



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

COURSE CODE: BUS 207

COURSE TITLE: BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

COURSE GUIDE

BUS 207: Business Communication

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Introduction

This course guide tells you the nature of the course, the materials you are going to use and how you are expected to use the materials for meaningful benefits. It is expected that at least two hours should be devoted to the study of every unit. For each course unit there are exercises. You are encouraged to do these exercises. They serve as points of reflections, which are necessary for proper understanding of the facts.

At the end of each unit, there are Tutor-marked Assignments, which you are expected to answer.

They serve as revision and continuous assessment. Tutorial lectures will be provided. This is the

opportunity you have for a face-to face contact with your facilitator. Any area you do not understand will be explained during the tutorial classes.

Course aims

The course aims at exposing students to business communication skills.

The aim of the course will be achieved by:

Discussing the concept of business communication skills.

Explaining the fundamentals of communication.

Identifying and describing the forms of communication.

Knowing what business communication entails.

Listing different type of communication skills that is necessary for business to succeed.

Identifying various communication skills and explain them in detail.

Dealing with lapses in English communication.

Course Objectives.

By the end of this course, you should be able to:

Explain the concept of business communication skills.

Know the need for business communication training.

Discuss the process that takes place in communication.

List different types of communication.

Discussing what is English phonetics.

List different types of study skills.

Describe the functions of parts of speech in English grammar and use same in specific examples.

Explain the steps in writing process.

State the principles of interpersonal relationship

Have an overview of interview skills for recruitment purpose

Identify the necessary plans to make before negotiating communication

State the importance of communication technology in business organisations.

Course materials.

Course Guide.

Study Units.

Recommended Textbooks.

Assignment file.

Tutorials.

Study Units.

There are sixteen study units into divided four modules of four units each.

MODULE 1

UNIT ONE	FUNDAMENTALS OF COMMUNICATION
UNIT TWO	FORMS OF COMMUNICATION.
UNIT THREE	INTRODUCTION TO BUSINESS COMMUNICATION SKILLS
UNIT FOUR	FORMS OF BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

MODULE 2

UNIT ONE	STUDY SKILLS
UNIT TWO	ENGLISH GRAMMAR
UNIT THREE	PUNCTUATION IN ENGLISH
UNIT FOUR	SENTENCE FORMATION

MODULE 3

UNIT ONE	ORAL COMMUNICATION WRITING
UNIT TWO	PROCESS PUBLIC SPEAKING
UNIT THREE	INTERPERSONAL
UNIT FOUR	COMMUNICATION

MODULE 4

UNIT ONE	NEGOTIATION SKILLS
UNIT TWO	CORPORATE COMMUNICATION
UNIT THREE	INTERVIEW SKILLS
UNIT FOUR	COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY

MODULE 1

This is the first of the four modules that the business communication skills are made up of. There are four units in this module.

UNIT ONE	Fundamentals of communication explains the basic things about communication.
UNIT TWO	Forms of communication gives various forms of communication in life.
UNIT THREE	Introduction to business communication skills introduces communication as part of business enterprises.
UNIT FOUR	Business communication treats business communication as a type of communication.

MODULE 2

This is the module that tries to teach students about the proper usage of English language in communication.

UNIT ONE

studying.

UNIT TWO

UNIT THREE

UNIT FOUR

formation.

Study skills teach various methods that a student can adopt in

English grammar thoroughly explains part of speech as pre-requisite to proper understanding of English grammar.

Punctuation in English gives explanation on the use of punctuation in English language.

Sentence formations describe steps towards correct sentence

MODULE 3

This unit deals with some of the necessary communication skills that are needed for good business communication.

UNIT ONE

Oral communication discusses English phonetic as a requirement for good communication.

UNIT TWO

world.

UNIT THREE

UNIT FOUR

Writing process describes writing skills required in the business

Public speaking explains speech making and its requirements.

Interpersonal communication gives how good communication promotes interpersonal relationship in business enterprises.

MODULE 4

This is the final unit and it contains units that deal with skills that an organization needs to succeed in business world

UNIT ONE

Negotiation skills give the necessary skills that are required in business negotiation.

UNIT TWO

Corporate communication examines how an organisation communicates within itself and the rest of the world.

UNIT THREE

interview

UNIT FOUR

Communication technology describes the current trends and technology in business communication.

For each study unit, on which you are expected to spend at least two hours, there are specific objectives. At the end of this unit, measure what you have learnt against the objectives. If there is any deviation go back to the contents of the unit. There are textbooks, which you may refer to for additional information.

The exercises in each unit have to be attempted to ensure that you follow the ideas being presented. In addition, there are tutor-marked assignments. You are entreated to attempt them, as some of them will form part of the continuous assessment

Assignment file

There will be 4 assignments, which will cover the following areas:

Understanding of what business communication skills is about from proper understanding of communication process (Units 1,2,3,4 of module one)

Review of English grammar which includes proper knowledge of part of speech, punctuation mark usage and sentence formation (Units 2,3,4 of module two)

Exposition to various forms of communications that are necessary for proper business communication skills (Units 1,2,3 of module three)

Various areas of communications skills that add values and success to a business enterprises (Units 1,2,3,4 of module four)

Presentation Schedule

This concerns dates for tutorials and submission of assignments, which will be sent to you in due course.

Assessment.

This will be in two forms.

- 1.0 The continuous assessment, which will be based on 30%.
- 2.0 The final semester examination comes after you have completed the material, which is also 70%.

Tutor-marked Assignments.

There is a Tutor- Marked Assignments (TMA) at the end of each unit and you are to submit. the four. Each of them is 10%. As soon as you complete your assignment, send it immediately to the tutor. The best three (3) will be selected for continuous assessment purpose.

Final Examination and Grading.

There will be a three-hour examination covering the whole course. You are expected to adhere strictly to the instruction on your Question paper (s).

Unit	Title of the Work	Weeks Activity	Assessment end of Unit
	Course Guide		
1	Introduction to Business communication skills	1	
2	Fundamentals of communication	2	
3	Forms of communication	3	1 st Assignment
4	Business communication	4	
5	Study Skills	5	
6	English Grammar	6	
7	Punctuation in English	7	
8	Sentence Formation	8	
9	Oral communication	9	2nd Assignment
10	Writing Process	10	
11	Public Speaking	11	
12	Interpersonal Communication	12	
13	Negotiation Skill	13	
14	Corporate Communication	14	3rd Assignment
15	Interview Skill	15	
16	Communication Technology	16	4 th Assignment
	Revision		
	Total		4 Assignments

Hints on how to succeed.

As a diligent student, you are expected to devote at least two hours to go through each unit. You are going to play a dual role: a lecturer and student. This means that some confidence has been placed on you. Read the note carefully just as you listen carefully to a lecturer.

As you read each paragraph, try to interpret and evaluate it so as to bring out the sense in what you read.

After going through the introduction, read the objectives. As you read the main content, ask yourself whether or not what you have read tallies with the objective (s).

Take time to work through the exercise and self-assessment questions.

You may discuss these with other students studying the same programme.

Once you schedule the tutor's address, do not hesitate to contact him or her anytime there is problem.

Always send your tutor-marked assignment on time. Note the tutor's comments against future assignments.

Summary

Business communication skills give you the basic knowledge that will be put you gradually on the way that leads to acquiring an important aspect of successful business skill. Business communication skill is very important to the success of a business. After completing the course, you would become familiar with what business communication skills is all about. You will also learn necessary tools for effective English communication. More so, you will learn various skills that must be acquired to excel in business environment

BLURB

BUS 207: BUSINESS COMMUNICATION.

BUS 207, Business Communication is a 2 credits course to be taken in the second year of the undergraduate programme in the Faculty of Management Sciences of the National Open University of Nigeria. It will be available to all learners as a core course in the programme. The package is made of 16 study units and a course guide. It introduces learners to the fundamentals of communication, forms and processes of communication as well as discussing communication as a part of a business enterprise. The course also links the English grammar and the various skills to learning English Language as a pre-requisite to good communication. Interpersonal relationship in an organisation is discussed, while negotiation and interviewing skills are presented as critical skills in businesses. The use of technology in businesses and organisations are also highlighted.

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BUS 207: BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

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MODULE 1

UNIT 1 FUNDAMENTALS OF COMMUNICATION

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3.4 Tips for Effective Communication

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5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Communication is a process of transferring information from one entity to another. Communication processes are sign-mediated interactions between at least two agents which share a repertoire of signs and semiotic rules. Communication is commonly defined as "the imparting or interchange of thoughts, opinions, or information by speech, writing, or signs". Communication can be perceived as a two-way process in which there is an exchange and progression of thoughts, feelings or ideas towards a mutually accepted goal or direction.

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

On completion of this unit, you should be able to:

Discuss the process that takes place in communication

Explain the interaction among the agents of communication

Identify the various levels of communication

List the tips for effective communication

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Communication process

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

Communication is thus a process by which we assign and convey meaning in an attempt to create shared understanding. This process requires a vast repertoire of skills in intrapersonal and interpersonal processing, listening, observing, speaking, questioning, analyzing, and evaluating. It is through communication that collaboration and cooperation occur.

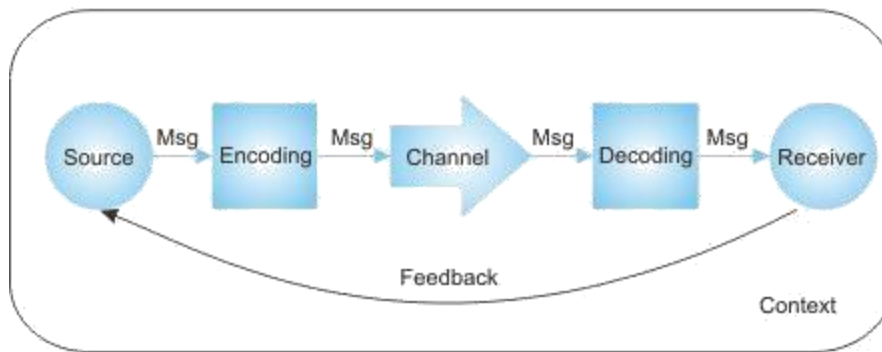
There are also many common barriers to successful communication, two of which are message overload (when a person receives too many messages at the same time), and message complexity.

3.2 Communication modeling

Communications Skills – The Importance of Removing Barriers

Problems with communication can pop-up at every stage of the communication process (which consists of the **sender**, **encoding**, the **channel**, **decoding**, the **receiver**, **feedback** and the **context** – see the diagram below). At each stage, there is the potential for misunderstanding and confusion.

The Communications Process



To be an effective communicator and to get your point across without misunderstanding and confusion, your goal should be to lessen the frequency of problems at each stage of this process, with clear, concise, accurate, well-planned communications. We follow the process through below:

1 Source

As the source of the message, you need to be clear about why you're communicating, and what you want to communicate. You also need to be confident that the information you're communicating is useful and accurate.

2 Message

The message is the information that you want to communicate.

3 Encoding

This is the process of transferring the information you want to communicate into a form that can be sent and correctly decoded at the other end. Your success in encoding depends partly not only on your ability to convey information clearly and simply, but also on your ability to anticipate and eliminate sources of confusion (for example, cultural issues, mistaken assumptions, and missing information.)

A key part of this is knowing your audience: Failure to understand who you are communicating with will result in delivering messages that are misunderstood.

4 Channel

Messages are conveyed through channels, with verbal channels including face-to-face meetings, telephone and videoconferencing; and written channels including letters, emails, memos and reports.

Different channels have different strengths and weaknesses. For example, it's not particularly effective to give a long list of directions verbally, while you'll quickly cause problems if you give someone negative feedback using email.

5 Decoding

Just as successful encoding is a skill, so is successful decoding (involving, for example, taking the time to read a message carefully, or listen actively to it.) Just as confusion can arise from errors in encoding, it can also arise from decoding errors. This is particularly the case if the decoder doesn't have enough knowledge to understand the message.

6 Receiver

Your message is delivered to individual members of your audience. No doubt, you have in mind the actions or reactions you hope your message will get from this audience. Keep in mind, though, that each of these individuals enters into the communication process with ideas and feelings that will undoubtedly influence their understanding of your message, and their response. To be a successful communicator, you should consider these before delivering your message, and act appropriately.

7 Feedback

Your audience will provide you with feedback, as verbal and nonverbal reactions to your communicated message. Pay close attention to this feedback, as it is the only thing that can give you confidence that your audience has understood your message. If you find that there has been a misunderstanding, at least you have the opportunity to send the message a second time.

8 Context

The situation in which your message is delivered is the context. This may include the surrounding environment or broader culture (corporate culture, international cultures, and so on).

In a simple model, information or content (e.g. a message in natural language) is sent in some form (as spoken language) from an emitter/ sender/ encoder to a destination/ receiver/ decoder. In a slightly more complex form a sender and a receiver are linked reciprocally. A particular instance of communication is called a speech act. The sender's personal filters and the receiver's personal filters may vary depending upon different regional traditions, cultures, or gender; which may alter the intended meaning of message contents. In the presence of "communication noise" on the transmission channel (air, in this case), reception and decoding of content may be faulty, and thus the speech act may not achieve the desired effect. One problem with this encode-transmit-receive-decode model is that the processes of encoding and decoding imply that the sender and receiver each possess something that functions as a code book, and that these two code books are, at the very least, similar if not identical. Although something like code books is implied

by the model, they are nowhere represented in the model, which creates many conceptual difficulties. Creating and delivering the effective presentation requires basic understanding of a communication process

Between parties, communication includes acts that confer knowledge and experiences, give advice and commands, and ask questions. These acts may take many forms, in one of the various manners of communication. The form depends on the abilities of the group communicating together, communication content and form make messages that are sent towards a destination. The target can be oneself, another person or being, another entity (such as a corporation or group of beings).

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Explain the stages in communication process

3.3 Levels of communication

Communication can be seen as processes of information transmission governed by three levels of semiotic rules:

1. Syntactic (formal properties of signs and symbols),
2. Pragmatic (concerned with the relations between signs/expressions and their users) and
3. Semantic (study of relationships between signs and symbols and what they represent).

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

3.4 Tips for Effective Communication

Note that any communication processes whereby there is no action and reaction between the sender and receiver is ineffective. The receiver must be able to respond to the message being sent by the sender. These are some of the tips for effective communication

Be honest while communicating. Dishonesty will somewhere show up along a line.

Take interest in the people you are communicating with. Remember that people are more attracted towards those who have interest in them, and pay more attention to what they say.

Think before you speak or put pen to paper: what message are you trying to convey?

What outcome do you want to elicit?

Be direct and not aggressive. Lots of flannelling around can make the people lose interest and miss a vital point.

Don't use jargons, acronyms and technical expressions, unless you are sure that your listeners do understand.

Do not fall into the trap of using long words just because they are written down. Take time. Whether in the speech or in paper, rushing will make you seem nervous, unconfident and downright scared.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

List and explain the requirements for effective communication.

3.5 Barriers and Limitations to Effective communication.

To deliver your messages effectively, you must commit to breaking down the barriers that exist within each of the stages of the communication process.

Let's begin with the message itself. If your message is too lengthy, disorganised, or contain errors, you can expect the message to be misunderstood and misinterpreted. The use of poor verbal and body language can also confuse the message.

Barriers in context tend to stem from senders offering too much information too fast. When in doubt here, less is oftentimes more. It is best to be mindful of the demands on other people's time, especially in today's ultra-busy society.

Once you understand this, you need to work to understand your audience's culture, making sure you can converse and deliver your message to people of different backgrounds and cultures within your own organisation, in your country and even abroad.

Noise-is the interference that keeps a message from being understood or accurately interpreted.

External noise: Comes from environment. i.e. loud music, hot sun, babies...

Internal noise: Occurs in the minds of the sender or receiver when their thoughts and feelings are focused on something other than the communication at hand.

Semantic: Caused by people's emotional reaction to words.

3.6 Types of communication

Intrapersonal communication is communication that occurs within us; it is also referred to as Self-talk.

Interpersonal communication occurs when we communicate on a one-to one basis-usually in an informal, unstructured setting.

Small group communication occurs when a small number of people meet to solve a problem.

Public communication the sender-receiver sends a message to an audience.

Intercultural communication is communication that occurs whenever two or more people from different cultures interact.

Ethical communication is communication that is fair, honest, and considerate of others rights.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Generally, communication is part of every living thing. Even the plants have there means of communication. However, the most important thing in communication is that it involves the interaction of every element in the communication process. Lack of this interaction can be seen as noise or barrier in communication process. Knowledge of this is need for effective business communication.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit explained the following concepts in communication.

- Communication process
- Levels of communication
- Barriers to communication
- Tips for effective communication

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What do you understand by noise in communication process?
2. Explain the three levels of communication in detail

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

Cohen, Herman. 1994. The History of Speech Communication: The Emergence of a Discipline, 1914-1945. Annandale, VA: Speech Communication Association.

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MODULE 1

UNIT 2: FORMS OF COMMUNICATION

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1. INTRODUCTION

This unit deals with various forms by which communication can be achieved among people. Human spoken and written languages can be described as a system of symbols (sometimes known as lexemes) and the grammars (rules) by which the symbols are manipulated. The word "language" is also used to refer to common properties of languages. Language learning is normal in human childhood. Most human languages use patterns of sound or gesture for symbols which enable communication with others around them. There are thousands of human languages, and these seem to share certain properties, even though many shared properties have exceptions.

There is no defined line between a language and a dialect, but the linguist Max Weinreich is credited as saying that "a language is a dialect with an army and a navy". Constructed languages such as Esperanto, programming languages, and various mathematical formalisms are not necessarily restricted to the properties shared by human languages in communication.

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

On completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- List different types of communication
- Explain what verbal, non verbal and visual communications are
- Enumerate other types of communication
- Discuss interaction between verbal and non verbal communication

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Types of communication

There are three major parts in human face to face communication which are body language, voice tonality, and words. According to the research:

55% of impact is determined by body language—postures, gestures, and eye contact,

38% by the tone of voice, and
7% by the content or the words used in the communication process.

Although the exact percentage of influence may differ from variables such as the listener and the speaker, communication as a whole strives for the same goal and thus, in some cases, can be universal. System of signals, such as voice sounds, intonations or pitch, gestures or written symbols which communicate thoughts or feelings. If a language is about communicating with signals, voice, sounds, gestures, or written symbols, can animal communications be considered as a language? Animals do not have a written form of a language, but use a language to communicate with each another. In that sense, an animal communication can be considered as a separate language. Three forms of communication are:

Verbal Communication
Non-Verbal Communication
Visual communication

3.2 Verbal or Dialogue communication

A dialogue is a reciprocal conversation between two or more entities. The etymological origins of the word do not necessarily convey the way in which people have come to use the word, with some confusion between the prefix and the prefix leading to the assumption that a dialogue is necessarily between only two parties.

The basis of communication is the interaction between people. Verbal communication is one way for people to communicate face-to-face. Some of the key components of verbal communication are sound, writing, speaking, and language.

3.2.1 Sound

At birth, most people have vocal cords, which produce sounds. As a child grows it learns how to form these sounds into words. Some words may be imitative of natural sounds, but others may come from expressions of emotion, such as laughter or crying. Words alone have no meaning. Only people can put meaning into words. As meaning is assigned to words, language develops, which leads to the development of speaking.

The actual origin of language is subject to considerable speculation. Some theorists believe it is an outgrowth of group activities such as working together or dancing. Others believe that language developed from basic sounds and gestures.

3.2.2 Speaking and writing.

Effective verbal communication involves the use of both speech and writing to transmit a message. While oral communication is more effective in reaching a focused target audience, as it involves interaction and additional non-verbal cues to augment the speech,

written communication is necessary for reaching a large number of scattered recipients. Depending on the situation and the requirements, people use both the spoken as well as written channels for communication.

Through speaking we try to eliminate misunderstanding, but sometimes this is a very hard thing to do. Just as we assume that our messages are clearly received, so we assume that because something is important to us, it is important to others. As time has proven this is not at all true. Many problems can arise in speaking and the only way to solve these problems is through experience.

Speaking can be looked at in two major areas: inter-personal and public speaking. Since the majority of speaking is an inter-personal process, to communicate effectively we must not simply clean up our language, but learn to relate to people.

In interpersonal speaking, etiquette is very important. To be an effective communicator one must speak in a manner that is not offending to the receiver. Etiquette also plays an important role in an area that has developed in most if not all business settings: hierarchical communication. In business today, hierarchical communication is of utmost importance to all members involved.

3.2.3 Listening

Some people do not pay much attention to listening as a communication skill. Equal importance should be given to listening and expression. Verbal communication cannot be effective unless the audience is good at listening and most of its content is forgotten after a presentation. Developing good listening skills is essential in verbal communication.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What are the three major forms of communication?

3.3 Non-verbal communication

Non-verbal communication is the process of communicating 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, or symbols and infographics, as well as through an aggregate of the above, such as behavioral communication. Nonverbal communication plays a key role in every person's day to day life, from employment to romantic engagements.

Speech may also contain non-verbal elements known as paralanguage, including voice quality, emotion and speaking style, as well as prosodic features such as rhythm, intonation and stress. Likewise, written texts have non-verbal elements such as handwriting style, spatial arrangement of words, or the use of emoticons. A portmanteau

of the English words emotion (or emote) and icon, an emoticon is a symbol or combination of symbols used to convey emotional content in written or message form.

However, much of the study of non-verbal communication has focused on face-to-face interaction, where it can be classified into three principal areas: environmental conditions where communication takes place, the physical characteristics of the communicators, and **Verbal vs oral communication**

Scholars in this field usually use a strict sense of the term –verbal–, meaning –of or concerned with words,‖ and do not use –verbal communication‖ as a synonym for oral or spoken communication. Thus, vocal sounds that are not considered to be words, such as a grunt, or singing a wordless [note](#), are non-verbal. [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 non-verbal messages. Non-verbal communication can occur through any [sensory channel](#)

3.3.1 Physical environment

Environmental factors such as [furniture](#), architectural style, [interior decorating](#), lighting conditions, colours, temperature, noise, and music affect the behavior of communicators during interaction. The furniture itself can be seen as a non-verbal message

3.3.1.1 Proxemics

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

The perception and use of space varies significantly across cultures and different settings within cultures. Space in non-verbal communication may be divided into four main categories: intimate, social, personal, and public space. (Scott Mclean, 1969) The distance between communicators will also depend on sex, status, and social role.

3.3.1.2 Chronemics

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

Monochronic time schedule (M-time): Time is seen as being very important and it is characterized by a linear pattern where the emphasis is on the use of time schedules and appointments. Time is viewed as something that can be controlled or wasted by individuals, and people tend to do one thing at a time. The M-pattern is typically found in [North America](#) and [Northern Europe](#).

[Polychronic time schedule](#) (P-time): Personal involvement is more important than schedules where the emphasis lies on personal relationships rather than keeping appointments on time. This is the usual pattern that is typically found in [Latin America](#) and the [Middle East](#).

3.3.2 Movement and body position

○ Kinetics

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

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

○ Posture

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

○ Gesture

A [wink](#) is a type of [gesture](#). A [gesture](#) is a non-vocal bodily movement intended to express meaning. They may be articulated with the hands, arms or body, and also include movements of the head, face and eyes, such as [winking](#), nodding, or rolling ones' eyes. The boundary between language and gesture, or verbal and non-verbal communication, can be hard to identify. According to Ottenheimer (2007), psychologists Paul Ekman and Wallace Friesen suggested that gestures could be categorised into five types: emblems, illustrators, affect displays, regulators, and adaptors.

Emblems are gestures with direct verbal translations, such as a goodbye wave; **illustrators** are gestures that depict what is said verbally, such as turning an imaginary steering wheel while talking about driving; an **affectdisplay** is a gesture that conveys emotions, like a **smile**; **regulators** are gestures that control interaction; and finally, an **adaptor** is a gesture that facilitates the release of bodily tension, such as quickly moving one's leg.

Gestures can also be categorised as either speech-independent or speech-related. Speech-independent gestures are dependent upon culturally accepted interpretation and have a direct verbal translation. A wave hello or a peace sign are examples of speech-independent gestures. Speech related gestures are used in parallel with verbal speech; this form of non-verbal communication is used to emphasize the message that is being communicated. Speech related gestures are intended to provide supplemental information to a verbal message such as pointing to an object of discussion.

- **Haptics**

A **high five** is an example of communicative touch.

Haptics is the study of touching as non-verbal communication. Touches that can be defined as communication include **handshakes**, holding hands, kissing (cheek, lips, hand), back slapping, **high fives**, a pat on the shoulder, and brushing an arm. Touching of oneself may include licking, picking, holding, and scratching. These behaviors are referred to as "adaptor" and may send messages that reveal the intentions or feelings of a communicator. The meaning conveyed from touch is highly dependent upon the context of the situation, the relationship between communicators, and the manner of touch.

- **Eye gaze**

The study of the role of eyes in non-verbal communication is sometimes referred to as "oculesics". **Eye contact** can indicate interest, attention, and involvement. Gaze comprises the actions of looking while talking, looking while listening, amount of gaze, and frequency of glances, patterns of fixation, pupil dilation, and blink rate.

3.3.3 Paralanguage

Paralanguage (sometimes called vocalics) is the study of non-verbal cues of the voice. Various acoustic properties of speech such as tone, pitch and accent, collectively known as **prosody**, can all give off non-verbal cues. Paralanguage may change the meaning of words.

The linguist **George L. Trager** developed a classification system which consists of the voice set, voice qualities, and vocalisation.

The voice set is the context in which the speaker is speaking. This can include the situation, gender, mood, age and a person's culture.

The voice qualities are volume, pitch, tempo, rhythm, articulation, resonance, nasality, and accent. They give each individual a unique "voice print". Vocalization consists of three subsections: characterisers, qualifiers and segregates. Characterisers are emotions expressed while speaking, such as laughing, crying, and yawning. A voice qualifier is the style of delivering a message - for example, yelling "Hey stop that!", as opposed to whispering "Hey stop that". Vocal segregates such as "uh-huh" notify the speaker that the listener is listening.

3.3.4 Functions of non-verbal communication

Argyle (1970) put forward the hypothesis that whereas spoken language is normally used for communicating information about events external to the speakers, non-verbal codes are used to establish and maintain interpersonal relationships. It is considered more polite or nicer to communicate attitudes towards others non-verbally rather than verbally, for instance in order to avoid embarrassing situations

Argyle (1988) concluded there are five primary functions of non-verbal bodily behavior in human communication:

- Express emotions
- Express inter-personal attitudes
- To accompany speech in managing the cues of interaction between speakers and listeners
- Self-presentation of one's personality
- Rituals (greetings)

3.4 Interaction of verbal and non-verbal communication

When communicating, nonverbal messages can interact with verbal messages in six ways: repeating, conflicting, complementing, substituting, regulating and accenting/moderating.

○ Repeating

"Repeating" consists of using gestures to strengthen a verbal message, such as pointing to the object of discussion.

○ Conflicting

Verbal and non-verbal messages within the same interaction can sometimes send opposing or conflicting messages. A person verbally expressing a statement of truth while simultaneously fidgeting or avoiding eye contact may convey a mixed message to the receiver in the interaction. Conflicting messages may occur for a variety of

reasons often stemming from feelings of uncertainty, ambivalence, or frustration. When mixed messages occur, non-verbal communication becomes the primary tool people use to attain additional information to clarify the situation; great attention is placed on bodily movements and positioning when people perceive mixed messages during interactions.

- **Complementing**

Accurate interpretation of messages is made easier when non-verbal and verbal communication complements each other. Non-verbal cues can be used to elaborate on verbal messages to reinforce the information sent when trying to achieve communicative goals; messages have been shown to be remembered better when nonverbal signals affirm the verbal exchange.

- **Substituting**

Non-verbal behavior is sometimes used as the sole channel for communication of a message. People learn to identify facial expressions, body movements, and body positioning as corresponding with specific feelings and intentions. Non-verbal signals can be used without [verbal communication](#) to convey messages; when non-verbal behavior does not effectively communicate a message, verbal methods are used to enhance understanding.

- **Regulating**

Non-verbal behavior also regulates our conversations. For example, touching someone's arm can signal that you want to talk next or interrupt.

- **Accenting/Moderating**

Non-verbal signals are used to alter the interpretation of verbal messages. Touch, voice pitch, and gestures are some of the tools people use to accent or amplify the message that is sent; nonverbal behavior can also be used to moderate or tone down aspects of verbal messages as well. ^[26] For example, a person who is verbally expressing anger may accent the verbal message by shaking a fist.

3.4.1 Dance and non-verbal communication

Dance is a form of non-verbal communication that requires the same underlying faculty in the brain for conceptualization, creativity and memory as does verbal language in speaking and writing. Means of self-expression, both forms have vocabulary (steps and gestures in dance), grammar (rules for putting the vocabulary together) and meaning. Dance, however, assembles (choreographs) these elements in a manner that more often resembles poetry, with its ambiguity and multiple, symbolic and elusive meanings.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What are the six ways of interaction between verbal and non verbal forms of communication?

3.5 Visual communication

Visual communication as the name suggests is communication through visual aid. It is the conveyance of ideas and information in forms that can be read or looked upon. Primarily associated with two dimensional images, it includes: signs, typography, drawing, graphic design, illustration, colour and electronic resources. It solely relies on vision. It is a form of communication with visual effect. It explores the idea that a visual message with text has a greater power to inform, educate or persuade a person. It is communication by presenting information through visual form.

The evaluation of a good visual design is based on measuring comprehension by the audience, not on aesthetic or artistic preference. There are no universally agreed-upon principles of beauty and ugliness. There exists a variety of ways to present information visually, like gestures, body languages, video and TV. Here, focus is on the presentation of text, pictures, diagrams, photos, et cetera, integrated on a computer display. The term visual presentation is used to refer to the actual presentation of information. Recent research in the field has focused on web design and graphically oriented usability. Graphic designers use methods of visual communication in their professional practice.

3.6 Other types of communication

Other more specific types of communication are listed below.

- Facilitated communication.
- Graphic communication.
- Non-violent Communication.
- Science communication.
- Strategic Communication.
- Superluminal communication.
- Technical communication.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Communication can now be seen as a very complex process which goes beyond speech making. In the real sense, communication involves a lot of others things that symbols that can be interpreted in various forms depend on the situation and a times the location of the event. For instances, the meaning of a particular gesture might be different in another geographical location. More so, silence is definitely a means of communication. Hence the various forms of communication are inexhaustible.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have been able to deal with the major forms of communication. Thorough differentiation of each of the forms was discussed. Explanation of various non verbal

communications was treated. Interaction between both verbal and non verbal communication was also examined.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. List and explain various types of non-verbal communication
2. List four other types of communication

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey (1988). Reflections on Language and forms of communication. John Benjamins B.V.. pp. 24.

MODULE 1

UNIT 3 INTRODUCTION TO BUSINESS COMMUNICATION SKILLS

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1.0 Introduction

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

This course has been designed to prepare students for one of the most important aspects of business organisation. Business communication skill is a key element of achieving

success by any business. Lack of good Communication process within and outside the organisation is capable of making the business organisation lose growth. This means a bad signal for the continuity of the organisation. Therefore, knowledge of this course is very important to all prospective business men and women including business oriented students. Before going into the details of what business communication skill means, let us highlight the objectives.

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

After completing this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the concept of business communication skills.
- Discuss what communication studies is all about.
- Explain and discuss the need for business communication training

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Introduction to Business communication skills

Communication is an essential aspect of business life. Everyday, business persons have to communicate with people at different levels of the organisation or with people external to the organisation. And in this globalised environment they also have to communicate with people from different countries, with different cultural backgrounds. Poor or inaccurate communication can lead to conflict and negativity in the workplace. It could even lead to the cancellation of a deal or the loss of customer goodwill. In this competitive environment, businesses cannot afford such losses.

Business communication examines verbal, nonverbal and written communication in the world of business. Through numerous examples of effective speaking, writing, negotiating and interviewing is explored

Whether we are talking about procedures, work requests, or daily logs...whether we are talking about applying for a new position, making a suggestion for an in-house improvement, or asking for a rise...whether we are talking about customer service responses, marketing details, or client offers...ALL of it is accomplished through written or verbal communication.

Now, every business wants to increase profits, improve customer satisfaction, and maintain a superior professional reputation. Your image isn't yours alone; your image, your reputation reflects on your coworkers, your manager, everything to do with your company – even up to an international level corporation! But you want to be considered a valuable employee that contributes to the company's image, right? How else do you gain promotions and rise and move up the ladder of success? You don't without the most basic of job skills – good communication!

Communication is a two-way street. Not only do you have to convey your own ideas clearly, but you also must be able to listen closely and understand the ideas of others as

well. Many people can communicate well either in writing or speech, but often they can't do both. The secret is to transfer what you do well from one to the other – because good written and verbal communication skills do have some similar qualities, including the following:

3.2 Communication studies

Communication studies is an [academic field](#) that deals with the processes of communication, commonly defined as the sharing of [symbols](#) over distances in space and time. Hence, communication studies encompass a wide range of topics and contexts ranging from face-to-face [conversation](#) to speeches to mass media outlets such as [television broadcasting](#). Communication studies as a discipline, is also often interested in how audiences interpret information and the political, cultural, economic, and social dimensions of speech and language in context.

The field is institutionalized under many different names at different universities and in various countries, including "communications", "communication studies", "speech communication", "rhetorical studies", "communications science", "[media studies](#)", "communication arts", "mass communication", "media ecology," and sometimes even "[mediology](#)" although this latter is a different area of study. Communication studies often overlaps with academic programs in journalism, film and cinema, radio and television, advertising and public relations and performance studies.

Communication studies is often considered a part of both the social sciences and the humanities, drawing heavily on fields such as sociology, psychology, anthropology, political science, and economics as well as rhetoric, literary studies, linguistics, and semiotics. The field can incorporate and overlap with the work of other disciplines as well, however, including engineering, architecture, mathematics, computer science, gender and sexuality studies.

The vast breadth and interdisciplinary nature of communication studies has understandably made it difficult for both students and institutions to place it within the broader educational system. Despite intellectual incoherence, the field attracts and sustains large numbers of students, scholarly journals, professional associations, and lively discussions across the academy for researchers, educators, lawmakers, businesses, and reformers. Broadly understood, the contemporary study of communication per se interfaces and overlaps with areas such as business, [organizational development](#), [philosophy](#), [languages](#), composition, theatre, debate (often called "forensics"), [literary criticism](#), [sociology](#), [psychology](#), [history](#), [anthropology](#), [semiotics](#), [international policy](#), [economics](#) and [political science](#), among others. The breadth and the primacy of communication in many areas of life is responsible for the ubiquity of communication studies, as well as for the resulting confusion about what does and does not constitute communication. Ongoing debates rage as to whether communication studies can best be understood as a discipline, a field, or simply a topic.

Most graduate programs in Communication today trace their history through speech to ancient rhetoric. Programs in [Communication](#), [Communication Arts](#) or [Communication Sciences](#) often include [Organisational Communication](#), [Interpersonal Communication](#), [Speech Communication](#) (or [Rhetoric](#)), [Mass Communication](#), and sometimes [Journalism](#), [Film criticism](#), [Theatre](#), [Political science](#) (e.g., political campaign strategies, public speaking, effects of media on elections), or [Radio](#), [Television](#) or [Film production](#). Graduates of formal communication programs can be found in a wide range of fields working as [university professors](#), [marketing researchers](#), media [editors](#) and [designers](#), [speech therapists](#), [journalists](#), [human resources](#) managers, [corporate trainers](#), [public relations](#) practitioners, and media [managers](#) and [consultants](#) in a variety of fields including, media production, [life coaching](#), [public speaking](#), [organisational](#), [political campaign/issue management](#) and [public policy](#).

Communication is often recognised as a cornerstone of modern society—it would be hard to conceive of modern life without it. However, communication as an English-language field of study and a subject of social thought took off only in the first part of the twentieth century, and is thus a relatively recent and thus unsettled discovery. In what is sometimes called the "transmission" view, communication is a process by which messages are sent, transmitted, filtered, and received. At core, the transmission view maps closely onto information theory nothing of Communication." A more recent "ritual" view, proposed by the late James W. Carey, holds that communication partakes in central daily rituals that forge meaningful human relationships and communities. While transmission proposes a model of communication as transportation (across space, in one time), the ritual model proposes that meaning can be constituted in repeated media events (across times, in one space). The newspaper, for instance, does not only transmit messages to the reader through text, but reminds and reassures the reader through repeated and meaningful events, such as its morning appearance on the doorstep and a familiar page layout. A fuller conceptualization of communication activity, many scholars (e.g., Packer and Robertson, 2006) contend, lies somewhere between and beyond these two views.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What do you understand by communication studies?

3.3 Business Communications training.

Communications training provides necessary skills for individuals to be effective in business. Effective [communication](#) is vital for the success of personal interactions and for [organisational communication](#). [Communication](#) skills are particular to various situations. It is thus imperative to undergo communications training to develop and improve [communication skills](#) related to various roles in organisations. Communications training must balance both theoretical and practical skills required for good communication.

3.3.1 Purpose of learning business communication skills

In organisation, it is necessary to communicate with different sub-groups and overcome difficulties in effective communication. Since each [sub-group](#) has a unique [sub-culture](#), an effective communications trainer may assist organisational members in improving communications between sub-groups of the organisation. It is necessary to ensure that [communications](#) between individuals the various sub-cultures serve to meet the [mission](#) and goals of the organisation. Communications training can assist leaders to develop the ability to perceive how various individuals and subgroups relate to each other and make appropriate interventions.

3.3.2 Types of skill development.

- Listening skills.
- Influence Skills.
- Responding to conflict.
- Interviewing skills.
- Study skills.
- Negotiation.
- Writing skills; business and technical writing.
- Public speaking, effective presentations.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Explain the purpose of learning business communication

skills 3.3.3 Benefits of business communication training

1. **[Business communication training](#):** It is possible for developing the skills needed for [business networking](#) and enhance their communication skills. It helps in communicating the apt message to the appropriate person at the most right time and to effectively manage and develop assertive skills. It enables candidates to manage competently, maintain long-term relationships, form new alliances, meet new people and establish contact with them and develop relationship with them
2. **[Corporate communications training](#):** It is useful for corporate events and helps in dealing with other corporate participants, besides being helpful for routine dealings.
3. **Executive communication training:** It focuses on how to conduct meetings by helping to develop facilitation skills and through exceptional [executive communication](#) coaching, candidates learn how to open, manage, as well as end meetings.
4. **Crisis communication training:** It enables candidates to communicate while dealing with the various difficulties and emergencies that can arise including [conflict management](#) and [change management](#). [With](#) training, candidates will be fit to come up

with beneficial solutions for solving the crisis or conflict or make change/transition easier.

5. Public speaking training: It is very useful to make presentations, for developing their verbal communication skills so that it is possible to express their facts publicly with great confidence. This is useful for even sales and marketing personnel who need to express things in the best possible way.

4.0 CONCLUSION

After undergoing business communications training, candidates can evolve communications strategy that integrates with business plans and achieve effective workplace communication, enhance productivity, relate to others more efficiently, improve customer service, deal with difficult customer situations satisfactorily, make changes effectively and efficiently, unite employees and motivate them to achieve goals, build successful performance-oriented team and effectively make and communicate performance assessment of employees.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has introduced to you what business communication skills are all about. Communication studies and business communication training were explained. These will help you to have an insight into what is expected in the subsequent units

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Business communication skills are important for the development of business organisations. Discuss.

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

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2. Martin J. Medhurst (2003), "The Academic Study of Public Address: A Tradition in Transition," in Landmark Essays in American Public Address, ed. Martin J. Medhurst. Hermagoras Press, p. xv.
3. Richard David Ramsey. (1990). the life and work of Jay R. Gould. Journal of Technical Writing and Communication 20, 19-24.

MODULE 1

UNIT 4 FORMS OF BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

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3.4 Hierarchical in Business Communication

3.4.1 Vertical Business Communication

3.4.2 Horizontal Business Communication

3.4.3 Quasi-Vertical Business Communication

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/ Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Business Communication is the process of exchanging messages or information between two or more parties for the purpose of promoting business growth. Businesses today are heavily dependent on information to meet organisational needs. Effective communication plays a key role in fulfilling these needs and contributes significantly to organisational success. Despite its importance, business communication has not grown, as it should. Realising this, both industry and academic sectors have begun training employees and students on business communication and its relevance. It has become all the more evident that business communication is vital for effective functioning of business units. This unit gives us an insight into what business communication is all about.

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT.

On completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the concept of business communication.
- Discuss the importance of business communication to an organisation.
- List the different forms of business communications.
- Describe the hierarchy of business communication.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT.

3.1 Business Communication.

Business communications are used to promote a product, service, or an organisation; relay information within the business; or deal with legal and similar issues. It is also a means of relying between a supply chain, for example the consumer and manufacturer. At its most basic level, the purpose of communication in the workplace is to provide employees with the information they need to do their jobs.

Business Communication encompasses a variety of topics, including [Marketing](#), [Branding](#), [Customer relations](#), [Consumer behaviour](#), [Advertising](#), [Public relations](#), [Corporate communication](#), [Community engagement](#), [Research & Measurement](#), [Reputation management](#), [Interpersonal communication](#), [Employee engagement](#), [Online communication](#), and [Event management](#). It is closely related to the fields of [professional communication](#) and [technical communication](#).

Business is conducted through various channels of communication, including the [Internet](#), [Print \(Publications\)](#), [Radio](#), [Television](#), [Ambient media](#), [Outdoor](#), and [Word of mouth](#).

Business Communication can also refer to internal communication. A [communications director](#) will typically manage internal communication and craft messages sent to employees. It is vital that internal communications are managed properly because a poorly crafted or managed message could foster distrust or hostility from employees.

3.2 The Importance of Business Communication

Effective business communication is crucial for the success of individuals as well as organisations. Good communication skills help individuals to effectively interact with others in an organisation. These skills are important for career development as they boost confidence; ensure clarity of thought and information flow. Good communication is a pre-requisite for good managers.

It is essential for organisations too. An organisation is benefited by the internal and external information gathered and passed on by employees. The management can use such information to gain an edge in business.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What is business communication?

3.3 The Basic Forms of Business Communications

The basic forms of business communication are of two types, namely non-verbal and verbal communication. It can be in the form of meetings, speeches or writing, gestures or expressions.

3.3.1 Non-verbal business communication

Non-verbal communication is a primitive form of communication that does not involve the use of words. It rather uses gestures, cues, vocal qualities, spatial relationships etc. to convey a message. It is commonly used to express emotions like respect, love, dislike, unpleasantness, etc. in business environment.

Non-verbal communication is less structured compared to its verbal counterpart and is most often spontaneous. As it is not planned, it is sometimes considered more reliable than verbal communication, as it reflects the communicator's true feelings.

Non-verbal communication enhances the effectiveness of the message as gestures and body language are registered more easily and more quickly with the audience than verbal communication. Non-verbal communication, when combined with verbal communication, makes a presentation more effective and has greater impact on the business

3.3.2 Verbal Business Communication

However, non-verbal communication has its limitations. Many complex ideas, thoughts or messages have to be communicated sequentially to be meaningful. Verbal communication involves the arrangement of words in a structured and meaningful manner, adhering to the rules of grammar. The message is then conveyed to the stake holder in a business in either spoken or written form.

1. Speaking and Writing

Effective verbal communication involves the use of both speech and writing to transmit a message. While oral communication is more effective in reaching a focused target people, as it involves interaction and additional non-verbal cues to augment the speech, written communication is necessary for reaching a large number of scattered stake holders in a business. These include the customers, workers and management of the organisation

Depending on the situation and the requirements, businesses use both the spoken as well as written channels for communication.

2. Listening

Businesses have so far not paid much attention to listening as a skill. Equal importance should be given to listening and expression. Oral communication cannot be effective unless the audience is good at listening and most of its content is forgotten after a presentation. Developing good listening skills is essential for grasping the contents of an oral presentation and retaining them.

3. The Process of Business Communication.

Business Communication also goes through a process, involving the following phases.

- Sender
- Message
- Channel
- Receiver
- Feedback

4. Barriers to Business Communication.

The process of communication is susceptible to many barriers. These can be categorised into problems caused by the sender, problems in message transmission, problems in reception, and problems in receiver comprehension.

5. Dealing with Business Communication Barriers.

Though most communication barriers require situation specific handling, a few basic methods for dealing with them are available. These methods such as know your subject, focus on the purpose, know your audience, and be organised.

3.3.3 Methods of Business communication.

There are several methods of business communication, they are:

[Web-based](#) communication - for better and improved communication, anytime anywhere ...
[e-mails](#), [which](#) provide an instantaneous medium of written communication worldwide;
[Reports](#) - important in documenting the activities of any department;
[Presentations](#) - very popular method of communication in all types of organisations, usually involving audio-visual material, like copies of reports, or material prepared in [Microsoft PowerPoint](#) or [Adobe Flash](#);
[telephoned](#) meetings, which allow for long distance [speech](#);
forum boards, which allow people to instantly post information at a centralised location; and
[Face to face](#) meetings, which are personal and should be succeeded by a written followup.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Highlight the methods that can be used to deal with business communication barriers.

3.4 Hierarchical in Business Communication.

People communicate in businesses with each other most often by oral communication. This talking takes place between managers, co-workers and subordinates alike. In organisations, communication skill is used to send messages 64% of the time. That is why it is important to understand all the concept of communication.

3.4.1 Vertical Business Communication.

This is the form of communication between a worker and his or her boss. There is sign of seniority in this type of business communication. Have you ever noticed how people communicate differently to their bosses than they would communicate to their co-workers? This difference in communication is due to the chain of command. Managers or "bosses" are typically in an influential position over their employees. Managers have authority or the right to give orders and expect the orders to be obeyed. Many employees may feel that any bad attitude or disagreement with their superior may result in a bad relationship with the boss and therefore create a bad work environment or job description.

Communication from a manager to a subordinate is also different. One reason for this may be because of the arising concern by managers not to offend their workers or say the wrong thing. In today's society, lawsuits run rapid over conversations that some employees may take offensive from their bosses. Managers have a responsibility to know and follow guidelines of good business communication etiquette.

3.4.2 Horizontal Business Communication.

The communication process among workers of the same level is called the horizontal form of business communication. There is actually no sense of seniority like the horizontal communication. However, it also attracts mutual respect in business communication context. In most cases, employees talk to their coworkers in a friendly manner. The overall standard is that workers will speak more freely and openly to their fellow workers than to their superiors. When workers talk to each other and relay information on to other workers it is called the "grapevine". The grapevine is the unofficial way that communication takes place in an organization. It is neither authorised nor supported by the organization. Information is spread by word or mouth and even through electronic means today. The grapevine can be used by an "open" company and it will have accurate information however, in an authoritative culture the rumor mill may not be accurate.

3.4.3 Quasi-Vertical Business Communication

The last type of difference in communication in which there is an intermediary between the communicators. This could be found in a situation where the communication between the management of an organisation and the workers is achieved through the labour union which the workers belong to. They do so to emphasise status and independence.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Communication can be seen as the bedrock of any business organisation. There the study of business communication should be paramount to correct communication barrier in various organisations.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has led us into the knowledge of what business communication is all about. In order for any human association to be functioning, effect communication system must be present. This is also applicable to every business organisation. We also examined importance of business communication, forms and methods of business communication. We finally dealt with hierarchy in business communication.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT.

1. List and explain the three tiers in the hierarchy of business communication.
2. What are the basic forms of business communication?

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS.

Barnett Pearce, (2008), Making Social Worlds: A Business Communication Perspective, Wiley-Blackwell.

MODULE 2

UNIT 1 STUDY SKILLS

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3.1.2 Study methods

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3.2.1 Why do we have problems listening?

3.2.2 Types of Listening

3.2.3 Forms of Non-listening

3.3 Note taking

3.3.1 Systems of Note taking

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/ Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Study skills and study strategies are abilities and approaches applied to learning. They are generally critical to success in school, are considered essential for acquiring good grades, and they are useful for learning throughout one's life, in support of career and personal interests. They include removing distractions, time management and note taking.

Educational institutions often offer student counseling, or provide resources for improving study skills. There are a vast number of resources marketed as study skills. The learning methods offered for sale range from how to manage time, to note taking, to smart drugs and nutrients for improving performance during study

Despite considerable research on subjects dealt with in study manuals, many lack evidence to support their ideas. Some are paternalistic, offering philosophy and advice about personal problems and, as with study skills, advice may be based on the author's own beliefs. For example, an author may offer suggestions for students on dealing with stress without referring to any expert on the subject. Before going into detail on this unit, let us get the objectives of the unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

After studying through this unit, you should be able to:

- List different types of study skills
- Explain study methods
- Understand the note taking process
- Discuss listening processes

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Study skills

3.1.1 Types of study skills

Removing [distractions](#) to improve [concentration](#), and studying in quiet areas [Self motivation](#)

[Reducing stress](#) and [test anxiety](#)

[Time management](#)

- o Scheduling study
 - Balancing between [homework](#) and other activities
- o Avoiding [cramming](#)

Studying when alert

[Collaboration](#)

[Active listening](#)

[Note taking](#)

Completing practice tests

Memorisation

- o Flashcard training
 - o Being quizzed by someone
- Using multiple sources
Avoiding hunger and drowsiness

Using study methods

3.1.2 Study methods

A study method, study system, or study technique, is a formalised learning process or procedure of study. Each is considered a study skill, and each may in turn be comprised of many study skills, combined for effectiveness.

1. The PQRS method

A student studies for his final exams, using the PQRS method. One method used by structured students to keep them on track is the PQRS method. This method prioritises the information in a way that relates directly to how they will be asked to use that information in an exam. The method can also be modified to suit any particular form of learning in most subjects. It allows more accurate timing of work rather than the student having to decide how much time to attribute to a topic. PQRS is an acronym for **P**review, **Q**uestion, **R**ead, **S**ummary, and **T**est.

- i. **Preview:** the student looks at the topic to be learned by glancing over the major headings or the points in the syllabus.
- ii. **Question:** then questions to answer are formulated once the topic has been thoroughly studied.
- iii. **Read:** reference material related to the topic is read through, and the information that best relates to the questions is chosen.
- iv. **Summary:** the student summarizes the topic, bringing his or her own ways of summarizing information into the process, including written notes, spider diagrams, flow diagrams, labeled diagrams, mnemonics, or even voice recordings.
- v. **Test:** then the student answers the questions created in the question step as fully as possible, avoiding adding questions that might distract or change the subject.

2. The Black-Red-Green method

This is a thoroughgoing method [developed through the Royal Literary Fund] which helps the student to ensure that every aspect of the question posed has been considered, both in exams and essays. The student underlines relevant parts of the question using three separate colours (or some equivalent). **BL**ack denotes 'BLAtant instructions', i.e. something that clearly must be done; a directive or obvious instruction. **RE**d is a

REference Point or **RE**quired input of some kind, usually to do with definitions, terms, cited authors, theory, etc. (either explicitly referred to or strongly implied). **GR**een denotes **GR**emlins, which are subtle signals one might easily miss, or a **_GREEN** Light' that gives a hint on how to proceed, or where to place the emphasis in answers

3. Re-writing notes

Re-writing notes is time-consuming, but one of the most effective ways of studying. There are two types of information that can be written over again: notes taken in class, or information out of a text book. Highlighting important information prior to re-writing notes is an effective use of time management.

4. Summary skills

Summary methods should vary depending on the topic. Some methods are better suited to different subjects and tasks, e.g. mnemonics may fare better for learning lists or facts while spider diagrams better for linking concepts.

5. Mnemonics is a method of memorising lists and organising them.

Example: Learning the points of the compass. **Never Eat Shredded Wheat** reminds us not only of the points of the compass but in the order they occur when encountered clockwise.

6. Spider diagrams: Using spider diagrams or mind maps can be an effective way of linking concepts together. They can be useful for planning essays and essay responses in exams.

7. Diagrams: Diagrams are often underrated tools. They can be used to bring all the information together and provide practice reorganising what has been learned in order to produce something practical and useful. They can also aid the recall of information learned very quickly, particularly if the student made the diagram while studying the information. Try buying a notebook with no lines and make a sketch, diagram, or pictogram of the information you have just learned. This could form part of the Summary part of the PQRS method or in any other way. These pictures can then be transferred to flash cards that are very effective last minute revision tools rather than rereading any written material.

8. Flashcards (A5 index cards): These are effective revision tools but students often set out to make them and they become more of a chore. It is much more effective to make cards at the time that you are revising. If these cards are made during the summary part of the PQRS method then are directly associated with what you learned. The cards are less effective when students set out to make them late in a revision cycle merely as tools to look at during the 20-30 minutes before an exam. The cards are indeed useful for last minute reading as they offer nothing new and therefore is more likely to focus on what you know and not alert you to something you don't know so well.

9. Traffic lights

It is a common pitfall in studying to set out to learn everything that you have been taught in an orderly and precise fashion. If time, boredom, and fatigue were not variables that can impact on your studying and even health then this may always be possible. More normally you will have a set amount of time (that doesn't encroach on leisure time for any reason) to learn a set amount of topics. An easy way to separate what is really important to know (likely to constitute the majority of exam marks) from what you would like to know if you had infinite time and energy is the traffic light system.

- i. **Green:** Take a green pen and label or place a star next to everything that is essential to know for your exam. These topics should be studied first and allow you to progress to the less number of amber and red topics. These should generally be the first few on a syllabus and be the easiest concepts to learn but also the easiest to underestimate.
- ii. **Amber:** Take an orange or gold pen and label everything that is neither essential to know or is not too time consuming to learn. This should form the mainstay of your learning and range from topics leading from the green range of topics to ones leading to the red range of topics.
- iii. **Red:** Take a red pen and label everything you would want to know if you had all the time and energy necessary but not at the expense of the essential green topics and desired amber topics. This would include overly complicated ideas and subjects that may add one or two marks but may cost you if you focus all your attention just on knowing the more difficult bits and underestimating the importance of accumulating the green and amber topics first and to a greater extent. A greater focus on green and amber topics may also lead to topics that seemed red to become more amber as time goes on.

The colour system reminds students that it is easier to get moving on green topics, and discourage wasted time on red and amber topics. It reminds students to keep learning in a progressive manner, and not to stagnate when topics become redder in nature owing to tiredness and boredom.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Enumerate different study methods as discussed in this unit.

3.2 LISTENING SKILLS

Listening is the process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken or nonverbal messages.

People can think approximately 500 words per minute.

And the average person speaks 125 - 150 words per minute.

People can give their full attention for approximately 20 seconds.

The average time spent on various communication skills.

53% listening

- 14% writing
- 16% speaking
- 17% reading

3.2.1 WHY DO WE HAVE PROBLEMS LISTENING?

Cognitive Dissonance, a psychological theory that applies to communication, states that a person feels conflict if they hold two or more attitudes that are in opposition to each other. One way people reduce dissonance is by ignoring the conflict that is causing the conflict.

Anxiety-Sometimes we can't listen because our anxiety is too high.

The Controlling Listener-always looks for a way to talk about themselves and what they are thinking about.

The Passive Listener-Exerts little listening effort-listen like a couch potatoes

3.2.2 Types of Listening

Listening for information
Critical listening
Empathic listening
Listening for enjoyment

3.2.3 Forms of Non-listening

Pseudo listening-pretending to listen

Monopolizing-Hogging the stage by continuously focusing communication on ourselves instead of the person who is talking

Selective listening- We screen out the parts that don't interest us. We reject communication that bores us or makes us uncomfortable.

Defensive Listening- Perceiving personal attacks, criticism, or hostile undertones in communication where none is intended.

Ambushing- Listening carefully for the purpose of attacking the other speaker

Literal Listening-Listening only to the content level of meaning and ignoring the relationship level of meaning.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Write a short note on forms of non-listening.

3.3 NOTETAKING

Note taking is the practice of [writing](#) pieces of information, often in an informal or unstructured manner. One major specific type of note taking is the practice of writing in [shorthand](#), which can allow large amounts of information to be put on [paper](#) very quickly. Notes are frequently written in [notebooks](#), though any available piece of paper can suffice in many circumstances—some people are especially fond of [Post-It](#) notes, for instance. Note taking is an important [skill](#) for [students](#), especially at the [college](#) level. Many different forms are used to structure information and make it easier to find later.

3.3.1 Systems of Note taking

1. Cornell Notes

When using the [Cornell note-taking system](#) a column of white space is left to the left side of the notes that are written as they come up. Questions or key words based on the notes are written in the white space after the session has ended. The Cornell method requires no rewriting and yet results in systematic notes.

2. Charting

Charting is creating a graph with symbols, or table with rows and columns. Graphs and flow-charts are useful for documenting a process or event. Tables are useful for facts and values

3. Outlining

While notes can be written freely, many people structure their writing in an [outline](#). A common system consists of [headings](#) that use [Roman numerals](#), letters of the [alphabet](#), and the common [Arabic numeral system](#) at different levels. A typical structure would be:

- I. First main topic
 - A. Subtopic
 - 1. Detail
 - 2. Detail
 - B. Subtopic
- II. Second main topic
 - A. Subtopic

However, this sort of structure has limitations in written form since it is difficult to go back and insert more information. Adaptive systems are used for paper-and-pen insertions, such as using the back side of the preceding page in a spiral to note insertions. It is possible to simply leave large spaces in between. (See [Category:Outliners](#) for more about application software that supports outlining.)

4. Mapping

Here, ideas are written in a [tree structure](#), with lines connecting them together. [Mind maps](#) are commonly drawn with a central point, purpose or goal in the center of the page and then branching outward to identify all the ideas connected to that goal. Colors, small graphics and symbols are often used to help to visualize the information more easily. This note taking method is most common among visual learners and is a core practice of many accelerated learning techniques. It is also used for planning and writing essays.

5. Sentence method

Every new thought is written as a new line. Speed is the most desirable attribute of this method because not much thought about formatting is needed to form the layout and create enough space for more notes. Also, you must number each new thought.

6. SQ3R

[SQ3R](#) is a method for taking notes from written material, though it might be better classed as method of reading and gaining understanding. Material is skimmed to produce a list of headings, which are then converted into questions. These questions are then considered whilst the text is read to provide motivation for what is being covered. Notes are written under sections headed by the questions as each of the material's sections is read. One then makes a summary from memory, and reviews the notes.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Study skills are very important part of knowledge impartation. It helps in mental preparation to learning. In order to acquire proper communication skills, various methods in study skill must be thoroughly mastered. Their suitability for an individual varies but they can achieve the same result where appropriately selected

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have examined study skills as an important aspect of business communication. Discussed under these are: types of study skills, listening skills and note taking skills.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT.

1. List the different types of study skills.
2. What are the methods of note taking?

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

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MODULE 2

UNIT 2 ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Proper understanding of English grammar is a pre-requisite to an effective communication in English language. This unit begins with a search into the knowledge of English grammar and its proper usage in business communication. We will start from the proper understanding of parts of speech. Knowledge of punctuation and sentence formation will be treated in the succeeding units. Before moving further, let us examine the objective of this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Enumerate the different parts of speech.
- Explain the meaning of lexical category.
- Discuss the functions of parts of speech in grammar.
- Describe the usage and mode of each part of speech.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 English Grammar

In [linguistics](#), grammar refers to the [logical](#) and [structural](#) rules that govern the composition of [sentences](#), [phrases](#), and [words](#) in any given [natural language](#). The term refers also to the study of such rules, and this field includes [morphology](#) and [syntax](#), often complemented by [phonetics](#), [phonology](#), [semantics](#), and [pragmatics](#).

Each language has its own distinct grammar. "English grammar" is the set of rules within the English language itself. "An English grammar" is a specific study or analysis of these rules. A fully explicit grammar exhaustively describing the [grammatical](#) constructions of a language is called a descriptive grammar, as opposed to [linguistic prescription](#), which tries to enforce the governing rules of how a language is to be used

3.2 What are Parts of Speech?

All the words in English can be divided into 8, 9 or more groups according to their functions in the language. These groups are traditionally called parts of speech and are today referred to as lexical categories or word classes. The following terms comprise the most basic [grammar](#) terminology every English user must be familiar with in order to understand how language works to create meaning.

It is vital for any English writer to be familiar with the parts of speech in order to have the terminology to study and analyse the language and identify mistakes in writing. Moreover, a word can function as a different part of speech depending on its role in the [sentence structure](#) (the terms of which are also vital for successful writing). This affects the word's meaning and structure, making it important to confirm whether you are using the correct part of speech in the correct position in the sentence.

3.3 Parts of Speech in the English Language

1. The Noun

A **Noun** is a word that names a person (teacher), thing (pencil), animal (cat), place (Paris)

or abstract idea (love). As practically anything in the universe has a name, and as there are many things in the universe, nouns comprise the largest group of words in English (about 65%). Nouns name common everyday objects such as pen, through to general conditions such as friendship, all the way to the most technical terminology for the tiniest part of a jet engine.

Noun names...	Examples
a person	a teacher, a man, Peter, Sonya, a Frenchman, the Queen
a thing	a pencil, a computer, a hamburger, a political party
an animal or plant	a cat, an elephant, a caterpillar, blue algae, pineapple
a place	Paris, home, Africa, church, school, a mountain, airport
an abstract idea	love, freedom, attitude, education, vivaciousness, liberalism

A test for nouns: A good way to identify a noun when a word is in doubt is to ask, **Can I have it?** You can have success but you can't have succeeded. This means success is a noun and succeed is a different part of speech, in this case, a verb.

3.3.1 Types of Nouns

There are many different types of nouns. As you know, you capitalise some nouns, such as "Canada" or "Louise," and do not capitalise others, such as "badger" or "tree" (unless they appear at the beginning of a sentence). In fact, grammarians have developed a whole series of noun types, including the proper noun, the common noun, the concrete noun, the abstract noun, the countable noun (also called the count noun), the non-countable noun (also called the mass noun), and the collective noun. You should note that a noun will belong to more than one type: it will be proper or common, abstract or concrete, and countable or non-countable or collective.

Proper Nouns

You always write a **proper noun** with a capital letter, since the noun represents the name of a specific person, place, or thing. The names of days of the week, months, historical documents, institutions, organisations, religions, their holy texts and their adherents are proper nouns. A proper noun is the opposite of a common noun. For example:

Many people dread **Monday** mornings.

Common Nouns

A **common noun** is a noun referring to a person, place, or thing in a general sense. Usually, you should write it with a capital letter only when it begins a sentence. A common noun is the opposite of a proper noun. For example,

*According to the **sign**, the nearest **town** is 60 **miles** away.*

Sometimes you will make proper nouns out of common nouns, as in the following example.

*Many witches refer to the Renaissance as the Burning **Times***

Concrete Nouns

A **concrete noun** is a noun which names anything (or anyone) that you can perceive through your physical senses: touch, sight, taste, hearing, or smell. A concrete noun is the opposite of an abstract noun. For example,

*The **judge** handed the **files** to the **clerk**.*

Abstract Nouns

An **abstract noun** is a noun which names anything which you can not perceive through your five physical senses, and is the opposite of a concrete noun. For example, *Justice often seems to slip out of our grasp.*

Countable Nouns

A **countable noun** (or **count noun**) is a noun with both a singular and a plural form, and it names anything (or anyone) that you can count. You can make a countable noun plural and attach it to a plural verb in a sentence. Countable nouns are the opposite of non-countable nouns and collective nouns. For example,

*We painted the **table** red and the **chairs** blue.*

Non-Countable Nouns

A **non-countable noun** (or **mass noun**) is a noun which does not have a plural form, and which refers to something that you could (or would) not usually count. A non-countable noun always takes a singular verb in a sentence. Non-countable nouns are similar to collective nouns, and are the opposite of countable nouns. For example, *We decided to sell the **furniture** rather than take it with us when we moved.*

Collective Nouns

A **collective noun** is a noun naming a group of things, animals, or persons. You could count the individual members of the group, but you usually think of the group as a whole is generally as one unit. You need to be able to recognise collective nouns in order to maintain subject-verb agreement. A collective noun is similar to a non-countable noun, and is roughly the opposite of a countable noun. For example:

The **flock** of geese spends most of its time in the pasture.

3.2.2 The Verb

A **verb** is a word that expresses an action (to run), occurrence (to happen), or state of being (to appear). Verbs comprise the third largest group of words in English (about 10%) and appear in any sentence as a major mandatory element tying the [subject and predicate](#) together. Verbs also indicate time (past, present, future) and are used with many [verb tenses](#). The verb can be thought of as the center, heart, or anchor of an English sentence.

Verbs of...	Examples
Action	Tope dances at the studio and performs every Sunday.
occurrence	Occurrence Tope became a professional dancer.

Verbs of...	Examples
state of being	Tope's studio has stood there ever since she was a child.

Tests for verbs: A good way to identify a verb when a word is in doubt is to ask, "**Can I do it?**" I can succeed (do it) is correct but I can success is incorrect. This means succeed is a verb and the related part of speech success is not a verb; in this case, success is a noun.

Objects and Complements

Objects

A [verb](#) may be followed by an **object** that completes the verb's meaning. Two kinds of objects follow verbs: direct objects and indirect objects. To determine if a verb has a **direct object**, isolate the verb and make it into a question by placing "whom?" or "what?" after it. The answer, if there is one, is the direct object:

Direct Object

The advertising executive drove **a flashy red Porsche**.

Direct Object

Her secret admirer gave her **a bouquet of flowers**.

The second [sentence](#) above also contains an **indirect object**. An indirect object (which, like a direct object, is always a [noun](#) or [pronoun](#)) is, in a sense, the recipient of the direct object. To determine if a verb has an indirect object, isolate the verb and ask to whom?, to what?, for whom?, or for what? after it. The answer is the indirect object.

Not all verbs are followed by objects. Consider the verbs in the following sentences:

The guest speaker **rose** from her chair to protest.
After work, Randy usually **jogs** around the canal.

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Verbs that take objects are known as **transitive verbs**. Verbs not followed by objects are called **intransitive verbs**.

Some verbs can be either transitive verbs or intransitive verbs, depending on the context:

Direct Object

I hope the Senators win the next game.

No Direct Object

Did we win?

Subject Complements

In addition to the [transitive verb](#) and the [intransitive verb](#), there is a third kind of verb called a [linking verb](#). The word (or [phrase](#)) which follows a linking verb is called not an object, but a **subject complement**.

The most common linking verb is "be." Other linking verbs are "become," "seem," "appear," "feel," "grow," "look," "smell," "taste," and "sound," among others. Note that some of these are sometimes linking verbs, sometimes transitive verbs, or sometimes intransitive verbs, depending on how you use them:

Linking verb with subject complement

He **was** a radiologist before he **became** a full-time yoga instructor.

Linking verb with subject complement

Your home-made chili **smells** delicious.

Transitive verb with direct object

I can't **smell** anything with this terrible cold.

Intransitive verb with no object

The interior of the beautiful new Buick **smells** strongly of fish.

Note that a subject complement can be either a noun ("radiologist", "instructor") or an [adjective](#) ("delicious").

Object Complements

An **object complement** is similar to a subject complement, except that (obviously) it modifies an object rather than a [subject](#). Consider this example of a subject complement:

The driver seems **tired**.

In this case, as explained above, the adjective "tired" modifies the noun "driver," which is the subject of the sentence.

Sometimes, however, the noun will be the object, as in the following example:

I consider the driver **tired**.

In this case, the noun "driver" is the direct object of the verb "consider," but the adjective "tired" is still acting as its complement.

In general, verbs which have to do with perceiving, judging, or changing something can cause their direct objects to take an object complement:

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Explain the meaning of part of speech and discuss your understanding of noun

3.3.3 The Adjective

An **adjective** is a word that modifies (describes) a noun or pronoun. Adjectives comprise the second largest group of words in English (about 23%). An adjective informs about the qualities and features of people, things or concepts (big, strong, beautiful, and sensitive) and can be considered as an added intensifier or even "decoration" to the required basic sentence elements, adding variety and liveliness. Adjectives can also be expanded into [adjective clauses](#), [which](#) function similarly. In the following examples, the adjectives are underlined and the nouns or pronouns they modify are in bold.

He was happy when he moved to his new **house**.
[the adjective happy modifies the pronoun he, the adjective new modifies the noun house]

A test for adjectives: A good way to identify an adjective when a word is in doubt is to ask about the modified noun, **what kind of (noun) is it?** He is a successful businessman is correct, as successful answers what kind of businessman is he? He is a successfully businessman is incorrect as successfully answers "How" and not "What kind of". This means successful is an adjective and successfully is a different part of speech, in this case, an adverb.

Using the Comparative and Superlative

You should use the **comparative** form of an [adjective](#) or [adverb](#) to compare exactly two things. You can form the comparative by adding the [suffix](#) "-er" to the [modifier](#) (for some short words) or by using the word "more" with the modifier:

Of the two designs, the architect is convinced that the city will select the **more experimental** one. (Comparing two designs)
Now that it is March, the days are getting **longer** (longer now than before).

You should use the **superlative** form to compare three or more things. You can form the superlative by adding the suffix "-est" to the modifier (for some short words) or by using the word "most" with the modifier:

This is definitely the smartest, wittiest, most imaginative comic strip I have ever seen. (implying that I have seen more than two)

3.3.3.1 Types of adjectives

Possessive Adjectives

A **possessive adjective** ("my," "your," "his," "her," "its," "our," "their") is similar or identical to a [possessive pronoun](#); however, it is used as an adjective and modifies a noun or a [noun phrase](#), as in the following sentences:

I can't complete **my** assignment because I don't have the textbook.

In this sentence, the possessive adjective "my" modifies "assignment" and the noun phrase "my assignment" functions as an [object](#). Note that the possessive pronoun form "mine" is not used to modify a noun or noun phrase.

What is **your** phone number?

Here the possessive adjective "your" is used to modify the noun phrase "phone number"; the entire noun phrase "your phone number" is a [subject complement](#). Note that the possessive pronoun form "yours" is not used to modify a noun or a noun phrase.

Demonstrative Adjectives

The **demonstrative adjectives** "this," "these," "that," "those," and "what" are identical to the [demonstrative pronouns](#), but are used as adjectives to modify nouns or noun phrases, as in the following sentences:

When the librarian tripped over **that** cord, she dropped a pile of books.

In this sentence, the demonstrative adjective "that" modifies the noun "cord" and the noun phrase "that cord" is the object of the preposition "over." **This** apartment needs to be fumigated.

Here "this" modifies "apartment" and the noun phrase "this apartment" is the [subject](#) of the sentence.

Note that the relationship between a demonstrative adjective and a demonstrative pronoun is similar to the relationship between a possessive adjective and a possessive pronoun, or to that between an interrogative adjective and an [interrogative pronoun](#).

Interrogative Adjectives

An **interrogative adjective** ("which" or "what") is like an interrogative pronoun, except that it modifies a noun or noun phrase rather than standing on its own (see also demonstrative adjectives and possessive adjectives): **Which** plants should be watered twice a week?

Like other adjectives, "which" can be used to modify a noun or a noun phrase? In this example, "which" modifies –plants and the noun phrase –which plants is the subject of the compound verb –should be watered? **What** book are you reading?

In this sentence, "what" modifies "book" and the noun phrase "what book" is the direct object of the compound verb "are reading."

Indefinite Adjectives

An **indefinite adjective** is similar to an [indefinite pronoun](#), except that it modifies a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase, as in the following sentences: Many people believe that corporations are under-taxed.

The indefinite adjective "many" modifies the noun "people" and the noun phrase "many people" is the subject of the sentence.

I will send you any mail that arrives after you have moved to Sudbury.

The indefinite adjective "any" modifies the noun "mail" and the noun phrase "any mail" is the direct object of the compound verb "will send."

3.3.4 The Adverb

An adverb is a type of word that has many uses in English. It can modify (describe) a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or a whole sentence (composed from at least an independent clause). Adverbs (quickly, here, now, always, very, obviously) can be

considered as added intensifiers or even "decoration" to the required [basic sentence](#) elements, supplementing them with important pieces of information. Adverbs also appear in multi-word phrases and can also be expanded into [adverbial clauses](#) which function similarly. In the following examples, the adverbs are underlined and the elements they modify are in bold.

The new typist **works** quickly and well.

[The adverbs quickly and well modify the verb works]

The new typist is extremely **busy**.

[The adverb extremely modifies the adjective busy]

The new typist works very **quickly**.

[The adverb very modifies the adverb quickly]

Fortunately, **the new typist works well**.

[the adverb fortunately modifies the sentence the new typist works well]

As adverbs add several kinds of information, they can be divided into the following groups of types, each answering the below mentioned questions:

Adverb of	Examples
manner - how?	quietly, happily, sadly, quickly, slowly, clockwise, well
place - where?	away, at home, down, everywhere, round, here, there
time - when?	daily, last week, a year ago, tomorrow, on Sunday, immediately
frequency - how often ?	always, often, usually, sometimes, seldom, never
degree - how much ?	quite, rather, pretty, very, completely, really, hardly, too, just
whole sentence - under what circumstance?	fortunately, unfortunately, luckily, obviously, perhaps, surprisingly

A test for adverbs: A good way to identify an adverb when a word or phrase is in doubt is to ask one of the questions presented in bold in the adverb type table above. If the word or phrase answers the question, then it functions as an adverb.

Conjunctive Adverbs

You can use a **conjunctive adverb** to join two clauses together. Some of the most common conjunctive adverbs are "also," "consequently," "finally," "furthermore," "hence," "however," "incidentally," "indeed," "instead," "likewise," "meanwhile," "nevertheless," "next," "nonetheless," "otherwise," "still," "then," "therefore," and "thus." A conjunctive adverb is not strong enough to join two [independent clauses](#) without the aid of a [semicolon](#). For examples:

- The government has cut university budgets; **consequently**, class sizes have been increased.
- He did not have all the ingredients the recipe called for; **therefore**, he decided to make something else.

3.3.5 The Interjection

An interjection is a word or expression that conveys a strong emotion, such as surprise, joy or disgust. It usually appears in dialogues and informal writing settings, as more formal writing settings, such as academia or [business](#) warrant an objective formal writing style. Interjections are usually used with an [exclamation point](#) (!) or set off with comma. **Wow!** What a game!

Oh, I forgot all about the game last night.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

State and explain the types of adjectives.

3.3.6 The Determiner

A determiner is a word that accompanies a noun or noun phrase and determines whether it is general or specific, its quantity, who it belongs to and more. Determiners are divided into the following groups:

Determine Type	Examples
articles	The teacher asked a student to answer the question.
demonstrative	These students got this grade on the test.
quantifiers	Many got an average grade, some got a pass, and few excelled.
interrogative	What answer was written the best?
numerical	The fourth section in the second test was very easy.
possessive	His grade was lower than her grade.
relative	We know which test was copied.

3.3.7 The Pronoun

A **pronoun** is a word that has replaces a noun or refers to it. Pronouns are divided into the following groups.

Pronoun Type	Examples
personal	I remember her helping us our problems, not yours .
demonstrative	Those are my favourite, but these are good too.
reflexive	They did it themselves . I saw it myself .
interrogative	Who said so?
relative	The man who lives next-door borrowed the book that you lent me.
reciprocal	We like talking to each other .
indefinite	Everybody comes to the party, each and every one .

3.3.8 The Preposition

A **preposition** is a word that conveys relationships between other words, usually in time, place or direction. Prepositions are an integral part of many expressions with verbs and adjectives, and also of idioms. They should always be learned together with the expression they are part of, as their use cannot always be predicted. A [prepositional phrase](#) contains the preposition and the words it modifies.

time	on Sunday, in the summer, at 5 o'clock.
place	under the bed, between you and me, at work, in front of the TV, from home
direction	into the box, over the city, towards the car, away from here

3.3.9 The Conjunction

A **conjunction** is a word that connects other words, phrases and clauses reflecting some

kind of logical relationship between the connected elements (addition, illustration, cause, effect, contrast etc.). Conjunctions connecting two elements of equal weight are coordinating conjunctions, and those which introduce dependent clauses are subordinating conjunctions.

Conjunction Type	Examples
coordinating conjunctions	and, or, but, so, or, nor, for, yet
subordinating conjunctions	because, since, while, after, if, although, whether
correlative conjunctions	not only...but also, either...or, neither...nor, both...and

4.0 CONCLUSION

As this brief explanation shows, parts of speech are the basic building blocks of the English language. If you know the basics, you will be able to understand your writing and develop it further. While we can all be expected to know the rules of English grammar, careful study of the parts of speech can ensure that our use of sentence structure and other grammar points is always correct.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has mainly dealt with the meaning of grammar and part of speech. Various guiding examples were given to broaden your understanding. This unit will greatly help to reduce common mistakes that have hitherto messed up your grammar.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What do you understand by determiners?
2. Explain in detail your knowledge of types of Noun

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

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MODULE 2

UNIT 3 PUNCTUATION IN ENGLISH

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction**
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- 3.0 Main Content**
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Punctuation actually helps the flow of the message being presented in writing form to be meaningful. It helps to know when to stop, when to shout, when to pause for some time etc. a write up that is not well punctuated is likely to lose its meaning. It could however, not connote the intension or message that is being passed across. This is detrimental to effective business communication. Therefore the proper knowledge of punctuation is very important in order to communicate effectively.

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

On completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- List different types of punctuation marks in English.
- Identify the uses of various punctuation marks.
- Explain the wrong use of some punctuation marks.
- Appropriately use all punctuation marks.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Punctuation in English

Punctuation is the system of symbols (.,! - : etc) that we use to separate sentences and parts of sentences, and to make their meaning clear. Each symbol is called a "punctuation mark. The punctuation marks in English language are discussed below

3.1.1 Quotation Marks

The exact rules for **quotation marks** vary greatly from language to language and even from country to country within the English-speaking world. In North American usage, you should place double quotation marks (") before and after directly quoted material and words of dialogue:

One critic ended his glowing review with this superlative: "It is simply the best film ever made about potato farming."
May be replied, "This is the last cookie."

You also use quotation marks to set off certain titles, usually those of minor or short works -- essays, short stories, short poems, songs, articles in periodicals, etc. For titles of longer works and separate publications, you should use italics (or underlined, if italics are not available). Use italics for titles of books, magazines, periodicals, newspapers, films, plays, long poems, long musical works, and television and radio programs.

Once when I was sick, my father read me a story called "The Happy Flower," which was later made into a movie entitled *Flower Child*, starring Tiny Tim.

Sometimes, you will use quotation marks to set off words specifically referred to as terms, though some publishers prefer italics.

I know you like the word "unique," but do you really have to use it ten times in one essay?
"Well" is sometimes a noun, sometimes an adverb, sometimes an adjective and sometimes a verb.

3.1.2 End Punctuation

The [punctuation](#) marks that signal the end of a [sentence](#) are the period, the question mark and the exclamation mark.

You use the **period**, by far the most common of the **end punctuation** marks, to terminate a sentence that makes a statement. You may also use periods with **imperative sentences** that have no sense of urgency or excitement attached:

Without a doubt, Lady Emily was much happier after her divorce.
Turn right at the stop sign.
Bring me a cup of coffee and a slice of bread.

When you want to express a sense of urgency or very strong emotion, you may end your imperative sentences and statements with an **exclamation mark**:

Look out below!

Leave this house at once!
I hate him!

Exclamation marks are, however, rare in formal writing. Use them sparingly, if at all.

You should use the **question mark** at the end of a **direct question**:

Who's on first?
Where is my flowered cape?

Be careful not to use a question mark at the end of an indirect question. Indirect questions are simply statements, and therefore end with a period:

I wonder who was chosen as Harvest King in the county fair.
She asked if she could play volley ball.
The teacher asked who was chewing gum.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

List and Discuss the use of end punctuation marks

3.1.3 The Comma

Comma usage is in some respects a question of personal writing style: some writers use commas liberally, while others prefer to use them sparingly. Most modern North American style guides now recommend using fewer commas rather than more, so when faced with the option of using a comma or not, you may find it wise to refrain.

For instance, the use of a comma before the "and" in a series is usually optional, and many writers choose to eliminate it, provided there is no danger of misreading:

We bought scarves, mittens and sweaters before leaving for Ghana. (Comma unnecessary before "and")
We ate apples, plums, strawberry and paw-paw. (comma needed before "and" for clarity)

Comma Usage

1. Use a comma before a co-ordinating conjunction that joins independent clauses (unless the independent clauses are very short):

I wrapped the fresh fish in three layers of newspaper, but my van still smelled like trout for the next week. (commas with two independent clauses)

She invited him to her party and he accepted. (comma unnecessary with short [clauses](#))

2. Use a comma after an introductory [adverb clause](#) and, often, after an introductory [phrase](#) (unless the phrase is very short):

After the hospital had completed its fund-raising campaign, an anonymous donour contributed an additional N10,000. (after introductory adverb clause)

From the east wall to the west, her cottage measures twenty feet. (after introductory [prepositional phrase](#))

In the bottom drawer you will find some pink spandex tights. (no comma with short, closely related phrase)

3. Use a comma to separate items in a series:

Playing in a band can be exciting, but many people do not realize the hardships involved: constant rehearsals, playing until 2 a.m., handling drunken audience members, and transporting heavy equipment to and from gigs. (the comma preceding "and" is optional unless needed to prevent misreading)

4. Use commas to set off **non-restrictive elements** and other parenthetical elements. A **non-restrictive modifier** is a phrase or clause that does not restrict or limit the meaning of the word it is modifying. It is, in a sense, interrupting material that adds extra information to a [sentence](#). Even though removing the non-restrictive element would result in some loss of meaning, the sentence would still make sense without it. You should usually set off non-restrictive elements with commas:

The people of Haiti, who for decades have lived with grinding poverty and mind-numbing violence, are unfamiliar with the workings of a true democracy.

A **restrictive modifier** is a phrase or clause that limits the meaning of what it modifies and is essential to the basic idea expressed in the sentence. You should not set off **restrictive elements** with commas:

Those residents in Lagos who do not hold secure, well-paying jobs must resent the common portrayal of the city as a land of opportunity.

Note that you can use two other punctuation marks to set off non-restrictive elements or other **parenthetical information**: **parentheses** and [dashes](#). Enclosing parenthetical information in parentheses reduces the importance of that information:

Mr. Mumuni driving record (with one small exception) was exemplary.

5. Placing parenthetical information between dashes has the opposite effect: it emphasises the material:

Mr. Mumuni's driving record -- with one exception -- was exemplary.

Nevertheless, you should usually set off parenthetical information with commas.

Superfluous Commas

Equally important in understanding how to use commas effectively is knowing when not to use them. While this decision is sometimes a matter of personal taste, there are certain instances when you should definitely avoid a comma.

Do not use a comma to separate the [subject](#) from its [predicate](#):

[WRONG] Registering for our fitness programs before September 15, will save you thirty percent of the membership cost.

[RIGHT] Registering for our fitness programs before September 15 will save you thirty percent of the membership cost.

Do not use a comma to separate a [verb](#) from its [object](#) or its [subject complement](#), or a [preposition](#) from its object:

[WRONG] I hope to mail to you before Christmas, a current snapshot of my dog Benji.

She travelled around the world with, a small backpack, a bedroll, a pup tent and a camera.

[RIGHT] I hope to mail to you before Christmas a current snapshot of my dog Benji.

[RIGHT] She travelled around the world with a small backpack, a bedroll, a pup tent and a camera.

Do not misuse a comma after a co-coordinating conjunction:

[WRONG] Sleet fell heavily on the tin roof but, the family was used to the noise and paid it no attention.

[RIGHT] Sleet fell heavily on the tin roof, but the family was used to the noise and paid it no attention.

Do not use commas to set off words and short phrases (especially introductory ones) that are not parenthetical or that are very slightly so:

[WRONG] After dinner, we will play badminton.

[RIGHT] After dinner we will play badminton.

Do not use commas to set off restrictive elements:

[WRONG] The fingers, on his left hand, are bigger than those on his right.
[RIGHT] The fingers on his left hand are bigger than those on his right.

Do not use a comma before the first item or after the last item of a series:

[WRONG] The treasure chest contained, three wigs, some costume jewellery and five thousand Naira in Monopoly money.

[WRONG] You should practice your punches, kicks and foot sweeps, if you want to improve in the martial arts.

[RIGHT] The treasure chest contained three wigs, some costume jewellery and five thousand Naira in Monopoly money.

[RIGHT] You should practice your punches, kicks and foot sweeps if you want to improve in the martial arts.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Explain what you understand by superfluous use of comma

3.1.4 The Dash

As noted in the section on [commas](#), you can use a **dash** at the beginning and end of [parenthetical information](#). Usually, you will use dashes when you want to emphasize the information, but you might also use them if the parenthetical information is too long or abrupt to be set off with commas.

I think you would look fine wearing either the silk blouse -- the one with the blue pattern -- or the angora sweater (abrupt interruption).

The idea of returning to the basics in the classroom -- a notion which, incidentally, has been quietly supported for years by many respected teachers -- is finally gaining some currency with school administrators (lengthy interruption containing internal commas).

You can use a dash to conclude a list of elements, focusing them all toward one point.

Chocolate, cream, honey and peanut butter -- all go into this fabulously rich dessert.

Dashes also mark sharp turns in thought.

We pored over exotic, mouth-watering menus from Aisha Catering, Menu du Jour, Taste Temptations, and three other reputable caterers -- and rejected them all.

3.1.5 The Apostrophe

You should use an **apostrophe** to form the [possessive case](#) of a [noun](#) or to show that you have left out letters in a **contraction**. Note that you should not generally use contractions in formal, academic writing.

The convertible's engine has finally died. (The noun "convertible's" is in the possessive case)
I haven't seen my roommate for two weeks. (The verb "haven't" is a contraction of "have not")

To form the possessive of a [plural](#) noun ending in "s," simply place an apostrophe after the "s."

He has his three sons' futures in mind.
In many suburbs, the houses' designs are too much alike.

[Possessive pronouns](#) -- for example, "hers," "yours," and "theirs" -- do not take apostrophes. This is the case for the possessive pronoun "its" as well: when you write "it's" with an apostrophe, you are writing a contraction for "it is."

The spaceship landed hard, damaging its radar receiver. ("its" is the possessive pronoun)
It's your mother on the phone. ("it's" is the contraction of "it is")

3.1.6 The Colon

Writers often confuse the colon with the [semicolon](#), but their uses are entirely different.

When to Use a Colon

The **colon** focuses the reader's attention on what is to follow, and as a result, you should use it to introduce a list, a summation, or an idea that somehow completes the introductory idea. You may use the colon in this way, however, only after an [independent clause](#):

He visited three cities during his stay in the Maritimes: Halifax, Saint John and Moncton.
Their lobbying efforts were ultimately useless: the bill was soundly defeated.
My mother gave me one good piece of advice: to avoid wasting time and energy worrying about things I cannot change.

When Not to Use a Colon

You should not place a colon between a [verb](#) and its [object](#) or [subject complement](#), or between a [preposition](#) and its object:

[WRONG] His neighbour lent him: a pup-tent, a wooden canoe, and a slightly battered Coleman stove (colon between verb and objects).

[RIGHT] His neighbour lent him a pup-tent, a wooden canoe, and a slightly battered Coleman stove.

[WRONG] Her three goals are: to improve her public speaking skills, to increase her self-confidence and to sharpen her sales techniques (colon between verb and subject complement).

[RIGHT] Her three goals are to improve her public speaking skills, to increase her self-confidence and to sharpen her sales techniques.

[WRONG] We travelled to: London, Wales and Angola (colon between preposition and objects).

[RIGHT] We travelled to South Africa, Ghana and Angola.

3.1.7 The Semicolon

You will usually use the **semicolon** to link [independent clauses](#) not joined by a [coordinating conjunction](#). Semicolons should join only those independent clauses that are closely related in meaning.

Abdominal exercises help prevent back pain; proper posture is also important.

The auditors made six recommendations; however, only one has been adopted so far.

Do not use a semicolon to link a [dependent clause](#) or a [phrase](#) to an independent clause.

[WRONG] Although gaining and maintaining a high level of physical fitness takes a good deal of time; the effort pays off in the long run.

[RIGHT] Although gaining and maintaining a high level of physical fitness takes a good deal of time, the effort pays off in the long run.

Generally, you should not place a semicolon before a co-coordinating conjunction that links two independent clauses. The only exception to this guideline is if the two independent clauses are very long and already contain a number of [commas](#).

[WRONG] The economy has been sluggish for four years now; but some signs of improvement are finally beginning to show.

[RIGHT] The economy has been sluggish for four years now, but some signs of improvement are finally beginning to show.

It may be useful to remember that, for the most part, you should use a semicolon only where you could also use a [period](#).

There is one exception to this guideline. When punctuating a list or a series of elements in which one or more of the elements contains an internal comma, you should use semicolons instead of commas to separate the elements from one another:

Henry's mother believes three things: that every situation, no matter how grim, will be happily resolved; that no one knows more about human nature than she; and that Henry, who is thirty-five years old, will never be able to do his own laundry.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Now writing process will be a lot better with the thorough knowledge of punctuation in English grammar. Common mistakes and confusion in use of punctuation marks are expected to be corrected and it could be misleading and detrimental.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we discussed various punctuation marks and their usage in writing process. Examples were given for deeper understanding

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Write a short note on seven punctuation marks.
2. State the difference in use of colon and semi-colon.

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

Ladefoged, Peter & Ian Maddieson (1996). The function of punctuation in English languages. Oxford: Blackwells

MODULE 2

UNIT 4 SENTENCE FORMATION

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- 2.0 Objectives**
- 3.0 Main Content**
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 - 3.1.1 The Function of Phrases**
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

This is the final part of the study of English grammar. This unit deals with sentence formation and its usage. Sentence is the building block of a proper composition. Therefore its knowledge will go a long way in determining how good a composition will be. Because of its importance to achieving a desirable communication process, the unit will start with explanations on phrase, clause and the sentence. Various examples will be given to back the explanations up

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

On completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- Discuss what is meant by phrase, clause and sentence.
- Describe the functions of phrase, clause and sentence.
- Explain different structures of sentences.
- Write logical and coherent paragraphs.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Phrases

A phrase is a group of two or more grammatically linked words without a [subject](#) and [predicate](#) -- a group of grammatically-linked words with a subject and predicate is called [a clause](#).

The group "teacher both students and" is not a phrase because the words have no grammatical relationship to one another. Similarly, the group "bay the across" is not a phrase.

In both cases, the words need to be rearranged in order to create phrases. The group "both teachers and students" and the group "across the bay" are both phrases.

You use a phrase to add information to a [sentence](#) and can perform the functions of a subject, an [object](#), a [subject](#) or [object complement](#), a [verb](#), an [adjective](#), or an [adverb](#).

The highlighted words in each of the following sentences make up a phrase:

She bought some spinach when she went **to the corner store**.
Lightning flashed brightly **in the night sky**.

3.1.1 The Function Of Phrases

A [phrase](#) may function as a [verb](#), [noun](#), an [adverb](#), or an [adjective](#).

Verb Phrases

A **verb phrase** consists of a verb, its [direct](#) and/or [indirect objects](#), and any adverb, adverb phrases, or [adverb clauses](#) which happen to modify it. The [predicate](#) of a [clause](#) or [sentence](#) is always a verb phrase:

Chinwe **is trying to decide whether she wants to go to a medical school or to go to a law school**.

He **did not have all the ingredients the recipe called for**; therefore, he **decided to make something else**.

After she **had learned to drive**, Alice **felt more independent**.

We **will meet at the library at 3:30 p.m.**

Noun Phrases

A **noun phrase** consists of a [pronoun](#) or noun with any associated [modifiers](#), including adjectives, adjective phrases, [adjective clauses](#), and other nouns in the [possessive case](#).

Like a noun, a noun phrase can act as a [subject](#), as the [object](#) of a verb or [verbal](#), as a [subject](#) or [object complement](#), or as the object of a [preposition](#), as in the following examples:

Subject

Small children often insist that they can do it by themselves.

Object of a verb

To read quickly and accurately is **Seyi's goal**.

Adjective Phrases

An **adjective phrase** is any phrase which modifies a noun or pronoun. You often construct adjective phrases using [participles](#) or prepositions together with their objects:

I was driven mad by the sound **of my neighbour's constant piano practising**.

In this sentence, the **prepositional phrase** "of my neighbour's constant piano practising" acts as an adjective modifying the noun "sound."

Adverb Phrases

A prepositional phrase can also be an **adverb phrase**, functioning as an adverb, as in the following sentences.

She bought some spinach when she went to the corner store.

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase "to the corner store" acts as an adverb modifying the verb "went."

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

State and explain the different types of phrase.

3.2 Clauses

A **clause** is a collection of grammatically-related words including a [predicate](#) and a [subject](#) (though sometimes the subject is implied). A collection of grammatically-related words without a subject or without a predicate is called a [phrase](#).

Clauses are the building blocks of [sentences](#): every sentence consists of one or more clauses. This chapter will help you to recognise and (more importantly) to use different types of clauses in your own writing.

Using Clauses as Nouns, Adjectives, and Adverbs

If a [clause](#) can stand alone as a [sentence](#), it is an **independent clause**, as in the following example:

Independent

The President is in Lokoja.

Some clauses, however, cannot stand alone as sentences: in this case, they are **dependent clauses** or **subordinate clauses**. Consider the same clause with the [subordinating conjunction](#) "because" added to the beginning:

Dependent

When the President is in Lokoja

In this case, the clause could not be a sentence by itself, since the [conjunction](#) "because" suggests that the clause is providing an explanation for something else. Since this dependent clause answers the question "when," just like an [adverb](#), it is called a **dependent adverb clause** (or simply an adverb clause, since adverb clauses are always dependent clauses). Note how the clause can replace the adverb "tomorrow" in the following examples:

adverb

The committee will meet **tomorrow**.

adverb clause

The committee will meet **when the President is in Lokoja**.

Dependent clauses can stand not only for adverbs, but also for [nouns](#) and for [adjectives](#).

Noun Clauses

A **noun clause** is an entire clause which takes the place of a noun in another clause or [phrase](#). Like a noun, a noun clause acts as the [subject](#) or [object](#) of a [verb](#) or the object of a [preposition](#), [answering](#) the questions "who(m)?" or "what?". Consider the following examples:

noun

I know **Latin**.

noun clause

I know **that Latin is no longer spoken as a native language**.

In the first example, the noun "Latin" acts as the [direct object](#) of the verb "know." In the second example, the entire clause "that Latin ..." is the direct object.

In fact, many noun clauses are [indirect questions](#):

noun

Their **destination** is unknown.

noun clause

Where they are going is unknown.

The question "Where are they going?," with a slight change in the word order, becomes a noun clause when used as part of a larger unit -- like the noun "destination," the clause is the subject of the verb "is."

Adjective Clauses

An **adjective clause** is a dependent clause which takes the place of an adjective in another clause or phrase. Like an adjective, an adjective clause modifies a noun or [pronoun](#), [answering](#) questions like "which?" or "what kind of?" Consider the following examples:

Adjective

the **red** coat

Adjective clause

the coat **which I bought yesterday**

Like the word "red" in the first example, the dependent clause "which I bought yesterday" in the second example modifies the noun "coat." Note that an adjective clause usually comes after what it modifies, while an adjective usually comes before.

In formal writing, an adjective clause begins with the [relative pronouns](#) "who(m)," "that," or "which." In informal writing or speech, you may leave out the relative pronoun when it is not the subject of the adjective clause, but you should usually include the relative pronoun in formal, academic writing:

informal

The books people read were mainly religious.

formal

The books **that** people read were mainly religious.

Adverb Clauses

An **adverb clause** is a dependent clause which takes the place of an adverb in another clause or phrase. An adverb clause answers questions such as "when?", "where?", "why?", "with what goal/result?", and "under what conditions?".

Note how an adverb clause can replace an adverb in the following example:

adverb

The Governor gave a speech **here**.

adverb clause

The Governor gave a speech **where the workers were striking**.

Usually, a subordinating conjunction like "because," "when(ever)," "where(ever)," "since," "after," and "so that," will introduce an adverb clause. Note that a dependent adverb clause can never stand alone as a complete sentence:

independent clause

they left the locker room.

dependent adverb clause

after they left the locker room.

The first example can easily stand alone as a sentence, but the second cannot -- the reader will ask what happened "after they left the locker room". Here are some more examples of adverb clauses expressing the relationships of cause, effect, space, time, and condition:

cause

Isah wanted to kill his uncle **because the uncle had murdered Isah 's father**.

The adverb clause answers the question "why?"

effect

Isah wanted to kill his uncle **so that his father's murder would be avenged**.

The adverb clause answers the question "with what goal/result?"

time

After Isah's uncle Emeka married Isah's mother, Isah wanted to kill him.

The adverb clause answers the question "when?". Note the change in word order -- an adverb clause can often appear either before or after the main part of the sentence.

place

Where the whole Ikoyi court was assembled, Isah ordered a play in an attempt to prove his uncle's guilt.

The adverb clause answers the question "where?".

condition

If the Libya co-operate, the Africans may achieve monetary union.

The adverb clause answers the question "under what conditions?"

Recognising Clauses

Consider these examples:

clause

cows eat grass

This example is a [clause](#), because it contains the [subject](#) "cows" and the [predicate](#) "eat grass."

phrase

cows eating grass

What about "cows eating grass"? This [noun phrase](#) could be a subject, but it has no predicate attached to it: the [adjective phrase](#) "eating grass" show which cows the writer is referring to, but there is nothing here to show why the writer is mentioning cows in the first place.

clause

cows eating grass are visible from the highway

This is a complete clause again. The subject "cows eating grass" and the predicate "are visible from the highway" make up a complete thought.

clause

Run!

This single-word command is also a clause, even though it does seem to have a subject. With a direct command, it is not necessary to include the subject, since it is obviously the person or people you are talking to: in other words, the clause really reads "[You] run!". You should not usually use direct commands in your essays, except in quotations.

3.3 Sentence

In [linguistics](#), a **sentence** is an [expression](#) in [natural language](#)—a [grammatical](#) and [lexical](#) unit consisting of one or more [words](#), representing distinct and differentiated [concepts](#), and combined to form a meaningful [statement](#), [question](#), [request](#), [command](#), etc.

As with all [language](#) expressions, sentences contain both [semantic](#) and [logical](#) elements (words, [parts of speech](#)), and also include action symbols that indicate sentence starts, stops, pauses, etc. In addition, sentences also contain properties distinct to natural language, such as characteristic intonation and timing patterns.

Classification

By structure

One traditional scheme for classifying [English](#) sentences is by the number and types of [finite clauses](#):

A [simple sentence](#) consists of a single [independent clause](#) with no [dependent clauses](#).

A [compound sentence](#) consists of multiple independent clauses with no dependent clauses. These clauses are joined together using [conjunctions](#), [punctuation](#), or both.

A [complex sentence](#) consists of one or more independent clauses with at least one dependent clause.

A [complex-compound sentence](#) (or compound-complex sentence) consists of multiple independent clauses, at least one of which has at least one dependent clause.

By purpose

Sentences can also be classified based on their purpose.

A declarative sentence or declaration, the most common type, commonly makes a statement: I am going home.

A negative sentence or [negation](#) denies that a statement is true: I am not going home.

An interrogative sentence or [question](#) is commonly used to request information — when are you going to work? — but sometimes not; see [rhetorical question](#).

An exclamatory sentence or [exclamation](#) is generally a more emphatic form of statement: What a wonderful day this is!

An imperative sentence or command tells someone to do something: Go to work at 7:30 tomorrow morning.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Explain in detail, the different use of clauses.

3.3.1 The Structure of a Sentence.

Remember that every [clause](#) is, in a sense, a miniature [sentence](#). A simple sentence contains only a single clause, while a compound sentence, a complex sentence, or a compound-complex sentence contains at least two clauses.

1. The Simple Sentence

The most basic type of sentence is the **simple sentence**, which contains only one clause. A simple sentence can be as short as one word:

Run!

Usually, however, the sentence has a subject as well as a predicate and both the subject and the predicate may have modifiers. The following are simple sentences, because each contains only one clause:

Melt!

Ice **melts**.

The ice **melts** quickly.

As you can see, a simple sentence can be quite long -- it is a mistake to think that you can tell a simple sentence from a compound sentence or a complex sentence simply by its length.

The most natural sentence structure is the simple sentence: it is the first kind which children learn to speak, and it remains by far the most common sentence in the spoken language of people of all ages. In written work, simple sentences can be very effective for grabbing a reader's attention or for summing up an argument, but you have to use them with care: too many simple sentences can make your writing seem childish.

When you do use simple sentences, you should add transitional phrases to connect them to the surrounding sentences.

2. The Compound Sentence

A **compound sentence** consists of two or more independent clauses (or simple sentences) joined by co-ordinating conjunctions like "and," "but," and "or":

Simple

Canada is a rich country.

Simple

Still, it has many poor people.

Compound

Canada is a rich country, **but** still it has many poor people.

Compound sentences are very natural for English speakers -- small children learn to use them early on to connect their ideas and to avoid pausing (and allowing an adult to interrupt):

Today at school Mr. Oseka brought in his pet rabbit, and he showed it to the class, and I got to pet it, and Funke held it, and we coloured pictures of it, and it ate part of my carrot at lunch, and ...

Of course, this is an extreme example, but if you over-use compound sentences in written work, your writing might seem immature.

A compound sentence is most effective when you use it to create a sense of balance or contrast between two (or more) equally-important pieces of information:

Abuja has better clubs, but Lagos has better cinemas.

3. The Complex Sentence

A **complex sentence** contains one independent clause and at least one [dependent clause](#). Unlike a compound sentence, however, a complex sentence contains clauses which are not equal. Consider the following examples:

Simple

My friend invited me to a party. I do not want to go.

Compound

My friend invited me to a party, but I do not want to go.

Complex

Although my friend invited me to a party, I do not want to go.

In the first example, there are two separate simple sentences: "My friend invited me to a party" and "I do not want to go." The second example joins them together into a single sentence with the co-ordinating conjunction "but," but both parts could still stand as independent sentences -- they are entirely equal, and the reader cannot tell which is most important. In the third example, however, the sentence has changed quite a bit: the first clause, "Although my friend invited me to a party," has become incomplete, or a dependent clause.

A complex sentence is very different from a simple sentence or a compound sentence because it makes clear which ideas are most important. When you write

My friend invited me to a party. I do not want to go.

or even

My friend invited me to a party, but I do not want to go.

The reader will have trouble knowing which piece of information is most important to you. When you write the [subordinating conjunction](#) "although" at the beginning of the first clause, however, you make it clear that the fact that your friend invited you is less important than, or **subordinate**, to the fact that you do not want to go.

Subject and Predicate

Every complete **sentence** contains two parts: a **subject** and a **predicate**. The subject is what (or whom) the sentence is about, while the predicate tells something about the subject. In the following sentences, the predicate is enclosed in braces ({}), while the subject is **highlighted**.

Nana {runs}.

Nana and her dog {run on the beach every morning}.

To determine the subject of a sentence, first isolate the [verb](#) and then make a question by placing "who?" or "what?" before it -- the answer is the subject.

The audience littered the theatre floor with torn wrappings and spilled popcorn.

The verb in the above sentence is "littered." Who or what littered? The audience did. "The audience" is the subject of the sentence. The predicate (which always includes the verb) goes on to relate something about the subject: what about the audience? It "littered the theatre floor with torn wrappings and spilled popcorn."

Unusual Sentences

[Imperative sentences](#) (sentences that give a command or an order) differ from conventional sentences in that their subject, which is always "you," is understood rather than expressed.

Stand on your head. ("You" is understood before "stand.")

Be careful with sentences that begin with "there" plus a form of the verb "to be." In such sentences, "there" is not the subject; it merely signals that the true subject will soon follow.

There were **three stray kittens** cowering under our porch steps this morning.

If you ask who? or what? before the verb ("were cowering"), the answer is "three stray kittens," the correct subject.

Simple Subject and Simple Predicate

Every subject is built around one [noun](#) or [pronoun](#) (or more) that, when stripped of all the words that modify it, is known as the **simple subject**. Consider the following example:

A **piece** of meat pie would satisfy his hunger.

The subject is built around the noun "piece," with the other words of the subject -- "a" and "of meat pie " -- modifying the noun. "Piece" is the simple subject.

Likewise, a predicate has at its centre a **simple predicate**, which is always the verb or verbs that link up with the subject. In the example we just considered, the simple predicate is "would satisfy" -- in other words, the verb of the sentence.

A sentence may have a **compound subject** -- a simple subject consisting of more than one noun or pronoun -- as in these examples:

Team **pennants**, rock **posters** and family **photographs** covered the boy's bedroom walls.

3.4 Writing Paragraphs

A **thesis** is a single, focused argument, and most **paragraphs** prove or demonstrate a thesis through explanations, examples and concrete details. This chapter will help you learn how to write and analyse the types of paragraphs common in academic essays.

Dividing your Argument

Starting a new [paragraph](#) is a signal to your reader that you are beginning a new thought or taking up a new point. Since your [outline](#) will help you divide the essay into sections, the resulting paragraphs must correspond to the logical divisions in the essay. If your paragraphs are too long, divide your material into smaller, more manageable units; if they're too short, find broader [topic sentences](#) that will allow you to combine some of your ideas.

Look at the list of [sentences](#) below:

In preparation for study some students apportion a negligible period of time to clearing off a desk, a table, a floor; others must scrub all surfaces and clean all toilet bowls within 50 meters before the distraction of dirt disappears. Some eat or pace while they work.

Some work with deep concentration, others more fitfully.

Students might smoke, or chew their nails, or stare blankly at walls or at computer screens.

If asked what space is reserved for learning, many students would suggest the classroom, the lab or the library.

The kitchen and the bedroom function as study spaces.

Some people need to engage in sports or other physical activity before they can work successfully.

Being sedentary seems to inspire others.

Although most classes are scheduled between 8:30 and 22:00, some students do their best work before the sun rises, some after it sets.

Some need a less flexible schedule than others, while a very few can sit and not rise until their task is completed.

Some students work quickly and efficiently, while others cannot produce anything without much dust and heat.

Were these sentences simply combined they would yield nothing but a long list of facts, not obviously related to one another, except that they all refer to students and the way we study. There is too much information here to include in one paragraph. The solution is to develop two topic sentences under which all (or most) of the above information will fit.

For most students the process of studying involves establishing a complex set of rituals which come to be repeated, with little variation, every time a task is assigned by a professor.

If we add the first five sentences to this topic sentence we have a unified but general description of the types of "rituals" or study patterns which are such an important part of academic life.

For most students the process of studying involves establishing a complex set of rituals which come to be repeated, with little variation, every time a task is assigned by a professor. In preparation for study some students apportion a negligible period of time to clearing off a desk, a table, a floor; others must scrub all surfaces and clean all toilet bowls within 50 meters before the distraction of dirt disappears. Some eat or pace while they work. Some work with deep concentration, others more fitfully. Students might smoke, or chew their nails, or stare blankly at walls or at computer screens.

The rest of the sentences are more specific. They concern the distribution of individual time, space and effort, and relate the rituals involved in study to those less commonly associated with school. A topic sentence might look something like this:

Work tends, therefore, to be associated with non-work-specific environments, activities, and schedules. If asked what space is reserved for learning, many students would suggest the classroom, the lab or the library. What about the kitchen? The bedroom? In fact, any room in which a student habitually studies becomes a learning space, or a place associated with thinking. Some people need to engage in sports or other physical activity before they can work successfully. Being sedentary seems to inspire others. Although most classes are scheduled between 8:30 and 22:00, some students do their best work before the sun rises, some after it sets. Some need a less flexible schedule than others, while a very few can sit and not rise until their task is completed. Some students work quickly and efficiently, while others cannot produce anything without much dust and heat.

Some organisations and a couple of topic sentences have transformed a long and undifferentiated listing of student activities into two unified paragraphs with a logical division between them.

3.4.1 Writing Topic Sentences

A **topic sentence** (also known as a **focus sentence**) encapsulates or organises an entire [paragraph](#), and you should be careful to include one in most of your major paragraphs. Although topic sentences may appear anywhere in a paragraph, in academic essays they often appear at the beginning.

It might be helpful to think of a topic sentence as working in two directions simultaneously. It relates the paragraph to the essay's [thesis](#), and thereby acts as a signpost for the argument of the paper as a whole, but it also defines the scope of the paragraph itself. For example, consider the following topic sentence:

Many fast-food chains make their profits from adding a special ingredient called "forget sauce" to their foods.

If this [sentence](#) controls the paragraph that follows, then all sentences in the paragraph must relate in some way to fast food, profit, and "forget sauce":

Made largely from edible oil products, this condiment is never listed on the menu.

This sentence fits in with the topic sentence because it is a description of the composition of "forget sauce."

In addition, this well-kept industry secret is the reason why ingredients are never listed on the packaging of victuals sold by these restaurants.

The transitional phrase "In addition" relates the composition of "forget sauce" to secret fast-food industry practices.

"Forget sauce" has a chemical property which causes temporary amnesia in consumers.

Now the paragraph moves on to the short-term effect on consumers:

After spending too much money on barely edible food bereft of any nutritional value, most consumers swear they will never repeat such a disagreeable experience.

This sentence describes its longer-term effects:

Within a short period, however, the chemical in "forget sauce" takes effect, and they can be depended upon to return and spend, older but no wiser.

Finally, I finish the paragraph by "proving" the claim contained in the topic sentence, that many fast-food chains make their profits from adding a special ingredient called "forget sauce" to their foods.

3.4.2 Analysing a Topic Sentence

Topic sentences often act like tiny [thesis statements](#). Like a thesis statement, a topic sentence makes a claim of some sort. As the thesis statement is the unifying force in the essay, so the topic sentence must be the unifying force in the paragraph. Further, as is the case with the thesis statement, when the topic sentence makes a claim, the paragraph which follows must expand, describe, or prove it in some way. Topic sentences make a point and give reasons or examples to support it.

Consider the last paragraph about topic sentences, beginning with the topic sentence itself:

Topic sentences often act like tiny thesis statements.

This is my **claim**, or the point I will prove in the following paragraph. All the sentences that follow this topic sentence must relate to it in some way.

Like a thesis statement, a topic sentence makes a claim of some sort. As the thesis statement is the unifying force in the essay, so the topic sentence must be the unifying force in the paragraph.

These two sentences show how the reader can compare thesis statements and topic sentences: they both make a claim and they both provide a focus for the writing which follows.

Further, as is the case with the thesis statement, when the topic sentence makes a claim, the paragraph which follows must expand, describe, or prove it in some way.

Using the transitional word "further" to relate this sentence to those preceding it, I expand on my topic sentence by suggesting ways a topic sentence is related to the sentences that follow it.

Topic sentences make a point and give reasons or examples to support it.

Finally, I wrap up the paragraph by stating exactly how topic sentences act rather like tiny thesis statements.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Owing to the importance of sentence formation in English communication, this unit has thoroughly explained the various building blocks towards sentence formation. Therefore it is expected that communication knowledge in English language will be a lot more

explicit. The right combination and positioning of words should be achieved towards getting to grammatically correct sentences.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, the following topics were explained

- Phrase and its composition
- Clause and its composition
- Sentence formation
- Paragraph and its formation

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Differentiate between main clause and subordinate clause
2. Explain the similarity between a clause and sentence

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

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MODULE 3

UNIT 1 ORAL ENGLISH COMMUNICATION SKILLS

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- 3.0 Main Content**
 - 3.1 Phonetics**
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 - 3.3.3 Why is Word Stress Important?**
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Another very important aspect of communication skill in English language is phonetics. Proper pronunciation of words is important in fostering understanding between the parties that are communicating. Therefore, knowledge of phonetics is needed for effective business communication skills. This unit will explain more about English phonetic.

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

On completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain what English phonetics is.
- Discuss word stress in English phonetics.
- Explain what is called syllable in oral English communication.
- Describe sentence stress and the meaning of homophones.

Know the expectation from interviewee by the interviewer

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Phonetics

Phonetics is the [science](#) of the [sounds](#) of human [speech](#). Phonetic theory regards the nature of sounds in speech (called [phones](#)) and how they are made, heard and thought of. [Phonology](#), which came from it, studies sound systems and sound units (such as [phonemes](#) and [distinctive features](#)). Phonetics is one of the two parts of [orthographical linguistics](#), the other part being [spelling](#), differing from [grammar](#) and [lexis](#).

3.2 English is not Phonetic

Always remember that English is not "phonetic". That means that we do not always say a word the same way that we spell it.

Some words can have the **same spelling** but **different pronunciation**, for example:

I like to [read](#) [ri:d].
I have [read](#) [red] that book.

Some words have **different spelling** but the **same pronunciation**, for example:

I have [read](#) [red] that book.
My favourite colour is [red](#) [red].

Learn the 52 Sounds of English

The English language may have 26 letters of the alphabet, but it has double that number of sounds: 52. Knowing and recognizing the 52 sounds will help to give you good pronunciation. Of course, everybody knows that good pronunciation helps our speaking. But do you know that good pronunciation also helps our **listening**?

3.3 Word Stress in English

Word stress is your **magic key** to understanding spoken English. Native speakers of English use word stress naturally. Word stress is so natural for them that they don't even know they use it. Non-native speakers, who speak English to native speakers without using word stress, encounter two problems:

1. They find it difficult to understand native speakers, especially those speaking fast.
2. The native speakers may find it difficult to understand them.

In this lesson we look at the most important aspects of word stress, which are

[Understanding Syllables for Word Stress](#)
[What is Word Stress?](#)

[Why is Word Stress Important?](#)
[Where do I Put Word Stress?](#)
[Word Stress Rules](#) [Word Stress](#)
[Quiz](#)

3.3.1 Understanding Syllables

To understand word stress, it helps to understand **syllables**.
 Every word is made from syllables.
 Each word has one, two, three or more syllables.




Word		number of syllables
dog	Dog	1
green	Green	1
quite	Quite	1
quiet	qui-et	2
orange	or-ange	2
table	ta-ble	2
expensive	ex-pen-sive	3
interesting	in-ter-est-ing	4
realistic	re-al-is-tic	4
unexceptional	un-ex-cep-tion-al	5

Notice that (with a few rare exceptions) every syllable contains at least one **vowel** (a, e, i, o or u) or **vowel sound**.

3.3.2 What is Word Stress?

In English, we do not say each syllable with the same force or strength. In one word, we accentuate ONE syllable. We say **one** syllable very **loudly** (big, strong, important) and **all the other syllables** very **quietly**.

Let's take 3 words: **photograph**, **photographer** and **photographic**. Do they sound the same when spoken? No. Because we accentuate (stress) ONE syllable in each word. And it is not always the same syllable. So the **shape** of each word is different.

click word to hear🔊	Shape	total syllables	stressed syllable
<u>PHO</u> TO GRAPH		3	#1
PHO <u>TO</u> GRAPH ER		4	#2
PHO TO <u>GRAPH</u> IC		4	#3

This happens in ALL words with 2 or more syllables: TEACHer, JaPAN, CHINa, aBOVE, converSAtion, INteresting, imPORtant, deMAND, etCETera, etCETera, etCETera

The syllables that are not stressed are **weak** or **small** or **quiet**. Native speakers of English listen for the STRESSED syllables, not the weak syllables. If you use word stress in your speech, you will instantly and automatically improve your pronunciation **and your comprehension**.

Try to hear the stress in individual words each time you listen to English - on the radio, or in films for example. Your first step is to HEAR and recognise it. After that, you can USE it!

There are two very important rules about word stress:

1. **One word, one stress.** (One word cannot have two stresses. So if you hear two stresses, you have heard two words, not one word.)
2. **The stress is always on a vowel.**

3.3.3 Why is Word Stress Important?

Word stress is not used in all languages. Some languages, Japanese or French for example, pronounce each syllable with eq-ual em-pha-sis.

Other languages, English for example, use word stress.

Word stress is not an optional extra that you can add to the English language if you want. It is **part of the language**! English speakers use word stress to communicate rapidly and accurately, even in difficult conditions. If, for example, you do not hear a word clearly, you can still understand the word because of the position of the stress.

Think again about the two words **photograph** and **photographer**. Now imagine that you are speaking to somebody by telephone over a very bad line. You cannot hear clearly. In fact, you hear only the first two syllables of one of these words, **photo...** Which word is

it, photograph or photographer? Of course, with word stress you will know immediately which word it is because in reality you will hear either **PHO**to... or pho**TO**... So without hearing the whole word, you probably know what the word is (**PHO**to...**graph** or pho**TO**...**grapher**). It's magic! (Of course, you also have the 'context' of your conversation to help you.)

This is a simple example of how word stress helps us to understand English. There are many, many other examples, because we use word stress all the time, without thinking about it.



SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What do you understand by word stress in English phonetics?

3.3.4 Where do I Put Word Stress?

There are some [rules](#) about which syllable to stress. But...the rules are rather complicated! Probably the best way to learn is from experience. Listen carefully to spoken English and try to develop a feeling for the "music" of the language.

When you learn a new word, you should also learn its stress pattern. If you keep a vocabulary book, make a note to show which syllable is stressed. If you do not know, you can look in a dictionary. All dictionaries give the phonetic spelling of a word. This is where they show which syllable is stressed, usually with an apostrophe (') just **before** or just **after** the stressed syllable. (The notes at the front of the dictionary will explain the system used.) Look at (and listen to) this example for the word **plastic**. There are 2 syllables. Syllable #1 is stressed.

example	phonetic spelling: dictionary A	phonetic spelling: dictionary B
<u>PLAS</u> TIC		
	/plæs'tlk/	/'plæs tlk/

3.3.5 Rules of Word Stress in English

There are two very simple rules about word stress:

1. **One word has only one stress.** (One word cannot have two stresses. If you hear two stresses, you hear two words. Two stresses cannot be one word. It is true that there can be a "secondary" stress in some words. But a secondary stress is much smaller than the main [primary] stress, and is only used in long words.)

2. We can only stress vowels, not consonants.

Here are some more, rather complicated, rules that can help you understand where to put the stress. But do not rely on them too much, because there are many exceptions. It is better to try to "feel" the music of the language and to add the stress naturally.

1 Stress on first syllable

Rule	Example
Most 2-syllable nouns	PRESent, EXport, CHIna, TAbLe
Most 2-syllable adjectives	PRESent, SLENDER, CLEVer, HAPpy

2 Stress on last syllable

Rule	Example
Most 2-syllable verbs	to preSENT, to exPORT, to deCIDE, to beGIN

There are many two-syllable words in English whose meaning and class change with a change in stress. The word **present**, for example is a two-syllable word. If we stress the first syllable, it is a noun (gift) or an adjective (opposite of absent). But if we stress the second syllable, it becomes a verb (to offer). More examples: the words **export**, **import**, **contract** and **object** can all be nouns or verbs depending on whether the stress is on the first or second syllable.

3 Stress on penultimate syllable (penultimate = second from end)

Rule	Example
Words ending in -ic	GRAPHic, geoGRAPHic, geoLOGic
Words ending in -sion and -tion	teleVIsion, revelation

For a few words, native English speakers don't always "agree" on where to put the stress. For example, some people say **teleVIsion** and others say **TELevision**. Another example is: **CONTrovery** and **conTROversy**.

4 Stress on ante-penultimate syllable (ante-penultimate = third from end)

Rule	Example
Words ending in -cy , -ty , -phy and -gy	deMOcracy, dependaBility, phoTOgraphy, geology
Words ending in -al	CRItical, geoLOGical

5 Compound words (words with two parts)

Rule	example
For compound nouns , the stress is on the first part	BLACKbird, GREENhouse
For compound adjectives , the stress is on the second part	bad-TEMpered, old-FASHioned
For compound verbs , the stress is on the second part	to underSTAND, to overFLOW

3.4 Sentence Stress in English

Sentence stress is the music of spoken English. Like [word stress](#), sentence stress can help you to understand spoken English, especially when spoken fast.

Sentence stress is what gives English its **rhythm** or "beat". You remember that word stress is accent on **one syllable** within a **word**. Sentence stress is accent on **certain words** within a **sentence**.

Most sentences have two types of word:

content words
structure words

Content words are the key words of a sentence. They are the important words that carry the meaning or sense.

Structure words are not very important words. They are small, simple words that make the sentence correct grammatically. They give the sentence its correct form or "structure".

If you remove the structure words from a sentence, you will probably still understand the sentence.

If you remove the content words from a sentence, you will **not** understand the sentence. The sentence has no sense or meaning.

Imagine that you receive this telegram message:

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss your understanding of sentence stress

3.5 Homophones

Homophones are words that have exactly the **same sound** (pronunciation) but different meanings and (usually) spelling.

For example, the following two words have the same sound, but different meanings and spelling:

[hour](#)
[our](#)

In the next example, the two words have the same sound and spelling, but different meanings:

[bear](#) (the animal)
[bear](#) (to carry)

Usually homophones are in groups of two (our, hour), but very occasionally they can be in groups of three (to, too, two) or even four. If we take our "bear" example, we can add another word to the group"

[bare](#) (naked)
[bear](#) (the animal)
[bear](#) (to tolerate) "[Our bearcannot bearto be bare](#)

[at any hour.](#)"

4.0 CONCLUSION

In order to imbibe the culture of using proper pronunciation of English words, conscious use of the words over time is required. That is learning it from a literature is actually not enough but practicing what is learnt is paramount. More so, use of dictionary or any other reference book will help in providing an update for solid knowledge of English phonetics

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt about English phonetics. The following topics were treated under the unit

1. Word stress
2. Sentence stress
3. Homophones

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Phonetic is very important in pronunciation of English words, discuss this in detail.
2. What is homophones in English phonetics?

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

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MODULE 3

UNIT 2 THE WRITING PROCESS

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6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/ Further Readings

1. INTRODUCTION

The writing process is the bedrock of communication in business organisation. Because of the nature of interactions in business organisation, communication is expected to be formal to an extent. Therefore, putting a message into writing is favoured over oral communication in some setting. This unit treats writing process in business communication

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

On the completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the steps in writing process.
- Explain the meaning of correspondence.
- List forms of correspondence.
- Describe the format of a formal letter

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Writing Process

Writing process is a pedagogical term that appears in the research of Janet Emig who published *The Composing Processes of Twelfth Graders* in 1971. The term marks a shift from examining the products of writing to the composing process of writers. This focus on process encourages composition students to see writing as an ongoing, recursive process from conception of the idea through publication. It asserts that all writing serves a purpose, and that writing passes through some or all of several clear steps. It was part of the general whole language approach.

Generally the writing process is seen as consisting of five steps. They are:

- Prewriting:** planning, research, outlining, diagramming, storyboarding or clustering (for a technique similar to clustering, see mindmapping)
- Draft:** initial composition in prose form
- Revision:** review, modification and organization (by the writer)
- Editing:** proofreading for clarity, conventions, style (preferably by another writer)

Submittal: sharing the writing: possibly through performance, printing, or distribution of written material

These steps are not necessarily performed in any given order. For example, the skills used in the prewriting process can be applied any time by writers seeking ideas throughout the process. It is not necessary to go through each step for every writing project attempted. The steps make up a recursive process. The instructional theory behind the model is similar to new product development and life cycle theory, adapted to written works. By breaking the writing cycle into discrete stages and focusing on strategies at each stage, it is hoped that writers will develop an appreciation for the process of seeing an idea through to successful completion in a logical way. Rather than presenting written works as acts of genius that emerge fully formed, they are shown as the result of several distinct and learnable skills.

Prewriting is the first step of the writing process, followed by drafting, revision, editing and publishing and is crucial to the success of any writing task, yet in writing instruction; it seldom receives the attention it deserves.

Motivation and audience awareness

Prewriting begins with motivation and audience awareness: what is the student or writer trying to communicate, why is it important to communicate it well and who is the audience for this communication? Writers usually begin with a clear idea of audience, content and the importance of their communication; sometimes, one of these needs to be clarified for the best communication. Student writers find motivation especially difficult because they are writing for a teacher or for a grade, instead of a real audience. Often teachers try to find a real audience for students by asking them to read to younger classes or to parents, by posting writing for others to read, by writing a blog, or by writing on real topics, such as a letter to the editor of a local newspaper.

3.1.1 Choosing a topic

One important task in writing is choosing a topic and then narrowing it to a length that can be covered in the space allowed. Oral storytelling is an effective way to search for a good topic for a personal narration. Writers can quickly tell a story and judge from the listeners' reactions whether it will be an interesting topic to write about. Two types of prewriting are: free writing and researching. When free writing, you write any and every idea that comes to mind when writing. Researching is another name for writing, which you get information from outside sources.

3.1.2 Gathering information

Several other methods of choosing a topic overlap with another broad concern of prewriting, that of researching or gathering information. Reading (process) is effective in both choosing and narrowing a topic and in gathering information to include in the writing. As a writer reads other works, it expands ideas, opens possibilities and points

toward options for topics and narrowing of topics. It also provides specific content for the eventual writing. One traditional method of tracking the content read is to create annotated note cards with one chunk of information per card. Writers also need to document music, photos, web sites, interviews, and any other source used to prevent plagiarism.

Besides reading what others have written, writers can also make original observations relating to a topic. This requires on-site visits, experimentation with something, or finding original or primary historical documents. Writers interact with the setting or materials and make observations about their experience. For strong writing, particular attention should be given to sensory details (what the writer hears, tastes, touches, smells and feels). While gathering material, often writers pay particular attention to the vocabulary used in discussing the topic. This would include slang, specific terminology, translations of terms, and typical phrases used. The writer often looks up definitions, synonyms and finds ways in which different people use the terminology. Lists, journals, teacher-student conference, drawing illustrations, using imagination, restating a problem in multiple ways, watching videos, inventorying interests – these are some of the other methods for gathering information.

3.1.3 Discussing information

After reading and observing, often writers need to discuss material. They might brainstorm with a group or topics or how to narrow a topic. Or, they might discuss events, ideas, and interpretations with just one other person. Oral storytelling might enter again, as the writer turns it into a narrative, or just tries out ways of using the new terminology. Sometimes writers draw or use information as basis for artwork as a way to understand the material better.

3.1.4 Narrowing the topic

Narrowing a topic is an important step of prewriting. For example, a personal narrative of five pages could be narrowed to an incident that occurred in a thirty minute time period. This restricted time period means that the writer must slow down and tell the event moment by moment with many details. By contrast, a five page essay about a three day trip would only skim the surface of the experience. The writer must consider again the goals of communication – content, audience, importance of information – but add to this a consideration of the format for the writing. He or she should consider how much space is allowed for the communication and what can be effectively communicated within that space?

3.1.5 Organizing content

At this point, the writer needs to consider the organization of content. Outlining in a hierarchical structure is one of the typical strategies, and usually includes three or more levels in the hierarchy. Typical outlines are organized by chronology, spatial relationships, or by subtopics. Other outlines might include sequences along a continuum: big to little, old to new, etc. Clustering, a technique of creating a visual web that represents associations among ideas is another help in creating structure, because it reveals relationships. Storyboarding is a method of drawing rough sketches to plan a picture book, a movie script, a graphic novel or other fiction.

3.1.6 Developmental acquisition of organizing skills

While information on the developmental sequence of organising skills is sketchy, anecdotal information suggests that children follow this rough sequence:

- 1) sort into categories
- 2) structure the categories into a specific order for best communication, using criteria such as which item will best work to catch readers attention in the opening,
- 3) within a category, sequence information into a specific order for best communication, using criteria such as what will best persuade an audience. At each level, it is important that student writers discuss their decisions; they should understand that categories for a certain topic could be structured in several different ways, all correct. A final skill acquired is the ability to omit information that is not needed in order to communicate effectively.

Even sketchier is information on what types of organisation are acquired first, but anecdotal information and research suggests that even young children understand chronological information, making narratives the easiest type of student writing. Persuasive writing usually requires logical thinking and studies in child development indicate that logical thinking is not present until a child is 10–12 years old, making it one of the later writing skills to acquire. Before this age, persuasive writing will rely mostly on emotional arguments.

3.1.7 Writing trials

Writers can also use the writing phase to experiment with ways of expressing ideas. For oral storytelling, a writer could tell a story three times, but each time begin at a different time, include or exclude information, end at a different time or place. Writers often try writing the same information but using different voices, in search of the best way to communicate this information or tell this story.

3.1.8 Recursion

writing is recursive, that is, it can occur at any time and the writing process can return several times. For example, after a first draft, a writer may need to return to an

information gathering stage, or may need to discuss the material with someone, or may need to adjust the outline. While the writing process is discussed as having distinct stages, in reality, they often overlap and circle back on one another.

3.1.9 Variables

writing varies depending on the writing task or rhetorical mode. Fiction requires more imagination, while informational essays or expository writing require stronger organization. Persuasive writing must consider not just the information to be communicated, but how best to change the reader's ideas or convictions. Folktales will require extensive reading of the genre to learn common conventions. Each writing task will require a different selection of writing strategies, used in a different order.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Discuss the steps that are involved in writing process

3.2 Correspondence

Correspondence consists of memos, letters, and electronic mail. In engineering and science, correspondence is an effective way to make requests, submit changes to a job, and deliver specific information. Unlike telephone conversations, correspondence presents the audience with a legal contract that is dated and can support a claim in court. This section presents formats for memos and letters. Because electronic mail usually has a built-in format, no format is assigned here for it.

In correspondence, you should concentrate on being clear and precise. Because audiences tend to read letters and memos quickly, opt for shorter sentences and paragraphs than you would use in a formal report or journal article. Also, in correspondence, you should consider carefully the tone. Tone is difficult to control in correspondence. For instance, in a job application letter, how do you talk about your accomplishments without sounding boastful? Or in a letter complaining about faulty workmanship, how do you motivate the reader to repair the damage without alienating the reader? The answers are not simple. Often, engineers and scientists lose control of tone by avoiding simple straightforward wording. When some people sit down to write a business letter or memo, they change their entire personality. Instead of using plain English, they use convoluted phrases such as "per your request" or "enclosed please find." Because these phrases are not natural or straightforward, they inject an undesired attitude, usually arrogance, into the writing

3.2.1 Memos

Typically, you write memos to people within your place of work, and you write letters to people outside your place of work. One major difference between memos and letters is the title line found in memos. Because readers often decide whether to read the memo

solely on the basis of this title line, the line is important. Another difference between letters and memos is that you sometimes write memos that serve as short reports. In such cases, the format for the memo changes somewhat. For instance, in a memo serving as a progress report for a project, you might include subheadings and sub-subheadings. Notice that people who are mentioned in a memo or are directly affected by the memo should receive a copy.

3.2.2 Letters

Formats for letters vary from company to company. For instance, some formats call for paragraph indents; others don't. In a letter, notice how the writer gets to the point in the first sentence of the first paragraph. Notice also the simple and straightforward salutation ("Sincerely"). As with a memo, people who are mentioned or directly affected by the letter should receive a copy.

3.2.3 Electronic Mail

Electronic mail is a less formal version of memos and letters. Electronic mail is relatively new and is changing in terms of sophistication in format and expectation by audience. The principal advantages of electronic mail over other types of correspondence are its speed and ease of use. For instance, in minutes, you can send out information to many recipients around the world.

One disadvantage of electronic mail is the crudeness of the format. Many electronic mail systems do not allow such things as tabs or italics. For that reason, the look of the message is not as attractive as a memo or letter that has been printed on letterhead paper. Because the message does not look formal, many people mistakenly adopt a style that lacks the "appropriate formality" [Markel, 1996]. For instance, these people include needless abbreviations (such as "BTW" rather than "by the way").

Another disadvantage of electronic mail is also one of its advantages: its ease of use. With letters and memos, you must print out the correspondence before you send it. That printing out allows you to view the writing on paper--a step that makes it easier for you to proof for mechanical mistakes in spelling, usage, and punctuation. With electronic mail, though, you are not forced to print out on paper before you send. For that reason, electronic messages often are not as well proofed as regular correspondence. Remember: because most networks archive electronic mail, you should take the same care with electronic mail as you do with printed correspondence. That means using the appropriate formality in style and carefully proofing your message before you hit the "send" button.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Explain in detail what Memo is?

3.3 How to Write an Essay.

Writing a good essay requires refined critical thinking, which can be improved by experience. But one of the key elements to a good essay is form. There are numerous forms of writing that we face everyday. The following is an explanation of the process of writing in a simple and understandable way. An essay can have many purposes, but the basic structure is basically the same. You may be writing an essay to argue for an article point of view or to explain the steps necessary to complete a task. Either way, your essay will have the same basic format. If you follow these simple steps, you will find that writing an essay is much easier than you had initially thought.

3.3.1 Select your topic.

1. Choose the thesis, or main idea of your essay.
2. Prepare an outline or diagram of your main ideas.
3. Outline your essay into introductory, body and summary paragraphs.
4. State your thesis idea in the first paragraph.
5. Finish the introductory paragraph with a short summary or goal statement.
6. In each of the body paragraphs the ideas first presented in the introductory paragraph are developed.
7. Develop your body paragraphs by giving explanations and examples.
8. The last paragraph should restate your basic thesis of the essay with a conclusion.

After you followed these easy steps your writing will improve and become more coherent. Always remember, form is only a part of the process. You become a better writer primarily by reflecting and analysing rather than memorizing.

3.4 Formal Letter Writing.

This comprises the following:

3.4.1 How to Write Formal Letters

A summary of writing rules including outlines for cover letters and letters of enquiry, and abbreviations used in writing a formal letter is

3.4.2 Rules for Writing Formal Letters in English

In English there are a number of conventions that should be used when writing a formal or business letter. Furthermore, you try to write as simply and as clearly as possible, and not to make the letter longer than necessary. Remember not to use informal language like contractions.

Addresses:

1) Your Address

The return address should be written in the top right-hand corner of the letter.

2) The Address of the person you are writing to

The inside address should be written on the left, starting below your address.

Date:

Different people put the date on different sides of the page. You can write this on the right or the left on the line after the address you are writing to. Write the month as a word.

Salutation or greeting:

1) Dear Sir or Madam,

If you do not know the name of the person you are writing to, use this. It is always advisable to try to find out a name.

2) Dear Mr. Okocha,

If you know the name, use the title (Mr, Mrs, Miss or Ms, Dr, etc.) and the surname only. If you are writing to a woman and do not know if she uses Mrs or Miss, you can use Ms, which is for married and single women.

Ending a letter:

1) Yours Faithfully

If you do not know the name of the person, end the letter this way.

2) Yours Sincerely

If you know the name of the person, end the letter this way.

3) Your signature

Sign your name, then print it underneath the signature. If you think the person you are writing to might not know whether you are male or female, put your title in brackets after your name.

3.4.3 Layout of a Formal Letter

The example letter below shows you a general layout for a formal letter.



3.4.4 Content of a Formal Letter

First paragraph

The first paragraph should be short and state the purpose of the letter- to make an enquiry, complain, request something, etc.

The paragraph or paragraphs in the middle of the letter should contain the relevant information behind the writing of the letter. Most letters in English are not very long, so keep the information to the essentials and concentrate on organizing it in a clear and logical manner rather than expanding too much.

Last Paragraph

The last paragraph of a formal letter should state what action you expect the recipient to take- to refund, send you information, etc.

Abbreviations Used in Letter Writing

The following abbreviations are widely used in letters:

asap = as soon as possible

cc = carbon copy (when you send a copy of a letter to more than one person, you use this abbreviation to let them know)

enc. = enclosure (when you include other papers with your letter)

pp = per procurationem (A Latin phrase meaning that you are signing the letter on somebody else's behalf; if they are not there to sign it themselves, etc)

ps = postscript (when you want to add something after you've finished and signed it)

pto (informal) = please turn over (to make sure that the other person knows the letter continues on the other side of the page) **RSVP** = please reply

3.4.5 A Covering Letter

A covering letter is the one that accompanies your CV when you are applying for a job. Here is a fairly conventional plan for the layout of the paragraphs.

1. Opening Paragraph

Briefly identify yourself and the position you are applying for. Add how you found out about the vacancy.

2. Paragraph 2

Give the reasons why you are interested in working for the company and why you wish to be considered for that particular post. State your relevant qualifications and experience, as well as your personal qualities that make you a suitable candidate.

3. Paragraph 3

Inform them that you have enclosed your current CV and add any further information that you think could help your case.

4. Closing Paragraph

Give your availability for interview, thank them for their consideration, restate your interest and close the letter.

3.4.6 A Letter of Enquiry

A letter of enquiry is when you are approaching a company speculatively, that is you are making an approach without their having advertised or announced a vacancy.

1. Opening Paragraph

Introduce yourself briefly and give your reason for writing. Let them know of the kind of position you are seeking, why you are interested and how you heard about them.

Paragraph 2

Show why their company in particular interests you, mention your qualifications and experience along with any further details that might make them interested in seeing you.

Paragraph 3

Refer to your enclosed CV and draw their attention to any particularly important points you would like them to focus on in it.

Closing Paragraph

Thank them, explain your availability for interview and restate your enthusiasm for their company and desire to be considered for posts that might as yet be unavailable.

4.0 CONCLUSION

A sound knowledge of writing process is very important in business communication. Obviously, different writing steps as discussed above are necessary for good composition of a message or an idea. Also, as explained, business writings also take cognisance of format in writing process

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit was started by explaining the concept of writing process. We then discussed various steps in writing process. We went further to treat memo as forms of business letters. Methods for writing essay, letter writings and their format were also discussed

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. List various forms of correspondence
2. Write a formal letter on a topic of your choice

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

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MODULE 3

UNIT 3: PUBLIC SPEAKING

CONTENTS

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1.0 Introduction

Public speaking is the process of speaking to a group of people in a structured, deliberate manner intended to inform, influence, or entertain the listeners. In public speaking, as in any form of communication, there are five basic elements, often expressed as "who is saying what to whom using what medium with what effects?" The purpose of public speaking can range from simply transmitting information, to motivating people to act, to simply telling a story. Good orators should be able to change the emotions of their listeners, not just inform them. Public speaking can also be considered a discourse community. Interpersonal communication and public speaking have several components that embrace such things as motivational speaking, leadership/personal development, business, customer service, large group communication, and mass communication. Public speaking can be a powerful tool to use for purposes such as motivation, influence, persuasion, informing, translation, or simply entertaining.

The common fear of public speaking is called glossophobia (or, informally, "stage fright"). As Jerry Seinfeld said: "The average person at a funeral would rather be in the casket than doing the eulogy." Many careers require some ability in public speaking, for example presenting information to clients or colleagues.

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

On the completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the meaning of public speaking.
- Describe the requirement for planning a presentation.
- Perform the ways to practicing a public speaking.
- Describe the ways to perform a planned talk.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Public Speaking

Public speaking and oration are sometimes considered some of the most importantly valued skills that an individual can possess. This skill can be used for almost anything. Most great speakers have a natural ability to display the skills and effectiveness that can help to engage and move an audience for whatever purpose. Language and rhetoric use are among two of the most important aspects of public speaking and interpersonal communication. Having knowledge and understanding of the use and purpose of communication can help to make a more effective speaker communicate their message in an effectual way. The major area of speaking is public speaking. From the origin of time, it has been obvious that some people are just better public speakers than others. Because of this, today a good speaker can earn a living by speaking to people in a public setting. Some of the major areas of public speaking are

- Speaking to persuade
- Speaking to inform
- Speaking to inspire or motivate

3.2 Planning your Talk

The first step in planning a public speaking involves acknowledging two fundamental differences between oral and written communication. One essential goal of public speaking is to make personal contact with the audience, and to help connect them to the content. Reading a written report aloud is not usually an effective strategy for engaging with the audience. The needs/preferences of the audience play an even larger role in public speaking than in writing. The content of presentations should be prepared with this goal in mind.

Second, public speaking is fleeting (or time-sensitive). If readers get lost or stop paying attention for a few minutes, they can always flip back a few pages. Listeners, on the other hand, usually can't interrupt the speaker and ask that s/he should start again and go back a few minutes. Once words are uttered, they vanish. Presenters can account for the fleeting nature of oral presentations by making sure that the presentation is well organised and by making structure explicit in the talk, so the audience can always know where they've been and where they're going.

3.2.1 A Speech or Notes?

The first decision a presentation planner must make is whether to speak from notes or to write a complete speech. Either strategy can work. Some students are not comfortable without a prepared text to read; others can easily talk authoritatively with only notes (and sometimes without). Choose what you're comfortable with, or something in between the two options.

However, if you choose to write a prepared speech, make sure that it's designed for oral delivery, that you've practiced it adequately, and that you don't read from the sheet. Using a prepared text as a security blanket is okay, but relying on it too much makes it difficult to connect or engage with the audience; be prepared to depart from your text when necessary and be flexible.

1. Purpose Statement
2. Opening Strategy
3. Main Idea
4. Overview
5. Conclusion

6. Take Away Statement

3.2.2 Components of a presentation

A well-planned oral presentation should contain these elements at the beginning and the end of the talk:

1. The first step in planning a talk is developing a Purpose Statement: this is the objective for the talk, or what the speaker wants to accomplish. The purpose statement is more than a statement of topic. For example, your purpose might be to explain the advantages of your design, to allay the concerns that a project is behind (or justify why it is), or to clarify a complex aspect of your work. This purpose statement, however, is not always explicitly stated in the presentation itself: you may not necessarily say –I'm giving this talk to explain why we're five weeks behind schedule! or –I'm giving this talk to sell 500 computers to you. Although often unstated, the purpose statement guides your preparation for your talk.

2. A well-planned presentation should also have an Opening Strategy that helps to develop a rapport with the audience. There are a wide range of strategies available, but they all attempt to connect the audience to the content. Some example opening strategies are:

- Telling jokes, anecdotes, bits of history, startling facts, etc.
- Giving key information the audience needs
- Making the listener own the problem

Major considerations for planning opening strategies are relevance and time: make sure that the opening strategy chosen suits the context and the content of the talk, and that it doesn't take up too much time.

3. The Main Idea is how the purpose statement manifests itself in the talk: it is the explicit statement made at the beginning of the talk that identifies

a) The topic

b) The end goal of the talk.

Be careful when using the phrase –talk about in your statement, because it tends to give only a statement of topic: –I'm going to talk about Project X establishes a topic, but doesn't provide any further focus for the talk. Instead, the main idea should be based on a stronger verb. For example, given the two unstated purpose statements from above, your main idea might be:

- We'll diagnose the problems with Project X and provide recommendations for mitigating them.
- This presentation identifies the advantages of Bluetooth enabled computers and Local Area Networks.

These stronger verbs help to establish the goal of the presentation. Sometimes you will begin your planning by establishing this statement; other times you might start in the middle to help you to figure out what you are trying to say. Regardless, you need a strong sense of purpose to motivate your talk

4. An Overview gives the listeners a mental roadmap of the whole talk, making the structure explicit at the beginning. For example, if you have three reasons why the project is behind, sketch them out quickly:

- Project X is behind because the raw materials for High Performance concrete arrived late, unforeseen weather delays prevented pouring on four days, and changing specifications forced us to re-design two areas.

When developing an overview, make sure that it contains actual information that is relevant to the talk. Be careful not to provide a, such as: –I'm going to explain the

problem, provide several solutions, evaluate generic statement to structure them, and give recommendations.¶ This overview could be applied to many talks because it says nothing specific, and is not particularly helpful for the audience (especially if they are hearing more than one talk).

5. The Conclusion should provide a brief summary by referring to the presentation's main point(s). You don't usually need to go over every single point or repeat the headings stated at the beginning of the talk, but you should signal that your talk is coming to an end by using phrases such as –in conclusion¶ or –to sum up¶ and reiterate your main idea.

–Because it's cheap and easy to implement, Bluetooth technology can make for effective and easier to manage LANs.¶

6. The Take Away Statement is the last sentence that comes out of your mouth: it will also be the last thing the audience remembers and should clearly identify

a) That the talk is over (and to give the audience the signal to applaud) and

b) Identify what the audience should take away from the talk, or what they can do with the information given in the talk. Don't finish the talk by saying –that's it¶ – it may signal that the talk is over, but it doesn't remind the listener of what s/he should take away from the talk. For example, a summary for the second sample talk, you could say:

–So, the next time you're untangling wires from printers, mice, keyboards, speakers etc. from the back of your computers, think about easy managing a network of Bluetooth enabled computers would be.¶

3.2.3 Presentation Organisation:

These six key components should sandwich the body of the talk. However, presentation planning also involves organising the body of the talk. There are two steps in organising the body

1) Identify the key points

2) Use an organisational method appropriate for the presentation content and

purpose. Some relevant organisation structures are listed below

Chronological: Breaks talks into steps, organised by time; useful for process descriptions or progress reports.

Ascending or Descending Pattern: Sorts topics based on performance in predetermined criteria, such as difficulty (easiest to hardest), size (smallest to largest), significance (least to most important), or cost (inexpensive to costly.)

Pro and Con: Divides talk into positives and negatives. Useful in evaluating; can be objective or persuasive.

Cause to Effect: Breaks material up in results and precipitating causes; can be speculative (starts with causes) or analytical (starts with effects). Emphasises ways one thing leads to another.

Scientific Method: Follows reporting structure for lab work: purpose, methods, results, discussion, and recommendations.

Problem/Solution: Describe situation/ explain problem (or opportunity)/ explain solution (include methodology if appropriate)/ justify solution.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

List and explain the process of planning a talk in public speaking.

3.3 Practicing your Talk

The second step to delivering an effective public speaking is Practice. Practice is a necessary part of presentation preparation, but there are different types of practice that help accomplish specific goals.

3.3.1 Practicing delivery on your own will help you achieve the following.

- 1) Become familiar with the material you're delivering.
- 2) Develop a proper cadence and rhythm for your speech.
- 3) Allow you to establish proper timing for your talk.

Ideal presentation delivery is not usually achieved by reading a prepared speech, but by engaging the audience through a natural, conversational style. If working from notes, use these practice sessions to develop a familiarity with the material and to develop/memorise key sentences that will anchor parts of your talk. If you're working from a memorised text or reading a written speech, you should try not to sound like you're reading, and work on fostering natural, conversational delivery.

Timing is important in public speaking: when you're given a time limit, respect it. In most situations – such as conference panels with a hard time limit and more than one speaker – audiences do not have the luxury or the inclination to listen beyond the given times. In fact, audiences tend to get annoyed if a speaker goes over significantly. When practicing, ensure that you time yourself. In order to get accurate timing, your practice sessions have to be uninterrupted. Times in these practice sessions aren't always accurate

because they don't mimic the real conditions of delivery very well – but they will give you rough idea of whether or not you're in the ballpark.

3.3.2 Practicing in front of a mirror can allow you to work on:

- 1) maintaining eye contact,
- 2) using gestures appropriately, and,
- 3) making sure you're familiar with the material.

When working on eye contact, ensure that you're actually engaging the audience and sustaining the contact for more than a few seconds. In other words, make sure that you're not just looking in the general vicinity of the audience, but making actual contact with audience members. In the mirror, focus on your own eyes, and note when and how often you look away. If you need to look away (at your notes) every few seconds, you'll need to become more familiar with the content. A second or two at a time is not usually sufficient to connect with the audience. Instead, focus on maintaining eye contact for sustained periods

If you have a large or full-length mirror, you can also use this technique to correct your posture and identify your gesturing techniques. Use this time to spot problems with your gesturing – too much or too little – and identify areas in the talk where you can use gestures to add emphasis or meaning to your presentation.

3.3.3 Practicing in front of others is the best type of practice because it mimics the actual conditions of delivery. In this situation, you have –one goes|| and can time your delivery more accurately, and should be able to practice eye contact, gesturing, and generally engaging the audience. If possible, use this opportunity to test your familiarity and interaction with the visuals you plan on using.

You should also ask your friends for feedback on the content and structure of the talk, and make sure that the talk served the purpose that you identified in the planning stage.

More Practice Strategies: When working on effective vocal and physical delivery, you may want to try some of these simple practice strategies; these shouldn't be used in the actual performance, but are useful for fine- tuning specific aspects of the delivery. The first relates to gesture and voice, the second is an audience reminder trick, and the last two focus on enunciation:

A. The bad actor strategy: Try performing the talk aloud (and alone behind a locked door) as if you were a bad actor. Go completely over the top! Make huge sweeping gestures and overdo the words. Do this Twice. As you do it the second time, try to make mental note of two key things:

Where your voice rises for emphasis
Where you want to make gestures

The information you gain here shows you the natural points of emphasis. That important information can now be used in a –normal|| version of the talk. Of course, one of the things you’ll find is that —normal|| has changed, as the speech becomes more energised.

B. Follow the Leader Practice: One of the most important, but most neglected, aspects of the talk is how we make transitions between points. Imagine you have an audience full of people with very poor short-term memories, but you’re trying to get through to them. Deliver your talk repeating everything, and using whatever transitions you need to make that audience grasp your talk, without forgetting points.

C. The Eliza Doolittle Method: In –My Fair Lady|| Eliza had the accent knocked out of her with speech lessons. We all need that. Finding our best pitch, our best tone and our best accent require practice. Choose a familiar bit of speech and use it to hone your delivery. You’re best off to start with something other than your speech, and only apply it to your speech later. Speeches by Shakespeare, Churchill, or Martin Luther King Jr. all serve well as practice points. Once you’ve mastered one of these, then bring the same enunciation effort to your talk. If you have an accent, you need to learn this exercise taking particular care of sounds that may trip your listeners. For example, many Chinese speakers of English struggle to distinguish –ll vs. –r|| etc., so you need to work with these sounds, particularly if they appear in words that are central to your purpose.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What are the steps to be taken in practicing a talk in public speaking?

3.4 Performing your Talk

In Performance, you’re simply doing what you’ve practiced many times before. Thinking of the actual performance in this way should help to calm nerves and anxieties about giving the talk. The following page outlines some of the main goals in performance, and strategies for achieving them. Most of these you’ll have had a chance to practice already; but some considerations will only come up in the actual performance.

3.4.1 Assuming an Appropriate Presentation Persona: When you deliver a formal presentation, you are –performing|| – as in a play – in front of an audience. While you don’t want to become something artificial when you talk, you do want to play the part of a speaker. The role you are playing is –you,|| but it’s not the same –you|| as we see in informal settings. This is a persona that should look and feel quite natural, but also be

elevated from the everyday person. For some, assuming a presentation persona may include costuming – wearing a suit or getting more dressed up than usual can help you assume the appropriate character.

3.4.2 Effective vocal delivery: This includes appropriate volume, pace, and natural speech. Adequate Volume is an essential component of effective delivery. If you can't be heard, you can't be understood, and your main point will be missed. Being audible is often not enough. Even if you can be heard, speaking too softly means that the audience expends energy to trying to make out what you're saying; this may mean that they aren't paying enough attention to interpreting and understanding what you're saying. Generally speaking, the problems that presenters have are with low volume; rarely are speakers so loud that their speech is distracting. Speak loud enough so that the further member of the audience can hear you comfortably.

The same is true for Pace. Especially when nervous, presenters tend to talk too quickly, trying to get the talk over as soon as possible. Too fast a pace results in the same difficulties that low volume presents: the audience spends most of its energy in trying to make out the words being spoken, rather than in interpreting or understanding what's being said.

Ideally, we would all be able to speak naturally, as we do when we're engaged in a conversation, during presentations. However, presenters often fall back on a –reading|| rhythm and speech pattern, even if they're working from notes. What constitutes –natural speech|| differs from person to person, but it is usually marked by variations in pitch, tone, and pace, with appropriate pauses, all of which add layers of meaning to the words being spoken. The best that you can aim for is the speech that you can achieve when talking to friends on a topic you're confident and passionate about, with a more little formality added in.

3.4.3 Effective Physical Delivery: includes positioning, eye contact, body language, and connecting to your visuals. The first step, taking your position, should be done prior to the talk: determine the best place to stand before the audience arrives. The best place is:

a) WHERE YOU DON'T BLOCK ANYONE'S VIEW?

b) WHERE YOU CAN SEE THE AUDIENCE, AND

c) WHERE YOU CAN EASILY OPERATE THE PROJECTOR / LAPTOP AND ENGAGE WITH THE VISUALS? If you are very nervous, anchor yourself with a podium or desk – but not by leaning back or sitting. That is usually regarded as too casual. Instead, stand behind it, and use the desk as a front piece. During the talk, you might consider moving around to make sure you're paying attention to the entire audience.

- **Eye contact**

This is an important strategy for both connecting to the audience and getting information from them. Effective eye contact is achieved when the speaker actually engages the audience. Just because a speaker doesn't read from a speech or look at their notes often doesn't mean that they've made effective eye contact: they could just be staring outward or at other distractions, like their visuals. Look into the eyes of audience members and confirm that they're looking back. This also requires that eye contact is sustained: looking at someone for a second doesn't achieve the same level of engagement as maintaining that contact for four to five seconds.

If you actually engage with the audience through eye contact, you can also see whether people are confused or bored. You can use that information to help you decide whether to move on, or spend more time on a particular point.

- **Effective body language**

This involves both posture and gesture. Posture communicates much about confidence and attitude towards the audience and material. For example, slouching suggests a casual attitude that may not be appropriate for formal presentations; leaning forward with hands on a desk suggests an aggressiveness that may make the audience uncomfortable. An upright posture communicates confidence and formality. Gestures and movement can be used to deliver information as well. If you practiced gestures beforehand, they will happen more naturally when time comes to deliver. Some speech coaches advocate –standing still! and that is generally good advice, but some excellent speakers move a lot. Why? Because they are comfortable moving. If you look comfortable, your audience will be comfortable too. Therefore, the general guide to appropriate gesture is –do what makes you comfortable. Obviously, some comforting gestures can be annoying – key rattling, jingling the change in your pocket, picking your nose: these are called physical tics. However, if walking around or talking with your hands makes you more comfortable, it probably also makes you more effective. Connecting with your visuals and managing them correctly is also a key part of effective physical delivery. If you're using overhead transparencies, don't fumble with your slides. Throw away paper separators before you present. When placing a slide on the projector, make sure that you look back at the screen to see that all is visible, and adjust the slide if necessary, but do not stare at the screen.

- **Show Mastery:**

Showing that you have mastery over your material increase your listeners' confidence in you and also sets them at ease. This can be as simple as showing that you are able to operate the equipment. Another way to show you are confident in your material is humour. It can lighten dry technical talks, especially after some particularly heavy going. Cartoons can be an effective way to draw parallels with points you are trying to make, if relevant. Even short verbal asides, rhetorical questions, or anecdotes can

go a long way to keeping audience interest. You can also show mastery by taking control of the questions, during or after the talk. During the talk, interact with the audience. Ask them if they are following you, or ask them simple questions to see if they are. Liven them up a bit. After the talk, take control by managing the question and answer period. Always finish with a strong take away statement, allows the audience clapping, and then asking for questions. Control the question period by choosing the speakers, preparing yourself to handle certain questions beforehand, and taking the time to consider questions before formulating a response. If you encounter a question that you can't answer, acknowledge that you can't answer it, and tell them that you'll consider that in the future or turn the question back on the audience. If questions lead things astray, try to steer the topic back on track, otherwise audience participation can drive things far away from the main points of the talk. Take discussions off-line if they are consuming too much time or will not readily be resolved – suggest that you will check a fact or point and respond to the questioner by e-mail or telephone. Feel free to interrupt debates among audience members; after all, it's your talk!

3.4.4 Supporting your Talk with Visuals

Visuals are an important part of public speaking: they can be used to highlight important information, explain technical concepts and details that are difficult to explain through words alone, and can help connect the listener to the content. In planning presentation visuals, you have the same options as with writing but will have to adjust your visuals for presentation on a screen, further away from your audience (than a piece of paper arms length away). Many of concerns outlined in using visuals in writing still apply to their use in public speaking. The following are particularly important in a presentation setting.

Introduce the graphic and explain its role in the presentation in words. Make sure that the graphic has a specific purpose in your presentation, and use your speech to identify its purpose and to highlight the key parts of the visual that serve that purpose. For example, when presenting a table of results, highlight (visually, through gestures, and in words) the cells that hold the most significant data.

Make sure that the precision of the illustration matches the precision of the speech: this is of particular concern when using graphics originally design for a written text, which is likely to provide a more detailed accompanying description, in oral presentations. Adjust the visual so that it suits the presentation content.

Ensure than graphics are properly titled (i.e. Figure 1.1: Cut Away Drawing of Solid Fuel Rocket Boosters) and labeled. In an oral presentation setting, it is likely that some listeners may miss your introduction to the graphic. Readers who miss this introduction can simply flip back; listeners do not have this luxury. The title and the labels hold the key to interpreting the graphic element and its role in the presentation.

In addition to these shared issues, using graphics in a public speaking setting presents some other challenges:

- **Orientation of Visuals:** When using transparencies, always use landscape orientation rather than portrait. This is not a constraint introduced by PowerPoint (which limits users to landscape format), but by the fact that a landscape oriented slide fits better on a projector than portrait oriented ones. Landscape oriented slides allow you to use more of the space available on the slide, without having to adjust the slide during the presentation.
- **Text / Image Size / Resolution:** The titles and labels need to be readable from a distance. This means that text should be a minimum of 18 point in size (24 point is typical).

18pt 20pt 24pt 28pt

While Times New Roman is typically the standard font for written documents, less print oriented fonts with harder edges and fewer curves are more suitable for presentation slides. Commonly used fonts for oral presentations include:

Arial Helvetica Tahoma

Furthermore, a standard approach to using images from written documents is simply to resize the image so that it fits the slide. This sometimes works, but resizing a small, low-resolution image to a larger size can result in fuzzy images that are difficult to interpret.

3. Text Based Slides: In an oral presentation, text based slides are common. They function to highlight the key points and reinforce the structure of the presentation. However, text based slides also encourage listeners to read, rather than listen. This is especially true if the presenter reads the text of the slide: avoid this. To use text based slides effectively, minimize the amount of the text on the slide by using note form instead of complete sentences, and leaving the details for your speech, rather than on the slide. The slide presented below is an example of a poorly designed slide, using too much text:

The Orbiter is one key component of the space shuttle, and holds the astronauts along with all the equipment

The solid rocket boosters are another, and provide the initial thrust required to get the shuttle out of the atmosphere. It is jettisoned and recovered.

The liquid rocket booster is the final component, and provides the thrust required to get the rocket into orbit. It is jettisoned after leaving the atmosphere,

and burns up on reentry.

Reduce text by adding a title (Components) and using note form:

Shuttle Components:

Orbiter:

- Holds astronauts and equipment

Solid Rocket Boosters:

- Provides initial thrust to exit atmosphere
- Jettisoned and recovered

Liquid Rocket Booster

- Provides thrust to achieve orbit
- Jettisoned and burns up on reentry

4.0 CONCLUSION

Public speaking is an effective way of promoting an image of an organisation through dissemination of information to the public. However, the result can only be achieved, if the speaker has successfully mastered the process of public speaking and oratory. Proper study of the above will go along way in helping you to acquire public speaking skill.

5.0 SUMMARY

The following has been discussed in this unit. These include the meaning of public speaking, planning your speech in public speaking, practicing your speech in public speaking and performing a talk

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Write short note on each of the steps on public speaking

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

5. Burn, Elizabeth (2001). Public speaking and Professional Communication. English Journal, v91 n2 p51-53
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MODULE 3

UNIT 4 INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives of the unit

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Interpersonal communication

3.2 Four Principles of Interpersonal Communication

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3.2.2 Interpersonal communication is irreversible

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3.2.4 Interpersonal communication is contextual

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4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

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7.0 References/ Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Interpersonal communication enhances mutual relationship. Relationship is an aspect of every person within an organisation. There are relationships among the people within an organisation. Organisations also relate with the external bodies in order to survive. This could be her customer or government. However, mastering of interpersonal communication is requiring making a head way in every relationship. This unit explains the nitty-gritty of interpersonal communication.

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

On completion of this unit, you should be able to undertake the following.

Explain the forms of interpersonal skills.

State the principles of interpersonal relationship.

Give good things about interpersonal communication.
Discuss the importance of interpersonal relationship.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Interpersonal communication

Interpersonal communication is defined by [communication](#) scholars in numerous ways, usually describing participants who are dependent upon one another and have a shared history. Communication channels, the conceptualization of mediums that carry messages from sender to receiver, take two distinct forms: direct and indirect.

1. **Direct channels** are obvious and easily recognised by the receiver. Both verbal and non-verbal information is completely controlled by the sender. Verbal channels rely on [words](#), as in written or spoken communication. [Non-verbal](#) channels encompass facial expressions, controlled body movements (police prefer hand gestures to control traffic), colour (red signals 'stop', green signals 'go'), and sound (warning sirens).

2. **Indirect channels** are usually recognised subconsciously by the receiver, and are not always under direct control of the sender. [Body language](#), comprising most of the indirect channel, may inadvertently reveal one's true [emotions](#), and thereby either unintentionally taint or bolster the believability of any intended verbal message. Subconscious reception and interpretation of these signals is often described with arbitrary terms like gut-feeling, hunch, or premonition.

3. **Context** refers to the conditions that precede or surround the communication. It consists of present or past events from which the meaning of the message is derived, though it may also, in the case of written communications, depend upon the statements preceding and following the quotation in question. Immediate surroundings may also colour the perceived meaning of words; normally safe discourse may easily become contextually ambiguous or offensive in a restroom or shower hall. These influences do not constitute the message by themselves, but rather these extraneous nuances subtly change the message's effective meaning. Ultimately, context includes the entire world, but usually refers to salient factors such as the following:

i. **Physical milieu:** the season or weather, current physical location and environment

ii. **Situational milieu:** classroom, military conflict, supermarket checkout Cultural and linguistic backgrounds

iii. **Developmental progress (maturity) or emotional state**

iv. **Complementary or contrasting roles:** boss and employee; teacher and student; parent, child, and spouse; friend or enemy; partner or competitor

Ability to ask the questions and listen is vital to the good interpersonal skills. In fact the empathetic listening is a number one skill which can help to build relationships.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

State and explain the form of communication channel in interpersonal communication.

3.2 Four Principles of Interpersonal Communication.

These principles underlie the workings in real life of interpersonal communication. They are basic to communication as we can't ignore them.

3.2.1 Interpersonal communication is inescapable

We can't do without communicating. The very attempt not to communicate communicates something. Through not only words, but through tone of voice and through gesture, posture, facial expression, etc., we constantly communicate to those around us. Through these channels, we constantly receive communication from others. Even when you sleep, you communicate. Remember a basic principle of communication in general: people are not mind readers. Another way to put this is: people judge you by your behaviour, not your intent.

3.2.2 Interpersonal communication is irreversible

You can't really take back something once it has been said. The effect must inevitably remain. Despite the instructions from a judge to a jury to "disregard that last statement the witness made," the lawyer knows that it can't help but make an impression on the jury. A Russian proverb says, "Once a word goes out of your mouth, you can never swallow it again."

3.2.3 Interpersonal communication is complicated

No form of communication is simple. Because of the number of variables involved, even simple requests are extremely complex. Theorists note that whenever we communicate there are really at least six "people" involved:

- 1) Who you think you are;
- 2) Who you think the other person is;
- 3) Who you think the other person thinks you are;
- 4) Who the other person thinks s/he is;
- 5) Who the other person thinks you are; and
- 6) Who the other person thinks you think s/he is.

We don't actually swap ideas; we swap symbols that stand for ideas. This also complicates communication. Words (symbols) do not have inherent meaning; we simply use them in certain ways, and no two people use the same word exactly alike.

Osmo Wiio gives us some communication maxims similar to Murphy's law

If communication can fail, it will.

If a message can be understood in different ways, it will be understood in just that way which does the most harm.

There is always somebody who knows better than you what you meant by your message.

The more communication there is, the more difficult it is for communication to succeed.

3.2.4 Interpersonal communication is contextual

In other words, communication does not happen in isolation. There is:

Psychological context, which is who you are and what you bring to the interaction. Your needs, desires, values, personality, etc., all form the psychological context. ("You" here refers to both participants in the interaction.)

Relational context, which concerns your reactions to the other person--the "mix."

Situational context deals with the psycho-social "where" you are communicating.

An interaction that takes place in a classroom will be very different from one that takes place in a bar.

Environmental context deals with the physical "where" you are communicating. Furniture, location, noise level, temperature, season, time of day, all are examples of factors in the environmental context.

Cultural context includes all the learned behaviour and rules that affect the interaction. If you come from a culture (foreign or within your own country) where it is considered rude to make long, direct eye contact, you will out of politeness avoid eye contact. If the other person comes from a culture where long, direct eye contact signals trustworthiness, then we have in the cultural context a basis for misunderstanding.

3.3 Ten Tips for Good interpersonal communication skills

- Listen to the person first. Communication is the two-way process; getting your entire message across depends on understanding of other person.
- Be interested in people you will be communicating with. Remember that the people are more attracted towards those who have interest in them, and therefore will pay more attention to what they will say
- Relax. The bad body language like hunched shoulders, fidgeting, the toe-tapping or the hair-twiddling all give a game away.
- Smile and use the eye contact. It is a most positive signal which you can give
- Ask the questions. It is great way to show the people that you really are interested in them.
- If the other person has different point of view towards you, find out why they have such point of view. The more you understand reasons behind

- their thinking, the more you will be able to understand their point of view or can help them understand your point of view
- Be assertive So that we can try to value their input as your own inputs. Do not be pushy and do not be a pushover. Try for a right balance.
 - When you will be speaking try to be enthusiastic in appropriate context. Use voice and the body language to show this immediately don't try to latch to something which someone has just now said ... "oh yes it happened to me" and immediately go on and telling your own story.
 - Make sure that you ask questions about them first and then be careful while telling your story so as not to sound like a competition.
 - Learn from the interactions. If you have a good conversations with someone try to think why it all went well and remember key points for the next time. If it did not go well - again try and learn something out of it.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What are the principles of interpersonal relationship?

3.4 Importance of interpersonal communication.

Verbal communication is an essential part of business and when it is executed correctly, good things happen. Here are a few different ideas and styles to remember when speaking to anyone in a business setting.

Because speaking is such an indelible activity, we tend to do it without much thought. But, that casual approach can be a problem in business. Have you ever wished you could make a second, first impression because you said something that was out of character or embarrassing? That comment that you didn't think about before you said, has created an image in someone's mind that can not be replaced even when you meant something totally different. When it comes to oral communication, your goal should be to take advantage of its positive characteristics while minimising the dangers.

Speaking can be used as a tool to accomplish your objectives. But, first you must break the habit of talking spontaneously without planning what you're going to say or how you're going to say it. You must learn to manage the impression you create by consciously tailoring your remarks and delivery style to suit the situation. Here are some things which will make you an effective communicator:

- Remember to become aware of what you are saying.
- Apply the same process you use in written communication when you are communicating orally.
- Before you speak, think about your purpose, your main idea, and your audience.

- Organize your thoughts in a logical way.
- Decide on a style that suits the occasion and then edit your remarks mentally.
- As you speak, watch the other person to see whether your message is making the desired impression. If not, revise it and try again.

Remember that various situations call for different speaking styles, just as various writing assignments call for different writing styles. Here are four different styles that will suit every occasion.

1. Expressive Style is spontaneous, conversational, and uninhibited. Use this when you are expressing your feelings, joking, complaining, or socialising.

For example: "No way am I going to let that nerd force an incentive-pay plan on UPS workers."

2. Directive Style is an authoritative and judgmental style. We use this style to give orders, exert leadership, pass judgment, or state our opinions.

For example: "I want Mike Romig to explain the new pay plan to each manager."

3. Problem-Solving Style is rational, objective, unbiased, and bland. This is the style most commonly used in business dealings. We use it when we are solving problems and conveying routine information.

For example: "Stacy Lee might be able to present the plan more favourably."

4. Meta Style is used to discuss the communication process itself. Meta languages enable us to talk about our interactions.

For example: "We seem to be having a hard time agreeing on the specifics of the incentive-pay plan."

Following these few helpful tips will increase your communication awareness which will ultimately increase your value as an employee. Nice communicating with you!

4.0 CONCLUSION

Interpersonal communication is no doubt, an important aspect of business communication. In-depth knowledge on interpersonal communication will go a long way to promote development in a business environment. This would be achieved due to the cordiality that can be fostered between an organisation and its stakeholders.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit talked about interpersonal communication and its forms. Principles of interpersonal communication and its importance were also discussed. Tips on how to achieve good interpersonal communication skills were also explained.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Enumerate Ten Tips for Good interpersonal communication skills.
2. Discuss Four Principles of Interpersonal Communication.

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

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MODULE 4

UNIT 1 NEGOTIATION SKILLS

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives of the unit

3.0 Main Content

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3.2 How to Negotiate

3.3 The Successful Negotiator plan

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3.4 Different Styles of Negotiation

3.5 Preparing for the Successful Negotiation

3.5.1 How well have you thought through the options?

3.6 Negotiating Your Value

3.6.1 Tips to Focus on During the Research and Negotiation

3.7 Negotiation Strategies to Maximize Salary Offer

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/ Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Negotiation is a communication skill that must be mastered by every business organisation. Businesses are set up to produce products or goods and services. This make business organisation to interact with people who are in most cases their customers. Skill of negotiation helps the organisation to make a head way in achieving the primary motive of making profit. This unit will explain how to acquire the skill of negotiation. Those things that need to be done in the negotiation process will be discussed.

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

After completing this unit, you will be able to do the following.

Define the meaning of negotiation.

Explain what is needed to negotiate.
Identify the necessary plans to make before negotiating.
Enumerate and describe the different styles of negotiation.
Describe the Negotiation Strategies to maximise a salary offer.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is Negotiation?

Negotiation is a dialogue intended to produce an agreement upon courses of action, to bargain for individual or collective advantage, to resolve disputes or to craft outcomes to satisfy various interests. It is the primary method of alternative dispute resolution.

Negotiation occurs in business, non-profit organisations, government branches, legal proceedings, among nations and in personal situations such as employment salary, marriage divorce and everyday life. The study of the subject is called negotiation theory. Professional negotiators are often specialized, such as union negotiators, leverage buyout negotiators, peace negotiators, hostage negotiators, or may work under other titles, such as diplomats, legislators or brokers.

3.2 How to Negotiate

Before reaching a negotiation stage of selling the business, a lot of hard work must have been carried out on both sides. A vendor should ensure his company is totally ready for a sale and any of the potential purchaser must have carried out a due diligence

The Negotiations could be complex and time-consuming, and more often than not break down, sometimes at the very late stage; this could be very stressful for both the parties. Saying all this if a right approach is been taken by both the parties from a outset there is better chance of deal being struck which both the parties are happy with.

Prior to research, due diligence was and is always invaluable during any of the negotiation process. It will show the vendor that you do have the true picture of their company; this could be used to strengthen the bargaining position. The good purchaser will attempt to discover any of the weaknesses in the company so this could be exploited, while on the other hand the good vendor will attempt to highlight a company's strengths.

The use of the basic psychology in a negotiation process is often used: the common tactic is for a purchaser to try and understand the aspiration of a vendor. Most of the people become emotionally attached to business and could have the personal friends within staff. Understanding this is the very important tool for the successful negotiator. The good tactic used by a vendor could be to highlight how well the particular sector is growing year by year and how well an economy is doing and how well a purchaser will fair in future. While preparing for the important negotiation, be sure to invest a time which it takes to answer the following questions

What are other team's "hot buttons? What kind of facts, tactics, or evidence would they perceive to be convincing, meaningful, or "powerful?"

What will they hope to achieve from a negotiation at company level, group level, and also the personal level?

What will they hope to achieve from the other team's previous negotiation?

What are other team's needs and how you can gather the information for their needs?

Who are all interested parties for the negotiation?

Are there any of the penalties associated with negotiation, such as the penalty for bluffing?

What are time limits associated with a negotiation both as disclosed and undisclosed?

Who wants the change and who wants to keep the things in the way as they are?

What are best means of communication between two teams?

What is the cost of stalemate for their team and your team too?

What options do you have if you fail to reach the negotiated agreement?

A complex sales situation should be navigated by the sales professionals who do know how to successfully handle the challenge. Negotiating Success provides the proven methods to overcome the objections without relying on the price as a solution. This

programme is non-manipulative; allows the customer-focused process of ensuring that both sides win and leaves the company in a stronger position for future opportunities. Negotiation is the natural process in the business; both sides must be fully prepared and if possible should enjoy the process. Through good negotiation it is possible for both the sides to come out of a deal happy.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What are the likely questions to be answered before going into negotiation?

3.3 The Successful Negotiator plan

Each of the negotiation will, if done properly, be concerned with trading the concessions against each other. There will be usually more issues and the variables than could be used for such a trading than are immediately obvious. Good negotiators should consider all the possible variables before meeting, calculate or do estimate what each will cost, then decide which he/she will prefer to use and which others would prepare to use if it came to crunch. It can't be emphasised too strongly that the essence of a good negotiation lies in obtaining the concessions from the other party, which will totally or largely compensate for what you have extended.

3.3.1 What variables can I use?

- Price
- Discount or rebate
- Bonuses
- Delivery times
- Financial arrangements
- Training
- Packaging
- Spare parts
- Deposit arrangements
- Balance arrangements
- Credit terms
- Guarantees

There are many other variables and you will undoubtedly be able to produce the core list of the variables for most of your common negotiations. What each one would cost us at different levels of the business? What will it cost them? What each one would be worth to us? What worth would it be to them? These are the two crucial questions in the effective negotiations because they will start the thought process of: What is cheap for me to give but valuable for the one who gain? Also, what can I value which is cheap for them to agree to? Once you have answers to these questions you will quickly realise that a negotiation can be an art as it is a science.

3.4 Different Styles of Negotiation

There are varieties of styles of negotiation, depending on the circumstances. Where you do not expect to deal with the people ever again, and you also do not need their goodwill, it might be appropriate to play the hardball. Here you can seek to win the negotiation, while other person losing out. Many people do go through this situation when they buy or sell a house; that is why buying a house can be such a confrontational and an unpleasant experience. Similarly, where there is a great deal at stake in negotiation, for an example, in the large sales negotiations, then it might be appropriate to prepare the detail, and use the gamesmanship to gain advantage. These approaches usually are wrong for resolving disputes within the team. If the person plays the hardball, then this will put the other person at a disadvantage. Similarly, using tricks and manipulation during the negotiation could severely undermine trust, damaging the subsequent teamwork. While the manipulative person might not be caught if the negotiation is infrequent, this is not a case when the people work together on a day-by-day basis. Honesty and openness are best policies in the team-based negotiation.

3.5 Preparing for the Successful Negotiation

Depending on a scale of disagreement, the level of preparation might be appropriate for conducting the successful negotiation. For a small disagreement, excessive preparation could be counter-productive because it does take time, which is better focused in reaching the team goals. It could also be seen as manipulative because just as it does strengthen your position, it weakens the other person. If the major disagreement needed to be resolved, preparing thoroughly for that is required, and worthwhile. Think through the following points before you could start negotiating.

Goals:

What do you want to get out from the negotiation? What do you expect from the other person?

Trading:

What you and the other person have which you can trade? What do you and the other person have so that the other wants it? What might you both be prepared to give away?

Alternatives:

If you do not reach the agreement with him/her, what alternatives do you have? Are these things good or bad alternatives? How much does it matter if you do not reach the agreement? Will the failure to reach the agreement cut out future opportunities? What alternatives may the other person have?

The relationship:

What is a history of the relationship? Can or should this history impact on the negotiation?

Will there be any of the hidden issues that might influence negotiation? How will you handle these?

Expected outcomes:

What outcome would people be expecting from the negotiation? What was the outcome in the past and what precedents are being set?

The consequences:

What are the consequences of winning or losing this negotiation by you? What are the consequences of winning or losing by the other person?

Power:

Who has the power in the relationship? Who controls the resources? Who stands to lose most if the agreement is not reached? What power does the other person have to deliver what you do hope for?

Possible solutions:

Based on all considerations, what possible compromises might be there?

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

List what are needed to be done before engaging on negotiation.

3.5.1 How well have you thought through the options?

Negotiation is an art form – the more you practice, the better you are at it. Do the homework and feel confident. Know all your worth. Doing it right requires the preparation, studying the comparative situations, role playing and getting the other Perspective.

3.6 Negotiating Your Value

Each new job offer or the performance review is the opportunity to negotiate the basic salary, the bonuses, the benefits, stock options and the various other incentives which will add to the job satisfaction and ultimately, provide a more financial security. You will need to take control over your job search before the new job offer and plan ahead of the time for the annual performance review to reach the ultimate goal of the financial security and the happiness. So are you all prepared to negotiate?

First step in negotiating is making a decision to reach the goal. Once you have made the decision, there is a need for you to plan your approach, gather all the supporting information, consider the alternatives and the viewpoints, do communicate specifically, and understand the strengths and weaknesses. You should be able to respond effectively to a negotiating party, and knowing all your competitors will enable you to bargain for your position more efficiently and accurately.

3.6.1 Tips to Focus on During the Research and Negotiation.

1. Be Persuasive

It is very hard to force your boss to increase the compensation, and by trying to do so could potentially damage the working relationship you currently have. Think about a process to convince him/her, which might benefit organisation to increase your pay.

2. Do aim high and be realistic

Many researchers have found the strong correlation between the people's aspirations and results which they do achieve in the negotiation. At same time, you do want to suggest the ideas for which your boss realistically could say yes

3. Start with a right tone which you want

To let your boss to know that you will listen and will try to understand the views. At same time, you do expect your boss to do same for you so you could work together to address this issue. Avoid the ultimatums, threats and the other coercive behaviour.

4. Clarify the interest.

Your compensation must satisfy the range of needs, not just the salary. Make sure you do have thoughts about the other points of value for you as well -- like the profit sharing, stock options which vest immediately, the bonus, the greater work responsibilities, the quicker promotion schedule, the increased vacation or the flexible hours

5 Anticipate the boss's interests

Just like you, your boss does have needs and concerns. To make him to say yes, your ideas should have to address the things which are important for him

6. Create several of the options

The joint brainstorming is a most effective way to find the ideas which satisfy everybody's interests. It works best when you separate it from the commitment – first create the possible solutions, and later decide among them

7. Focus on the objective criteria

It is very easy to make someone to agree with your proposal if he/she looks at how that proposal is firmly grounded on the objective criteria, such as what similar firms do people of like experience want or what do others in the company make of such experiences.

8. Think through the alternatives

In case you cannot persuade your boss to say yes, you have to backup the plan. Part of the preparation is creating the specific action plan so that you know what you will do if you do have to walk away from a table.

9. Do prepare thoughtfully to achieve your goals

This is only an aspect for your negotiations which you can completely control. To take the advantages of all the above advice, you should invest significant amount of time and energy in preparing for negotiation by studying or reading materials related to the object of negotiation.

10. Review to learn

Only way by which you can really improve the ability to negotiate is explicitly to learn from the experiences. After finishing the negotiations, you reflect on what you did which worked well and what you may want to do differently. Ultimately you will be successful in achieving the goal of the financial security and the happiness!

3.7 Negotiation Strategies to Maximize Salary Offer

The best approach for the negotiation within the team is to adopt the win-win approach, i.e. the one in which both the parties feel positive about a situation when a negotiation is concluded. This will help to maintain the positive working relationship later on. This will govern the style of a negotiation. Histrionics and the displays of emotion are clearly inappropriate because they do undermine rational basis of negotiation and will bring the manipulative aspect to it. Despite this, emotion can be an important subject of discussion. For a team to function effectively, the emotional needs of team members must be fairly met. If emotion is not discussed where needed, the agreement reached can be unsatisfactory and temporary. Be as detached as possible when discussing your own emotions. Perhaps it would be best to discuss your emotions as if they belonged to someone else. Take some time always to consider the salary offer. Ask for the least of 24 to 48 hours. Silence is golden - or it could become so - when do you just let it hang up awhile following the initial offer. Do not rush to fill a quiet void. Weigh any of the offers against a company's expectations of you in a position rather than your own needs. A company has put itself on line with its offer. Rest assured they do have a cap, but you might have some of the wiggle room based upon how much value a company perceives you could bring them

Write the "counter-offer" letter thanking the company for its entire offer to you, recap why do they say they want you, and will enthusiastically proclaim the desire to join their team provided they will reconsider an amount of their offer. Accept a risk involved with this approach and will be prepared to walk away if it will not work

Know when it is no longer in the best interest to keep the negotiating and then move on to next opportunity. Usually, if a situation does not feel quite right, it is not. You will not be happy working wherever you do feel you are a proverbial square peg in the round hole – especially if you do feel you were taken advantage of

4.0 CONCLUSION

Negotiation skill, as a skill that gives business organisation headway in its profit motive, needs to be carefully studied. The aftermath of a negotiation exercise should be able to put smile in the faces of the party involved. This can only be if the parties involved play their role perfectly well. Negotiation skill study is vital to business organisation.

5.0 SUMMARY

Explanation of what negotiation is and how to negotiate were treated in this unit. Also treated are: successful negotiation plan, different styles of negotiation, negotiation strategy and negotiating your value

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What are the things to focus on during research and negotiation?

Explain the negotiation strategy for maximising a salary offer

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

William Ury, (1993): Negotiating Your Way from Confrontation to Cooperation, revised second edition, Bantam, trade paperback, New York.

Roger Fisher (1981): Negotiating Agreement Without Giving in, Revised 2nd edition, Penguin USA, , trade paperback

MODULE 4

UNIT 2 CORPORATE COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives of the unit

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Meaning of corporate communication

3.2 What corporate communication encodes and promotes

3.3 Corporate communication comprises:

3.3.1 External communication

3.4 Corporate Identity/Organisational Identity

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3.6 Crisis communication

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3.8 Power of Corporate communication

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Corporate communication is the communication that is issued by a corporate / organisation / body / institute to all its public(s). Publics here - can be both internal (employees, stakeholders, such as share and stock holders) and external (agencies, channel partners, media, government, industry bodies and institutes, educational institutes and general public). This unit explains in detail what is meant by corporate communication.

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the meaning of corporate communication
- List what corporate communication encodes and promotes
- Describe components of corporate communication
- Discuss corporate or organization identity
- Describe what is crisis and employee communication

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of corporate communication

According to the book Essentials of Corporate Communication by Cees van Riel and Charles Fombrun the term Corporate Communication can be defined as the set of activities involved in managing and orchestrating all internal and external communications aimed at creating favorable starting points with stakeholders on which the company depends. Corporate communication consists of the dissemination of information by a variety of specialists and generalists in an organisation, with the common goal of enhancing the organisation's ability to retain its license to operate.

As Jackson (1987) remarks: Note that it is corporate communication - without a final "s". Tired of being called on to fix the company switchboard, recommend an answering machine or meet a computer salesman, I long ago adopted this form as being more accurate and left communications to the telecommunications specialists. It's a small point but another attempt to bring clarity out of confusion. Corporate communication serves as the liaison between an organisation and its publics.

Organisations can strategically communicate to their audiences through public relations and advertising. This may involve an employee newsletter or video, crisis management with the news media, special events planning, building product value and communicating with stockholders, clients or donors.

3.2 Corporate communication encodes and promotes the following.

Strong corporate culture Coherent

corporate identity Reasonable

corporate philosophy

Genuine sense of corporate citizenship

An appropriate and professional relationship with the press, including quick, responsible ways of communicating in a crisis

Understanding of communication tools and technologies

Sophisticated approaches to global communications

How an organisation communicates with its employees, its extended audiences, the press and its customers brings its values to life. Corporate communications is all about managing perceptions and ensuring:

Effective and timely dissemination of information

Positive corporate image

Smooth and affirmative relationship with all stakeholders

Be it a corporate body, company, organisation, institution, non-governmental organisation, governmental body, all of them needs to have a respectable image and reputation. In today's day and age of increasing competition, easy access to information and the media explosion, reputation management has gained even more importance. Therefore, corporate communications as a role has become significant and professional in nature. Gone are the days when corporate communication merely meant 'winning and dining the client' - it has now emerged as a science and art of perception management.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

List what corporate communicate encodes and promotes

3.3 Corporate communication comprises:

3.3.1 External communication

1. Media relations

This involves building and maintaining a positive relationship with the media (television, print, web, et cetera). This includes, but is not limited to, drafting and dissemination of press releases, organising press conferences and meeting with media professionals and organising events for the media as a group.

2. External events

Could involve vendor / supplier / distributor needs? meetings? Channel partner meetings, events related to product launches, important initiatives, et cetera.

3. Company/spokesperson profiling

Ensuring that the company/organisations spokesperson is in the limelight, is well-known and considered as an authority in the respective sector/field.

Managing content of corporate websites and/or other external touch points

Managing corporate publications - for the external world

Managing print media

4. Brand management

Development and upkeep of the corporate identity to ensure adherence to corporate brand guidelines

To improve overall business communications so as to clearly and effectively communicate the essence of the company.

3.4 Corporate Identity/Organizational Identity

There are two approaches for Identity, respectively: Corporate Identity and Organisational Identity.

"Corporate Identity is the reality and uniqueness of an organisation, which is integrally related to its external and internal image and reputation through corporate communication" (Gray and Balmer, 1998)

"Organisational Identity comprises those characteristics of an organisation that its members believe are central, distinctive and enduring. That is, organisational identity consists of those attributes that members feel are fundamental to (central) and uniquely descriptive of (distinctive) the organisation and that persist within the organisation over time (enduring)". (Pratt and Foreman, 2000)

3.5 Corporate Reputation

Reputations are overall assessments of organisations by their stakeholders. They are aggregate perceptions by stakeholders of an organisation's ability to fulfil their expectations, whether these stakeholders are interested in buying the company's products, working for the company, or investing in the company's shares there are several evaluation programs that can developed by either media organisations or market research firms, and which can be used by companies to assess or benchmark their corporate reputations.

3.6 Crisis communication

Crisis communications is generally considered a sub-specialty of the public relations profession that is designed to protect and defend an individual, company, or organisation facing a public challenge to its reputation. These challenges may come in the form of an investigation from a government agency, a criminal allegation, a media inquiry, a shareholders lawsuit, a violation of environmental regulations, or any of a number of other scenarios involving the legal, ethical, or financial standing of the entity.

Crisis communications professionals preach that an organisation's reputation is often its most valuable asset. When that reputation comes under attack, protecting and defending it becomes the highest priority. This is particularly true in today's 24 hour news cycle, fuelled by government investigations, Congressional or parliamentary hearings, lawsuits, and -gotchall journalism. When events like these happen, the media firestorm can quickly overwhelm the ability of the entity to effectively respond to the demands of the crisis. To emerge with its reputation intact, an organisation must anticipate every move and respond

immediately and with confidence. Companies facing such a threat will often bring in experienced crisis communications specialists to help prepare and guide them through the process.

Effectively responding to the challenges of a crisis requires more than the typical skills of the public relations professional, requiring instead experience at the highest levels of the field, such as investigative reporting, politics, and the government house

Crisis communications can include crafting thorough and compelling statements, known as –messages, often tested by research and polling. Additional tactics may include proactive media outreach to get messages and context to the media, identifying and recruiting credible third-party allies who can attest to the company’s side of the story, and striking first, not waiting to be hit.

Crisis communications is a part of larger process referred to as crisis management though it may well be a major tool of handling a crisis situation in government, organisation or business.

It is also considered a sub-speciality of the Business Continuity area of modern business. The aim of crisis communications in this context is to assist organisations to achieve continuity of critical business processes and information flows under crisis, disaster or event driven circumstances. Responding quickly, efficiently, effectively and in a premeditated way are the primary objectives of an effective crisis communications strategy and/or solution. Harnessing technology and people to ensure a rapid and co-ordinated response to a range of potentially crippling scenarios distinguishes a well thought out and executed plan from a poorly or ill-considered one. The inherent lag time in marshalling responses to a crisis can result in considerable losses to company revenues, reputation as well as substantially impacting on costs.

Effective crisis communications strategies will typically consider achieving most, if not all, of the following objectives;

- Maintain connectivity
- Be readily accessible to the news media
- Show empathy for the people involved
- Allow distributed access
- Streamline communication processes
- Maintain information security
- Ensure uninterrupted audit trails
- Deliver high volume communications
- Support multi-channel communications
- Remove dependencies on paper based processes

By definition a crisis is an unexpected and detrimental situation or event. Crisis communications can play a significant role by transforming the unexpected into the anticipated and responding accordingly.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

State the target of effective crisis communication

3.7 Employee communication

Sharing information with employees, building employer pride, managing employee issues, et cetera.

Manage the Intranet and other internal web portals

1. Internal communication

Managing corporate publications for employees and partners

Organising internal events for staff

2. Corporate communication officers

Recent research on the corporate communication function reports that corporate communication officers (CCOs) in companies tend to have average tenures of about 4.5 years and that nearly one-half (48 per cent) report to the Chief Executive Officer. CCOs say that approximately 42 per cent of their job is strategic and 58 per cent is tactical. Over the next year, they will be focusing more on social responsibility, social media and reputation. A research found distinct differences between CCOs in Most Admired companies versus Contender companies (Sofoluwe ;2007).

3.8 Power of Corporate communication

The Corporate communication will involve much more than just motivating the employees and then dispensing the good PR. It does represent the tool to be leveraged and the process which is to be mastered. A Power of Corporate Communication shows the managers and the executives how to communicate effectively with the fellow employees from a mailroom to boardroom, and also between the organisations and across the industries. Fully accessible and nonacademic refreshingly, it will create the easy-to-follow map of world of corporate communication, with the workplace-tested approaches for addressing the common challenges. Written by the two leaders in the today's corporate communication field Paul Argenti is an author of 1994's Corporate Communicational. Power of Corporate Communication is replete with the careful analyses, the real-world examples and the case studies from leading organisations such as Sony, Coca-Cola, and the GE who know how to manage corporate communication, especially when problem arise. A Power of the Corporate Communication is the most

straight-talking guide of today's for mastering an art and leveraging a power of the corporate communication. The key components of a corporate communication function. Methods to manage the multiple constituencies and deliver consistent, the relevant messages Crisis communication tactics, and dangers of creating the "spin" as opposed to facing the problems head-on. The Successful communication program is central to everything the organisation accomplishes, or will hope to accomplish. Let a Power of the Corporate Communication provide you with tools which you need to establish and maintain the program and build the corporate communication program which provides you with the strategic advantage. "If it is left unaddressed, issues of the corporate communication could come back to haunt the company, and when addressed, they could extend the success of the organisation.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In order for corporate organisation to excel, she must be able effectively to communicate to her entire stake holder. Such communication must be effective and timely. Motivating employee, crisis management, maintaining the reputation of the organisation and corporate communication have all been explained and discussed in this unit

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we discussed corporate communication as the communication that is issued by a corporate organisation to the public. We also discussed what corporate organisations connote and their components. Crisis communication and employee communication are also treated as part of the obligations of corporate communication. Corporate communication is vested with some power; the nature of power of corporate communication was also explained.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain the concept of power of communication
2. What is crisis communication?
3. What are the components of corporate communication?

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

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MODULE 4

UNIT 3 INTERVIEW SKILLS

CONTENTS

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 - 3.1 Interview skills**
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3.0 INTRODUCTION

Interview skill is another very important skill in business communication. It is important because it helps an organisation in making right decision concerning various issues that affect growth of the organisation. Some of such issues are recruitment of employee for the organisation, getting the best contractor for a supply and so on. This unit will explain the necessary interview skills in business communication

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

On completion of this unit, you should be able to:

Have an overview of interview skills for recruitment purpose

Explain the necessary interview skills that an interviewer should possess
Describe the structure of an interview
Protect the types of questions that should be asked by an interviewer
Project, give suggestions of what is expected from the interviewee by the interviewer

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Interview skills

The interview is, perhaps, the most nerve-wracking aspect of the recruitment process, not just for the candidate but also for the interviewer. If an interview is conducted competently, it is a useful opportunity for a candidate to prove that he or she will be an asset to a prospective employer. It is, however, also an opportunity for an employer to promote organisation and therefore attract the best employees.

3.2 The interviewer

Given that people are the most important resource in any organisation, recruiting the wrong ones can be costly. In fact, replacing an employee can cost up to 50 percent of that employee's annual salary. It is far better to invest your time in fine-tuning your interview skills that spend time on damage limitation after discovering that you have employed the wrong person. The interview is your opportunity to get the right employee, and a good preparation is essential.

3.2.1 Structure of interviews:

In recruitment the process starts from the moment you have a shortlist of applicants and a pile of application forms or Curricula vitae in front of you. The interview is essentially a meeting to put the proverbial flesh on the bones of information provided by a candidate on their application form or CV. Your purpose is to satisfy yourself that the candidate meets the requirement for the job and fit in with the culture of your organisation.

You need to prepare questions in advance. Effective questions come from knowing what skills and attitudes a job requires. You should have already defined the job criteria before advertising a position and these criteria can be used as a basis for generating questions. Scan through application forms or CVs carefully and make a note of any point that emerged. These could be achievements or successful in a particular area of work or you may require clarification on some aspect of the candidates' application. For example, is there an unexplained gap in their employment history?

Decide on or agree with colleague the areas that you wish to discuss during an interview. Having done this, you need to draw up an agenda. If you are going to 'panel interview' with colleague, identify in advance that will raise specific questions and at what point during the interview. Remember that you want to present your employee as organised and efficient. If you appear disorganised at interview, you will send out a negative message to a prospective employee.

The whole process needs to be carefully managed so that you allow sufficient time for the interview itself and also time between a summary while the interview is still fresh in your mind, especially if you have many interviewees.

Remember to give the interviewee an opportunity to ask questions. This serves two purposes: it helps the applicant to decide if your organisation is right for him or her is a chance for you to evaluate his or her knowledge of your organisation and ability to ask questions effectively.

3.2.2 Environment and atmosphere

Preparation for the interview also includes getting the environment right. Interviews are stressful enough without candidate being made to feel intimidated by the layout of the room. For example try using a round rather than rectangular table, or seat the candidate at an angle rather than directly in front of you. Layouts that allow candidate to feel equal rather than the victim are best. In order to manage time discreetly, make sure that your watch is either on the desk in an unobtrusive spot or, better still; use a clock which is positioned on the wall behind the candidate.

It is important for all your staff to be kept informed about when the interviews are taking place. It helps them to feel involved and makes them aware that their attitude and disposition, if they meet candidate, could influence a good candidate's decision to accept or reject a job offer.

3.2.3 Welcoming the interviewee

Use the first few minutes of the interview as a –meet and greet|| opportunity. Make the candidates feel at ease by shaking hands and by making small talk. Next, outline the structure of the interview and perhaps restate the objectives, for example what you are looking for in a candidate and why. Make it clear that the interview is a two-way process and is equally about the candidate making a decision about whether they wish to work for you as it is about you making a decision about them.

3.2.4 Competent questioning

The best questions to ask during interviews are open question rather than closed or leading questions. However, because in everyday speech we get into the habit of poor questioning, it takes effort to get it at interview. For checking, you may need to use closed questions but for probing and analysis use question such as:

Tell me about?
What would you say if?
How would you react if?
What would you do if?
What are your opinions on?

Behavioural or competence based interviewing is perhaps the most commonly used interview method. Interviewers use this method to try to determine how a candidate

would behave or has behaved in a given situation. Quite often candidate are asked to give an example of a situation where they demonstrated a particular skill. For example, they may be asked: I can you give me an example of how you dealt with a difficult situation at work?

The purpose of interview is to find out whether the candidate really can do the job they claim that they can on their application form or CV, which is why asking questions that are directly related to the job being offered is useful. You also need to determine whether the candidate really wants the job. For example how enthusiastic and committed do they appear?

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Explain the detail, the best type of questions that are most suitable for interviewing process

3.2.5 Active listening

If an interview works well, the candidate should be doing about 70 percent of the talking and you should be spending most of your time listening. And you should be actively rather than just passively listening to what candidates are saying. In 'the interview's pocketbook', author John Townsend gives the following tips for people who want to become better listeners:

- Maintain sensitive eye contact
- Try to mirror the speaker's body posture and talking speed
- Encourage the speaker to continue when you want more information
- Paraphrase regularly
- Clarify information
- Give regular feedback on how you feel

Use positive body language as you listen, if only to help the candidate feel more at ease. For example, nodding occasionally, smiling or using open handed gestures should encourage a candidate to continue speaking. You may also need to give some attention to your paralinguistic skills, which is not so much about what you say but speech, pitch variation, volume and vocal quality. It matters because the way you speak often affects the message that you send. Do you, for example, use any inflection in your voice as you speak, or do you speak rather loudly?

3.2.6 Equal opportunities

One costly mistake that has occurred during interviews is when the wrong questions have been asked and have led feeling of discrimination. As an interviewer you must avoid asking questions that contravene equal opportunities such as sex discrimination. You should avoid asking questions about any of the following

- Marital status
- Number or age of children
- Husband employment
- Living arrangement
- Parent occupation
- Boyfriend
- Plan to get engaged or to marry

As an interviewer your task is to assess solely on the basis of a person's qualifications and suitability for the job. The same standard should apply when assessing men and women. Criteria adopted for assessment of candidates should not discriminate indirectly against women.

You also need to make sure that you do not use subtle discrimination based on your prejudices about what you perceive to be the relative characteristics, lifestyles or abilities of men and women. For example, do not assume that a woman may not be prepared to travel in her job because of domestic responsibilities

3.2.7 Evaluate your performance

Always evaluate your performance after an interview. This can be self-evaluation or, if you share interviewing with colleague, peer-evaluation might be more appropriate. Try to assess whether you achieved your objectives as an interviewer and try to use the information about your interviewing skills to improve your technique for the subsequent interviews you conduct.

3.3 The interviewee

Because many people will aspire to get a new job or change the present place of employment during their career, good interviewee skills are also necessary. Having looked at what an interviewer should be doing during an interview not hard to assess what need to be done if you are on the other side of the table. Your task is to self-promote and self-market to make your interviewer believe that you are the best for the job. In 'kick start your career', the author recommends the 4Ps methods for succeeding at interviews:

- Preparation
- Presentation
- Personality
- Positive mental attitude

3.3.1 Preparation

Appearance and first impressions really do count. Dress smartly and present yourself at interview as someone who looks like they already work at the organisation or company in question

Prepare for interview by first of all convincing yourself that you really are the best person for the job. You will have been selected for interview because your prospective employer

believes that you have at least satisfied, if not exceeded, the minimum requirements for the job. The challenge you face is that other people will also have met Those minimum requirements. You therefore have to demonstrate that you offer added value.

Your preparation should also include finding out as much as can about your potential employer and noting down anything relevant that you could raise during the interview. It could be something interesting about the company or organisation or you may need to raise a question of clarification.

Review your copies of your application form and CV and be preparing to talk about anything you have mentioned. For example, if you claim to be an excellent problem solver, go to the interview armed with examples of when you successfully solve a problem. In addition, pre-empt the type of questions that you will be asked at interview and rehearse the answers out aloud. It really helps to practice with a friend. Try to understand what it is that the interviewer is really trying to find out. For example, the answer to question –what are you goals for the next five years? usually demonstrates how motivated you are. Although some questions tend to be variations on theme. Frequently asked questions include:

- Tell me little about your previous experience as a worker?
- How do you think your colleagues would describe you?
- What is the most challenging issue you have faced at work?
- What specific experience do you feel you can bring to the job?
- Why do you think you are best person for the job?
- What do you see as the key issues facing the industry in the future?
- How would you deal with difficult member of staff?
- What would you describe as your main strength?
- What would you say motivates you at work?

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

List and explain the 4Ps methods that are necessary for succeeding in an interview

3.3.2 During interview

In spite of your nerves, try to maintain a friendly, positive disposition throughout the interview. And remember that your task is to sell yourself. Enthusiasm pays dividends especially when you are up against another candidate who on paper is equally qualified. As well as answering questions at interview, it is also important to ask questions, for example about training or opportunity for career progression.

3.3.3 After interview

Whether you are offered the job or not, always try to get feedback about your interview. It will boost your confidence if you are offered the job and, if you were not, you might

learn something about yourself or interview technique that will be helpful for the next interview

4.0 CONCLUSION

As explained above, the outcome of interviews that is conducted by a business organization goes a long way to determine the future of such company. The most important factor in the success of any business is its human resource. Therefore, the process of recruitment should be taken very seriously. More time should be devoted to preparation for any interview process.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt about the necessary things that an interviewer and interviewee should do before embarking on a job interview. The knowledge of this is necessary to have balanced business communication skills

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Describe the concept of active listening in an interview process
2. List seven likely questions that an interviewee can expect in an interview process

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

Grout P, Gerrin (2002). Effective Interviewing. 4th edition. London: Kogan page

Townsend J. (2000), the interview's pocket book. 2nd edition. Hampshire: Management Pocketbooks

MODULE 4

UNIT 4 COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

We are living in a Jet age and world that can now be described as a global village. Consequently, technology revolution has been witnessed in recent past. Communication has also been a beneficiary of such useful technologies. This has actually changed the forms of business communication. Information is sent across the world in a twinkle of an eye. This is really helping businesses to grow. In fact, the level of technology that is available at a business's disposal will determine the extent of success of the business. This unit will explain what communication technology is all about

2.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

On completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- State the importance of communication technology to business organisation
- Online and discuss the popular communication technology
- Discuss the meaning of computer technology

Explain what is meant by management technology

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Communication Technology

Communication technology provides access to information and markets in business organisation. It connects people to various marketing opportunities. Thus, communication technologies help in bringing about transformation in business environment. It causes efficiency in transaction activities. The computer-mediated communication technology includes conferencing technologies and messaging systems. This technology also facilitates group work. Communication technology provides a way in transforming economies. It is also useful for evaluating current information

Communication technology helps to:

- Develop thinking skills
- Decrease the need for memorisation of the facts
- Evaluates current information
- Develop accessing skills

Communication technologies also help in training the workers. It promotes better understanding and coordination. The popular communication technologies are:

- Teleconference
- Telephone
- E-mail
- Fax
- Internet

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What are the functions of communication Technology?

3.1.1 Teleconference

A teleconference or [teleseminar](#) is the live exchange and mass articulation of [information](#) among several persons and machines remote from one another but linked by a [telecommunications system](#). Terms as audio conferencing, telephone conferencing and phone conferencing are also sometimes used to refer to teleconferencing.

The telecommunications system may support the teleconference by providing one or more of the following audio, [video](#), and/or [data](#) services by one or more means, such as [telephone](#), [computer](#), [telegraph](#), [teletype](#), [radio](#), and [television](#).^[1]

Internet teleconferencing

Internet teleconferencing includes internet [telephone conferencing](#), [videoconferencing](#), and [Augmented Reality](#) conferencing.

[Internet telephony](#) involves conducting a teleconference over the [Internet](#) or a [Wide Area Network](#). One key technology in this area is [Voice over Internet Protocol](#) (VOIP). Popular software for personal use includes [Skype](#), [Google Talk](#), [Windows Live Messenger](#) and [Yahoo Messenger](#).

Video-conferencing

Video-conferencing enables face to face interaction between the employees and their boss. It enables effective communication of ideas. Video-conferencing motivates employees. Students and teachers may also communicate through face to face interaction. Video-conferencing increases intimacy and promotes interaction.

3.1.2 Telephone

Learning how to communicate well on the telephone is one of the top priorities for many businesses who need to use English at work. Learning the common phrases that are used on the telephone helps the user to know what to expect. However, what users often need most is practice, practice, and more practice. While helpful, practicing a role-play using a phone is not always the best way to improve telephoning skills. Telephoning requires special skills as there are a number of difficulties that arise when telephoning that are specific to telephoning. The first and foremost difficulty is not being able to see the person you are communicating with. This lack of visual communication often makes users, who can communicate quite successfully in other situations, nervous and thereby hinders their communicative abilities. Add to this the typical hectic pace of business communication, and you have a particularly difficult situation. There is need for a feature which includes a number of ingredients to improve telephoning skills. Also specific telephoning phrases, telephoning techniques to improve confidence when telephoning and telephoning practice exercises will also help in the process.

3.1.3 E-mail

Electronic mail, often abbreviated as email or e-mail, is a method of exchanging digital messages, designed primarily for human use. E-mail systems are based on a [store-and-forward](#) model in which e-mail computer server systems accept, forward, deliver and store messages on behalf of users, who only need to connect to the e-mail infrastructure, typically an e-mail server, with a network-enabled device (e.g., a personal computer) for the duration of message submission or retrieval. Rarely is e-mail transmitted directly from one user's device to another's.

An electronic mail message consists of two components, the message header, and the message body, which is the email's content. The message header contains control information, including, minimally, an originator's email address and one or more

recipient addresses. Usually additional information is added, such as a subject header field.

E-mail was widely accepted by the business community as the first broad electronic communication medium and was the first 'e-revolution' in business communication. E-mail is very simple to understand and like postal mail, e-mail solves two basic problems of communication: logistics and synchronisation. Local area network based email is also an emerging form of usage for business. It not only allows the business user to download mail when offline, it also enables the small business user to have multiple users e-mail ID's with just one e-mail connection

Exchanging emails has replaced the use of phone and personal conversations. To a large extent, e-mails have their advantages for sure - they are fast, they can be sent 24/7 without disturbing anyone, they create an information trail and they can help distribute documents, graphics, mp3 files and so on.

Emails are not always an appropriate way to communicate. Here are 3 instances when email is not the recommended communication tool in business.

- **Do not use email to communicate information that is top secret.**

When it is so easy for someone to forward and/or blind copying another person on your email, it is unwise to convey information that would be considered competitive intelligence.

- **Do not use email to terminate and employee.**

Yes, scary but true, some employers resort to a pink email - as opposed to a pink slip! If you can't find the time, energy and respect for the person, then it says more about your leadership that it does about their reason for termination. Common courtesy means using common sense and commonly held ethical beliefs to guide your actions.

- **Do not use email when conveying performance criticisms.**

Emotionally sensitive information should not be conveyed via email. Body language, tone of voice, etc. can not be interpreted and you run the risk of people misunderstanding a message due to the coldness of an email.

Performance conversations should happen in person whenever possible.

3.1.4 Fax

Fax (short for facsimile, from [Latin](#) fac simile, "make similar", i.e. "make a copy") is a [telecommunications](#) technology used to transfer copies ([facsimiles](#)) of documents,

especially using affordable devices operating over the [telephone](#) network. The word telefax, short for telefacsimile, for "make a copy at a distance", is also used as a [synonym](#). Although fax is not an [acronym](#), it is often written as -FAX¹¹. The device is also known as a telecopier in certain industries. When sending documents to people at long distances, faxes have a distinct advantage over postal mail in that the delivery is nearly instantaneous, yet its disadvantages in quality have relegated it to a position beneath [email](#) as the prevailing form of electronic document transfer

Although devices for transmitting printed documents electrically have existed, in various forms, since the 19th century, modern fax machines became feasible only in the mid-1970s as the sophistication increased and cost of the three underlying technologies dropped. Digital fax machines first became popular in [Japan](#), where they had a clear advantage over competing technologies like the [teleprinter](#), since at the time (before the development of easy-to-use [input method editors](#)) it was faster to handwrite than to type the characters. Over time, faxing gradually became affordable, and by the mid-1980s, fax machines were very popular around the world.

Although many businesses still maintain some kind of fax capability, the technology has faced increasing competition from [Internet](#)-based systems. However, fax machines still retain some advantages, particularly in the transmission of sensitive material which, due to mandates like [Sarbanes-Oxley](#) and [HIPAA](#), cannot be sent over the Internet unencrypted. In some countries, because [electronic signatures](#) on contracts are not recognized by law while faxed contracts with copies of signatures are, fax machines enjoy continuing support in business.

In many corporate environments, standalone fax machines have been replaced by "[fax servers](#)" and other computerised systems capable of receiving and storing incoming faxes electronically, and then routing them to users on paper or via an [email](#) (which may be secured). Such systems have the advantage of reducing costs by eliminating unnecessary printouts and reducing the number of inbound analog phone lines needed by an office.

3.1.5 Internet

The Internet is a global system of interconnected [computer networks](#) that use the standardised [Internet Protocol Suite](#) (TCP/IP). It is a network of networks that consists of millions of private and public, academic, business, and government networks of local to global scope that are linked by [copper](#) wires, [fiber-optic](#) cables, [wireless](#) connections, and other technologies.

The Internet carries a vast array of [information](#) resources and services, most notably the inter-linked [hypertext](#) documents of the [World Wide Web](#) (WWW) and the infrastructure to support [electronic mail](#), in addition to popular services such as [online chat](#), [file transfer](#) and [file sharing](#), [online gaming](#), and [Voice over Internet Protocol](#) (VoIP) person-to-person communication via voice and video.

The origins of the Internet reach back to the 1960s when the United States funded research projects of its military agencies to build robust, fault-tolerant and distributed computer networks. This research and a period of civilian funding of a new U.S. backbone by the [National Science Foundation](#) spawned worldwide participation in the development of new networking technologies and led to the commercialisation of an international network in the mid 1990s, and resulted in the following popularization of countless applications in virtually every aspect of modern human life. By 2009, an estimated quarter of Earth's population uses the services of the Internet

The Internet already has become a pervasive force in our society, and projections are that it will continue to become even more so in the future. Every business organisation needs to be sure adequate use of the rich resources found on the Internet for business communication

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

List and explain the popular communication technologies that are available for business communication

3.2 Computer Technology

Computer technology promotes independence and self-assessment. It stimulates the interest of the students. The various programs in the system help students in self-assessment. Word processor programs help students in organising letters. Interactive computers also help students with their pronunciation. Computer technology assists people in learning languages. Teachers may re-evaluate their teaching methods with the help of computers. Teachers may also effectively use computer technology to enhance their teaching skills. Computer technology assists people with learning disabilities. The disabled people may use graphics software and word processor to express themselves. Computers help students to improve their spellings. Computer technologies also benefit people with speech disability. Students may film clips of their speech and replay them. Computer technology assists them in practicing their speech skills.

3.3 Management Technology

Management technology protects the sensitive corporate information. Management technologies offer solutions to many IT problems. It also reduces IT costs. An effective management technology should provide the following benefits:

 Trouble shooting and recovery: It increases the efficiency of IT staff.

 Non volatile storage: It survives system rebuilds.

 Proactive alerting: It decreases downtime.

Tamper resistant agents: It prevents users from disturbing the software.

An effective management technology helps technicians in obtaining accurate inventory information. This technology improves asset management and reduces desk-side visits.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Technology is an ever dynamic field which determines the pace of activities in the world. This shows that a business organisation must be ever prepare to synchronises itself into the tunes of technology. Communication technology, though might be costly, makes business to grow at a faster rate

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we discussed some of communication technologies that are presently available for business organisation. Computer technology and management technology were also discussed.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Explain the following in detail

1. Communication Technology
2. Computer Technology
3. Management Technology

7.0 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

Castells, M. (2001), -Lessons from the History of Internetll, in -The essence of communication technologyll, Ch. 1, pp 9–35. Oxford Univ. Press