Communication Skills

Study Material for Students

CAREER OPPORTUNITIES IN MEDIA WORLD

Mass communication and Journalism is institutionalized and source specific. It functions through well-organized professionals and has an ever increasing interlace. Mass media has a global availability and it has converted the whole world in to a global village. A qualified journalism professional can take up a job of educating, entertaining, informing, persuading, interpreting, and guiding. Working in print media offers the opportunities to be a news reporter, news presenter, an editor, a feature writer, a photojournalist, etc. Electronic media offers great opportunities of being a news reporter, news editor, newsreader, programme host, interviewer, cameraman, producer, director, etc.

Other titles of Mass Communication and Journalism professionals are script writer, production assistant, technical director, floor manager, lighting director, scenic director, coordinator, creative director, advertiser, media planner, media consultant, public relation officer, counselor, front office executive, event manager and others.

INTRODUCTION

This book comprise of three units. First unit of this book covers the theories of Communication like the Hypodermic Needle Theory, Two-step & Multi-step Theory, Commercial Theory, Play Theory, Uses & Gratification Theory, Selective Exposure, Selective Perception & Selective Retention Theory and Individual Difference Theory.

The second unit of the book focuses of various aspects of Models of Communication. Models of Communication like SMCR Model, Shanon & Weaver Model, Laswell Model, Osgood Model, Dance Model, Schramm Model, Gerbner’s Model, New Comb Model, Convergent Model and Gate Keeping Model are discussed in this unit.

The third unit will present the communication skills required in a business organization. Students will also learn about the preparation of matters of meetings, written communication skills of a business organization, Verbal and Non-Verbal Communication. This unit will also deal with telephone handling manners.

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COMMUNICATION SKILLS

UNIT 1. THEORIES OF COMMUNICATION

OBJECTIVES

- To understand the significance of communication Theories
- To know the different types of communication Theories
- To understand the elements and significance of each of these different theories

INTRODUCTION

Mass communication means sharing of information or a message with a large number of people at one place or at several places in one country or many countries. As an American communication scholar Edwin Emery says, •communication is a part of human behaviour,. We ,communicate with one another by directing a message to one or more of the senses—sight, sound, touch, taste or smell.€ Many social scientists studied the effect of mass communication within the society. This has resulted in a number of theories which essentially trace the relationship between mass communication and society.

However, not a single theory has been universally accepted. Early theories were based on assumptions that mass media have enormous and direct influence upon society. But later researchers provide evidence against any direct cause and effect relationship between mass communication and society. Instead, they underline the importance of individual difference and personal influences on transmission, acceptance and retention of message. **These theories portray mass media as an outcome of changes in society.**

THEORIES OF COMMUNICATION

1.1. Hypodermic Needle Theory

The "hypodermic needle theory" implied that mass media had a direct, immediate, and powerful effect on its audiences. The mass media in the 1940s and 1950s were perceived as a powerful influence on behavior change. As the name 'Bullet' theory suggested, the messages were thought to be like magic bullets that were shot directly into the receiver.

Several factors contributed to this "strong effects" theory of communication, including:
- The fast rise and popularization of radio and television
- The emergence of the persuasion industries, such as advertising and propaganda
- Focus on the impact of motion pictures, and
- Hitler's monopolization of the mass media during WWII to unify the German public behind the Nazi party.

The theory suggests that the mass media could influence a very large group of people directly and uniformly by 'shooting' or 'injecting' them with appropriate messages designed to trigger a desired response.

Both images used to express this theory **a bullet and a needle)** suggest a powerful and direct flow of information from the sender to the receiver. The bullet theory graphically suggests that the message is a bullet, fired from the "media gun" into the viewer's "head." With similarly emotive imagery the Hypodermic needle model suggests that media messages are injected straight into a passive audience, which is, immediately influenced by the message.

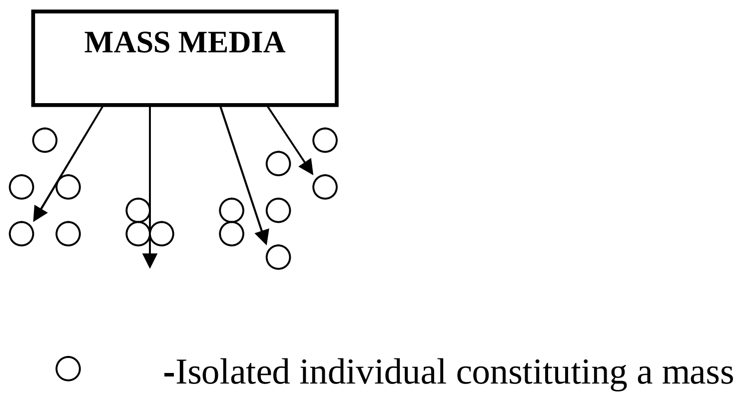
They express the view that the media is a dangerous means of communicating an idea because the receiver or audience is powerless to resist the impact of the message. There is no escape from the effect of the message in these models. The population is seen as a sitting duck. People are seen as passive and are seen as having a lot media material "shot" at them. People end up thinking what they are told because there is no other source of information.

New assessments that the 'hypodermic needle theory' or 'Magic Bullet Theory' was not accurate came out of election studies in *"The People's Choice,"* Lazarsfeld, Berelson and Gaudet, 1944/1968. The project was conducted during the election of Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1940 to determine voting patterns and the relationship between the media and political behavior. The majority of people remained untouched by the propaganda; interpersonal outlets brought more influence than the media. The effects of the campaign were not all-powerful to where they persuaded helpless audiences uniformly and directly, which is the very definition of what the magic bullet theory does.

As focus group testing, questionnaires, and other methods of marketing effectiveness testing came into widespread use; and as more interactive forms of media e.g.: internet, radio call -in shows, etc. became available, the magic bullet theory was replaced by a variety of other, more instrumental models, like the two step of flow theory and diffusion of innovations theory.

Harold Lasswell developed this innovative theory of the effect of mass communication during World War I. He based his theory of mass communication, 'hypodermic needle' model, on Freudian theory that argues that humans are motivated by primitive and unconscious forces. He observed mass media as an effective way of persuading audience for political leaders such as Hitler, Roosebelt, Stalin, and Musolini. According to **'hypodermic needle' model** or **'magic bullet'** theory, human beings are given uniform instincts and live in a mass society where a single set of social norms and values cannot control people from various origins. Under these circumstances, people receive and interpret media messages in a similar way. Therefore, mass communication can influence people's thoughts and behaviors immediately and effectively.

Conceptual Model



<u>'Hypodermic Needle' or Magic Bullet theory model</u>

Example

The classic example of the application of the Magic Bullet Theory and Hypodermic Needle Theory was illustrated on October 30, 1938 when Orson Welles and the newly formed Mercury Theater group broadcasted their radio edition of H.G. Wells' *"War of the Worlds."* On the eve of Halloween, radio programming was interrupted with a "news bulletin" for the first time. What the audience heard was that Martians had begun an invasion of Earth in a place called Grover's Mill, New Jersey.

It became known as the *"Panic broadcast"* and changed broadcast history, social psychology, and civil defense and set a standard for provocative entertainment. Approximately 12 million people in the United States heard the broadcast and about one million of those actually believed that a serious alien invasion was underway. A wave of mass hysteria disrupted households, interrupted religious services, caused traffic jams and clogged communication systems. People fled their city homes to seek shelter in more rural areas, raided grocery stores, and began to ration food. The nation was in a state of chaos, and this broadcast was the cause of it.

Media theorists have classified the *"War of the Worlds"* broadcast as the archetypal example of the Magic Bullet Theory. This is exactly how the theory worked, by injecting the message directly into the "bloodstream" of the public, attempting to create a uniform thinking. The effects of the broadcast suggested that the media could manipulate a passive and gullible public, leading theorists to believe this was one of the primary ways media authors shaped audience perception.

1.2. Two-step Theory & Multi step Theory

The above-mentioned study of presidential elections revealed that many voters had limited exposure to the mass media. Paul Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet in The People's Choice, a 1944 study focused on the process of decision-making during a Presidential election campaign, first introduced the two-step flow of communication hypothesis. These researchers expected to find empirical support for the direct influence of media messages on voting intentions. **They were surprised to discover, however, that informal, personal contacts were mentioned far more frequently than exposure to radio or newspaper as sources of influence on voting behavior. Armed with this data, Katz and Lazarsfeld developed the two-step flow theory of mass communication.** The information they received was mostly through other people, called 'opinion leaders'.

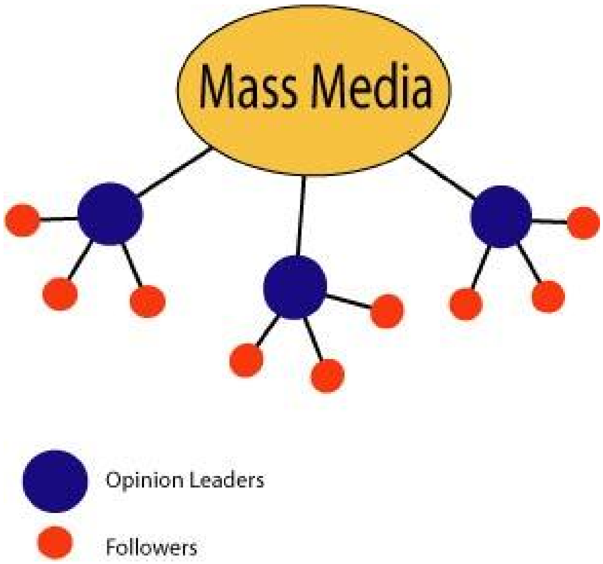
This theory asserts that information from the media moves in two distinct stages. First, individuals opinion leaders who pay close attention to the mass media and its messages receive the information. Opinion leaders pass on their own interpretations in addition to the actual media content. The term 'personal influence' was coined to refer to the process intervening between the media's direct message and the audience's ultimate reaction to that message. Opinion leaders are quite influential in getting people to change their attitudes and behaviors and are quite similar to those they influence.

The two-step flow theory has improved our understanding of how the mass media influence decision-making. The theory refined the ability to predict the influence of media messages on audience behavior, and it helped explain why certain media campaigns may have failed to alter audience attitudes and behavior. The two-step flow theory gave way to the multi-step flow theory of mass communication or diffusion of innovation theory.

Lazarsfeld suggested "ideas often flow from radio and print to the opinion leaders and from them to the less active sections of the population." People tend to be much more affected in their decision making process by face-to-face encounters with influential peers than by the mass media.

Like other theories, two-step flow has its shortcomings too; first, it diminishes the original, direct influence of mass media; secondly its effects are evident only in political studies that were conducted decades ago when there was no television influence and therefore, may not be as applicable to the contemporary political scene.

Conceptual Model



Multi step Theory

Further studies on opinion leaders led to the modification and re conceptualization of the two-step flow concept into multi-step flow-because of the multi-directional influence of opinion leaders, not necessarily only downwards, when they interpreted the media messages for the audiences. The influence was seen to be 'upwards' or back towards the media sources, when they sought to tell gatekeepers editors of newspap ers, news editors of radio and TV news, producers, etc) how to do their job. In addition, the influence was 'sideways' when they shared insights with other opinion leaders.

Moreover, the multi-step flow concept was seen as having many relay-points, i.e. information reaching a member of the audience directly or reaching him secondhand, third hand or fourth and, and sometimes in a form considerably different from the original.

The multi-step flow involves interpersonal communication and later through mass media-the sequential flow of message is very effective. Multi-step messages have various media and networks go a long way in affecting the individuals. The variables, which contribute in these steps, are: the source, quality, exposure or availability of mass media, extent of audience exposure to communicating agencies, nature and content of the message and finally the importance of the message to the receivers or audiences.

1.3 Commercial Theory

Commercial theory is also known as the ***laissez Faire*** theory. **Laissez -faire** or **laisser-faire**, is a French phrase meaning "let do". From the French diction first used by the 18th century physiocrats as an injunction against government interference with trade, it became used as a synonym for strict free market economics during the early and mid-19th century. Laissez-faire also embodies free trade, namely that a state should not use protectionist measures, such as tariffs, in order to curtail trade through national frontiers.

This Theory says that the states should not intervene in economic affairs, except to break up a monopoly. The phrase originated with the Physiocrats, 18th-century French economists whose maxim was *laissez faire et laissez passer* literally, 'let go and let pass' – that is, leave the individual alone and let commodities circulate freely. The degree to which intervention should take place is still one of the chief problems of economics. The Scottish economist Adam Smith justified the theory in *The Wealth of Nations* 1776.

Before the 17th century, control by guilds, local authorities, or the state, of wages, prices, employment, and the training of workers, was taken for granted. As capitalist enterprises developed in the 16th and 17th centuries, entrepreneurs shook off the control of the guilds and local authorities. By the 18th century this process was complete. The reaction against *laissez faire* began in the mid-19th century and found expression in the factory acts and elsewhere. This reaction was inspired partly by humanitarian protests against the social conditions created by the Industrial Revolution and partly by the wish to counter popular unrest of the 1830s and 1840s by removing some of its causes.

Mass media today plan, produce and disseminate their messages taking into consideration the commercial aspects also. This theory, therefore, considers consumers as primary targets and avers that mass media produce programmes keeping in view the tastes, needs, wishes and status of the audiences. Mass media are operated by big business houses, monopolies and multinational corporations. These lead to intense competition among programme producers and mass media exercise tremendous manipulative powers.

Also there comes about a large variety and diversity of information, opinion and viewpoints reducing the chances of manipulation and lowering professional standards. With the advent of multi-channel programming on television in India since 1990, the *laissez-faire* environment is amply visible.

1.4. Play Theory

Media impacts have been interpreted in a variety of theories and models. Generally, media are believed to be exercising corrupting or dangerous effects on masses. Several communication scholars have highlighted media's harmful interferences on the audiences. Yet another view is that media provide audiences only with a 'play experience'. A communication researcher, William Stephenson, has said that media are there to provide pleasure. Newspapers are not read for news or information, but for pleasure and entertainment. Stephenson thus concludes that **entertainment is the primary function of mass media.**

He branded media as 'buffer against conditions which would otherwise be anxiety producing'. He interprets the impact in these terms because he feels that mass media protect people from worries by deliberately focusing on the higher aspects of life. He feels that this will lighten the burden of the audience. He believes that social responsibility and several other obligations of people diminish pleasure of life for them.

Therefore, the function of the mass media should be to help reduce the stress and pressures on the people and provide such communication as to enhance their pleasure. This theory generally applies to the field of broadcast media.

1.5 Uses & Gratification Theory

The uses and Gratifications Theory arose out of the studies, which shifted their focus from what the media do to the people to what people do with the media. The **'uses'** approach assumes that audiences are active and willingly expose themselves to media. The uses of mass media are dependent on the perception, selectivity, and previously held beliefs, values, and interests of the people. The term **'gratification'** refers to the rewards and satisfaction experienced by audiences after the use of media; it helps to explain motivations behind media use and habits of media use.

Three distinct groups of uses and gratifications studies can be distinguished. The first of these groups conducts inquiries into the range of satisfaction derived from mass media material. The second group looks at the social and environment circumstances that are responsible for people turning to the media in the first place. The third looks at the needs audience members are attempting to satisfy.

Uses and gratifications theory attempts to explain the uses and functions of the media for individuals, groups, and society in general. There are three objectives in developing uses and gratifications theory:

1. To explain how individuals use mass communication to gratify their needs. "What do people do with the media"?

2.To discover underlying motives for individuals' media use.

3.To identify the positive and the negative consequences of individual media use as at the core of uses and gratifications theory lays the assumption that audience members actively seek out the mass media to satisfy individual needs.

McQuail 2000 summarised uses and gratification s theory into four areas.

1.The first is information, where we use the media to educate us in certain areas, such as learning more about the world, seeking advice on practical matters, or fulfilling our curiosity.

2.The second factor is personal identity, where we may watch television to associate an actor character with our own. For example in the comedy Friends all the actors have different personalities, we as the audience imagines or desires that we were them or resembling them.

3.The third usage of media is integration and social interaction, and refers to gaining insight into the situations of other people, in order to achieve a sense of belonging. For example, when watching a movie, we may get very emotional because we experience a sense of connection to the movie, and experience symptoms like crying, or covering our eyes. Television also facilitates us in our personal relationship with friends as we are able to relate and discuss details of media texts that we like in common with our friends.

4.The fourth usage of the media identified by McQuail is entertainment, that is, using media for purposes of obtaining pleasure and enjoyment, or escapism. For example when we watch TV shows or movies we end up going into a new world of fantasy, diverting our attention from our problems, wasting time when we are free and even sometimes acquiring emotional arousal.

As opposed to the play theory, the uses and gratification theory says that 'media serve a variety of needs stemming from the personal and social situations of the individuals'. Generally, the audience use mass media in two ways: compensatory and supplementary. While compensatory use refers using media for education deficiency, need of social success or raising one's status. Media also helps in extending existing knowledge parameters. The motives of uses and gratification theory can be subdivided into four main categories:

1. Diversion
2. Personal relationships
3. Personal identity, and
4. Surveillance

All these are based on audiences' preferences to seek gratification for relief in times of worry, tension conflict, and reinforcement to meet tough situation in social and personal life.

1.6 Selective Exposure, Perception & Retention Theory

Selective exposure occurs when people tend to expose themselves selectively only to communications which are in general accordance with their established convictions and avoid communication which seem to challenge their beliefs. This theory relates to media exposure of the audiences.

Selective perception means that the news that is regarded favorably is more likely to be recalled by a reader, viewer, or listener than the items that are regarded unfavorable. Also, the viewer will shape his or her interpretation of a news event according to one's attitude. Selective perception also implies the tendencies of media audience members to misperceive and misinterpret persuasive messages in accordance with their own predispositions. Two areas similar to selective perception are: selective exposure and selective retention. Some persons habitually watch Doordarshan news rather than Star news or Zee news, or read Outlook and not read Today. Researchers find that selective retention plays a role in the effectiveness of efforts to change attitudes through informational campaigns. People remember what they want to remember.

There is a thin line of difference between selective perception and selective retention. Selection retention, according to Joseph Klapper, occurs when a person who has been exposed to a communication of a few minutes before, presents a distorted or incomplete report of its contents, it is difficult to determine whether the content of media exposure) was selectively perceived in the first place, whether it was correctly perceived but not retained, or whether the two processes complemented one another.

The difficulty of making such distinctions is obviously far greater, the period between exposure and report is a matter of days or weeks.

Selective retention of pictorial material has greater possibilities. Therefore, as Joseph Klapper points out, selective exposure, selective perception and selective retention do not occur among all people in all communication situations. One or more of these processes occur among a stipulated percentage of audience. Researchers have found that about one-third of a group does not practice selective exposure, one-fifth are exposed to more communication opposing their interests. But it has been proved that selective processes do occur most frequently.

1.7. Individual Difference Theory

The psychological approach to understanding communication effects gave rise to many theories among which an important one is the Individual Difference Theory. As a different personality reaction to stimuli is different, thus **individuals will react differently to a particular media**. *Melvin Defluer* and *Everette Denis* gave the individual difference theory. Such reactions are based on the individual's own characteristics. Besides, when information flows to individuals, each human being 'brings a unique pattern of predispositions to mass communication.'

An individual's needs attitudes, prior belief, and other cognitive and emotional states play an important part in screening and selecting media exposure and interpretation. This means that certain audiences are selective to what they read, listen to, or watch. Besides, as *Klapper* says, it also means that the pattern of understanding and interpretation of one person may be different from that of another who is attending to identical media content.

Thus, recognition of individual differences was an important factor leading to differences in the impact of media output on different individuals.

Besides, it also recognizes the existence of different social categories of audiences and with different effects of the media output. The theory also recognizes the existence of different impact on sub cultural groups.

SUMMARY

A variety of theories of Mass Communication have been presented to provide an understanding as to how mass media operate within the society and the ways in which audiences utilize mass media. The early theories were based on assumption that mass media have enormous and direct influence upon society, but subsequent research showed that there are no such direct cause and effect relationship between the two.

QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

Q1. Discuss any two major theories of communication in detail.
Q2. What are the main features of Play Theory?
Q3. Differentiate between Multi-step and Two-step Theory.
Q4. Discuss the salient features of Uses & Gratification Theory.
Q5. Compare the Commercial Theory and Individual Difference Theory.

UNIT 2. MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

OBJECTIVES

- To understand the need for Models of communication
- To discuss the various Models of communication
- To understand these models through diagrams and representations

INTRODUCTION

To communicate effectively, knowledge of the dynamics underlying the communication process is essential. One way to analyze communication is to present it in the form of a ‘model’. A model is nothing but the mechanistic perspective of human communication that effectively tells at a glance how it works.

Several theorists have discussed the communication process in ways that have important implications for those involved in informal education programs such as extension work. Each of the "models" that we review has a point of vital interest. Communication models come in a variety of forms, ranging from catchy summations to diagrams to mathematical formulas.

A model is an abstracted representation of a reality. A good model comes as close to reality as possible and it discusses and explains the reality as clearly as possible. But being an abstraction, a model is not a reality; it only represents the reality of communication for better understanding of the communication process. For example, an architectural model of a house is only a representation of the house giving a fair idea of the number of rooms, layout, etc. but it is not the house ‘per se’. Thus a model is a pictorial presentation to show the structure of communication process in which various component elements are linked. Arrows are used to depict the transmission of messages from communicators to receiver.

Models are based on assumption that theorists make as to how communication functions and what affect it has upon individual and society. A variety of models exists all of which strive to explain the different components of communication and the role each plays in the total process.

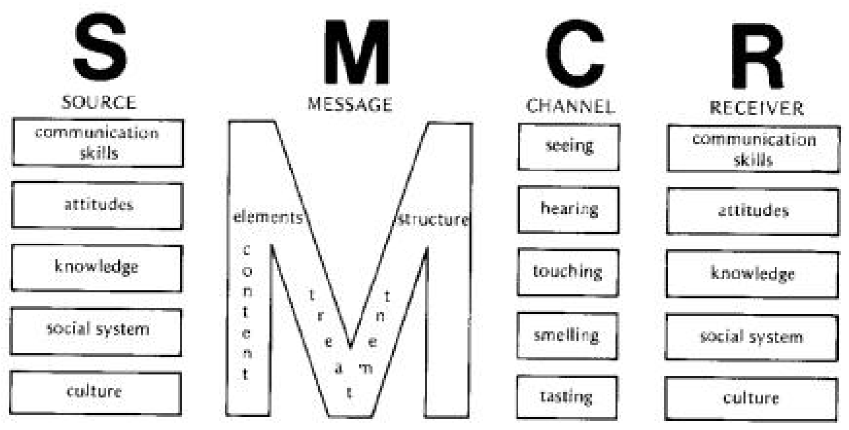
MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

2.1. SMCR Model

The basic process of communication, needs a sender and a message that he or she transmits or conveys through some means, say a channel to a receiver who responds, according to his or her understanding of the message, the sender feedback.

This model was advocated by David Berlo, and is also known as the Source-Message- Channel- Receiver Model of Communication. This model is significant because it emphasizes the importance of ‘thorough understanding of human behavior as a pre-requisite to communication analysis’. It underlines the role of the source and the receiver. The background of the source depends on several variables.

The receiver interprets the message depending upon the background-knowledge, skill, attitude, culture, etc. If both the source and receiver were matched in their standing, the communication would be fruitful. Otherwise, there would be gaps.



Berlo Model

Source: *The Process of Communication: An Introduction to Theory and Practice*, by David Berlo. Copyright © 1960 by Holt, Rinehart and Winston. Reprinted by permission of Holt, Rinehart and Winston, CBS College Publishing.

SMCR Model

2.2. Shannon & Weaver Model

Shannon, an acclaimed mathematician, developed this communication model in 1947. Later with Warren Weaver, he perfected it. Thus, this model came to be known as Shannon-Weaver Model. They were the first to develop an engineering model of human communication based on telephone communication. These two researchers were of the opinion that 'the ingredients in communication include: 1 a source, 2 a transmitter, 3 a signal, 4 a receiver, and 5 destination.

All human communication has some **source** *information source* in Shannon's terminology, some person, or group of persons with a given purpose, a reason for engaging in communication. Shannon and Weaver's model is important as it introduces the concept of 'Noise'. Noise in this model refers to disturbances in the channel that may interfere with the signals transmitted and produce different signals.

When you communicate, you have a particular purpose in mind:

- You want to show that you're a friendly person
- You want to give them some information
- You want to get them to do something
- You want to persuade them of your point of view

And so on. You, as the source, have to express your purpose in the form of a message. That message has to be formulated in some kind of code. How do the source's purposes get translated into a code? This requires an **encoder**. The communication encoder is responsible for taking the ideas of the source and putting them in code, expressing the source's purpose in the form of a message.

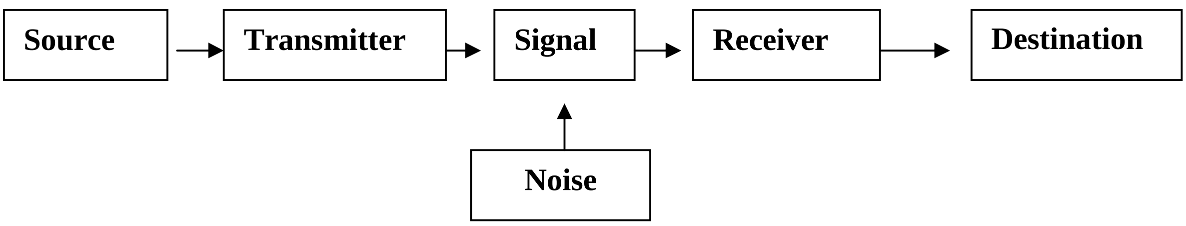
It's fairly easy to think in terms of source and encoder when you are talking on the phone *transmitter* in Shannon's terminology. You are the source of th e message and the 'phone is the encoder which does the job of turning your sounds into electrical impulses. The distinction is not quite so obvious when you think of yourself communicating face-to-face.

In person-to-person communication, the encoding process is performed by the motor skills of the source - vocal mechanisms lip and tongue movements, the vocal cords, the lungs, face muscles etc., muscles in the hand and so on. Some people's encoding systems are not as efficient as others'. So, for example, a disabled person might not be able to control movement of their limbs and so find it difficult to encode the intended non-verbal messages or they may communicate unintended messages. A person who has suffered throat cancer may have had their vocal cords removed. They can encode their messages verbally using an artificial aid, but much of the non-verbal messages most of us send via pitch, intonation, volume, and so on cannot be encoded.

Just as a source needs an encoder to translate her purposes into a message, so the receiver needs a **decoder** to retranslate. For communication to occur, there must be somebody at the other end of the channel. This person or persons can be called the **receiver**. To put it in Shannon's terms, information transmitters and receivers must be similar systems. If they are not, communication cannot occur. Actually Shannon used the term *destination*, reserving the term *receiver* for what we have called *decoder*.

Feedback is a vital part of communication. When we are talking to someone over the phone, if they don't give us the occasional 'mmmm', 'aaah', 'yes, I see' and so on, it can be very disconcerting. This lack of feedback explains why most of us don't like telephones. In face-to-face communication, we get feedback in the visual channel as well - head nods, smiles, frowns, changes in posture and orientation, gaze and so on. Advertisers need feedback, which they get in the form of market research.

Here, the source is a speaker, the signal is speech, and the destination is the receiver and the transmitter is used to send the message from the source to the receiver. This model is believed to have been derived from a mathematical interpretation of communication for sending or transmitting the message with the help of a technology or manually by human beings.



Shannon & Weaver Model

In this model, the important objective is transmitting the message. For this process three stages have been identified: technical, semantic and the message reception of the source or the sender). This model has not studied the other concerned or allied areas of impact, or effect on the receiver, i.e. destination or his reactions to the message. As a result, the SMCR Model was suggested in its place.

2.3 Laswell's Model

When Harold D. Laswell, an American political scientist, asked a basic communication question, **Who** says **What** in **Which** channel to **Whom** with **What** effect, he propounded a new model of communication. This has since then been known as Laswell's communication model. It can be represented as under:

WHO Communicator)
Says **WHAT** Message)
In **WHICH CHANNEL** Medium
To **WHOM** Receiver)
With **WHAT EFFECT** Effect

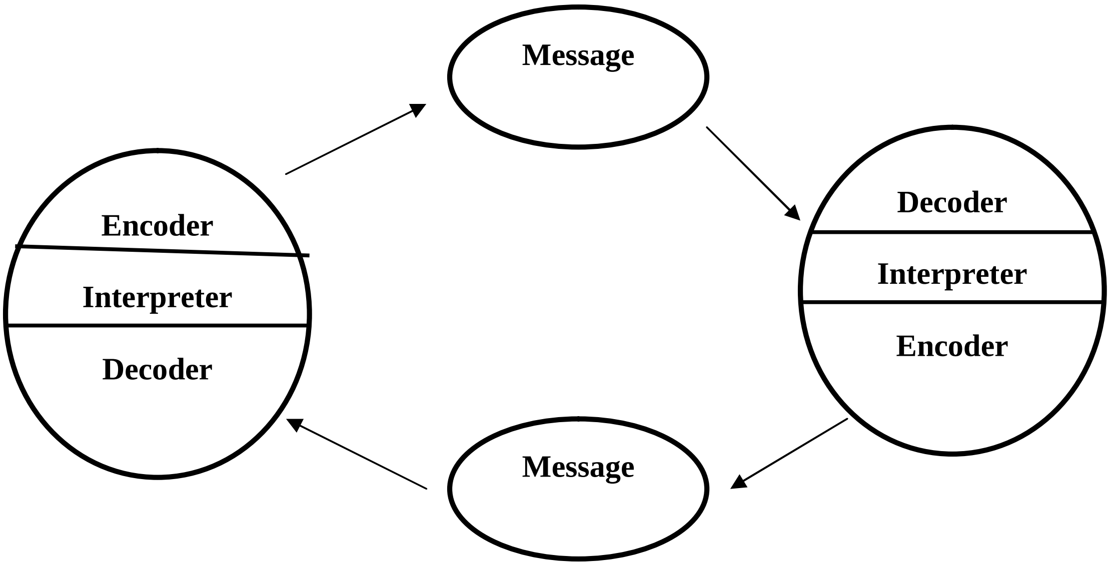
Laswell's Communication Model

		IN WHICH CHANNEL	TO WHOM	WITH WHAT EFFECT

Source studies	Content analysis	Media analysis	Audience analysis	Effect analysis

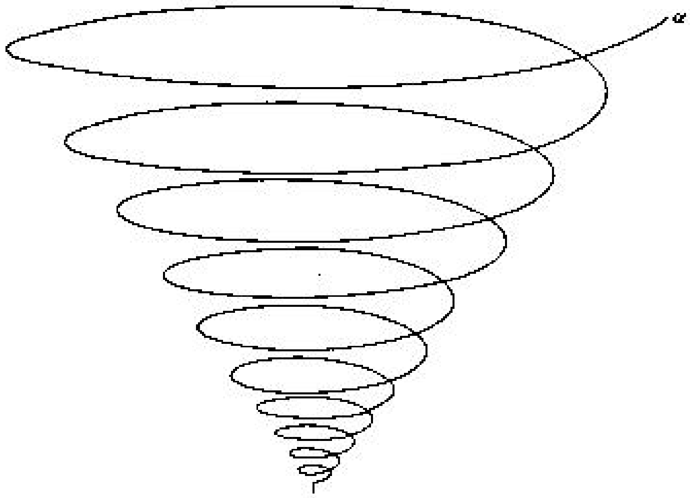
2.4. Osgood Model

This model is 'highly circular' model. The important characteristic of Osgood's model is that the ***message receiver*** is also a ***message sender***. Thus the message moves in cycles. And the sender and the receiver interact with one another establishing a kind of 'interactive relationship' between the source and the receiver where one person may be source one moment and a receiver the next and again a source the following moment. This process mostly takes place in interpersonal communication.



Charles E. Osgood's Model

2.5. Dance Model



Dance Model

Source: "Toward A Theory of Human Communication," in *Human Communication Theory: Original Essays*. Ed. by Frank E. X. Dance. Copyright © 1967. By permission.

<u>Dance Model</u>

This model is believed to be an improvement on the Schramm-Osgood Circular model. According to E.X. Dance, the profounder of this model, communication is activated in a circular manner. It states that once communication process starts it comes back full circle to exactly the same point from which it started. It will influence the receiver more if and when it comes back. For, by that time social processes and other environmental factors would have affected it. This model is more close to interpersonal communication process, but fails to reflect or explain all areas of communication effectively.

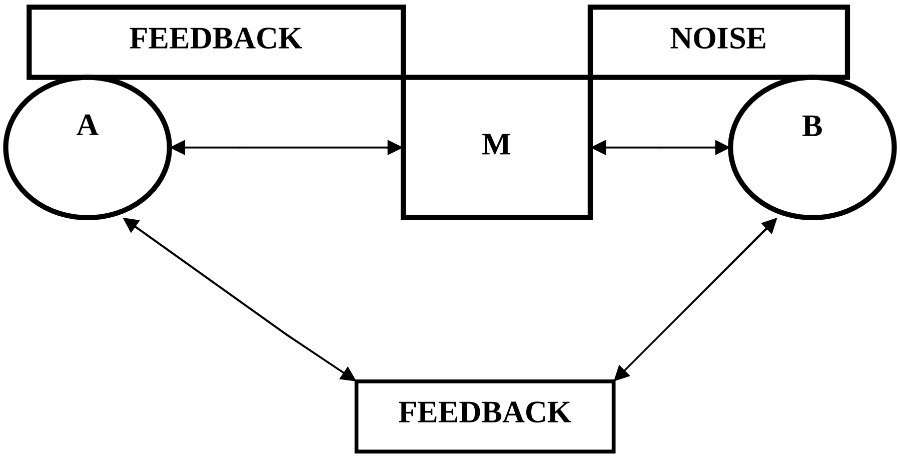
The circular model implies that communication is continuous, unrepeatable, additive, and accumulative; that is, each phase of activity depends upon present forces at work as all that has occurred before define them. All experience contributes to the shape of the unfolding moment; there is no break in the action, no fixed beginning, no pure redundancy, and no closure. All communicative experience is the product of learned, non-repeatable events, which are defined in ways the organism, develops to be self-consistent and socially meaningful. In short, the Dance Model underscores the integrated aspects of all human communication as an evolving process that is always turned inward in ways that permit learning, growth, and discovery.

Many claim that the Dance's Circular Model does not fare well as a model. Indeed, some would claim that it does not meet the requirements of a model at all. More specifically, it is not a systematic or formalized mode of representation. Neither does it formalize relationships or isolate key variables.

2.6. Schramm Model

Wilbur Schramm has contributed immensely in mass communication research. He has analyzed and presented communication in new light and explained communication in various ways. One of these is communication with ourselves, communication with one person, or a group of persons, communication with mass audience running into hundreds of thousands of millions of people. Schramm used Shannon and Weaver's model to further elaborate and clarify his various concepts of communication. Wilbur Schramm 1954 was one of the first to alter the mathematical model of Shannon and Weaver. He conceived of decoding and encoding as activities maintained simultaneously by sender and receiver; he also made provisions for a two-way interchange of messages.

One important conception of his further explains the communication process such as encoder, decoder, redundancy, feedback, and noise, which he included in his model. While the other elements were known earlier, 'feedback' and 'noise' were new factors and added new dimension to the understanding communication study and research. By feedback we mean 'response that a receiver makes to the source's communication. This model has been illustrated as follows:

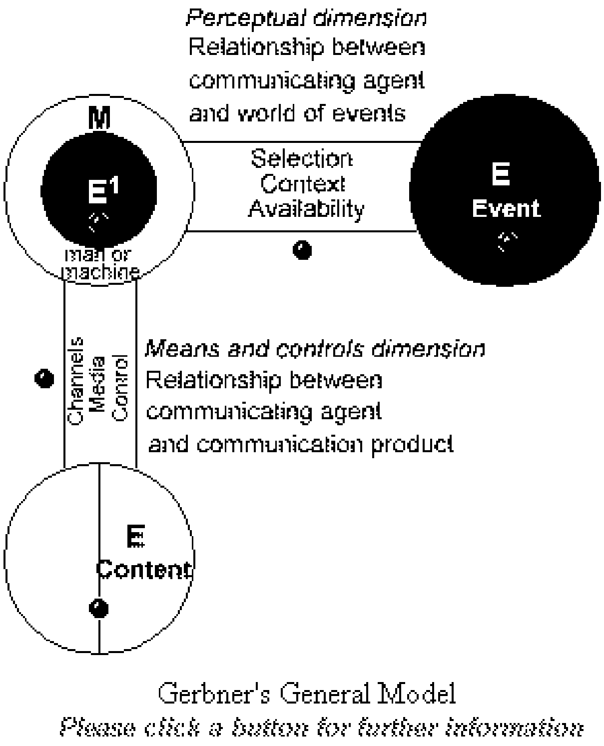


Schramm's Model

When A and B are exchanging the message M, feedback is constantly being exchanges. Anyone who is receiving the message attentively would also be reacting instantly. He would be able to provide feedback instantly while face to face or interpersonal communication is in progress. However, often there are problems, difficulties or gaps in understanding and comprehending or following the message. This is caused by 'noise' which can make the message 'ineffective'.

Just as while tuning on an electronic gadget, 'noise' is caused, similar is the situation in this model too. In many cases, the message suffers detoriation, loss of content or information. The content of the message is determined by the receiver in a manner depending on his personal background, social status, economic position, etc.

2.7. Gerbner's Model



Gerbner's Model

In above figure, **E** stands for event, M for man or machines; S stands for shape form while the second E is content. This model suggests that the human communication process maybe regarded as subjective, selective, variable, and unpredictable and that human variables are unpredictable and that human communication systems are open. Though this is a comprehensive model, but it is quite complicated. This model also does not adequately explain the implications of the message for the receiver.

George Gerbner tried to explain the communication process as an act or technique of communicating a message. His model stresses the necessity of ‘creative, interactive nature of perceptual process and the importance of contextual meaning and comprehensive dealing of human communication’.

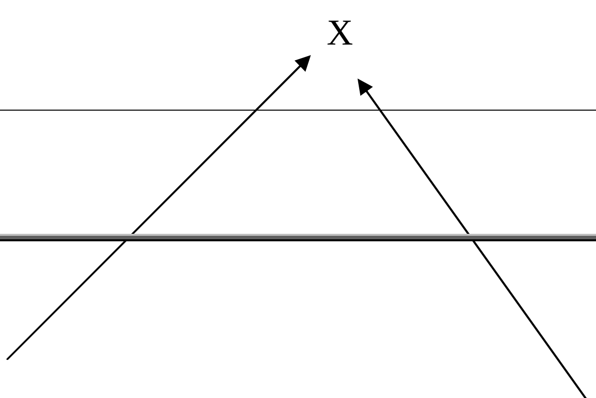
The author of this model believes that its shape can change depending upon the nature or content of communication. This model is given a verbal and graphic version by the following formula:

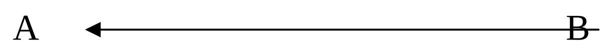
SOMEONE
PERCEIVES ON EVENTS
AND REACTS
IN A SITUATION
THROUGH SOME MEANS
TO MAKE AVAILABLE MATERIALS
IN SOME FORM
AND CONTEXT
CONVEYING CONTENT
WITH SOME CONSEQUENCES

Gerbner’s Model

2.8. New Combe’s Model

This model takes the shape of a triangle to explain the communication process. It attempts at elucidating the role of communication plays in society on social relationships. The main thrust of this model is that it maintains equilibrium within the social system. It is represented as follows:





New Combe's Model

Communicators A and B are both senders and receivers. They could be individuals, managements, unions, institutions or anyone. X is a representation of their social environment. Therefore, ABX is a system. This model shows they are all independent systems and their relationships change on interaction. Their closeness depend upon X which is a place or social environment. This model also indicates the increased relevance of communication as the individuals need more and more information in the new age and fast changing social environment. The model can help in perceiving each other's problems and sharing them.

2.9. Convergent Model

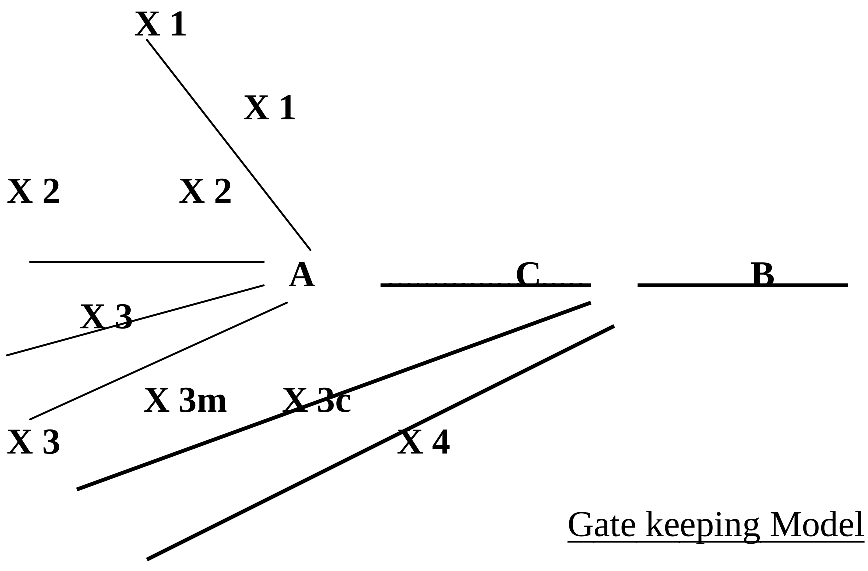
Despite tendencies toward convergence, differences between individuals and groups continue to exist in beliefs, attitudes, and behavior. The model reveals the effects of a mechanism of convergent social influence. A person is placed at fixed site. The basic premise is that the more similar the person is to a neighbor, the more likely that that the person will adopt one of the neighbor's traits. Unlike previous models of social influence or cultural change that treat features one at a time, the proposed model takes into account the interaction between different features. The model illustrates how local convergence can generate global polarization. Simulations show that the number of stable homogeneous regions decreases with the number of features. They will increases with the number of alternative traits per feature and again will decreases with the range of interaction and when geographic territory grows beyond a certain size.

2.10. Gate Keeping Model

This model was designed by Bruce Westley and Malcolm MacLean and is an extension of Newcombe's Model. This model is quite frequently used in mass media. It is based on the assumption that messages in mass communication pass through different checkpoints called 'gatekeeper' before they are actually received by audience. The 'gatekeeper' concept is essentially a term applied to in mass media and is often associated with the news. Gate keeping means that the information has to flow along certain channels, which contain gatekeepers who will permit the information to flow or stop.

The process of decision-making depends upon the policies, likes, and dislikes of the organization. It decides whether the information will be allowed to enter and continue in the channel. The audience, therefore, receives the reporter's and editor's version of the day's event and not necessarily what may be the reality. Thus, interposed between the sender and the audience are the editors whether in print journalism, TV or radio who as gatekeepers, determine what the public reads, listens to or watches. Therefore, the audience's exposure to an event's reality is in the gatekeeper's hands.

This model is quite realistic in the modern media scenario, particularly the news media. The only drawback being that it applies only on the mass media and fails to take account of the relationship between the mass media and the other systems through which we fit into society like family, work, friendships, school, church, trade unions and all other formal and informal networks of relationship. Normally, one is not as dependent upon the media as this model implies.



Gate keeping Model

A here, is sender who receives messages from many sources X1, X2, X3, X4,…X and according to his perception of event writes a report and sends it to gatekeeper **C** who performs the editorial-communicating function; that is the process of deciding what and how to communicate. **C**, therefore, keeping the specific audience in mind, may emphasize or deemphasize a certain point in the message to strike a balance and then sends it to the audience **B.**

SUMMARY

A model is an abstracted representation of a reality. A good model comes as close to reality as possible and it discusses and explains the reality as clearly as possible. But being an abstraction, a model is not a reality; it only represents the reality of communication for better understanding of the communication process.

Models are based on assumption that theorists make as to how communication functions and what affect it has upon individual and society. A variety of models exists all of which strive to explain the different components of communication and the role each plays in the total process.

The uses of Models are:

1. It highlights the different elements
2. It points to interrelationship among the elements
3. It describe the role of each element in the process
4. It explains the communication flow
5. And finally it brings out the definition and approach for further research.

QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

Q1. What is the main characteristic feature of each of the following model:

- Shannon Weaver's Model
- Laswell's Model
- Wilbur Schramm's Model

Q2. What are the main elements of Laswell's model of communication?
Q3. Explain New Combe's Model of Communication?
Q4. Explain Gerbner's Model and Dance's Model through diagrammatic representations?
Q5. Explain the Gate Keeping Model of Communication in detail.

UNIT 3. COMMUNICATION SKILLS

OBJECTIVES

- To understand the significance of business communication
- To discuss the process of meeting preparations
- To know the importance of Verbal and Non-Verbal communication
- To know the importance of telephone handling manners

INTRODUCTION

Communication skills are required in every profession like journalism, politics, social work, medical, law, or others to fulfill the professional needs. Everyone requires communication skills for relating to other members of the society. In a business organization, these skills bring about changes to help the management, customers, employees and others. Good communication results in better understanding of an individual, organization and social levels.

COMMUNICATION SKILLS

3. 1. Written Communication

As the business environment grows in its complexity, the importance of skillful communication becomes essential in the pursuit of institutional goals. In addition to the need to develop adequate statistical skills, you will find it necessary to effectively communicate to others the results of your statistical studies. It is of little use to formulate solutions to business problems without transmitting this information to others involved in the problem-solving process.

3.1.1. Meaning of business report

The purpose of a report is to inform someone about a particular subject. Reports are made up of facts and arguments on a specific subject. Reports allow information to be presented in an ordered way. You can write reports for business, psychology, health and safety. **C. A. Brown defines report as "a communication from someone who has to inform to someone who wants to use that**

information". A report will describe the events or individuals to someone who requires it. The business reports are written by the individuals or by the committees as a part of their regular duties. Many of them are objective, factual and impartial in natural and they do not require interpretations or comments. But, some reports can be prepared only after careful investigations, experiments, research, surveys and logical thinking. Such reports will often need expert advice, suggestions and recommendations. Reports present findings and make recommendations rather than to present a critique of a subject.

Thus**, a business report presents an account of something, finds solution to some problem and submits information in an organized manner to the authorized person**. The business report will describe the source of information and also the procedure and significance of the collected data.

3.1.2. Essentials of Ideal reports

The complexity of modern business set up is growing rapidly due to continuous flow of scientific and technological innovations, increasing professionalism, departmentalization in industries, specialization of knowledge and skills, government policies of intra-national and international trade and commerce and a number of other such factors. The managements of small as well as large business houses and multinational corporations are involved in numerous and wide spread activities. A large number of important decisions regarding these activities are taken on the basis of information, analysis, interpretation, recommendations and suggestions made in the business reports. Whenever the management comes across a problem and feels necessity of analyzing the situation, they appoint an individual or a committee or a panel to present the findings and to make the recommendations.

The report helps the management for evaluation, assessment and appraisal of the employees and their organizational activities. It forms a basis for their future planning and development. It helps the executives to secure efficient control over the situations and to improve the organizational structure. The large industries, which employ thousands of workers in their various departments, have to rely on reports furnished by different departmental heads and committees to bring coordination among them. A critical evaluation of their performances is essential for the progress, growth and expansion of the organization. It depends on the detail and accurate reports, which provide analysis and interpretations of the facts regarding the processes of purchase, production and sales. The progress reports of these processes are also compared with those of other similar organizations.

3.1.3. The Essentials of an Ideal Business Report are:

Organization of Reports

Though there is no hard and fast rule as to the formatting of a report, it is essential to present all the facts in a logical sequence. Sometime the authority for whom the report is to be written prescribes a particular form for the report, but if there is no such obligation, then the report should be in a particular format where the report writer will have to organize his report in a systematic manner to meet its purpose.

A report can be organized in three ways:

1. **Letter form-** the brief and informal reports are usually written in letterform. It is written in first person 'I' or 'We'. It consists of the following parts:
    - Heading or the Title
    - Date line
    - Inside Address
    - Salutation
    - Body of the report it has the introduction, findings, conclusions and recommendations
    - Complimentary close
    - Signature and designation
2. **Letter-text combination form-** the letter-text combination form is suitable for the lengthy and complex reports. Though it is normally divided in three parts, each of the three parts is further sub-divided into smaller units.

- Introductory Material
    a) Letter of transmittal
    b Title page
    c) Preface
    d Acknowledgements
    e) Contents
    f List of illustrations
    g Summary or Synopsis

- Body of the Report
    a) Introduction definition of problem and methodology

b Findings
c) Conclusions
d Recommendations

- Supplementary Material
  a) Appendix
  b List of References
  c) Bibliography
  d Glossary
  e) Index
  f Signature and designation

3. **Memorandum form-** the memorandum form is the simplest way of report organization. In it the report writer does not follow the formalities of the letterform. The printed memorandum report forms of various types are used in the business houses, which ensure uniformity, clarity and simplicity in the presentation of the reported information. The memorandum can be divided in the following parts:

   a) Title
   b Name of the report writer
   c) Date line
   d Actual text of report under various headings and sub-headings
   e) Conclusions

3.1.4. Parts of the Reports

Title/Title Page
It gives the title or the heading of the report. It also contains the name of the author, name of the authority to whom the report is submitted, the number of the report and the date of submission.

Letter of Transmittal
The letter of transmittal is also called as **'forwarding'**, **'introductory'** or **'covering' letter'**. It is a routine letter for the transmittal of the report from the writer to the recipient. It simply serves as a permanent written record of the transmission of report to its primary recipient. It also contains the date of submission, the name and designation of the writer and the name of the authority. Sometimes it invites the reader comments on the report.

Preface

Preface is the author's explanatory remarks about the report. It introduces the report and offers it to the readers. It may contain almost all the information of the covering letter.

Acknowledgements

Here, the author mentions the names of the individuals and the organizations that have helped him in report writing. If the report includes published material, he gives the list of the sources.

Content page

Contents page is essential for the lengthy reports. It gives the titles, sub-titles and page numbers of each chapter. It not only helps the reader to locate a particular chapter but also gives him an overall view of the report at a glance.

List of Illustrations

If the report consists of a large number of pictures, diagrams, tables, and other figures, a list of illustrations is given after the contents page. It gives the titles and page numbers of all the illustrations.

Summary/Synopsis

The summary of the report is also called as the **'synopsis'** and the **'abstract'** of the report. It gives substance of the report in brief. It describes the methodology, findings, conclusions and the recommendations in nutshell. The summary or synopsis is unnecessary for a short report of three-four pages but it is extremely useful to the reader if the report is lengthy.

Introduction

The introduction includes a brief historical background of the subject, scope of study, methods of data collection, definition of problem and definitions of special terms and concepts.

Findings

Findings are the main part of the report and it is also called as the **'text proper'.** All the facts are presented in chronological or logical sequence. The writer analyses the facts and passed comments on them. It may include diagram, charts, graphs, tables, pictures and other essential figures.

Conclusions

The report writer analyses the data and draws conclusions on the basis of his 'findings'. The conclusions are supported by the findings and their explanations and analysis. The report writer may derive a number of conclusions based on the analysis of different facts. They should be grouped suitably and should be presented in the descending order so that the important conclusions are mentioned in the beginning.

Recommendations

They logically follow the conclusions of the findings. But, all the reports do not include the recommendations or suggestions. In some reports the conclusions and the recommendations are combined. This combination may suit the short reports up to five-six pages, but for lengthy reports the recommendations should be written separately to suggest the future course of action. The recommendations in committee report are put in the form of resolutions.

Appendix

The appendix contains diagrams, charts, maps, pictures, statistical data and other material, which supports the main body of the report. The details, which are separated from the body of the report, are included in the appendix. The reader can understand the contents of the reports without it but if he desires to go through the details of the related evidences, supporting material and documents, he can find them in the appendix.

List of References

The list of references helps the reader to locate a piece of information on the original source. Some reports are based on exclusive research. It is a customary that the writer of such a report should give the list of published or unpublished work references in the report. If the list is lengthy, it should be arranged in alphabetical order and should be given at the end of the report. If the number of references is small, they can be mentioned in the footnotes.

Bibliography

It is a list of published and unpublished works to which the report writer is indebted for certain ideas. It may also contain names of works for further study. The list of works in bibliography is arranged in alphabetical order. Bibliography of the works to be consulted is often prepared before writing the report.

Glossary

The technical or jargon words are usually explained in the footnotes. If the number of such words is large, a list of those words is prepared in an alphabetical order. This list is called as glossary. If the reader's field of expertise is different from the subject dealt in the report and if the technical words used in the report are likely to be unknown to him, the glossary becomes an essential part of the report.

Index

In case of lengthy reports, an index is helpful to the reader to locate easily and quickly any topic or sub-topic of the contents. Index is included in the report if the table of contents cannot help the reader to point out all the aspects of the contents. It is always needed in bulky reports. The entries in the index are made in alphabetical order and page numbers are mentioned before each entry.

Signature

A person who submits it to the authority signs a report. If a committee prepares it, the chairman of the committee signs it. Sometimes, all the members of the committee are required to sign it. The members who disagree with certain matters in the report usually sign it with a note of dissent. Signature of the other members indicates their assent to the subject matter of the report.

Types of Reports

Most of the business reports are presented in written form, but some are also presented orally. The oral reports may say the reporter's time but they cannot be preserved for future references unless they are tape-recorded and secondly they are likely to be less accurate then the written reports. Also the oral reports are less formal than the written reports. The formal written reports are either informational or interpretative. The informational reports present the facts and data collected by the reporter in a systematic manner, whereas the interpretive reports include both the facts and their interpretation.

3.1.5. Classification& selection of Information

I. On the basis of the nature or methodology of report, they are classified as:

- **Periodic or Routine Reports-** these reports record the routine business activities. These reports are submitted annually, quarterly, monthly, weekly or at any other prescribed intervals in the routine of business. Usually these reports are informational. They present the collected data and the facts without evaluating them. They do not include any suggestions, opinions and recommendations of the report writer. Reports of companies to the shareholders, Administrative reports of the Government departments, Universities, Trade Associations etc. are some examples of periodic reports.

- **Progress Report-** the progress reports describe the progress made by the organization in a particular period. It gives an account of the work in chronological order. It covers the details of the work already done, work in progress and the work yet to be completed. It refers to past achievements and future prospects. It also gives an account of the special problems and obstructions that might have come in the way of work in progress. The progress reports include the reports concerning the construction works of factory building, dams, water supply schemes, etc.
- **Examination Reports-** the examination reports are interpretative in the sense that they are compiled only after thorough investigation and study of the given subject. The report writer goes through various sources of information. He conducts surveys, circulates questionnaires, studies the relevant literature and old files, analyses the collected data and finally arrives to some conclusions. Such reports often end with useful suggestions or recommendations. The reports concerned with the problems of increasing cost of production, decline of sales etc. and the reports regarding the inventions and technological innovations are some of the examples of examination reports. These reports cover the details regarding its aims and objectives, methodology, findings conclusions and finally with the recommendations, if asked.
- **Statistical Reports-** these reports are made up of statistical details including financial data, tabular columns of figures, mathematical charts, etc. the statistical data are also used in other kinds of reports as supporting evidences to various statements, but the statistical reports mainly consist of the statistical data. The reports submitted by the costing departments in business houses are the examples of statistical reports.
- **Recommendation Reports-** the recommendation report is a kind of examination report because its main purpose is to analyze, interpret and evaluate the facts. But, it specifically differs from the examination reports due to the fact that it invariably ends with some suggestions or recommendations. The report writer analysis and interprets the data in such a way that it naturally lead to some recommendations. The tone of such a report is always argumentative and persuasive.

The recommendation reports are useful to the business houses in policy-making and in making important decisions regarding setting up of a new business unit, expanding the business, opening a new branch, etc. These reports include the information regarding the objectives and scope of the report, methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation of data, conclusions and recommendations with some programme of action.

II. On the basis of the number of persons entrusted to draft the reports:

- **Reports by Individuals-** the reports submitted by the individuals are related to their own work and to the work of their departments. The reports submitted by the departmental heads, company secretary, auditor, cost accountant, solicitor, etc. are the reports by individuals. The executive head of the sales department produces his report on the marketing strategy of the company rivals or on the causes of declining sales. The executive of production department submits report on the performance of his department. While drafting the report, the individual should make systematic arrangement of all the items to be embodied in the report.
- **Reports by Committees or sub-committees-** some business reports are concerned with more than one department or individual and some subjects are too important and expansive to be entrusted to one person for its research finding and recommendations. Such a subject matter requires careful and complete investigation by the committees and sub-committees in which a number of people are involved in the process of report writing. There is a cautious deliberation over all the issues of the subject matter. The views and opinions of all the committee members are given serious consideration before they arrive to certain conclusions. It is usually written with impersonal and formal style.

  These reports should invariably mention the objectives of the investigation, methods of data collection, explanation or interpretation of collected data, details of evidences gathered, the conclusions of the deliberations and recommendations or suggestion given by the committee or the sub-committee. They should also mention the names of a person or body to whom the report is addressed. Such a report is usually signed by all the members or by the chairman of the committee.

III. On the basis of Legal formalities:

- **Formal Reports-** the formal reports are prepared and presented according to some established statutes or procedures. The formal reports are classified under two heads: a Statutory Reports b Non -Statutory Reports. The statutory reports are prepared and presented according to laws. The non-statutory reports are not required under laws but they are required to be submitted by the individuals or the committees to their respective managements in order to help later to take important decisions and to frame the business policies. The reports, which Directors and the Secretary of the company submit to the shareholders, and the Auditor’s reports are some of the examples of statutory reports.

- **Informal Reports-** informal report is a person-to-person informal communication. It neither abides any formal procedure of communication not any statutory obligation. It can be written like a personal letter to someone who does not bring any statutory or formal obligation on the writer. Its purpose is to fulfill the informal requirements. It can be written in a form of a short letter or memorandum.

3.1.6. Presentations Skills

Along with computer literacy, professional presentation skills are becoming new survival skill in the workplace. People enjoy presenters who are inviting, engaging and informative.

In creating your presentation, think like a reporter and answer the "who, what, why, how, and where" questions. Who will attend and how many? Aim the content of presentation to your audience, and the choice of visuals to meet the needs of your group. Visuals need to be visible to everyone.

What is the purpose of the presentation? Is it to explain a plan or project; to tell people what to do and how; report on what's been done; get support for an idea; define or solve a problem; gain consensus for a decision; provide training; or encourage motivation. Why are they there? Is attendance mandatory? Any time anyone attends a meeting, they will always be asking themselves, "What's in it for me?" Be sure you answer that question for them.

Keep your points short, concise and understandable to your audience. Use visuals like charts and diagrams to clarify and reinforce your message. The room that the presentation is in will have an impact on how you present. Will you need a projector or can you use flip charts?

A typical presentation format will have an opening, which will capture audience attention and lead into the presentation topic. Then, a body which has a series of points with each point beginning with a statement of fact followed by supporting material. The presentation then ends with a closing, which contains a review or summary, and a call to action or a memorable statement.

Make sure that each point you make be clearly stated, illustrated and supported. Act as though your audience is not at all familiar with your topic; don't assume they know anything. Avoid jargon. Devote a similar amount of time to each main point; otherwise the audience may consider it less important. Arrange your points in logical order.

Nervousness is healthy. It shows that the presentation is important to you and that you care about doing well. Knowing as much as you can ahead of time will give you confidence. Rehearse until you are comfortable with your material.

Relax. Take a deep breath. When we get nervous, we breathe shallowly. If you concentrate on breathing deeply, you'll get enough air to speak and ease your panic.

Use good posture. We have more power and energy when we stand erect with weight balanced equally on our feet.

Concentrate on the message, not on how you are coming across.

Use eye contact. This will help your audience know that you are speaking to them, not at them. Find a few supportive faces and hold their eyes as you make a point.

Turn nervousness into positive energy.

Do not apologize.

Forget perfection.

Learn to laugh at yourself. The problems that occur during presentations are funny equipment doesn't work, you trip, etc).

Build in appropriate humor not jokes, those funny things that happened on the way to the meeting room.

Use anecdotes to bring the statistics, facts, and figures that you need to deliver to drive them home.

Going from Good to Great-The next time you deliver a presentation, ask a trusted colleague in the audience give you feedback afterward. Use your presentation skills to make an impact and to elevate your stature. Be willing to break your current corporate model and dare to be different.

3.1.7. Writing Application, Business Letters, and Memos.

A business organization has to write a number of letters everyday. Almost every business involves a wide range of activities, which require frequent communication links between the concerned parties. Many of these links are established and maintained through correspondence. It can also happen that a letter-writer who lacks knowledge and tact of writing good business letter may not achieve his purpose, but also make thing difficult for the organization.

Business letters not only help the businessmen to build new relations and maintain the established ones, but they also help him to plan, manage and organize the business activities which are more diversified and specialized today than ever before.

Business letters

Good business letter writing is almost lost art in our society today. With the speed of electronic mail, voice mail, and faxes, good letter writing has held less importance in daily business operations.

A well-written letter that is personalized can do wonders for your key business relationships. Business correspondence does not have to be dry and tedious. In fact, the most effective business letters often touch on very personal matters, not just on money or the bottom line.

In this day of information overload it is still important to be short and to the point in most of your correspondence. However, this does not preclude the fact that a personal reference and warm tone can open doors that otherwise might have remained closed.

Along these same lines, it is important to note that when you write a well-prepared business letter can exert tremendous influence over its reader.

Good writers are like good speakers; they are able to build strong relationships using words. Therefore, it is in your best interest to spend time developing your business letter writing skills.

There are basically two types of business letters: formal business letters and informal business letters. Often times, there is a fine line between the two.

Formal business letter writing-Formal business letters do not have to be all business. Business letters may include one or two personal sentences or even touch on a personal subject.

There are several rules of etiquette that you should follow in your business letter writing.

- **Use company letterhead when appropriate.** Make sure that you only use company letterhead for business, not for personal matters.
- **Use the proper salutation to open your letter.**

  If you have just met someone who is more or less your peer, then the proper salutation would be "Dear Jane".

  If you have just met an executive level person and do not feel comfortable using their first name, use both names to show that you do not want to be too stiff or formal i.e., "Dear Jane Doe". If you are a young executive who has just been introduced to a senior executive, do not use their first name in correspondence since it may come across as too aggressive and lacking in respect. Instead use the more formal introduction, "Dear Ms. Doe."
- **Use a complimentary closing.** For any formal business correspondence, using either "Sincerely" or "Sincerely yours" to close your letter is an appropriate way to close your letter.
- **Always sign your letter.** Many letters include a typed signature block followed by a handwritten signature. The primary reason for this is that many people's handwriting is illegible. However, it is a serious error in judgment to only include the typed signature. Make sure you include your written signature underneath the typed signature block.

Informal business letter writing- Business executives on a regular basis exchange informal letters these days. These letters are most commonly used to please the recipient in some manner.

Examples of informal letters include congratulatory letters, complimentary letters, and requests for favors, thank you letters, and letters of encouragement.

Good business writing letters:

- Should be brief.
- Is thoughtful, honest, simple and prompt.
- Includes an informal and personal statement immediately following the opening salutation.
- Has a trace of humor as well as a trace of praise in it in regard to the recipient of the letter.
- Refrains from foul or offensive language.
- States the purpose of the letter in the first paragraph.
- Includes everything that you feel it is important for the recipient to know.
- Does not include any exaggerations.
- Is interesting in style.
- Is carefully edited.

Overall, both formal and informal business letters are professional letters of the heart meant to build bridges and grow relationships. By practicing your business letter writing skills, you will find what is most effective for you.

Transactional letters- these letters are in responds to advertisements, notes, invitations, etc and can either be formal or informal, depending on whom the letter is written to. Transactional letters should include all the relevant information and each paragraph should deal with only one topic. These letters can be of any type like the complaints, applications, invitations, or information giving.

Significance of Business Letters

1. The legal implications of manifold business transitions add to the significance of drafting a correct, complete and effective business letter. The concerned parties get legally bound to the written commitments in the business letters. The responsible persons sign the business letters. The written commitments in it become an authentic legal proof of the transaction signed between two parties.
2. The most personal way of introducing a new product in market is writing business letter. It is more useful and less expensive than sending a salesman to the prospective buyers. Also, it is more direct and less costly than advertising. Besides introducing new products or services in the market, the manufacturer can use the business letter for widening his area of business operations. Business correspondence for the promotion of sales requires

special kind of drafting which results in expanding the sales of the existing product.

3. Persuasive sales letters can promote the sales, quicken the pace of turnover and thereby help the businessmen to gain the profits. Sales letters provide essential information about the quality and quantity of the products available with them.
4. The business letters plays an important role in selling the good reputation and goodwill of the company. It builds friendly relationships between the company and the concerned parties such as the customers, suppliers, creditors, expert advisors, government officials, etc. Business correspondence is naturally dominated by the profit motives, but it also has the social motive of building friendly and cordial relationships with the other concerns and the customers. It aims towards holding the present customer and gaining the new ones.
5. Now-a-days the buyers and the sellers cannot meet actually at the marketplace to discuss terms, to fix prices and to do the business as it should be done, because the markets are no longer localized. They are spread over long distances, sometimes across oceans and continents. It has increased the complexity of the modern business world and it has made it necessary for businessman to use letters to exchange information of various types with different parties. There are various proposes served by writing the business letters. Placing order for goods, making enquires, acknowledging orders, executing orders, applying for credit, complaining about delay, correspondence with government departments such as sales tax, income tax, local tax, etc and a lot of such matters require communication by letters.
6. Business correspondence is preserved for future references. In business communication, past references help the proceedings of the future transactions. The letters of transactions and agreements with the suppliers, customers etc. are frequently referred for future business transactions. All the points of innumerable transactions with a large number of persons cannot be stored in memory by any businessman. The letter provides valid written records for ready references in routine administration and also in planning for future.

The structure of a business Letter constitutes the following parts:

i Heading
ii Date
iii Reference
iv Inside address

v Salutation
vi Subject line
vii Body
viii Complimentary close
ix Signature
x Enclosures

Writing Memos

Memos have one purpose: "Memos solve problems."

Memos solve problems either by informing the reader about new information, like policy changes, price increases, etc., or by persuading the reader to take an action, such as attend a meeting, use less paper, or change a current production procedure. Regardless of the specific goal, memos are most effective when they connect the purpose of the writer with the interests and needs of the reader.

When you think of a memo, what do you think of? Is it a little piece of paper with a cute letterhead that says something like: "From the desk of ..." or "Don't forget ..." or "Reminders ..."

The message itself may be very simple something like:

"Buy more paper clips" or "Meet with President at 2:30" or "Mom, we're out of corn flakes."

While these memos are informative or persuasive, and may serve their simple purposes, more complex memos are often needed in an office setting. Even though business memos may be more formal and complicated the intention in writing one is still the same. You want to achieve your purpose with your reader effectively.

Standard office memos can be approached in different ways to fit your purpose. Here are three basic plans:

1. The direct plan, which is the most common, starts out by stating the most important points first and then moves to supporting details. This plan is useful for routine information and for relaying news.
2. The indirect plan makes an appeal or gives out evidence first and arrives at a conclusion based on these facts. This plan is best used when you need to arouse your reader's interest before describing some action that you want taken.

3. A combination approach can be used for the balanced plan. This plan is particularly useful when relaying bad news, as it combines information and persuasion.

Standard memos are divided into segments to organize the information and to help achieve the writer's purpose.

Heading Segment

The heading segment follows this general format:

TO:readers' names and job titles
FROM:your name and job title
DATE:complete and current date)
SUBJECT: what the memo is about, highlighted in some way

- Make sure you address the reader by his or her correct name and job title. You might call the company president "Maxi" on the golf course or in an informal note, but "Rita Maxwell, President" would be more appropriate for a formal memo.
- Be specific and concise in your subject line. For example, "Rats" as a subject line could mean anything from a production problem to a personal frustration. Instead use something like, "Curtailing Rat Extremity Parts in our Product."

The purpose of a memo is usually found in the opening paragraphs and is presented in three parts: **the context and problem, the specific assignment or task, and the purpose of the memo.**

1. The context is the event, circumstance, or background of the problem you are solving. You may use a paragraph to establish the background and state the problem or simply the opening of a sentence, such as, "In our effort to reduce rat parts in our product...." Include only what your reader needs, but be sure it is clear.
2. In the task statement you should describe what you are doing to help solve the problem. If the action was requested, your task may be indicated by a sentence opening like, "You asked that I look at...." If you want to explain your intentions, you might say, "To determine the best method of controlling the percentage of rat extremities, I will...."
3. Finally, the purpose statement of a memo gives your reason for writing it and forecasts what is in the rest of the memo. This is not the time to be shy.

You want to come right out and tell your reader the kind of information that's in store. For example, you might say: "This memo presents a description of the current situation, some proposed alternatives, and my recommendations." If you plan to use headings for your memo segments, you can refer to your major headings in this forecast statement to provide a better guide for your reader.

- Include only as much information as is needed by the decision-makers in the context, but be convincing that a real problem exists. Do no ramble on with insignificant details.
- If you are having trouble putting the task into words, consider whether you have clarified the situation. You may need to do more planning before you're ready to write your memo.
- Make sure your purpose-statement forecast divides your subject into the most important topics that the decision-maker needs.

If your memo is longer than a page, you may want to include a separate summary segment. This segment provides a brief statement of the key recommendations you have reached. These will help your reader understand the key points of the memo immediately. This segment may also include references to methods and sources you have used in your research, but remember to keep it brief.

You can help your reader understand your memo better by using headings for the summary and the discussion segments that follow it. Try to write headings that are short but that clarify the content of the segment. For example, instead of using "Summary" for your heading, try "New Rat-Part Elimination System," which is much more specific. The major headings you choose here are the ones that will appear in your purpose-statement forecast.

The discussion segments are the parts in which you get to include all the juicy details that support your ideas. Keep these two things in mind:

1. Begin with the information that is most important. This may mean that you will start with key findings or recommendations.
2. Here you want to think of an inverted pyramid. Start with your most general information and move to your specific or supporting facts.
    - For easy reading, put important points or details into lists rather than paragraphs when possible.
    - Be careful to make lists parallel in grammatical form.

After the reader has absorbed all of your information, you want to close with a courteous ending that states what action you want your reader to take. Make sure you consider how the reader will benefit from the desired actions and how you can make those actions easier. For example, you might say, "I will be glad to discuss this recommendation with you during our Tuesday trip and follow through on any decisions you make."

Make sure you document your findings or provide detailed information whenever necessary. You can do this by attaching lists, graphs, tables, etc. at the end of your memo. Be sure to refer to your attachments in your memo and add a notation about what is attached below your closing, like this:

i.e. Attached: Several Complaints about Product, January - June 1997

3.2. Resume Writing

The resume is a tool with one specific purpose: to win an interview. If it does what the fantasy resume did, it works. If it doesn't, it isn't an effective resume. **A resume is an advertisement, nothing more, nothing less.** A great resume doesn't just tell them what you have done but makes the same assertion that all good ads do: If you buy this product, you will get these specific, direct benefits. **It presents you in the best light. It convinces the employer that you have what it takes to be successful in this new position or career.**

A resume serves the following purposes:

- To pass the employer's screening process requisite educational level, number years' experience, etc., to give basic facts, which might favorably influence the employer companies worked for, political affiliations, racial minority, etc.. To provide contact information: an up -to-date address and a telephone number a telephone number which will always be answered during business hours.
- To establish you as a professional person with high standards and excellent writing skills, based on the fact that the resume is so well done clear, well - organized, well-written, well-designed, of the highest professional grades of printing and paper). For persons in the art, advertising, marketing, or writing professions, the resume can serve as a sample of their skills.
- To have something to give to potential employers, your job-hunting contacts and professional references, to provide background information, to give out in "informational interviews" with the request for a critique a concrete

creative way to cultivate the support of this new person, to send a contact as an excuse for follow-up contact, and to keep in your briefcase to give to people you meet casually - as another form of "business card."

- To use as a covering piece to another form of job application, as part of a grant or contract proposal, as an accompaniment to graduate school or other application.
- To put in an employer's personnel files.
- To help you clarify your direction, qualifications, and strengths, boost your confidence, or to start the process of committing to a job or career change.

To write an effective resume, you have to learn how to write powerful but subtle advertising copy. Not only that, but you must sell a product in which you have a large personal investment: you. What's worse, given the fact that most of us do not think in a marketing-oriented way naturally, you are probably not looking forward to selling anything, let alone yourself?

You do not need to hard sell or make any claims that are not absolutely true. You do need to get over your modesty and unwillingness as people more often buy the best advertised product than the best product.

Focus on the Employer's needs, not yours

Imagine that you are the person doing the hiring. Usually, the person who makes the hiring decision is also the person who is responsible for the bottom line productivity of the project or group you hope to join. This is a person who cares deeply how well the job will be done. You need to write your resume to appeal directly to them.

Ask yourself: What would make someone the perfect candidate? What does the employer really want? What special abilities would this person have? What would set a truly exceptional candidate apart from a merely good one?

If you are seeking a job in a field you know well, you probably already know what would make someone a superior candidate. If you are not sure, you can gather hints from the help-wanted ad you are answering, from asking other people who work in the same company or the same field. You could even call the prospective employer and ask them what they want.

Putting yourself in the place of the person doing the hiring is the first, and most important, step in writing a resume that markets you rather than describes your history or story. Every step in producing a finished document should be part of your overall intention to convey to the prospective employer that you are a truly exceptional candidate.

Focus your writing efforts. Get clear what the employer is looking for and what you have to offer before you begin your resume. Write your answers to the above mentioned question, "What would make someone the perfect candidate?" on notebook paper, one answer per page. Prioritize the sheets of paper, based on which qualities or abilities you think would be most important to the person doing the hiring.

Then, starting with the top priority page, fill the rest of that page, or as much of it as you can, with brainstorming about why you are the person who best fulfills the employer's needs. Write down everything you have ever done that demonstrates that you fit perfectly with what is wanted and needed by the prospective employer.

The whole idea is to loosen up your thinking enough so that you will be able to see some new connections between what you have done and what the employer is looking for.

If you are making a career change or are a young person and new to the job market, you are going to have to be especially creative in getting across what makes you stand out. These brainstorming pages will be the raw material from which you craft your resume. One important part of the planning process is to decide which resume format fits your needs best. Don't automatically assume that a traditional format will work best for you.

In the first section of your resume, you make assertions about your abilities, qualities and achievements. You write powerful, but honest, advertising copy that makes the reader immediately perk up and realize that you are someone special.

The second section, the evidence section, is where you back up your assertions with evidence that you actually did what you said you did. This is where you list and describe the jobs you have held, your education, etc. This is all the stuff you are obliged to include.

Most resumes are just the evidence section, with no assertions. If you have trouble getting to sleep, just read a few resumes each night before going to bed. Nothing puts people to sleep better than the average resume.

The juice is in the assertions section. When a prospective employer finishes reading your resume, you want them to immediately reach for the phone to invite you in to interview. The resumes you have written in the past have probably been a gallant effort to inform the reader. **You don't want them informed. You want them interested and excited.**

In fact, it is best to only hint at some things. Leave the reader wanting more. Leave them with a bit of mystery. That way, they have even more reason to reach for the phone. The assertions section usually has two or three sections. In all of them, your job is to communicate, assert and declare that you are the best possible candidate for the job.

You start by naming your intended job. This may be in a separate "Objective" section, or may be folded into the second section, the "Summary." If you are making a change to a new field, or are a young person not fully established in a career, start with a separate "Objective" section.

Ideally, your resume should be pointed toward conveying why you are the perfect candidate for one specific job or job title. Good advertising is directed toward a very specific target audience. Targeting your resume requires that you be absolutely clear about your career direction or at least that you appear to be clear. If you aren't clear where you are going, you wind up wherever the winds of chance blow you. You would be wise to use this time of change to design your future career so you have a clear target that will meet your goals and be personally fulfilling. Even if you are a little vague about what you are looking for, you cannot let your uncertainty show.

The way to demonstrate your clarity of direction or apparent clarity is to have the first major topic of your resume be your Objective. Be sure the objective is to the point. Do not use fluffy phrases that are obvious or do not mean anything, such as: "allowing the ability to enhance potential and utilize experience in new challenges." An objective may be broad and still somewhat undefined in some cases, such as: "a mid-level management position in the hospitality or entertainment industry."

Remember, your resume will only get a few seconds attention, at best! You have to generate interest right away, in the first sentence they lay their eyes on. Having an objective statement that really sizzles is highly effective. And it's simple to do.

If you are making a career change or have a limited work history, you want the employer to immediately focus on where you are going, rather than where you have been. If you are looking for another job in your present field, it is more important to stress your qualities, achievements and abilities first.

The "Summary" or "Summary of Qualifications" consists of several concise statements that focus the reader's attention on the most important qualities, achievements and abilities you have to offer. Those qualities should be the most compelling demonstrations of why they should hire you instead of the other candidates. It gives you a brief opportunity to telegraph a few of your most sterling qualities. It is your one and only chance to attract and hold their attention, to get across what is most important, and to entice the employer to keep reading.

This is the spiciest part of the resume. This may be the only section fully read by the employer, so it should be very strong and convincing. The "Summary" is the one place to include professional characteristics extremely energetic, a gift for solving complex problems in a fast-paced environment, a natural salesman, exceptional interpersonal skills, committed to excellence, etc., which may be helpful in winning the interview. Gear every word in the ‘Summary’ to your targeted goal.

The most common ingredients of a well-written "Summary" are as follows:

- A short phrase describing your profession
- Followed by a statement of broad or specialized expertise
- Followed by two or three additional statements related to any of the following:
    - Breadth or depth of skills
    - Unique mix of skills
    - Range of environments in which you have experience
    - A special or well-documented accomplishment
    - A history of awards, promotions, or superior performance commendations
- One or more professional or appropriate personal characteristics
- A sentence describing professional objective or interest.

In this final part of the assertions section of your resume, you go into more detail. You are still writing to sell yourself to the reader, not to inform them. Basically, you do exactly what you did in the previous section, except that you go into more detail.

In the summary, you focused on your most special highlights. Now you tell the rest of the best of your story. Let them know what results you produced, what happened as a result of your efforts, what you are especially gifted or experienced at doing. Flesh out the most important highlights in your summary.

You are still writing to do what every good advertisement does, communicating the following: if you buy this product, you will get these direct benefits. If it doesn't contribute to furthering this communication, don't bother to say it. Remember, not too much detail. Preserve a bit of mystery. Don't tell them everything.

In a chronological resume, it can have several possible titles, depending on your situation:

- SKILLS AND ACCOMPLISHMENTS
- ACCOMPLISHMENTS
- SUMMARY OF ACCOMPLISHMENTS
- SELECTED ACCOMPLISHMENTS
- RECENT ACCOMPLISHMENTS
- AREAS OF ACCOMPLISHMENT AND EXPERIENCE
- AREAS OF EXPERTISE
- CAREER HIGHLIGHTS
- PROFESSIONAL HIGHLIGHTS
- ADDITIONAL SKILLS AND ACCOMPLISHMENTS

There are a number of different ways to structure "Skills and Accomplishments" sections. In all of these styles, put your skills and accomplishments in order of importance for the desired career goal. If you have many skills, the last skill paragraph might be called "Additional Skills."

There are three basic types of resumes: Chronological, Functional, and "combined" Chronological - Functional.

Chronological-The chronological resume is the more traditional structure for a resume. The Experience section is the focus of the resume; each job or the last several jobs is described in some detail, and there is no major section of skills or accomplishments at the beginning of the resume. This structure is primarily used when you are staying in the same profession, in the same type of work, particularly in very conservative fields. It is also used in certain fields such as law and academics. It is recommended that the chronological resume always have an "Objective" or "Summary," to focus the reader.

The advantages: May appeal to older, more traditional readers and be best in very conservative fields. Makes it easier to understand what you did in what job. May help the name of the employer stand out more, if this is impressive. The disadvantage is that it is much more difficult to highlight what you do best. This format is rarely appropriate for someone making a career change.

Functional- The functional resume highlights your major skills and accomplishments from the very beginning. It helps the reader see clearly what you can do for them, rather than having to read through the job descriptions to find out. It helps target the resume into a new direction or field, by lifting up from all past jobs the key skills and qualifications to help prove you will be successful in this new direction or field. Actual company names and positions are in a subordinate position, with no description under each.

There are many different types of formats for functional resumes. The functional resume is a must for career changers, but is very appropriate for generalists, for those with spotty or divergent careers, for those with a wide range of skills in their given profession, for students, for military officers, for homemakers returning to the job market, and for those who want to make slight shifts in their career direction.

Advantages: It will help you most in reaching for a new goal or direction. It is a very effective type of resume, and is highly recommended. The disadvantage is that it is hard for the employer to know exactly what you did in which job, which may be a problem for some conservative interviewers.

Combined- A combined resume includes elements of both the chronological and functional formats. It may be a shorter chronology of job descriptions preceded by a short "Skills and Accomplishments" section or with a longer Summary including a skills list or a list of "qualifications"; or, it may be a standard functional resume with the accomplishments under headings of different jobs held.

There are obvious advantages to this combined approach: It maximizes the advantages of both kinds of resumes, avoiding potential negative effects of either type. One disadvantage is that it tends to be a longer resume. Another is that it can be repetitious: Accomplishments and skills may have to be repeated in both the "functional" section and the "chronological" job descriptions.

Resume Presentation

The resume is visually enticing, a work of art. Simple clean structure works best. It should be balanced and un-crowded. As much white space between sections of writing as possible; sections of writing that are no longer than six lines, and shorter if possible.

There is uniformity and consistency in the use of italics, capital letters, bullets, boldface, and underlining. Absolute parallelism is needed in design decisions. The résumé's first impression is most important and thus it should be exceptionally visually appealing.

There should be absolutely no errors. No typographical errors. No spelling errors. No grammar, syntax, or punctuation errors. No errors of fact.

All the basic, expected information is included. A resume must have the following key information: your name, address, phone number, and your email address at the top of the first page, a listing of jobs held, in reverse chronological order, educational degrees including the highest degree received, in reverse chronological order. Additional, targeted information will of course accompany this. Much of the information people commonly put on a resume can be omitted, but these basics are mandatory.

Jobs listed include a title, the name of the firm, the city and state of the firm, and the years. Jobs earlier in a career can be summarized, or omitted if prior to the highest degree, and extra part-time jobs can be omitted. If no educational degrees have been completed, it is still expected to include some mention of education professional study or training, partial study toward a degree, etc. acquired after high school.

It is targeted. A resume should be targeted to your goal, to the ideal next step in your career. First you should get clear what your job goal is, what the ideal position or positions would be. Then you should figure out what key skills, areas of expertise or body of experience the employer will be looking for in the candidate. Gear the resume structure and content around this target, proving these key qualifications. If you have no clear goal, take the skills or knowledge) you most enjoy or would like to use or develop in your next career step and build the resume around those.

Strengths are highlighted / weaknesses de-emphasized. Focus on whatever is strongest and most impressive. Make careful and strategic choices as to how to organize, order, and convey your skills and background. Consider, whether to include the information at all, placement in overall structure of the resume, location on the page itself or within a section, ordering of information, more impressive ways of phrasing the information, use of design elements such as boldface to highlight, italics to minimize, ample surrounding space to draw the eye to certain things.

It has focus. A resume needs an initial focus to help the reader understand immediately. Don't make the reader go through the whole resume to figure out what your profession is and what you can do. Think of the resume as an essay with a title and a summative opening sentence.

Use power words. For every skill, accomplishment, or job described, use the most active impressive verb you can think of which is also accurate). Begin the sentence with this verb, except when you must vary the sentence structure to avoid repetitious writing.

Show you are results-oriented. Wherever possible, prove that you have the desired qualifications through clear strong statement of accomplishments, rather than a statement of potentials, talents, or responsibilities. Indicate results of work done, and quantify these accomplishments whenever appropriate.

Writing is concise and to the point. Keep sentences as short and direct as possible. Eliminate any extraneous information and any repetitions. Don't use three examples when one will suffice. Say what you want to say in the most direct way possible, rather than trying to impress with bigger words or more complex sentences.

Vary long sentences if these are really necessary with short punchy sentences. Use phrases rather than full sentences when phrases are possible, and start sentences with verbs, eliminating pronouns "I", "he" or "she". Vary words: Don't repeat a "power" verb or adjective in the same paragraph. Use commas to clarify meaning and make reading easier. Remain consistent in writing decisions such as use of abbreviations and capitalization.

Make it look great. Use a laser printer or an ink jet printer that produces high-quality results. A laser is best because the ink won't run if it gets wet. It should look typeset. Do not compromise. If you do, your resume will look pathetic next to ones that have a perfect appearance. Use a standard conservative typeface font in 11 or 12 point. Don't make them squint to read it. Use off-white, ivory or bright white 8 1/2 x 11-inch paper, in the highest quality affordable. Don't have your resume look like you squeezed too much on the page.

Shorter is usually better. Everyone freely gives advice on resume length. Most of these self-declared experts say a resume should always be one page. That makes no more sense than it does to say an ad or a poem should automatically be one page. Your resume can be 500 pages long if you can keep the reader's undivided attention and interest that long, and at the same time create a psychological excitement that leads prospective employers to pick up the phone and call you.

Watch your verb tense. Use either the first person "I" or the third person "he," "she" point of view, but use whichever yo u choose consistently. Verb tenses are based on accurate reporting: If the accomplishment is completed, it should be past tense. If the task is still underway, it should be present tense.

Break it up. A good rule is to have no more than six lines of writing in one paragraph summary, skill section, accomplishment statement, job description, etc.. If any more than this is necessary, start a new section or a new paragraph.

Experience comes before education, usually. Experience sections should come first, before education, in most every case. This is because you have more qualifications developed from your experience than from your education. The exceptions would be 1 if you have just received or are completing a degree in a new professional field, if this new degree study proves stronger qualifications than does your work experience, 2 if you are a lawyer, with the peculiar professional tradition of listing your law degrees first, 3 if you are an undergraduate student, or 4 if you have just completed a pa rticularly impressive degree from a particularly impressive school.

Give telephone numbers that will be answered. Be sure a person or an answering machine will without exception; answer the phone number on the resume Monday through Friday 8-5pm. You do not want to lose the prize interview merely because there was no answer to your phone, and the caller gave up. Include the area code of the telephone number. Include e-mail and fax numbers, if you have them.

Try not to include anything on the resume that could turn the employer off, anything that is controversial political, etc. or could be taken in a negative light.
Put the most important information on the first line of writing "block" or paragraph. The first line is read the most.

Use bold caps for your name on page one. Put your name at the top of page two on a two-page resume. Put section headings, skill headings, titles or companies if impressive), degrees, and school name if impressive), in boldface.

Spell out numbers under and including ten; use the numerical form for numbers over and including 11, unless they are the first words in a sentence. Spell out abbreviations unless they are unquestionably obvious.

If you are not sure what sort of job you are looking for, you will most likely wind up in something that turns out to be just a "job." In a "job" you exchange your life for money. It is possible to choose a career that will fit you so well that you do it because you like to go to work.

What not to put on a resume:

- The word "Resume" at the top of the resume
- Fluffy rambling "objective" statements
- Salary information
- Full addresses of former employers
- Reasons for leaving jobs
- A "Personal" section, or personal statistics except in special cases
- Names of supervisors
- References

3.2.1. Telephone Handling Manners

Your work may require you to talk on the phone everyday and chances are you have had a successful interaction on the phone.

Especially those whose work requires them to interact with customers on the phone need to learn some basic phone manners. Phone etiquette now constitutes a major part of the training that companies impart to their people. The need to learn these rules arise especially in sales executives, tele-marketing executives, customer service agents and office staff like secretaries or operators. Many of them go through training that teaches them how to grab the attention of the receiver on the phone, be precise and also be polite.

The learning of phone manners, has the planning of outgoing call, asking the correct questions, active listening, managing difficult callers, assertive techniques, how to say `no', elements of developing a good voice and tips on telemarketing.

Sales training in companies often contain tips on conducting effective telephone conversation.

The skill of grabbing attention on the phone comes only with time. You should always smile when you pick the phone. It tells in your voice. Secondly, however irritating the person on the other end is, you should keep your cool. Thirdly, your voice should be very convincing. And lastly, because you represent your company you should have all the information that somebody requires at your fingertip.

The props to support your telephone image include the pens and paper at the circulation desk. There should be a list of library telephone numbers taped to the desktop in the well. Answer the telephone, at latest by the third ring, preferably on the first ring. The quality of your voice should reflect a smile. Imagine a mirror in the well and smile at your reflection as you answer the call.

That telephone call justifies your presence at the desk and the caller is your job and deserves the best you can give. Many of the calls you receive at your desk will need to be transferred to the correct department. All transfers entail the same series of steps. The first is to ask permission to be transfer the caller. On the affirmative, press the Transfer button, then either press the programmed button, or key the numbers of the extension. At this point you can wait for the pick-up and announce the call. Then press the transfer button to complete the transaction. Alternatively, simply press the transfer button again, without announcing the call. The advantage of the first method is that you can screen the call and announce the caller always politely. The advantage of the second is that if you are very busy at the desk you can direct the call and in the worse case, they still will be able to leave a message on voice mail. If you know the person is unavailable, offer the option of taking a message, or, transferring to that person's voice mail, or offer assistance yourself. If you cannot help, interrupt, politely, and say so; then suggest a message, or voice mail.

No matter what, one needs to behave professionally on the telephone and maintain your composure. Ask for information, use the caller's name, and provide courtesies. Above all else listen to the person you can think faster than they can talk. So answer the questions who, what, where, why, when and how, by listening to them. Also, direct the conversation, as you must in order to help the caller identify their problem and then get them to the correct place to get their problem solved.

There are many ways to handle incoming calls: *voice mail, call waiting and caller ID.*

It is important to change your message every day and more often if necessary. Uses the same simple message every day, but always mention the day and date, so callers know check the messages every day at a minimum. Call waiting/caller ID: If you are on the phone, and another call comes in, you may be able to decide if you need to interrupt your current call. One may not really mind being put on hold for a moment, as long as, is not abruptly cut off during a critical discussion. Don't try to avoid clients: they know you're the only one in the office, and they understand that sometimes you need to take another call. Just don't do it too often, or let them hang for long. Caller ID also lets you return a call if someone doesn't leave a message; you may contact a few wrong numbers, but you may also impress a potential client.

Another important consideration is additional lines. You should definitely have one for phone and one for fax/on-line access; if you spend lots of time on-line and receive lots of faxes, get three lines. Busy signals get very annoying quickly. These services add to your overhead, but they are well worth it in reassuring your clients of your professionalism and attention to their needs.

3.3. Preparation of matters of Meetings

Business Meetings

Meetings come in all shapes and sizes. There are the everyday office meetings, board meetings, and seminars - all the way up to major conferences. And meetings can now be face-to-face, teleconference, videoconference, or online via the Internet. Meetings are more important than ever as modern workplaces are built on teams, sharing of ideas, and effective project coordination.

If communication is the lifeblood of any organization, then meetings are the heart and mind. The place where we communicate our ideas, hash them out, share our passion for better or worse, develop new understandings and new directions. It's where deals can happen or fall apart, where strategies are articulated and debated, in short, where we engage with others. That's what it's all about, people meeting with people.

Survey results published show that executives on average spend 40%-50% of their working hours in business meetings. Further evidence of the pervasiveness of meetings comes from a recent issue of Fast Company magazine, where organizational psychologist Jon Ryburg says he advises corporate clients to provide twice as much meeting space as they did 20 years ago. Surveyed professionals agree that as much as 50% of that meeting time is unproductive and that up to 25% of meeting time is spent discussing irrelevant issues. Typically, they complain that meetings are too long, are scheduled without adequate time to prepare and end without any clear result.

Most of us have been to seminars or conferences where we've left feeling inspired and rejuvenated. But how many of us have ever left everyday meetings feeling the same way. The reason is that good seminars and conferences are organized precisely to engage us. Sadly, most office meetings are not.

Meetings can and should be the most interesting and productive part of your day. And if you've ever been to a great conference or seminar, you already have seen some of the basic principles at work.

These can be summarized as:

1preparation
2facilitation
3inspiration
4 results

Preparation means making sure your meeting has a clear, stated purpose, and an agenda. Participants are chosen carefully, invited in professional way and given sufficient prior information. Preparation also means attention to details including: room bookings, catering, a/v equipment, and reminders.

Facilitation means that someone or a team is responsible for guiding the meeting, a plan for the meeting is reflected in the agenda and the facilitator or chair) keeps things on time and on track.

Inspiration is probably the most overlooked aspect of everyday meetings. All the attention to detail and process can push the opportunity for spontaneity and enthusiasm aside. Build in activities that engage participants, use strategies to generate discussion, or visual aids to grab attention.

Results mean that every meeting should be directed toward one or more outcomes. Participants must feel that something has been accomplished, and they must see all of their meetings as part of the bigger strategy to involve them in the future of the organization. Achievements at one meeting should be recapped in the next, and so on.

3.3.1.Preparation of matters of Meetings

Suitable Subject: The subject of a committee meeting must be suitable for discussion. Care should be taken, as some subjects are only suitable for individual discussions only.

Authority and scope of the meeting: the chairman has to control and guide the members of the committee. He has to allow the members to express their thoughts without fear or terror. He must not be authoritarian, give proper direction to the discussion. He has to control the dominating members. He must motivate the silent members to express themselves.

Competent and appropriate membership: the committee members must be selected carefully. They must be competent, positive and experienced. They should have adequate knowledge of the subject in which they have to contribute to decision-making. They must not be submissive or aggressive. In business, appropriated representation must be given to various groups, departments, employees and other people who are connected with it.

Correct size: the size of a committee must be adequate. It should neither be too small nor too large. It is found that the committee, in which the membership is limited five to eleven, gives best results. Too many members cause delay in decisions, whereas too small committee may not provide necessary deliberation.

Procedure: a committee meeting must follow the prescribed procedure. The agenda of the meeting must be prepared properly before the given date of the meeting. The date, time and venue of the meeting must be suitable to the members. The agenda must be circulated well in advance to every member of the committee. There should be provision for writing minutes of the committee meeting.

3.3.2. Effective Business Meetings

While effective meetings are essential to any organization and to getting work done, most meetings leave us still looking for a decision, tired and in need of a chiropractor. A good meeting, like a football team's huddle, should bring people together, facilitate decision making, assist people in taking responsibility, energize the participants, and contribute to building team effort within the organization.

Successful meetings are ones where attention is paid to three areas:

- **Content**
- **Design**
- **Process**

Selection of content is crucial. All too often meetings are called to discuss issues which would be better resolved with a couple of phone calls while at the same time core issues remain unmentioned. The key is to focus meetings around key issues, the ones that motivate employees and to let the meeting participants identify the priority of items to be addressed.

Secondly, **the design of the meeting can hinder or support the decision-making**, problem solving or the informational task at hand. In designing attention needs to be given to idea generation methods, decision processes, agenda, time frames, problem-solving steps, etc.

Third, and most often ignored, is **making sure the individual and group needs of the participants are met**. Are people participating, included, feel that there is room for their ideas? Are dysfunctional behaviors openly dealt with, is there positive energy in the group, are people committed to the task at hand and enthused about the way the group is working to complete the task?

Meetings are too often seen as an end unto themselves. Once there, we dutifully filled the time allotted while producing only a minimum of new ideas, plans and action.

Using meetings effectively starts with the understanding that **meetings are not the destination but a vehicle** for reaching strategic objectives or organizational destinations. With this in mind we can move meetings forward.

Thinking of meetings as vehicles, as the means to an end, clarifies objectives. It enables us to get in the driver's seat and focus our attention on the results we want to achieve and the means of achieving them. This requires selecting the appropriate type and structure of meeting, picking a competent meeting leader and facilitator, determining the key participants, and identifying critical steps in order to make the best use of peoples' time and energy.

With a clear destination in mind and key waypoints noted, it is possible to map possible routes and determine when a bike, a bus, a plane, chariot or truck is the appropriate vehicle to get you there quickly. With clear objectives, we can determine how each part of the meeting should be structured and managed to achieve the desired results.

The success of meetings is limited only by our understanding of their purpose and our ability to plan and manage them.

Creating a Meeting Agenda

The meeting agenda is a roadmap for the meeting. It lets participants know where they're headed so they don't get off track. Most importantly, the meeting agenda gives a sense of purpose and direction to the meeting.

All agendas should list the following:

- Meeting start time
- Meeting end time
- Meeting location
- Topic headings
- Include some topic detail for each heading
- Indicate the time each topic is expected to last
- Indicate which meeting participants are expected to be the main topic participants

Minutes of Meetings

These days, many of us find ourselves in the position of taking minutes of meetings without a clue of how to go about it. The following is a guide for making this task easier:

- Make sure that all of the essential elements are noted, such as type of meeting, name of the organization, date and time, name of the chair or facilitator, main topics and the time of adjournment. For formal and corporate meetings include approval of previous minutes, and all resolutions.
- Prepare an outline based on the agenda ahead of time, and leave plenty of white space for notes. By having the topics already written down, you can jump right on to a new topic without pause.

- Prepare a list of expected attendees and check off the names as people enter the room. Or, you can pass around an attendance sheet for everyone to sign as the meeting starts.
- To be sure about who said what, make a map of the seating arrangement, and make sure to ask for introductions of unfamiliar people.
- Don't make the mistake of recording every single comment, but concentrate on getting the gist of the discussion and taking enough notes to summarize it later. Remember that **minutes are the official record of what happened, not what was said, at a meeting**.
- Use whatever device is comfortable for you, a notepad, a laptop computer, a tape recorder, a steno pad, shorthand. Many people routinely record important meetings as a backup to their notes.
- Be prepared and study the issues to be discussed and ask a lot of questions ahead of time. If you have to fumble for understanding while you are making your notes, they won't make any sense to you later.
- Don't wait too long to type up the minutes, and be sure to have them approved by the chair or facilitator before distributing them to the attendees.
- Don't be intimidated, you may be called upon many times to take minutes of meetings, and the ability to produce concise, coherent minutes is widely admired and valued.

Managing a Meeting

Choosing the right participants is key to the success of any meeting. Make sure all participants can contribute and choose good decision-makers and problem-solvers. Try to keep the number of participants to a maximum of 12, preferably fewer. Make sure the people with the necessary information for the items listed in the meeting agenda are the ones that are invited.

If you are the leader, work diligently to ensure everyone's thoughts and ideas are heard by guiding the meeting so that there is a free flow of debate with no individual dominating and no extensive discussions between two people. As time dwindles for each item on the distributed agenda, you may find it useful to stop the discussion, then quickly summarize the debate on that agenda item and move on the next item on the agenda.

When an agenda item is resolved or action is agreed upon, make it clear who in the meeting will be responsible for this. In an effort to bypass confusion and misunderstandings, summarize the action to be taken and include this in the meeting's minutes.

Time Keeping

Meetings are notorious for eating up people's time. Here are some ways of ensuring that time is not wasted in meetings:

- Start on time.
- Don't recap what you've covered if someone comes in late: doing so sends the message that it is OK to be late for meetings, and it wastes everyone else's valuable time.
- State a finish time for the meeting and don't over-run.
- To help stick to the stated finish time, arrange your agenda in order of importance so that if you have to omit or rush items at the end to make the finish time, you don't omit or skimp on important items.
- Finish the meeting before the stated finish time if you have achieved everything you need to.

Issuing Minutes

Minutes record the decisions of the meeting and the actions agreed. They provide a record of the meeting and, importantly, they provide a review document for use at the next meeting so that progress can be measured and this makes them a useful disciplining technique as individuals' performance and non-performance of agreed actions is given high visibility.

The style of the minutes issued depends on the circumstances - in situations of critical importance and where the record is important, then you may need to take detailed minutes. Where this is not the case, then minutes can be simple lists of decisions made and of actions to be taken with the responsible person identified. Generally, they should be as short as possible as long as all key information is shown and this makes them quick and easy to prepare and digest.

It is always impressive if the leader of meeting issues minutes within 24 hours of the end of the meeting and it's even better if they are issued on the same day.

People spend so much time in meetings that turning meeting time into sustained results is a priority for successful organizations. Actions that make meetings successful require management before, during, and after the meeting.

If you neglect any one of these meeting management opportunities, your meetings will not bear the fruit you desire from the time you invest in meeting. Take these twelve meeting management actions to guide meeting attendees to achieve expected, positive, and constructive outcomes.

Before the Meeting

Actions before the meeting establish the groundwork for accomplishing meeting results. You can do all of the needed follow-up, but without an effective meeting plan to start, your results will disappoint you.

Plan the Meeting

First, identify whether other employees are needed to help you plan the meeting. Then, decide what you hope to accomplish by holding the meeting. Establish doable goals for your meeting. The goals you set will establish the framework for an effective meeting plan. Your meeting purpose will determine the meeting focus, the meeting agenda, and the meeting participants.

Make Sure You Need a Meeting

Once you've developed your meeting plan, ensure that a meeting is the appropriate vehicle for accomplishing the set goals. To schedule and hold a meeting is expensive when you account for the time of the people attending. So, make efforts to determine that a meeting is the best opportunity to solve the problem, improve the process, or make an ongoing plan.

You may find that you can accomplish the meeting goals with an email discussion or by distributing and requesting information through the company newsletter. Make sure the meeting is needed and not just convenient for you – you'll get better results from attendees.

Ensure Appropriate Participation at the Meeting

If a meeting is the appropriate means to accomplish your goals, check with the participants who must attend for the meeting to succeed. The needed attendees must be available to attend the meeting. Postpone the meeting rather than holding a meeting without critical staff members. If a delegate attends in the place of a crucial decision maker, make sure the designated staff member has the authority to make decisions – or postpone the meeting.

Distribute and Review Pre-work Prior to the Meeting

You can make meetings most productive and ensure results by providing necessary pre-work in advance of the actual meeting. Providing pre-work, charts, graphs, and reading material 48 hours before a meeting affects meeting success. The more preparation time you allot, the better prepared people will be for your meeting.

Documentation that will help you achieve the meeting goals can include reports: diagrams and flow charts, data and charts such as competitive information, sales month-to-date, and production plans; Microsoft PowerPoint slides that illustrate key discussion points; and minutes, notes and follow-up from earlier or related meetings and projects. Pre-work distributed in a timely manner, with the serious expectation that attendees will read the pre-work before the meeting, helps ensure meeting success.

During the Meeting to Ensure Effective Meetings

Effective use of meeting time builds enthusiasm for the topic. It generates commitment and a feeling of accomplishment from the participants. People feel part of something bigger than their day-to-day challenges. Therefore, a well-facilitated, active meeting, that sets the stage for follow-up, will produce meeting results.

Effective Meeting Facilitation

The meeting leader sets a positive, productive tone for interaction among the meeting participants. Effective meeting facilitation starts with a review of the goals, or anticipated outcomes, and the agenda. The facilitator helps group members stay focused and productive. Meeting design and the agenda set the framework for the meeting. An effective facilitator, who keeps participants on track, ensures the accomplishment of expected, desired results from the meeting.

Involve Each Participant in Actions

Every work group has various personalities that show up for meetings. You have quiet coworkers and people who try to dominate every platform. Whether facilitating or attending the meeting, you need to involve each attendee in the accomplishment of the meeting goals. This ensures that each participant is invested in the topic of the meeting and in the follow-up. You€ll accomplish more results with the whole team pulling than with one dominant staff person trying to push everyone else up the hill.

Create an Effective Meeting Follow-up Plan

During the meeting, make a follow-up plan with action items. Effective plans include:

- The specific action item,
- The name of the person who committed to ‘owning’ the accomplishment of the action item,
- The due date of the action item,
- An agreement about what constitutes completion of the action item.

Discuss real life scenarios and barriers to success that team members may experience as they try to accomplish the items that will produce the required results. Set a time for your next meeting, if needed, while participants are in attendance.

After the Meeting

Actions and planning before and during the meeting play a big role in helping you achieve expected, positive, and constructive outcomes. Your actions following the meeting are just as crucial. Follow-up at the next scheduled meeting is never enough of an investment to ensure results.

Publish Meeting Minutes

Begin by publishing your minutes and action plan within 24 hours. People will most effectively contribute to results if they get started on action items right away. They still have a fresh memory of the meeting, the discussion and the rationale for the chosen direction. They remain enthusiastic and ready to get started. A delay in the distribution of minutes will hurt your results since most people wait for the minutes to arrive before they begin to tackle their commitments.

Effective Meeting Follow-up

Respecting and observing deadlines and follow-up will help you achieve results from your meetings. The deadline was established during the meeting. Following the meeting, each person with an action item should also make a plan for their personal accomplishment of their commitment. Whether they write the steps in their planner, delegate the tasks to another staff person, or just complete the task, the individual is responsible for follow-up.

You can improve meeting results by following up with each person who has an action item midway between meetings. Your goal is to check progress and ensure that tasks are underway. Remember that what you ask about gets accomplished.

Follow-up for Next Meeting

Follow-up by the facilitator mid-way between meetings helps, but the group must make failure to keep commitments unacceptable. Report on progress and outcomes at the next meeting and expect that all will have been accomplished. Alternatively, check progress at the next meeting and if there is a real roadblock to progress, determine how to proceed.

Debrief the Meeting

The practice of debriefing each meeting is a powerful tool for continuous improvement. Participants take turns discussing what was effective or ineffective about the current meeting process. They also discuss the progress they feel the group is making on the topic of the meeting. Taking continuous improvement to another level, successful teams debrief their entire project as well as the process to determine how effectively they managed to create results. Future meetings reflect the evaluation. Meetings evolve as an even more effective tool for creating organization results.

Conclusion

Results are achievable and predictable from well-planned and implemented meetings. Follow these twelve recommendations to ensure that meeting attendees achieve expected, positive, and constructive outcomes from the time invested in meetings.

3.3.3. Using Charts and Diagrams

It depends on the type of meeting, as to how many graphs or charts should one use. To begin, the key point to consider in developing your business plan is the time restraints of your audience. If your audience has enough time, he may have few obligations and can spend an hour reviewing your business plan. However, the more likely scenario is that a venture capitalist, corporate investor or loan officer will review your plan while sitting at a desk topped with fifty other businesses meeting ahead. As such, it is critical that your meeting plan conveys its key points quickly and easily - this is where diagrams or charts come in.

In determining whether to use a diagram or chart, consider the old adage, "a picture is worth a thousand words." The point here is that the picture should save a thousand words. That is, the graph/diagram or chart should supplement the text and not defeat its purpose. Likewise, the diagram or chart must be relevant and support the text, rather than detract from it.

In addition to respecting the time constraints of the audience, the business meeting plan must respect the audience's energy level. That is, after reading seven businesses plans and reports, an investor is likely to skip a page with 400 words of straight text. Even if no charts are applicable to support the page, it is suggested to useappropriate spacing and/or callout boxes (e.g., key text phrases highlighted in boxes) to make the page more readable.

Finally, if the business plan in a meeting is only being presented to a single or a small number of investors, the amount of diagrams and charts should reflect the wants, needs and sophistication of those few readers. For instance, if the plan is being presented only to strategic investors who understand the market, graphs can be used to convey information for which these investors may already have background knowledge.

Conversely, always keep in mind that the plan is not a slide presentation, and too many diagrams and charts may position the business organization as one that is too lazy to complete the process of developing a formal business plan.

To summarize, the amount of charts and graphs/diagrams used in the business plan must reflect the audience for the plan; an audience that is usually time and energy constrained. The charts and graphs/diagrams must complement the text, enable the audience to quickly and easily digest the information, and as always, interest the audience in taking the next step (e.g., scheduling an in-person meeting) in the investment process.

3.4. Verbal Communication

3.4.1. Our spoken words have greater power than that of the sword. The words can encourage the people to take over and complete the tasks beyond their ability. We talk with other people for many purposes like to escape boredom, to get acquainted with a newcomer, to warn or order, to suggest or instruct and various other such purposes. There are various advantages of verbal communication like:

1. The speaker gets immediate feedback from the receiver, which helps him to find out how he receives the message and how he reacts to it. The immediate

feedback not only lets the communicator to know the kind of response from the receiver but it also helps him to modify his message in such a way that it becomes readily and favorably acceptable to the receiver.

2. The communicator can clarify certain ideals in his message which are not properly understood by the receiver or which might leave some doubts in his mind. These doubts or the queries of the receiver arise from the defective message and these are communicated to the receiver in form of feedback.
3. Verbal messages can be transmitted through telephone almost immediately whereas the written message take more time to reach up to the receiver by post. The written message takes comparatively longer time because it may require consulting, dictating, drafting, typing, posting etc, which the oral transmission does not require. When immediate action is required, the oral communication is the best media.
4. The speaker can judge the replies of the other party and can change his arguments in such a way that thereby he can influence the attitudes, feelings, opinion and beliefs of the receivers. The oral directive and instructions are effective in controlling the employees and the situation in order to ensure the fulfillment of the objectives.
5. Verbal communication is less formal than the written communication. Informal talks can help in building friendships and personal relations between the communicator and the receiver.
6. Verbal communication is convenient and reliable media for communicating in committees, conferences and meetings where a number of people come together for discussion.

Communication is best achieved through simple planning and control; this article looks at approaches, which might help you to do this, and specifically at meetings, where conversations need particular care.

1. In order to be effective, approach any conversation situation that is important to you with a definitely formulated purpose. Know why you are entering into a conversation. Is it to be social? Make an impression, be polite etc. Be genuine, as the listener will know if you are trying too hard or being false.

2. If you become bored with the conversation it will show, so make sure you find interest in what is being said and have ideas of your own.

3. Adapt your material and your manner to the person (or persons) with whom you are talking. Find out what interests the person you are talking to,

possibly before you meet him. A quick chat to someone before a meeting can often result in some information that you can use in the conversation. Prepare well for formal occasions.

4. Perhaps, have ready, some interesting material for conversation. If there is a lull you can relax everyone by telling them about an experience you had e.g. the latest film and how it related to something you were involved with at work or home etc.

5. Have some definite comments to make. A particular view about a subject will always lead to further discussion. You can add to other people's points and make that discussion part of a learning process as everyone exchanges views.

6. Have lots of interests and usually you will be an interesting person!

7. Remembering someone's name makes them feel happy. It is often difficult but it does help, especially if you have to introduce them to someone else in the future.

8. Try to sense the mood of a person or group, body language, expressions and tone of voice. 90% of any verbal act involves non-verbal action!
9. Be an active listener. An alert face and good body posture tell the other person that you are interested. Eye contact is essential.

10. Hand movements often help a description, but be careful for those nervous fiddly movements that cause distraction. They may be a habit or just caused by the situation.

11. The speed of your speech may fluctuate. Nervousness often causes speech rate to increase and hesitations can occur as the thoughts become disorganized. The problem is compounded when you are asked to repeat what you have just said.

12. There is no harm in a pause, relax, take a breath and compose yourself. If you have stumbled, smile and give a genuine apology, it will allow you time to think about the rest of your conversation.

13. In a crowded room shouting may be the only way to be heard, but often clarity of speech helps the listener to understand you more effectively.

Most verbal communication sort of drift along; in business, this is wasteful; as a manager, you seek communication rather than chatter. To ensure an efficient and effective conversation, there are three considerations:

- You must make your message understood
- You must receive/understand the intended message sent to you
- You should exert some control over the flow of the communication

Thus, you must learn to listen as well as to speak. Those who dismiss this as a mere platitude are already demonstrating an indisposition to listening: the phrase may be stale, but the message is hugely significant to your effectiveness as a manager. If you do not explicitly develop the skill of listening, you may not hear the suggestion/information, which should launch you to fame and fortune.

As a manager (concerned with getting things done) your view of words should be pragmatic rather than philosophical. Thus, words mean not what the dictionary says they do but rather what the speaker intended.

Suppose your manager gives to you an instruction, which contains an ambiguity, which neither of you notice or which results in you producing entirely the wrong product? Who is at fault? The answer must be: who cares? Your time has been wasted, the needed product is delayed (or dead); attributing blame may be a satisfying (or defensive) exercise but it does not address the problem. In everything you say or hear, you must look out for possible misunderstanding and clarify the ambiguity.

The greatest source of difficulty is that words often have different meanings depending upon context and/or culture. Thus, a "dry" country lacks either water or alcohol; "suspenders" keep up either stockings or trousers (pants); a "funny" meeting is either humorous or disconcerting; a "couple" is either a few or exactly two. If you recognize that there is a potential misunderstanding, you must stop the conversation and ask for the valid interpretation.

3.4.2. Barriers to Verbal Communication

Language

- **Vocabulary**

The vocabulary and its extent must be limited to the range that the listeners can understand. Otherwise you might as well be talking in a foreign language!

- **Jargon**

It is so easy to pick up the jargon of the organization or the discipline, but if the listeners do not come from the same environment, the jargon is not understood and can be annoying.

- **Ambiguity**

Be careful that you say what you mean, not simply what you mean to say. Extra care is essential when multi-cultures form the audience in view of differing meanings to some words and sayings.

- **Rambling**

Keep KISS (Keep it Simple) in mind, and avoid the long, vague rambling speech. Otherwise there is the danger of the audience stopping listening or even falling asleep.

- **Unusual words**

If the words are unfamiliar to you, ensure that you are using the best word, the right word, pronounced correctly. Are you using it because it is the best, only, correct, or most appropriate word, or are you simply using it for effect? Is the audience likely to understand it?

Psychological (On the Part of the Listeners)

- **Pressures**

All sorts of pressures are working on members of an audience, and these can detract and distract from listening fully to what is said. Work, health, domestic, money, learning, social, and other pressures can all have an effect.

- **Mood**

Listeners, who are easily affected by the mood they are in, may be in such a mood that listening to you may not be a priority.

- **Enforced attendance**

Not every learner attends a training program voluntarily. If they are attending because they were told to, they are unlikely to be in a receptive mood and will, perhaps, even actively resist learning.

- **Fear**

Fear can be a strong motivator for listening and learning, but, if it is too strong, it becomes a barrier to listening and learning, the fear being uppermost in the person's mind.

- **Shyness**

The learner has overcome the first shyness barrier by actually attending. If something is not understood, however, the shyness may prevent a question with the result that what follows is lost.

- **Aggression**

This may be linked with enforced attendance, or an on-the-spot dislike of you, the learning environment, or the other learners. It usually exhibits itself by an aggressive expression that is developed rather than listening to what you are saying.

- **Resistance to learning**

The reasons for this attitude can be many: enforced attendance, failure to see the reason for the training, various dislikes, and so on. "I do not intend to learn" can sometimes be broken down by involvement or an interesting presentation or activity, but often it stays throughout the session.

- **Know-it-all**

It is one of the common types of resistance to learning, particularly by long-serving employees who have been sent on the training against their wishes. If this is indeed the case, it is more effective to try to use their experience within the group than to try to react to the attitude.

- **Too old to learn**

This is usually an attitude developed by those who are frightened to learn or otherwise do not want to learn. Research has shown that, unless older people have allowed their minds to degenerate, they are often, because of a wealth of experience, better learners than many younger people.

- **Status differences**

Sometimes the learners are at different status levels within the organization. Unless the group is well established, the higher level members may resist to avoid making fools of themselves in front of their juniors, who themselves do not want to take the risk of showing themselves up in front of their bosses.

- **Mind not on the learning**

If the learner's mind is still on what has been left at work or on other worries - responsibility for making arrangements for a variety of events, interview coming up, and so on - full attention is not paid to the learning.

Environmental

- **Noise, heat, cold, ventilation, space available**

All these aspects of the environment can get in the way of listening and learning. Sometimes they can be resolved and the barrier is broken; at other times nothing can be done and they may remain as barriers.

- **Interruptions/work intrusion**

Interruptions of whatever nature, but particularly if they bring work into the learning environment, affect listening and learning. Most can be avoided by preliminary precautions.

- **Restricted time**

Learning requires a variable length of time to be effective - time to fit in the material of the event, time for different learners to assimilate material, time for the trainer to put over the material effectively, and so on. If there is a time restriction, this has a detrimental effect on both the trainer and the learner.

Speech

- **Unskilled speaker**

An unskilled speaker uses methods and techniques that are not the most effective with which to make impact on the listeners. Too many hesitations, verbal noises, mannerisms, and so on are noted by the listeners, who may take more notice of these than of what is being said. There may be an element of sympathy for the inexperienced speaker, but lack of skill is unlikely to be approved.

- **Accent**

At one time regional accents were not acceptable for many areas of public speaking. This has now been discounted, but if the accent is too strong, it may not be understandable. The use of dialect words, however, should be avoided since these may not be widely understood.

- **Manner**

Speakers may not be able to completely control their overall manner, but usually this can be modified somewhat for the period required. A patronizing manner is soon recognized and rejected by the listeners. Aggression from the speaker results in either withdrawal or returned aggression, neither of which is conducive to good communication. An abrasive manner has a similar effect. Speakers can usually modify the first two; the last one is more difficult since speakers may not even be aware of this aspect of their natural manner.

- **Attitude**

This aspect of the speaker is often not self-recognized, but nevertheless may have an effect on the extent of listening and acceptance. The speaker's prejudices may emerge unconsciously – racism, sexism, and so on – and even personal views that ignore or reject the views of others without reason or argument. The speaker may be judgmental, making decisions or forcing opinions without seeking other options, and, perhaps because of these two aspects and other internal motivation, may be over directive. Trainers have to be aware of these possible attitudes in themselves and, if present, modify their approaches accordingly. The latter aspect is particularly important in the training field in which the emphasis is more and more on learner-centered rather than trainer-centered control.

- **Lack of Knowledge**

The converse of knowing it all and letting everybody be aware of this is demonstrating that the speaker's knowledge of the subject is limited or incomplete. The listener, particularly in a learning situation, has every justification in rejecting someone who has obviously not undertaken sufficient care in preparation in order to know the subject. Naturally nobody knows everything and at times the trainer will admit some lack of knowledge, making a firm promise to find out. But if this becomes an over frequent admission, credibility is soon lost.

Barriers to Listening:

- Hearing difficulties and seating position
- Speed of thought, being ahead of the speaker
- Prejudice against speaker's apparent background, culture
- Speaker's apparent experience (or lack of it)
- Different views from speaker's
- Difficulties of language and jargon
- Undefined reaction against speaker
- Wanting to speak yourself
- Internal environmental distractions
- External distractions
- Incongruent verbal and nonverbal behavior
- Heard it all before
- Not interested in subject (and determined not to be)
- Only present because of being sent
- Wanting to hear only what you want to hear
- Assuming what is being said
- Emotive words and phrases ("with respect," etc.)
- Daydreaming
- Otherthings on your mind
- Tiredness

3.5. Non-Verbal Communication

Nonverbal communication is usually understood as the process of communication through sending and receiving wordless messages. Such messages can be communicated through gesture, body language or posture, facial expression and eye contact, object communication such as clothing, hairstyles or even architecture, symbols and info graphics, prosodic features of speech such as intonation and stress and other paralinguistic features of speech such as voice quality, emotion and speaking style.

Scholars in this field usually use a strict sense of the term "verbal", meaning "of or concerned with words," and do not use "verbal communication" as a synonym for oral or spoken communication. Thus, sign languages and writing are generally understood as forms of verbal communication, as both make use of words ‡ although like speech, both may contain paralinguistic elements and often occur alongside nonverbal messages. Nonverbal communication can occur through any sensory channel ‡ sight, sound, smell, touch or taste

Nonverbal communication is also distinguished from unconscious communication, which may be verbal or non-verbal. Also, non-verbal communication comes in many forms at the same time. For example, a person's dress, tone of voice, attitude, and movement all contribute to the communication going on in a certain situation.

Non-verbal communication has a very limited range as it communicates feelings of likings and disliking and reinforces the feelings expressed through verbal media. Only occasionally, it contradicts those feeling which the communicator expresses verbally. **The non-verbal media is the most suitable means for the expression of the emotional messages.**

We communicate non-verbal messages in three languages: sign language, action language and objective language. Sign language is deliberately used to replace words, numbers or punctuation marks by the gestures. Action language includes all the movements, which we do not use exclusively as signal, i.e. walking, running, eating, etc. Most of these actions are intentional-verbal stimuli. Object language can be either intention or non-intentional display of material things, i.e. clothing, jewellery, art objects. All these non-verbal languages help the communicator to talk without words. They give us the cue for interpreting human behavior, cue for transmitting messages and the clue about intents, emotions, views, social status and personalities of the people.

Often we spend a great deal of time in organizing verbal messages. It indicates that effective oral or written communication requires conscious efforts. We spend years together in learning how to read, write, and speak. Non-verbal communication does not require that much of conscious effort. It is usually learnt by imitation. Even silence is a form of non-verbal communication, which usually goes unnoticed. It is observed that:

93% of communication is nonverbal
55% through facial expression, posture, gesture
38% through tone of voice

3.5.1. Body communication

Body language is a broad term for forms of communication using body movements or gestures instead of, or in addition to, sounds, verbal language, or other forms of communication. It forms part of the category of paralanguage which describes all forms of human communication that are not verbal language. This includes the most subtle of movements that many people are not aware of including winking and slight movement of the eyebrows. In addition body language can also incorporate the use of facial expressions, posture, and gestures.

3.5.2.Facial Expression- Facial expressions are an important channel of nonverbal communication. Many animal species display facial expressions, but expressions are highly developed particularly in the primates, and perhaps most of all, in humans. Even though the human species has acquired the useful capabilities of a verbal language, the role of facial expressions in person-to-person interactions remains substantial. Messages of the face that provide commentary and illustration about verbal communications are significant in themselves.

Other types of expressions provide another, different mode for understanding the private, hidden side of the inner person, a side which may not be accessible in the form of verbalizations. For example, the facial behaviors related to emotion can reveal part of the feeling side of a person's private life. Such emotion indicators range from stereotyped, full-face expressions that are obvious to fleeting, partial face movements that are hard to see. The study of human facial expressions has many aspects and many questions about facial expressions remain unanswered and some areas are relatively unexplored. Facial expressions and the ability to understand them are important for successful interpersonal relations, so improving these skills is often sought.

Face can be divided into four parts: i) upper face, which includes eyebrows and forehead; ii) middle face, which includes the eyes, eyelids and foot of the nose; iii) the lower face, which includes mouth and chin; and iv) the sides of the face including cheeks. Facial expressions can communicate happiness, anger, surprise, embarrassment, boredom, fear, sadness, disgust, apology, favor, liking or disliking. Sometimes different facial features require coordination in order to convey some messages.

Human face is so mobile that we unconsciously and effortlessly convey love, affection, sympathy, anger, boredom, disapproval or surprise. All this is so possible because of the proper coordination of the facial features. Smiling eyes reinforces a smile at the lips, half-raised eyebrows indicate worry, half-closed eyes indicate boredom, an up-curved mouth indicates happiness and a downward mouth indicates unhappiness.

Posture €posture gives us an idea about the attitude of the person towards others who are involved in the process of communication. A good deal of relaxation in posture indicates disrespect, dislike and disinterest in the other person. A less relaxed posture indicates respect and liking. Postures also indicate superiority, fear, aggressiveness, confidence, rejection and anxiety. Anxiety, fear and lack of confidence in indicated by the total lack of relaxation in the posture. Superiority, high status, confidence and even aggressiveness are generally indicated by a relaxed posture.

There are many postures like looking down, slouching, bending head or biting one€s nails, etc, which reveal anxiety, nervousness and the feeling of insecurity in the person. There are postures like forward leaning of the body or possible touching the other person, which usually indicate nearness, intimacy, affection and other positive feelings, towards the other person. We can also communicate moods through the posture.

The effect of impressive clothing, good grooming and other items of dressing are lost when one is not careful enough about proper posture. The traits of character or personality are also revealed by the posture. One is supposed to be lazy if he sprawls when he sits, resting all your weight on one leg indicates that one is tired.

Body movements- an individual will increase his body movements as the intensity of his emotions increases. One of the most basic and powerful body-language signals is when a person crosses his or her arms across the chest. This can indicate that a person is putting up an unconscious barrier between themselves and others.

It can also indicate that the person's arms are cold. But in a serious or confrontational situation, it can mean that a person is expressing opposition. When you see such body signals, you need to adjust your presentation to fit a hostile situation. If, for instance, you're negotiating salary with your boss or supervisor when you notice these signals, realize that he or she is not thinking favorably.

Consistent eye contact can indicate that a person is thinking positively of what the speaker is saying. It can also mean that the other person doesn't trust the speaker enough to "take his eyes off" the speaker. Lack of eye contact can indicate negativity. Disbelief is often indicated by averted gaze, or by touching the ear or scratching the chin. So is eyestrain, or itchiness. When a person is not being convinced by what someone is saying, the attention invariably wanders, and the eyes will stare away for an extended period.

Gestures- Gestures are communications like facial expressions, hand signals, eye gazing, and body postures. Examples include smiles, handshakes, waving, and raising certain fingers to say something. For instance, if you saw a friend at a noisy carnival, you might smile and wave at your friend. You might also point at the car if you wanted to meet your friend there. You could do all of these things without saying a word.

The hand gestures play a significant role in supplementing the verbal communication. Hand signals are as arbitrary and conventional as those used in our verbal languages. The words, which are used as the linguistic signal, are culturally determined and they do not have meanings but they represent the culturally accepted meanings. The movements of the entire body like stepping forward, pulling backward, crouching, hunching shoulders, turning on one side or another, etc. are the body gestures, which suggest non-verbal message of certain mood or feeling.

Eye contact- the area around the eyes is one of the most expressive parts of the face. The eyes hold the place of most significance among all the body expressions. Eye contact gives us the cues to reveal a good deal of truth about the traits of someone€s personality. We nearly spend 45 percent of the time in eye contact with others during discussions though it may be only for duration of seconds.

Repeated mutual eye contact indicates friendship, love and intimacy. Embarrassed or nervous people avoid eye contact. It is easier to maintain eye contact at public distance than at closer range. A teacher may assume that those students who maintain an eye contact are more sincere.

3.5.3. Space Communication

The term ƒproxemics„refers to the study of how we use space to communicate messages.

Body spacing and posture, are unintentional reactions to sensory fluctuations or shifts, such as subtle changes in the sound and pitch of a person's voice. Social distance between people is reliably correlated with physical distance, as are intimate and personal distance, according to the following delineations.

- **Intimate distance** for embracing, touching or whispering
- **Personal distance** for interactions among good friends
- **Social distance** for interactions among acquaintances
- **Public distance** used for public speaking

It is noted that different cultures maintain different standards of personal space. In Latin cultures, for instance, those relative distances are smaller, and people tend to be more comfortable standing close to each other; in Nordic cultures the opposite is true. Realizing and recognizing these cultural differences improves cross-cultural understanding, and helps eliminate discomfort people may feel if the interpersonal distance is too large ("stand-offish") or too small (intrusive). Comfortable personal distances also depend on culture, social situation, gender, and individual preference.

Intimate distance of six inches or less lends itself to verbal communication and the subject discussed between the two persons involved in communication is usually some secret. The intimate distance is used to discuss confidential matters. Personal distance, ranging from 1.5 to 4 feet is a distance for close relationship and friendship. Social distance ranges from four to twelve feet and is suitable for business discussions or meetings in business offices. Public distance ranging from 12 feet to more is suitable for public meetings.

The way people communicate with one another depends upon the proxemics of where the people are in relation to one another. The distance maintained between people during communication in houses, offices and elsewhere throws light on their relationships. The appropriate distance between a communicator and a receiver depends upon the communication situation. The appropriate distance between colleagues need not be the same as the appropriate distance for talking with the superior. The structure and use of space conveys a non-verbal message for itself. The authority, powers, position and status can be indicated by the location of the office and its furnishings. The space speaks also when individuals come physically closer or maintain distance between them. They move closer with those whom they like and maintain distance from those whom they dislike. A greater distance is usually maintained from the people with high status.

Paralanguage

Paralanguage refers to the non-verbal elements of communication used to modify meaning and convey emotion. Paralanguage may be expressed consciously or unconsciously, and it includes the pitch, volume, and, in some cases, intonation of speech. Sometimes the definition is restricted to vocally-produced sounds. The study of paralanguage is known as paralinguistic.

In text-only communication such as email, chat rooms and instant messaging, paralinguistic elements can be displayed by emoticons, font and color choices, capitalization and the use of non-alphabetic or abstract characters. Nonetheless, paralanguage in written communication is limited in comparison with face-to-face conversation, sometimes leading to misunderstandings.

Paralanguage, including body language, has been extensively studied in social psychology. In everyday speech and popular psychology, the term is most often applied to body language that is considered involuntary, even though the distinction between voluntary and involuntary body language is often controversial. For example, a smile may be produced either consciously or unconsciously.

‚Voluntary body language€ refers to movement, gestures and poses intentionally made by a person (e.g., conscious smiling, hand movements and imitation). It can apply to many types of soundless communication. Generally, movement made with full or partial intention and an understanding of what it communicates can be considered voluntary.

‚Involuntary body language€ quite often takes the form of facial expression, and has therefore been suggested as a means to identify the emotions of a person with whom one is communicating.

Paralanguage refers to something in addition to language itself. It distinguishes the verbal message from the vocal message. It makes distinction between what is said and how it is said. But it is concerned with how something is said rather than what is verbally said. Para linguist studies the voice qualities such as intonation pattern, pitch stress, intensity, range, rhythm, tempo, articulation control, resonance and some vocalizations such as sighing, yelling, yawning, laughing, grunting, crying, giggling, etc. The study of vocalizations and voice qualities gives us the vocal cues which differentiate emotions and gives us an idea of the speaker's social standing and personality traits.

Every human being possesses a distinctive and unique contribution of voice qualities. A combination of paralinguistic vocal characteristics helps many people to make some judgment about the personality of another person, which, in some cases, turns out to be accurate and reliable. Deep throaty voice of men indicates sophisticated and mature personality, but deep throaty voice in women indicates boring and ugly personality. Nasal voice indicates nagging and unpleasant personality while breathy and high-pitched voice indicates pretty and feminine qualities. Flat monotonous voice indicates the personality of the man who lacks interest in life.

3.5.4. Temporal Communication

Temporal communication refers to the use of time as an important non-verbal element. This communication is also called as 'chronemics'. Time can be considered as a commodity that can be saved, wasted, earned or spent. 'Chronemics' or 'temporal communication' is concerned with the study of **how human beings communicate through their use of time.** Almost everyone is usually sensitive and concerned about his use of time. In business world, time is money for everybody and every successful business mean seems to be very time conscious.

Delay in replying to a personal or business letter, a phone call, later entrance at a committee meeting, meeting a friend after a long interval of time, and various other examples of this kind communicate certain non-verbal messages. Use of the watches or time clocks throughout the working hours, agendas setting completion dates for projects and other works, time scheduling, etc, show the importance of time in business organization. Completing the work within a specific recommended time communicates sincerity, hard work, loyalty and reliability, whereas frequent late coming and absenteeism may communicate unreliability.

Some varieties of time on the way social groups and societies organize time:

1. Technical time: the precise forms of time associated with scientific inquiry.

2. Formal time: the institutionalized division of time into units.

3. Informal time: the loose organization of time associated with phrases

SUMMARY

The purpose of a report is to inform someone about a particular subject. Reports are made up of facts and arguments on a specific subject. Reports allow information to be presented in an ordered way. You can write reports for business, psychology, health and safety. C. A. Brown defines report as „a communication from someone who has to inform to someone who wants to use that informationƒ.

Along with computer literacy, professional presentation skills are becoming new survival skill in the workplace. People enjoy presenters who are inviting, engaging and informative.

In creating your presentation, think like a reporter and answer the "who, what, why, how, and where" questions. Who will attend and how many? Aim the content of presentation to your audience, and the choice of visuals to meet the needs of your group. Visuals need to be visible to everyone.

A business organization has to write a number of **letters** everyday. Almost every business involves a wide range of activities, which require frequent communication links between the concerned parties. Many of these links are established and maintained through correspondence. It can also happen that a letter writer who lacks knowledge and tact of writing good business letter may not achieve his purpose, but also make thing difficult for the organization.

The resume is a tool with one specific purpose: to win an interview. If it does what the fantasy resume did, it works. If it doesn't, it isn't an effective resume. A resume is an advertisement, nothing more, nothing less. A great resume doesn't just tell them what you have done but makes the same assertion that all good ads do: If you buy this product, you will get these specific, direct benefits. It presents you in the best light.It convinces the employer that you have what it takes to be successful in this new position or career.

Your work may require you to talk on the phone everyday and chances are you have had a successful interaction on the phone. Especially those whose work requires them to interact with customers on the phone need to learn some basic phone manners. **Phone etiquette** now constitutes a major part of the training that companies impart to their people.

Meetings come in all shapes and sizes. There are the everyday office meetings, board meetings, and seminars all the way up to major conferences. And meetings can now be face-to-face, teleconference, videoconference, or online via the Internet. Meetings are more important than ever as modern workplaces are built on teams, sharing of ideas, and effective project coordination.

Our spoken words have greater power than that of the sword. The words can encourage the people to take over and complete the tasks beyond their ability. We talk with other people for many purposes like to escape boredom, to get acquainted with a newcomer, to warn or order, to suggest or instruct and various other such purposes.

Nonverbal Communication is usually understood as the process of communication through sending and receiving wordless messages. Such messages can be communicated through gesture; body language or posture; facial expression and eye contact; object communication such as clothing, hairstyles or even architecture; symbols and info graphics; prosodic features of speech such as intonation and stress and other paralinguistic features of speech such as voice quality, emotion and speaking style.

QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

Q1. Discuss the meaning, types and essentials of a business report.
Q2. What things should be considered while presenting a business report?
Q3. Explain the importance and significance of writing a business letter. What are the different types of business letters?
Q4. What are the essentials of writing a Resume? Give the different styles of Resume Presentation.
Q5. What purpose does a ‚memo€ serve in a business organization?
Q6. Enlist some basic telephone handling etiquettes required, while working in an organization.
Q7. Give a detail account of matters, which should be considered while conducting and planning a business meeting.
Q8. Give the significance of Verbal Communication and the barriers, which can interfere with Verbal Communication.
Q9. What are the different types of Non-Verbal Communications in which the human beings indulge in their day today lives?

Q10. Write short notes on:

1. Paralanguage
2. Temporal Communication
3. Space Communication
4. Memos
5. Resume Writing
6. Telephone handling Etiquettes
7. Business Reports
8. Barriers to Verbal Communication
9. Use of Charts/Diagrams in Business Meeting
10. Body Language

SUGGESTED READING

1. Business Communication - K.K. Sinha (Galgotia Publishing Co)
2. A Practical Grammar of English - Thomson & Martinet
3. Improve your word power - R.Birley
4. The Process & Effects of Mass Communication, W. Schramm, D. F. Roberts
5. Mass Communication Theories: an Introduction, Sage Publication