Spiral Sliced Ham	Pork Roast	Bacon
Fresh Smoked Pork Chops		Precooked Pork Roast	Smoked Pork Loin Ribs

The following tables show the pricing strategy that Farmers Choice will use for their products:

Product	Price Calculated per Pound
Smoked Boneless Pork Chops	\$1.45
Fresh Smoked Pork Chops	\$1.05

Potential Markets



Customer Categories	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Other	\$5,000	\$10,000	\$15,000	\$30,000	\$50,000
Distributors (includes restaurants)	\$30,000	\$40,000	\$65,000	\$100,000	\$125,000
Direct (includes farmers markets)	\$65,000	\$65,000	\$70,000	\$80,000	\$100,000
Grocery	\$0	\$85,000	\$130,000	\$190,000	\$225,000
TOTAL	\$100,000	\$200,000	\$300,000	\$400,000	\$500,000

Product Distribution and Sales

Meat products are sold in a variety of ways somewhat dependent on fresh or frozen and size of package. At present, ethnic markets and specialty markets are underserved. A survey of the phone company's yellow pages showed only two markets selling to ethnic groups in our proposed trade area. Regardless of whether the market is a niche or traditional market, the meat sales are still handled in the same manner.

Types of sales include:

- Over the counter in locker plants or meat shops
- By mail order
- Via Internet
- Door-to-door sales and delivery
- Grocery stores
- Institutional food vendors
- Specialty marketing
- Prepared food sales

Farmers Choice will not have any unique food sales methods. Rather, the company will sell via specialty markets, such as farmers markets, as frozen foods, shipping product sold via Internet or phone orders and over the counter at the processing facility. For a small company, Farmers Choice will cover as many marketing avenues as time and resources permit.

Estimated Market Share and Sales

The potential sales volume for the projected sales area is \$10 million. This is Web sites and Iowa State University Extension estimates, which combine population numbers and consumption numbers. With a projected sales volume of \$500,000, Farmers Choice will not have a large market share.

Competition

Competition is formidable. The competitors have more buying power, more clout in the marketplace and more financial resources to cut deals with suppliers. Farmers Choice has no illusions of coming into the market place and easily capturing sales. It will need to work hard to gain and keep sales. Customers have well established buying habits for meat products coupled with established preferences for products, packing and freshness.

Competition is in the form of three main categories:

1. Large chain grocery stores for retail customers.
2. Small independent locker plants with retail counters.
3. Meat brokers and institutional food sales groups selling to restaurants.

The main competition will be pork products marketed in the traditional manner, i.e., as a commodity. Typically, the consumer does not know where the product comes from and where and how it was processed. Family Farmers plans to differentiate its products from commodity meats in the following manner:

- Preserve the identity of products from the hog raiser to the consumer, whether the product is sold in meat markets, grocery stores, restaurants or delicatessens.
- Hogs will be raised in open pastures on a rotation basis, as opposed to highly dense confinement buildings, thus minimizing the investment required and eliminating waste disposal and related environmental problems. Studies have shown that hogs raised in this manner have fewer health problems, thus reducing the need for medicines of various types, further reducing production costs.

- Establish that the brand "Family Farmers Choice" offers products that are safe and are of consistent high quality, thereby deserving of a premium price.

Who are our competitors? We do not know the annual meat sales volume of our competitors or their market shares. Such figures, if published, were not available for this study.

Farmers Choice prices will be competitive and, in some cases, higher than competing pork products found through other distribution channels. The higher cost, about 5 cents per pound higher on average, will result from the key differences of Farmers Choice product versus competitors'. Again, the sales history indicates consumers are willing to pay a very slight premium to get product that meets their criteria.

Some key differences of our product include:

- It is a natural product, free of hormones.
- It is provided by farmers known to the consumer, as in "food with a face."
- Quality is assured as all hogs are raised to an audited quality system.
- No quality problems will come from processing due to our small facility and worker responsibility for quality.
- Doorstep delivery is available where possible.
- Customers can visit the factory where the food is made.

Competitive Advantage and Analysis

The following table outlines how Farmers Choice compares to the competition in terms of product and other factors, including strengths and weaknesses. The analysis is of Farmers Choice against the competition by major groups. While there may be key differences against individual stores or businesses, these do not exist in large enough quantity to affect sales or strategy of Farmers Choice.

Synopsis:

Writing a Synopsis – A Guide

Synopses – Summary of the Rules and Presentation Criteria

Many writers find synopsis writing difficult. Trying to fit an entire manuscript into a few pages, can be the most frustrating part of the book writing process. The Internet is crammed full of resources on synopsis writing, and while this is potentially helpful, it can also be confusing. However, there are requirements and rules that almost all information sources agree on. Practicing and applying these rules, can help with the synopsis process.

What is a Synopsis?

A synopsis is a short summary of the content within a manuscript, covering the main characters, plot, conflicts and ending. The summary should be brief and to the point, telling exactly what the story is about, and taking the editor, agent or publisher, from start to finish in a logical manner. It can be thought of as a sales pitch, punchy and exciting to read.

Presentation of a synopsis – a Guide

Presentation is a vital element of the synopsis sales criteria. A neat, professional looking, and well laid out synopsis, will stand a better chance of being reviewed by editors or a publisher. It is essential, that the guidelines of the respective agent, publisher or editor be reviewed for specific submission requirements.

- Place contact information and the authors name in the top left corner of the first page, and list the story genre and wordcount, along with the word "synopsis" in the top right corner.
- Use a 1 inch margin on all sides.
- Insert the story title approximately one third of the way down the first page and centre it.
- Start the synopsis summary three to four lines below the title.
- The text throughout the synopsis should be double-spaced, unless otherwise stated by an agent or publisher in the submission guideline.
- Do not number the first page. From the second page onwards, place page numbers in the top right corner on the same line as the header.
- The header on each page after the first, should contain the author's name, the story title and the word synopsis.
- The synopsis text from the second page onwards, should start approximately three lines below the header.
- When a character is mentioned for the first time , capitalize the name.

General Synopsis Rules

There are many different ideas, on how the perfect synopsis of manuscript should be written, following these basic rules should make the process a little easier.

Read on

- An ideal synopsis should be approximately 2 - 5 pages long.
- Express it in third person, present tense, regardless of how the story is written.
- The first 3 - 4 paragraphs need to be deliberately engaging, this should compel the reader to read on.
- Try to portray the tone of the story into the text, if the story is dark, then so should the synopsis.
- Introduce the main character first.
- Only include the main character and central characters, leave out any others.
- Include character motivations, and important factors to do with the main and/or central characters.
- Highlight the main plot points, but leave out subplots unless they are directly linked to the main plot.
- Leave out rhetorical questions.
- Use of dialogue should be kept to a minimum, do not inject long sections of dialogue into a synopsis.
- Always reveal the ending.

Synopses Writing – an Overview

Synopses are generally required by professional publishers, editors and agents as a review of the completed manuscript, learning how to write a good one can make all the difference. Taking time to research submission guidelines for a chosen agent, editor or publisher, implementing a professional presentation throughout, and adhering to the general rules of writing a synopsis, will greatly improve the chance of possible publication.

Thesis :

What is a thesis?

A thesis statement declares what you believe and what you intend to prove. A good thesis statement makes the difference between a thoughtful research project and a simple retelling of facts.

A good tentative thesis will help you focus your search for information. But don't rush! You must do a lot of background reading before you know enough about a subject to identify key or essential questions. You may not know how you stand on an issue until you have examined the evidence. You will likely begin your research with a working, preliminary or tentative thesis which you will continue to refine until you are certain of where the evidence leads.

The thesis statement is typically located at the end of your opening paragraph. (The opening paragraph serves to set the context for the thesis.)

Remember, your reader will be looking for your thesis. Make it clear, strong, and easy to find.

Attributes of a good thesis:

- It should be contestable, proposing an arguable point with which people could reasonably disagree. A strong thesis is provocative; it takes a stand and justifies the discussion you will present.
- It tackles a subject that could be adequately covered in the format of the project assigned.
- It is specific and focused. A strong thesis proves a point without discussing "everything about ..." Instead of music, think "American jazz in the 1930s" and your argument about it.
- It clearly asserts your own conclusion based on evidence. **Note: Be flexible. The evidence may lead you to a conclusion you didn't think you'd reach. It is perfectly okay to change your thesis!**
- It provides the reader with a map to guide him/her through your work.
- It anticipates and refutes the counter-arguments
- It **avoids** vague language (like "it seems").
- It **avoids** the first person. ("I believe," "In my opinion")
- It should pass the [So what? or Who cares? test](#) (Would your most honest friend ask why he should care or respond with "but everyone knows that"?). For instance, "people should avoid driving under the influence of alcohol," would be unlikely to evoke any opposition.

How do you know if you've got a solid tentative thesis?

Try these five tests:

- Does the thesis inspire a reasonable reader to ask, "How?" or "Why?"
- Would a reasonable reader NOT respond with "Duh!" or "So what?" or "Gee, no kidding!" or "Who cares?"
- Does the thesis avoid general phrasing and/or sweeping words such as "all" or "none" or "every"?

- Does the thesis lead the reader toward the topic sentences (the subtopics needed to prove the thesis)?
- Can the thesis be adequately developed in the required length of the paper or project?

If you cannot answer "YES" to these questions, what changes must you make in order for your thesis to pass these tests?

Examine these [sample thesis statements](#).

Visit our [thesis generator](#) for more advice.

Proficient vs. Advanced

Proficient: Inspires the reasonable reader to ask "How?" or "Why?"

Advanced: Inspires the reasonable reader to ask "How?" or "Why?" and to exclaim "Wow!" This thesis engages the student in challenging or provocative research and displays a level of thought that breaks new ground.

Remember: Reading and coaching can significantly improve the tentative thesis.

Thesis Brainstorming

As you read look for:

- Interesting contrasts or comparisons or patterns emerging in the information
- Is there something about the topic that surprises you?
- Do you encounter ideas that make you wonder why?
- Does something an "expert" says make you respond, "no way! That can be right!" or "Yes, absolutely. I agree!"

Example of brainstorming a thesis:

Select a topic: television violence and children

Ask an interesting question: What are the effects of television violence on children?

Revise the question into a thesis: Violence on television increases aggressive behavior in preschool children.

Remember this argument is your "preliminary" or "working" thesis. As you read you may discover evidence that may affect your stance. It is okay to revise your thesis!

For more ideas on brainstorming visit Purdue's [Thought Starters](#)

Create a list of sample questions to guide your research:

- How many hours of television does the average young child watch per week?
- How do we identify a "violent" program?
- Which types of programs are most violent?
- Are there scientific research studies that have observed children before and after watching violent programs?
- Are there experts you might contact?
- Which major groups are involved in investigating this question?

For basic advice on almost any writing issue as you work on this major project, visit the Purdue OWL Handouts and our own Research Project Guide and our MLA Stylesheet.

For advice on selecting your sources, visit Why Should I Take this Author Seriously?

Now, let's play: Is it a thesis?

I would like to become a chef when I finish school

Although both chefs and cooks can prepare fine meals, chefs differ from cooks in education, professional commitment, and artistry.

*******END*******

Note: Write Answers with good hand writing and lengthy to gain more marks and also draw figures.

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