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### Module I: Report Writing

Unit 1: Effective Writing 1.0 Introduction 1.1 Unit Objective 1.2 Effective Writing 1.3 Effective Communication: The Choice and Uses of Words 1.3.1 Usage of Denotative Words 1.3.2 Usage of Concrete Words 1.3.3 Usage of Plain and Familiar Words 1.4 Effective Sentences 1.4.1 Unity and Coherence 1.4.2 Emphasis 1.4.3 Parallel Construction 1.4.4 Length of Sentences 1.4.5 Types of Sentences and Usage 1.4.5.1 Active Voice Sentences and Usage 1.4.5.2 Passive Voice Sentences and Usage 1.4.5.3 Simple Sentences 1.4.5.4 Precise Sentences 1.4.5.5 Concise Sentences 1.4.5.6 Types of Sentences in Business Writings 1.5 Effective Paragraphs 1.5.1 Structure of Paragraphs 1.6 Unit Summary 1.7 Key Terms 1.8 Check Your Progress 1.0 Introduction Joseph Pulitzer, one of the most influential journalists in the United States who established the pattern of the modern newspaper, has given us various guiding quotes. One of his quotes that can help the writing learners says: "Put it before them briefly so they will read it, Clearly, so they will appreciate it,

Picturesquely so they will remember it, And, above all, accurately so they will be guided by its light. -- Joseph Pulitzer Writing an idea without making any grammatical errors is not all business writing requires. Every business writing must be effective in its approach too. Ineffective writing may lead to failed business communication too. Generally, it has been seen that writers consider effective writing merely an ornament; they neglect the skills that can make their writing effective. Though in the professional world you cannot afford to be ineffective in any of your approaches made towards doing business. The effective writing skills taught through this unit are not only the necessities of report writing, they are majorly significant for all kinds of formal writings and business writings.

### 1.1 Unit Objective

This unit intends to make the learners well aware with all the skills they need to write effectively. The elements of effective writing are diction, sentence structure, and paragraph structure.

### 1.2 Effective Writing

Effective writing is a device to achieve success. You can make written communication effective by adopting the right style of writing. Style is not merely an ornamental device; it is a skill and approach which you can adopt to write effectively. Being aware of your style of writing can help you to deliver information objectively and effectively. The way you present a piece of information largely influences the way your reader shall respond to it. Effective writing implies what you intended to convey and you have delivered it. It shall help you to derive the desired result or action. In professional writing, you must consciously choose the style most appropriate for your material, readers, and purpose. Style can make your writing look attractive and presentable. The presentation of your writing depends on the purpose, situation, and audience. Like Jonathan Swift, a writer describing the 'style' said, it is 'proper words at proper places. The elements of effective writing are:

- Suitable use of words;
- The arrangement of words in sentences; and
- The organization of sentences in a paragraph.

Hence, writing by using suitable words and arranging them in sentences and paragraphs commands the attention of the reader. It conveys the message effectively. Following are given three sentences that are correct in the terms of grammar, spelling, and punctuation. But are they effective?

1. Annual board meeting is in August. (It is not effective.) This sentence is not factually representing the information.
2. Yashin bought a book. (It is incomplete) It does not tell which book he bought.
3. It is written in a gobbledygook. (It is not understandable) The sentence does not make it clear what gobbledygook is.

Effective writing is the one that is factually correct, complete, and understandable. Any professional writing lacking in serving any of these qualities shall fail in its purpose. The primary virtues of professional writing are clarity, directness, conciseness, and readability and secondarily comes grammar, spelling, and punctuation. Effective writing is the culmination of both the features - primary and secondary. A writer Janet Aiken describing the language requirement said, "Good grammar is not merely grammar which is free from unconventionality or even from the immoralities. It is the triumph of the communication process, the use of words which create in the reader's mind the thing as the writer conceived it; it is a creative act....." As styles and presentations of writing depend on the purpose and situation or circumstances, it implies styles may vary differentiating from each other. You may adopt any style, still, you must strive to place in the virtues of professional writing that are accuracy, clarity, directness, preciseness, conciseness, and readability.

Business communication writings should not be charged with emotional intensity. Developing a scientific attitude in writing shall help you to be objective in your approach to problems, impartial in analyzing data, and presenting truthful information. You can use factual writing when you need to describe something or some action convincingly. If it requires describing something - observe and select details; when it is to describe an action effectively you must know why, when, and how it is done. Read the following given paragraph carefully - "If you want to blow up a football, first you should loosen the lace, and pull out the tube which projects from the bladder. Untie the string on this tube and insert the nozzle of the inflator into the end of the tube. After sufficient air gets in, bounce the ball once or twice to ensure an even inflation of the bladder. Then remove the inflator and tie the end of the tube firmly with a string. Push the tube back in the cover and make sure that the leather 'tongue' is in the correct position before tightening the lace." You will notice how the paragraph is describing different actions clearly, orderly, convincingly, and technically to inflate a football. If you switch the order of sentences you cannot inflate the football. It is a scientific approach implied to describe the actions. In a scientific approach you need to be factual not subjective. For example, if it says "There are 10 packets in this box" it represents the factual presentation. However, if it says "There are 10 lousy packets in this box" it does not verify whether the packets are lousy or not, it expresses the writer's opinion. Giving the denotative words you can verify the facts. Arranging the words in a sentence in the right structure can help you to avoid ambiguity. For example, consider the sentence: "If the child does not like spinach, try boiling it with milk". Here the word 'it' is creating ambiguity. It is not clear whether the writer has used the 'it' for the child or the spinach.

However, professional writing style does not merely include - clarity, accuracy, directness, conciseness, and readability it also involves simplicity, precision, specificity, concreteness, and understandable diction. Ahead you shall read about the elements of effective business writing - diction, effective sentences, and effective paragraphs.

### 1.3 Effective Communication: The Choice and Uses of Words

Suitable use of words is an important element of effective communication. The choice of words is called diction you use to convey or express your thoughts, feelings, or information. An effective diction comes when the user has a clear knowledge of the meaning of words he is using. Words used selectively and arranged properly helps the reader to understand what the writer intends to convey. A word may have different meanings, for example, a word 'fast' has several meanings, and depending upon the contexts it shall mean differently.

- He runs fast. (speed) Here, the word 'fast' means - how quickly he runs.
- He stands fast. (firm) Here, the word 'fast' means - he does not move at all.
- The color is fast. (long-established) Here, the word 'fast' means - the color shall not fade.
- He is leading a fast life. (loose) Here, the word 'fast' describes - he leads a loose life.

Words are used in which context, it defines their meaning. Thus, choosing the right words in the right place influences the necessity of writing effectively. Readers could understand the message and meaning quickly, a writer should choose 'right words'. Ambiguity can result from the choice of words—the word selected may have multiple meanings. This is called lexical ambiguity. For example, 'The giant plant collapsed damaging many buildings'. There are certain principles following which you can learn to use words appropriately. They are:

1. Use denotative words
2. Use concrete and specific words
3. Use plain and familiar words.

**1.3.1 Usage of Denotative Words** Every word has a basic meaning which is called denotative meaning. Denotation refers to the literal meaning or dictionary meaning of a word. A denotative word clearly, precisely, and literally tells what a thing is. Denotative words do not carry emotional tones, they give a clear idea or meaning a word expresses. Example 1.1 Difference of Denotation and Connotation Denotation is the idea the word expresses. Connotation is the idea the word suggests. Connotation is the complexity of meanings associated with a word. It is the expression, feeling, or emotional tone a word suggests. Connotative words give extra or some secondary meaning and are widely used in creative writing and persuasive kinds like poetry and advertisements. In writing reports, when your purpose is to inform a reader, you cannot use connotative words used to impress readers. Connotation might be negative or positive in suggesting a meaning. **1.3.2 Usage of Concrete Words** Words that give specific and definite meaning are called concrete words and in professional writing prefer to use them over abstract words. The abstract words express a concept, quality, or characteristic meaning.

**Example 1.2: Concrete and Abstract Words** Concrete Words Abstract Words • Give specific and definite meaning. • Abstractions are usually broad, encompassing a category of ideas. • These are the terms that identify things and events that can be measured and observed. • Express a concept, quality, or characteristic. • They are often intellectual, academic, or philosophical. • Words like love, civilisation, freedom, honour, democracy, tradition, beauty, etc. are abstractions. • These words carry emotional overtones in their meanings. • They evoke different meanings in different situations and among different classes of people. • Their interpretation depends on a reader's purpose and experience or frame of reference. To present the ideas clearly, purposefully, and meaningfully you should use concrete and specific words. To avoid vaguely representing an idea avoid using abstract words. They tend to convey an opinion, or judgment, or impression of a writer. Thus, in professional or business communication where objectivity and facts matter avoid using abstract words, it shall lead you to communicate effectively. Use adjectives and adverbs sparingly and wisely. Use nouns and verbs, considerably, the most concrete words in any message. Verbs are considered the most important or powerful because they inform about the action, they tell what is happening.

**Example 1.3: Abstract and Concrete Words** In business communications, it is essential to convey the message clearly and concisely. You can achieve these attributes by avoiding the use of abstract words and using words in their forms of adverbs and adjectives. The main idea of your message may get overshadowed by using qualifiers, intensifiers, and abstractions. Hence avoid them in professional communication. Following are given examples of qualifiers, intensifiers, and abstractions. Qualifiers to some degree to some extent reasonably considerable appears more or less tolerable generally commonly seems rather significantly primarily largely possibly perhaps apparently Intensifiers very absolutely so quite purely especially genuinely extremely well under well over completely simply Abstractions various factors several approaches similar types facilities units in this fashion quite a few a number of a small amount a significant amount majority Examples 1.4: Qualifiers, Intensifiers, and Abstractions Usage of '-tion' words can make the meaning vague. Instead of using the phrases having '-tion' words use verbs. For example, you may use investigate instead of investigation. Phrases (Instead of) Verbs (Use) make a justification with the exception of make an application make a selection consider implementation take into consideration justify except for apply select implement consider Abstract: 1) We plan to present a proposal covering all important aspects of the problem. Concrete: On August 20 we shall present a proposal covering costs, materials, methodology, and personnel. 2) The company suffered a tremendous (abstract word) loss in the second quarter of last year. Better: The company suffered a 70 percent loss in profits in the second quarter of last year. Vague: 1) Small samples are taken at frequent intervals. Specific: Samples of 100 ml are taken at half-hour intervals.

Abstract and vague: 1) He has produced a report on how the engine can perform better. Suggestion: He has written a report on how the engine can do better. 2) The company's publication illustrates how to produce formal reports. Suggestion: The company's manual explains how to write formal reports. '-tion word': 1) It is difficult to make an approximation of how much money it would cost. Suggestion: It is difficult to estimate its cost. 2) Department Managers will be asked for an explanation of their implementation procedure. Suggestion: Department managers will be asked to explain how they implement procedures. 3) This step takes the identification process further and involves a comparison of each stamping method. Suggestion: This step identifies and compares each stamping method. Examples 1.5: Better Suggestions **1.3.3 Usage of Plain and Familiar Words** To catch the reader's attention you do not need to use unfamiliar and long words. The attention can effectively be achieved using plain and commonly familiar words. Professional communication that is often situational, circumstantial, and objective does not signify displaying your vocabulary. Though in certain situations you can use long and unfamiliar words as they are not entirely undesirable. Unfamiliar words Familiar and preferable words mankind manmade manpower business man salesman insurance man chairman humanity, human beings, human race, people artificial, manufactured, constructed of human origin human power, human energy, workers business executive, business manager, business person sales representative, sales person, sales clerk insurance agent chair person Example 1.6: Familiar and unfamiliar words

Using plain and familiar words also implies avoiding using jargon, cliches, and abbreviations. ➤ **Use Jargon Sparingly:** Jargons are the technical words and specialized terminologies of some trade or profession that are specifically known to the people who belong to them. For example sales promotion (marketing), the elasticity of demand (economics), budgetary control (accounting), job evaluation (industry), inferiority complex (psychology), allophones (phonetics), etc., are the specialized terms understood well among the people working in the related fields. People associated with accounting know the meaning of budgetary control and how and where to use it. Doctors communicate among themselves using medical terminology rarely understood by a layman. Jargons are useful terms and helpful when used by people working in the same technical field.

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Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)

Source: Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University

To sustain the interest of a large readership it is advisable to minimize or avoid the use of jargon since they are not familiar to people at large. Present the content simplified and understandable to a non-technical audience. Using jargon a writer can widen the semantic gap between the professional and the layperson. After all, effective communication demands conveying an intended message clearly and directly.

Example 1.7 Jargons > Cliches: It is a French word used in the English language, it denotes a phrase that has become stereotyped and worn out through excessive use. Presenting an idea using cliches is considered an old-fashioned, overused, and unnatural way. The use of cliches can make your professional communication unimpressive and stale. Some well-known clichés include food for thought, teeming millions, last but not the least, fishing in troubled waters, and burning the midnight oil. However, there are various cliches, still vigorous, they express the meaning clearly and have no better option. For example, 'use and throw' or 'practice what you preach' are such expressions that it would be hard to find better alternatives. You can use such cliches. Writing becomes ineffective only when we use cliches at random. Cliches: 1. A new employee profit-sharing plan is a tried-and-true way to increase productivity. Suggestion: A new employee profit-sharing plan will guarantee to increase productivity. 2. The employees are up in arms about the lack of parking space within a block of the office. Suggestion: The employees are furious about the lack of parking space within a block of the office. 3. Your report made the need to purchase additional company aircraft crystal clear. Suggestion: Your report proved that we need to purchase additional company aircraft. 4. The report discusses threadbare the problem of air pollution in India. Suggestion: The report discusses the problem of air pollution in India in detail. 5. The engineers left no stones unturned to construct the bridge in time. Suggestion: The engineers worked very hard to construct the bridge in time.

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Module 16- Guidelines to Effective Business Wr ... (D18365636)

Jargons: 1) The responsibility of a person involved in pedagogical pursuits is to impart knowledge to those sent to him for instructions.

Suggestion: The responsibility of the teacher is to teach his students. Examples 1.8: Better Suggestions > Avoid using foreign language words: Some people use foreign language words thinking it is the mark of intellectual superiority and it influences their readers. Though the use of foreign words and phrases break the flow of thought and creates confusion. For example, instead of using 'vide supra' you can simply write 'see above'. To keep the language within the reach of your reader, use plain english words and phrases. However, there are certain foreign words commonly used. They are universally understood and accepted for example, etc. (et cetera). I.e. (id est), e.g. (exempli gratia), a.m. (ante meridiem), p.m. (post meridiem), and so on. You can use an unavoidable one by setting it in either italics or a different font, if it does not have any good English equivalent. Example 1.9 Foreign Words > Use acronym and abbreviations sparingly: Acronyms are the words formed by combining the first letters of the words that make up the name of something. For example, WHO is the acronym for the World Health Organization. Though acronyms help to achieve brevity and are necessary in technical documents, excessive dependency on them can lead to a loss of clarity. Like jargon, they are good to use in communicating to the people belonging to the same field and not outside that. For example, using OAM about re-routing, UDP/IP in a CDPD radio are acronyms related to technical fields and shall be unintelligible when used in communicating with individuals unfamiliar to the field. Acronyms are extensively used in email and sms communication. They are acceptable in informal communication, but should be strictly avoided in official mails. However, writing a technical document or sending an informal electronic mail, there are certain guidelines required to follow while using acronyms. They are: • Introduce acronyms the first time you use them by defining them in full, parenthetically. • Restrict the number of acronyms in individual sentences. • When addressing non-expert readers, try to avoid using more than one acronym in a sentence. • Use the full term for an acronym when beginning a new section or when the term has not been used for several pages in the technical document. • When several potentially confusing acronyms are being used, they can be defined in a separate glossary (an alphabetized list of terms, followed by their definitions). Some such acronyms are listed below. Example 1.10: Acronyms Used Commonly in Emails and SMSs Abbreviations are short forms of words, such as 'St' for 'Saint', 'av.' for 'average', etc.

The rules for using abbreviations are: • Do not use phonic abbreviations like 'u' (for you) and 'tho' (for though). • Abbreviations for English units of measurement use periods (doz., in., pt., yd.,) but abbreviations for metric units of measurement do not (g, m, cm, km, ha, ) • Abbreviations that include the last letter of the word being shortened should not take a period. For example, Dr (doctor), Mr (mister), but Prof. (professor), col. (column) • Do not abbreviate words at the beginning of sentences. • Do not abbreviate proper nouns. 1.4 Effective Sentences Words make sense and express a thought when they are joined together. The sentence is a group of words arranged in an order to convey a statement or a question and ends with a full stop or question mark. A sentence must present a complete thought. It depends on the construction of a sentence that helps a complete thought to be conveyed through a sentence. The formation of a sentence also reflects the thinking of the writing and can be marked as either of the following: a hazy, flabby, collection of words or a functional, well-designed sentence, etc. Each word used in forming a sentence performs its particular function and contributes to an effective sentence. Words used in a sentence grammatically belong to different categories, they could be any of the following: a noun, pronoun, adjectives, verb, adverb, articles, etc. Generally, nouns and noun equivalents make the topics or subtopics in a sentence, and verbs and related verbs form statements about those topics. In a complicated sentence, adjectives and adverbs modify the subject and the statement, and various connectives hold words together to make a meaningful sentence. Phrases in English A phrase is a group of words in a sentence that does not have a subject nor a verb. A phrase cannot express a complete thought on its own because it lacks a subject and a verb.

Words joined together form sentences and a group of sentences together form a paragraph. We use different sentences and paragraphs to carry a whole matter required to be conveyed. To write a matter clearly and directly you require unity, coherence, and emphasis along with the skillful use of language. It shall help you to communicate effectively. 1.4.1 Unity and Coherence How to bring unity and coherence? An orderly arrangement of facts, ideas flowing into other facts or ideas, and logical progression of thought help to achieve unity and coherence. Coherence, a logical consistency, depends on - good organization and arrangement of topics and ideas in a proper sequence and linking them by logical transitions. You can achieve unity and coherence by arranging the facts related to each other in an orderly manner. Both sequencing of elements and their logical progression help to organize a sentence. Consider the following given example: 'The Opteron machine has ample power and it is easy to operate but it is extremely noisy. Also, it is bulky.' In the first sentence, the writer says two good points and one bad about the machine. Through the second sentence, the writer mentions only one negative feature. Here sentence unity is missing and can be brought by telling the good points through one sentence and the bad in the second sentence.

Reading a 'coherent sentence', a reader would move from one part to the next understanding the writer's thought without difficulty. Modifier A modifier is a word/phrase/clause which modifies other words in a sentence. It is either an adjective or an adverb. The adjectives modify the nouns, and the adverbs modify the verbs or the adjectives or the other adverbs. 1.4.2 Emphasis How to achieve emphasis? Emphasis is given to a part of a sentence that needs to be highlighted. Emphasis given to particular ideas or facts indicates their relationship with each other and the other parts. The arrangement of words in a right order helps to place the required emphasis. The beginning and the end are the most prominent positions in a sentence. They can be used for emphasizing an idea or fact that deserves attention. The less significant information, the modifiers, the transitional phrases can be placed within the sentence. For example: 'The history of English vocabulary is the history of English civilization, in many ways' Suggested: The history of English vocabulary is, in many ways, the history of English Civilization. Short sentences carry more emphasis than longer ones and can draw the attention of the reader to the main points easily. Longer sentences that contain many ideas can become confusing as the emphasis gets diluted across the contents. Following is given a record of examples reading them analytically you can learn the usage of emphasis.

1) Such matters as incorrect spelling and unconventional punctuation sometimes distract a reader from otherwise good writing. Suggested: Incorrect spelling and unconventional punctuation 2) Oral presentation skills should be taught at the undergraduate level, I think. sometimes distract a reader from otherwise good writing. Suggested: Oral presentation skills, I think, should be taught at the undergraduate level. 3) The student who cheats in an examination is cheating only himself in the final analysis. Suggested: The student who cheats in an examination is, in the final analysis, cheating only himself. 4) Two of our members heard you speak in Delhi and praised you highly for your dynamic presentation when they returned. Suggested: Two of our members heard you speak in Delhi and when they returned, praised you highly for your dynamic presentation. 5) We feel we are missing some patients, and therefore losing revenue, by using this system. Suggested: By using this system, we are missing some patients and therefore losing revenue. 6) The primary force behind most stress relief and exercise programmes is the executives who are prone to stress and heart attacks, as shown by medical reports. Suggested: The medical reports show that the primary force behind most stress relief and exercise programmes is the executives who are prone to stress and heart attacks. Example 1.11: Emphasis 'He is aware that he should uphold the authority to bang workers of his subordinates who disobey orders whenever possible as a manager.' The above given example lacks unity and coherence along with emphasis. Let's try to put it in a coherent form: 'He is aware that he should uphold the authority to bang workers'. 'Of his subordinates' in the sentence seems to refer to workers, but actually the writer intended it to refer to authority. Thus we shift 'of his subordinates' to the place after 'authority'. Now the sentence shall be: 'He is aware that he should uphold the authority of his subordinates to bang workers who disobey orders whenever possible as a manager'.

'Who disobey orders' now refers to workers, which was evidently intended to refer to according to the main meaning of the sentence. Still the sentence is not coherent because the phrases 'as a manager' and 'whenever possible' still seem wrongly placed. 'As a manager' seems at first glance to refer to workers. It can really refer only to 'he'; there is no other single person mentioned in the sentence. To make the meaning clear, we could shift this phrase to precede or follow 'he'. The expression, 'He, as a manager, is aware...' is correct but the beginning is long. So, the better sentence will be, 'As a manager, he is aware...' We now have to discuss the place of 'whenever possible' in the sentence. It confuses the reader. The genuine doubt here is 'what did the writer mean?' There are three verbs in the sentence to which 'whenever possible' could refer. These verbs are: 'disobey', 'should uphold', to 'bang'. If the phrase 'whenever possible' occurs after 'who disobey orders', it refers to workers who disobey whenever possible. If the writer intended it to refer to 'should uphold', we rewrite the sentence as: 'As a manager, he is aware that he should uphold whenever possible the authority of his subordinates to bang workers who disobey orders.' What we have done is, reconstruct the sentence according to the emphasis of the semantic aspect. Example 1.12: Unity and Coherence

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**MATCHING BLOCK 3/46**

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Communicative English - 1 (2).pdf (D165871407)

and Emphasis Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd.

When constructing a sentence, use the form that best fits the thought you want to express. The structure of the sentence should match the idea. A compound Sentence A compound sentence is a sentence that connects two independent clauses, typically with a coordinating conjunction like and or but. To express two ideas of equal importance - either put them into two individual sentences or form a compound sentence. If one is lesser in importance, place it in a dependent clause and form a complex sentence. It is a general rule: the important point should be in the independent clause and the less important one in the subordinate. Independent and Dependent Clauses An Independent

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clause is a group of words that contains a subject and verb and expresses a complete thought. An independent clause is a

sentence.

E.g.: Yashin studied in the cafeteria for his physics test.

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A dependent clause is a group of words that contains a subject and verb but does not express a complete thought. It cannot be a sentence.

E.g.: When Yashin studied in the cafeteria for his physics test. 1.4.3 Parallel Construction To express similar ideas, we can use a parallel structure. It puts two or more thoughts of the same kind into the same sentence and the same grammatical form. Expressing the same ideas using a parallel construction brings a rhythmic pattern in a sentence; it indicates the ideas are similar. In a parallel construction, two or more words, phrases, and clauses of similar nature are put together forming a pattern. Parallel construction makes a sentence more readable. 1) Students can be successful if they buy the assigned books, next doing the required reading and in addition taking notes carefully. Suggested: Students can be successful if they buy the assigned books, do the required reading, and take notes carefully. 2) Our instructor asked us to close our report, to take pen and paper and that we were to write an abstract. Suggested: Our instructor asked us to close our report, to take pen and paper, and to write an abstract. 3) The company's high quality products, reasonable prices, maintaining good services, running respectable stores have given it a good reputation. Suggested: The company's high quality products, reasonable prices, good services, and good stores have given it a good reputation. 4) Mr. Rao dictated the letter, the next he signed it and left the office. Suggested: Mr. Rao dictated the letter, signed it, and left the office. Example 1.13: Parallel Construction

1.4.4 Length of Sentences There is no rule about the length of a sentence. In professional communication, short and simple sentences are preferred over long sentences as they are easy to read and understand. According to research made by Dr. Rudolph Flesch, a sentence on an average of 17 words provides readability. Ideally, a sentence should have 15 to 20 words. However, writing a piece of text contains both long and short sentences. To group or combine ideas, summarising or previewing information, and listing points, long sentences are used. Short sentences are used for emphasising important information. If it is going lengthy in expressing information, break a sentence meaningfully into small ones. Long sentences may become difficult to understand and boring to read, it affects readability and comprehensiveness. Writing Suggestions > Avoid putting two or more unrelated thoughts in the same sentence. > Keep related parts of the sentence together and avoid dangling modifiers. > Have each unit of thought express a single idea. > Avoid breaking ideas into short, choppy sentences. > Lead the reader in a definite direction from one thought to the next towards a single purpose. > Interlink sentences so thought flows smoothly. > Avoid words that do not contribute to the meaning of the sentence. > Put the main idea of a sentence in an independent clause and less important ideas in subordinate clause. > Combine short sentences into longer ones by subordinating the less important ideas. > Arrange words in a sentence to give emphasis to the important ideas at the beginning or end by placing a word or phrase out of its natural order. > Place the main idea in a short, direct sentence. > Make sure conjunctions and prepositions express the exact relationships among clauses and phrases out of its natural order. > Avoid long, rambling sentences with too many qualifying clauses and phrases. > Avoid putting words between 'to' and verbs of an infinitive unless a natural expression cannot be achieved in any other way. > Place adverbs such as 'only', 'almost', and 'merely' close to the words they modify. > Place modifiers at the appropriate places so that they will be logically and naturally connected with the words they modify.

1.4.5 Types of Sentences and Usage In professional writing, the effective way to convey an idea is to use short sentences in which the verb and subject have a clear relationship. The relationship between a verb to its subject is called 'Voice'. Voice is of two types 'active voice' and 'passive voice'. In an 'active voice,' the subject does the action whereas in the passive voice, the subject receives the action. In professional writing, generally, active voice is used. Wordiness in a sentence comes from: - The use of passive verbs. These are the verbs that are not performing any action there in a sentence. See the example box 1.14. - Using roundabout expressions such as 'is something of vital concern'. Where one verb can perform the action then why to use such other words and expressions that lead to abstraction. 1. This sales manager is something of vital concern to all our personnel. Suggested: This sales manager vitally concerns all our personnel. 2. This contract has a requirement that it is to be signed by you. Suggested: This contract requires your signature. 3. This makes it necessary for us to refuse your request with regret. Suggested: We regret that we must, therefore, refuse your request. 4. This does have a direct bearing on the possibilities for future sales. Suggested: This directly affects future sales. 5. Application of these principles is the best way for us to obtain the cooperation of our retailers. Suggested: By applying these principles, we can get our retailers to cooperate. Example 1.14: Verbs in Action 1.4.5.1 Active Voice Sentences and Usage Though passive verbs increase the length of sentences, we cannot ignore them. We must only not overuse the passive voice verbs. Wordiness, confusion about the agent of the action, and de-emphasizing the subject are the issues that come with the overuse of passive voice.



Passive Voice Active Voice Our implementation of this new procedure is required by the board of directors The board of directors requires that we implement this new procedure. It is noted that the sales volume has been increased. We note that the sales volume has increased. It is believed that this policy will be beneficial to our personnel. We believe this policy will benefit our personnel. It is occasionally found that one of our customers has been unintentionally missed by our representative. Occasionally, our representative unintentionally misses one of our customers. In completing the following task, the planned Rs. 3000/- budget for June and July was exceeded. In completing the following tasks, we exceeded the planned Rs. 3000/- budget for June and July. The concentration by the Training Division of its time, money, and other resources into a new programme is not advisable from our point of view. We do not advise the Training Division to concentrate its time, money, and other resources into a new programme. Our implementation of this new procedure is required by the board of directors. The board of directors requires us to implement this new procedure. My first visit to your organization will always be remembered. I will always remember my first visit to your organization. Example 1.15: Active and Passive Voice Usage In professional writing, ideally, short-length sentences should be used more than long sentences. And using the active voice, you can structure an idea more clearly without increasing the length. It also helps in presenting a matter leaving no room for ambiguity. Passive voice, generally, decreases emphasis. In a passive voice sentence, the doer of an action is not clear, and it creates an impersonal tone. Active Voice, on the other hand, sounds live, direct, clear, immediate.

Active Voice and Passive Voice Active voice tells what a person or thing does. Sub. + verb + object E.g.: Yashin painted the wall. Passive voice tells what is done to someone or something. Object + verb + subject E.g.: Wall was painted by Yashin. 1.4.5.2 Passive Voice Sentences and Usage Passive voice constructions are not entirely to avoid, in some situations they prove useful. Especially when a writer intends: • To soften commands • To sound less accusatory. • To sound more courteous. • To emphasise the result. • To make it obscure and evasive. Softening a command A.V.: Revise the procedures. P.V.: The procedures should be revised. Sounding less accusatory A.V.: None of you has yet notified me. You or your technicians did not properly install the instrument and therefore voided the warranty. P.V.: I have not been notified. Because the instrument was not properly installed, the warranty is voided. Sounding more courteous A.V.: You failed to add columns 9 and 10 correctly. P.V.: Columns 9 and 10 were added incorrectly. Emphasising the result A.V.: The ABC agency has investigated twenty nine websites for fraudulent claims.

P.V.: Twenty nine websites have been investigated for fraudulent claims. Making it obscure and evasive A.V.: The police never investigated the accident. P.V.: It has been decided that incentive awards will no longer be given. Example 1.16: Passive Voice Usage Hence, passive voice can be used appropriately. You can use passive voice for any of those specific reasons to make your writing effective. Passive voice emphasizes the receiver of the action and de-emphasizes the doer of the action. It shall be appropriate to use the passive voice construction: • When you intend to describe an impersonal process. • When much of action is being done by perhaps machinery. • When a doer of the action is unimportant or not known. 1.4.5.3 Simple Sentences Professional writing experts generally prefer to use simple sentences as they are more interested in conveying the content, not using tricky words. A simple sentence contains a single independent clause. In which the grammatical structure goes like Subject + verb + Object (SVO) or Subject + Verb + Complement (SVC). According to a study made by Christensen: • Professionals write 75.5 percent of their sentences in simple sentences. • They write the other 23 percent of the sentences giving them a short adverbial opening and continuing with the simple sentence structure (SVO or SVC) to complete. The 'adverbial openers' would be simple prepositional phrases or single words such as therefore, however, nevertheless, and the other conjunctive adverbs. 'Adverbial openers' are used to provide a transition between thoughts. • They write the other 1.2 percent of sentences opening them with a 'verbal clause' based upon participles and infinitives and again continue with the simple sentence structure (SVO or SVC) to complete. Verbal openers also provide a transition. • They write the remaining 0.3 percent of the sentences in an altogether different way called inverted constructions in which the subject is delayed until placed after the verb. A simple sentence is a sentence that contains a single independent clause. In grammar, a

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clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate.

A simple sentence contains only a single clause that stands alone and makes grammatical sense. Infinitives An infinitive is a verb form that can be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. Most infinitives begin with 'to'. Usage: To indicate the purpose of an action. As the subject of the sentence. As a direct object of the sentence. Participles Participles are structures made from verbs. Types of Participles: • Present participle (ending -ing) • Past participle (usually ending -ed, -d, -t, -en, or -n) • Perfect participle (usually ending on -en, or -n) Uses of Participles: • Use as adjectives • To govern a noun or pronoun • Complement to a verb • With noun or pronoun • Form present and past continuous tense • To form present and past perfect tense 1.4.5.4 Precise Sentences A sentence able to express a thought or idea clearly is categorized as a precise sentence.

Clarity of expression is the most desired feature for effectiveness in professional writing. It comes from clear thinking and precise writing. Precision in writing can be achieved through using words appropriately. There are several common words used frequently in professional writing that convey vague meanings, for example 'problem', 'phase'. In confusion with the pronunciation and meaning, writers may use certain words wrongly. They may confuse 'affect' with 'effect', 'adapt' with 'adopt', and 'check' with 'verify' if not well aware of their usage. How using words appropriately a sentence can be transformed into a precise sentence is shown in an example given in the box ahead. Sentence: 'In trying to increase his company's efficiency, Mr. Kalyan faces the problems of union opposition, what to do with employees no longer needed, not knowing how much money is available for modernisation and that after he is all through his products may be obsolete.' Problems are something we solve. A union's opposition is not a problem, it is an 'obstacle' or perhaps a difficulty that we try to overcome; 'what to do with surplus employees' is a question that must be answered. 'Not knowing how much money is available' is probably an 'obstacle' or 'difficulty' and that the 'products may be obsolete' is a risk that Mr. Kalyan must face. Precision version: 'In trying to increase his company's efficiency, Mr Kalyan faces the obstacle of union opposition and the difficulty of not knowing how much money is available for modernization; he must answer the question of what to do with employees no longer needed; and he runs the risk that after he is all through his products may be obsolete.'

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Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd.: Sentences in

a passage: The 6-41 APTRON is a very economical photocopier with very low service requirements. (imprecise). We can safely say that it has the copying facilities of much larger machines. (imprecise) Yet it is compact, lightweight, and extremely stylish.(imprecise) It weighs only 22 kg and its overall dimensions are 74 x 43 x 21 cm. (precise) There are no sheets handling problems with the machine because the paper is loaded in cassettes of 100 sheets. (precise) The time for the first copy is only 11.4 seconds. (precise) The 6-41 APTRON is a reliable machine of good value of money. (imprecise)

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Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)

Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. 1.4.5.5

Concise Sentences To express a thought in a line try not to use many words; it makes a sentence and the message ineffective and weak. Writer Frank Clark has rightly said that it suffocates a thought if expressed in too many words. Using long sentences that have a large number of words can make the content uninteresting to read. To achieve clarity and effectiveness in writing avoid wordiness. Wordiness is also called pleonasm, redundancy, prolixity, diffuseness, circumlocution, periphrasis. Called by any such names wordiness means the use of more words than you need in a particular situation. Sometimes using prepositions, adverbs, adverbial phrases in a sentence a writer can make a sentence redundant. Especially when they are not adding any meaning in the sentence. For example, 'we will all assemble together for the condolence meeting.' Do 'assemble' and 'together' both not denote the same meaning? Adding together next to assemble the sentence has become redundant. Suggestion: 'We all will assemble for condolence.' Wordiness is needless and it affects the writing. It indicates poor writing skills and careless thinking. Redundancy in a document is like stuttering in a speech both detract from the ideas you are presenting. Reviewing a written sentence can help you to avoid redundancy. Rereading a sentence you can ensure that every word is contributing something to the meaning you wish to convey. The main causes of wordiness are: 1) Word Clusters: Sometimes carelessly we use two words together that convey the same meaning. For example: - He returned back to this city. (returned and back both have the same meaning). - He woke up at 7 a.m. this morning. Using 'and' between two similar meaning words, like: - This contract shall be considered expired and terminated. (expired and terminated both the words mean the same) 2) Superfluous words and phrases: Certain words like 'unique', 'perfect', 'ideal', and 'supreme' symbolize the highest degree possible. Other words such as 'quite', 'very', and 'most' are placed directly in front of adjectives and adverbs to add to their meaning. Avoid joining both the kinds of words to form a pair or phrase. Any such expression such as 'quite unique' or 'very ideal' shall be superfluous to your writing. 3) Empty Words: Avoid empty words and dummy subjects like 'it is assumed that', 'it is evident', 'it is clear that', 'it is interesting to know that', 'there are', 'there is'. Such expressions shall place your main idea in a dependent clause and lose emphasis. You can shorten such phrases like: • Use 'evidently' instead of 'It is evident'. • Instead of saying 'it is clear' say 'clearly'. Similarly avoid using such constructions as: 'It was noted by Mr. Yashin'. It can be represented as 'Mr. Yashin noted'. 4) Wordy Phrases: To make your sentences concise, watch out for wordy phrases. For example, 'as of late' can be replaced with 'lately'. Following are given a number of examples of wordy phrases and their better replacements. Read and adopt them. • Substitute 'In the event that' with 'if'. • Change 'Due to the fact that' with 'due to' or 'because'. • Replace 'has proved itself to be' with 'had proved' Examples of wordy phrases used in sentences. • The tank contains a sufficient amount of oil. Suggestion: the tank contains sufficient oil. • The washing machine can be repaired easily because of the fact that it is constructed very simply. SuggestionThe washing machine can be repaired easily because of its simple construction. • They talked in terms of time and money. SuggestionThey talked about time and money.



1.4.5.6 Types of Sentences in Business Writings Depending upon their functions sentences can be categorized as expository or descriptive or narrative sentences in business writings. These are functional sentences that perform a function. In writing reports, exclamatory and interrogative sentences are not used. • Expository sentences: explain a process, plan, theory, etc. • Descriptive sentences: describe a picture of something in words or qualities of an object or concept. • Narrative sentences: narrate events and show their sequence and establish a relationship among them. 1.5 Effective Paragraphs A group of words arranged logically construct a sentence. A cluster of sentences carrying one idea if put together form a paragraph. A paragraph logically places the sentences to keep the focus of readers on one unit of thought. Paragraphing, a practice of dividing a text into paragraphs, makes a content eye appealing and easy to read. There are no absolute rules but guidelines you can follow about paragraphing. - Long unbroken paragraphs are difficult to read. - Break them up into readable units. - Avoid too many successive, short, snappy news-letter type paragraphs. - Paragraphs may vary in length. It depends on the purpose. - For every totally new idea, start a new paragraph. - Use a single sentence paragraph for emphasis and attracting attention to an important material. Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication All the sentences of a paragraph must be unified and interlinked with one core idea. Similarly, all the paragraphs in a document must be coherent with each other. They should be connected and arranged in a logical order, so that the readers can understand the flow of thought easily.

Techniques for Developing Paragraphs 1. Illustration 2. Classification 3. Listing 4. Comparison or contrast 5. Cause and effect 6. Problem-solution 7. Definition 8. Space and time 9. Generalisation 10. Process description 1.5.1 Structure of Paragraphs Unity is the most significant feature of a paragraph. One paragraph must deal with a single topic, idea, or subject and every sentence of it must be connected with this idea. A typical paragraph consists of

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three parts. • The first part: It contains the topic sentence. It can figure either at the beginning or at the end of the paragraph. It contains a new

aspect of the subject of the text. • The second part: It contains sentences which develop the topic sentence. These sentences may contain arguments, explanations, details, examples, and other supporting evidence. • The third part of the paragraph: It is often a summary of the paragraph or a linking sentence to the next paragraph. In many well-written texts the reader will get a good idea of the contents by reading just the first sentences (i.e., the topic sentences) of each paragraph. A typical paragraph contains two types of sentences: • A Topic Sentence: It expresses the main idea. • Related Sentences: The other sentences in the paragraph that explains the core idea of the topic sentence are called related sentences. These sentences can be classified as:

Paragraph Introducers Paragraph Developers Paragraph Modulators Paragraph Terminators Topic Sentence • It expresses the core idea. • It is also called 'key sentence', 'theme statement', or 'summarizing sentence'. • It sums up the entire content of the paragraph. • It introduces the main point. • It can be placed in the beginning, sometimes in the end, and occasionally in the middle. • If it appears at the beginning of a paragraph it contains a generalization in relation to the specificity of supporting facts or other details. • If it occurs at the end of the paragraph, it usually summarises the contents of the paragraph. • If it occurs in the middle, the preceding sentences provide transition or introduce the core idea. Related Sentences • These sentences must have bearing on the general subject. • They must provide enough specific details to make the topic explicit and clear. • They must provide proper emphasis to achieve the objective of the matter. Paragraph Introducers They open the paragraph and establish the topic and focus of the paragraph. They often provide a smooth transition from the preceding paragraph. Paragraph Developers They support, develop, and clarify the central thought of the paragraph by giving examples and information. Paragraph Modulators These are also called connectives. They provide smooth transition between the sentences of a paragraph whenever there is a change or shift in the tone or viewpoint. Paragraph Terminators They summarise the contents of the paragraph or the discussion logically. They signal the completion of one aspect or stage of the presentation.

Techniques to Revise a Document > Correct the mechanical errors. > Check the adequacy of the content. > Check the suitability of words, construction and length of sentences and paragraphs. > Check the conventional format to which it belongs. > Add, delete, or rearrange the material to achieve greater clarity, unity, and coherence. Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication 1.6 Unity Summary Effective writing is a device to achieve success. You can make written communication effective by adopting the right style of writing. Style is not merely an ornamental device; it is a skill and approach which you can adopt to write effectively. Being aware of your style of writing can help you to deliver information objectively and effectively. The elements of effective writing are: • Suitable use of words; • The arrangement of words in sentences; and • The organization of sentences in a paragraph. 1.7 Key Terms • Jargons are the technical words and specialized terminologies of some trade or profession that are specifically known to the people who belong to them. • Words that give specific and definite meaning are called concrete words. • A modifier is a word/phrase/clause which modifies other words in a sentence. • Expository sentences: explain a process, plan, theory, etc. • Descriptive sentences: describe a picture of something in words or qualities of an object or concept. • Narrative sentences: narrate events and show their sequence and establish a relationship among them.

1.8 Check Your Progress Subjective: 1) Suitable use of words is an important element of effective communication. Discuss. 2) In business writing, why active voice is preferred over passive voice, discuss. 3) A typical paragraph contains two types of sentences. Explain. 4) Explain the main causes of wordiness in a sentence. 5) How can one achieve clarity of expression in its writing? Objective: 1) True/False: An orderly arrangement of facts, ideas flowing into other facts or ideas, and logical progression of thought help to achieve unity and coherence 2) Fill in the gap: Avoid \_\_\_\_ words and \_\_\_\_ subjects like 'it is assumed that', 'it is evident'. 3) Complete the sentence: Professional writing experts generally prefer to use simple sentences as they are more interested in conveying \_\_\_\_\_. 4)

Short Q/A: What are jargons? 5) Short Q/A: What are cliches? References: • Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. • Raymond V. Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson • Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia • Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX, United Kingdom • Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. • Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 • Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition 123 Unit 2:

Types of Business Reports 2.0 Introduction 2.1 Unit Objective 2.2 Report 2.2.1 Objectives of Reports 2.2.2 Importance of Reports 2.2.3 Characteristics of Reports 2.2.4 Process of Writing Reports 2.3 Types of Reports 2.3.1 Oral Reports 2.3.2 Written Reports 2.3.2.1 Informal Reports 2.3.2.2 Formal Reports 2.4

Unit Summary 2.5 Key Terms 2.6 Check Your Progress 2.0 Introduction A 'Report' is a major form of

technical/business/professional communication. 'Reports' are written to record and transmit or convey certain facts, ideas, or suggestions useful for others. It can also be the description of an event or a condition. Reports are a communication tool that facilitates a decision making process in an organization. Every professional before taking a decision on a planning and operation, reads reports already submitted. 2.1 Unit Objective This Unit intends to introduce learners with what is report, its objectives, importance, characteristics, and process of writing reports. It also covers teaching different types of reports. 2.2 Report A 'Report' is a major form of technical/business/professional communication. 'Reports' are written to record and transmit or convey certain facts, ideas, or suggestions useful for others. It can also be the description of an event or a condition. Reports are a communication tool that facilitates a decision-making process in an organization. Every professional before deciding on planning and operation reads reports already submitted. A scientist or an executive or a professional before going further with its research and investigations, usually, seeks existing reports. According to Aruna Koneru, "Writing report is a flexible teaching-learning-knowing-practicing tool specially designed to help learners and employees develop general research, identify the problem, and reporting skill." We see many examples of reporting in a professional environment: - A nurse at a hospital reports to doctors about the condition of each patient. - A supervisor makes a progress or work report of the work carried out under his supervision. - A manager prepares a report on the state of deposits, advances, overdraft limits during a period and sends it to the head office. - A branch manager posted in a rural area may need to draft a report about the difficulties faced in sanctioning loans to farmers. - A publisher keen to introduce a new paper may ask for a report on the current reader preference. - Governments set up committees and commissions on an issue and seek recommendations and reports. "A report is usually a piece of factual writing, based on evidence, containing organized information and/or analysis of a particular issue. It is a major form of technical/business/professional communication. A person transmits certain facts, ideas, or suggestions useful for another person through a report. It can also be the description of an event or a condition." (Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma) • The term 'report' is derived from the Latin word 'reportare' which means 'carry' or 'bring back'. It implies it is a description of an event or an analysis of factual information carried back to someone who was not aware of it or who was interested in knowing it. • 'Report Writing' and 'Technical Report Writing' are often used interchangeably. • Reporting provides data or information gathered or learned by research, reading, experience, or observation. • Before writing a report its writer must classify, examine, evaluate, arrange, interpret and record the facts logically. 2.2.1 Objectives of Reports Depending upon the need the objectives of reports may vary widely. However, some important purposes of reports are: • Present a record of accomplished work (project report) • Record an experiment (primary research report/laboratory report) • Record research findings or technical specifications (a report on the details of a new product) • Document schedules, timetables, and milestones (a status report on a long-term plan) • Document current status (an inspection report) • Record and clarify complex information for future reference (a report on policies and procedures) • Present information to a large number of people (annual report) • Present organized information on a particular topic (a report describing the working of various divisions of an organization) • Recommend actions that can be considered in solving certain problems (recommendatory report) (source: Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma)

Generally, professional use reports for: ● Monitoring and controlling operations. ● Implementing policies and procedures. ● Complying with legal or government regulations. ● Documenting the research work. ● Guiding decisions. ● Initiating appropriate actions. ● Understanding a particular problem and finding its solution. ● Getting both long-term and current planning. ● Evaluating manpower and material resources efficiently. ● Comparing with other similar organizations.

2.2.2 Importance of Reports In the process of decision making a report plays the role of a basic management tool. In a large organization where different activities take place through distinct departments and where top executives cannot keep a personal watch over all activities, the top management asks the heads of the departments to submit a report before taking a decision. ● A report is a record of efforts. Engineers, academicians, and researchers record their findings and methods in the form of reports. Such reports become a referencing source of information as well as a base for further research for others. ● A report facilitates the decision-making and problem-solving process in organizations. Information presented, analysis discussed, or the suggestions rendered in reports help administrators to make important decisions and solve serious problems. ● Reports help in planning new ventures and in assessing men-power and material. Before opening a new branch an organization prefers to seek a report on the probability and possibility of such an initiation. Likewise, if an organization needs to evaluate the men, machine, or material, it shall decide about it after having a report on it. ● Reports disseminate information within and outside an organization. Routine reports like inspection reports, inventory reports, annual reports, etc. distribute information across and outside an organization.

● Reports help to measure the growth, progress, or success of an organization. Going through a project's periodic reports a manager can know its status easily. A research-based organization publishes reports regularly and provides its clients information on the signs of progress made. ● Reports serve as a valuable source of data. Reports, prepared in the past and filed, work as a repository of information in the future. ● Reports develop diverse skills. Writing a report may lead to developing organizational, evaluation, and communication skills in a writer. It trains the writer in planned and orderly procedures and logical presentation of ideas and information. ● It reveals gaps in reasoning. Reading a report one can easily spotlight vague ideas, deviations, and faults of tactics and strategies.

2.2.3 Characteristics of Reports A good report features: ⇒ Precise and brief ⇒ Reader-oriented ⇒ Factual ⇒ Objective and homogenous ⇒ Unambiguous and accurate ⇒ Detailed and documented ⇒ Relevant

Precision: Precision is a style of writing that primarily focuses on conveying information. It gives unity and coherence to a report and makes it a valuable document. A report must reflect its purpose and the investigation, analysis, and recommendations. Factual details: Report writing is a technical form; it should provide the basis or facts serving the findings. Reports are a decision-making tool; they should provide accurate details facilitating the decisions. Before writing a report its writer must classify, examine, evaluate, arrange, interpret and record the facts logically. Relevance: Facts or details presented in a report must be relevant to the subject. Serving irrelevant data and aspects can confuse the readers and mislead them from the objective and purpose of it.

Reader-orientation: Drafting a report, a writer must be aware of the readers. Preferably a writer must write it understandable to even a layperson. The language must be simple and unambiguous to keep it free from various forms of poetic embellishment such as figures of speech. It should be clear, brief, and grammatically accurate. The objectivity of recommendations: Give impartial and objective recommendations, if required, at the end of a report. They should appear as a logical conclusion to investigation and analysis. Clarity: Clarity comes when facts are written and arranged clearly. A report writer: - must state the purpose clearly, - define the sources, - write the findings, and - make recommendations (if required) Dividing the content into short paragraphs with headings, a report can achieve the virtue of clarity. Brevity: A report should be brief but it should not be achieved at the cost of clarity and completeness. Do not avoid giving facts, discussions and significant details to be brief. Format: The format of a report depends on its purpose and the set standards in an organization. The technical report uses a rather involved format including cover, title page, table of contents, list of illustrations, letter of transmittal, and appendices. Illustrations: Technical reports contain illustrations which may be tables, graphs, maps, drawings, charts, or photographs. One Report for one topic: A report should deal with one main topic. All the sections of the report should focus on that topic. Documentation: Reports must be adequately documented by acknowledging sources of information in an appropriate style.

2.2.4 Process of Writing Reports The process of writing a report is a specific skill. It serves a specific need or requirement of the purpose and the audience. It does not involve expressing information emotionally. It entails collecting the data systematically, examining it, analyse it, and present it objectively. Conclusions and recommendations must be fact-based and given analytically. In the words of Shearing and Christian, a report is like a bathing suit: "It covers everything that has to be covered but nothing more ....". A report must not go away from its objective as it fails it in its purpose. It also must not include unnecessary details for it diverts the attention of readers from the real problem. To justify the process of writing a report, a writer must know: ● A report contains the subject matter that is specialised in a particular area that belongs to arts, science, profession, or trade. It does not contain a topic that is of popular knowledge. ● A report tries to identify the problem from the existing situation. ● A report studies a topic by observing it, experimenting with it, or analysing the data before reaching a conclusion which shall be accurate, objective, and precise. It helps the audience to get clear and meaningful information. ● A report must adopt the format most appropriate in presenting the information effectively. ● Report writing requires revising the data before presenting it. ● A report focuses on one issue called the central problem to come up with a solution. ● Report writing involves selecting suitable illustrations and writing abilities to present the document effectively.

2.3 Types of Reports Various types of reports play distinct parts in the management of a business. Some reports present the fact as they are; while others go a step further by including interpretations, conclusions, and recommendations. Primarily, reports could either be - written or oral. Further, a 'written report' could either be formal or informal. Ahead, a 'formal report' can be an interpretive, or informative, or routine.

Diagram 2.1 Types of Reports 2.3.1 Oral Reports When through a verbal conversation (face-to-face or telephonic) some observed or studied, investigated, and factual information is conveyed, it shall be considered an oral report. • It limits the coverage to factual business information. • It is simple, easy to present, and saves the reporter's time. • It may vary in the degree of formality for it passes highly formal information to reporting routine and informal situations. • Being unrecorded and delivered verbally it may become vague and easy to slip off the mind of a listener. • It may lead to forgetting relevant information. Let's differentiate between an oral and written report: Oral Report Written Report 1) It can be denied at any time. 2) It can be encumbered by irrelevant facts while significant facts may have been overlooked. 3) It may be distorted in passing one to another person. 4) It is not a formal form of reporting. 5) It becomes difficult to comprehend a complicated issue by one time listening. 6) It is an unstructured and vague manner of 1) It provides a permanent record, it cannot be denied. 2) It presents all the useful data accurately and precisely. 3) It cannot be distorted during transmission and can be referred to again and again. 4) It is more formal than an oral report. 5) It helps readers to understand complex issues, it presents information in a suitable format.

presenting the information. 6) It arranges data in paragraphs and presents reports structurally and supports the thought process. 2.3.2 Written Reports When observed, investigated, and factual information is reported through written mode, it is called a written report.

Documented and recorded written reports work as sources of information in an organisation. It presents the findings in an organised manner and reading which a reader can comprehend the matter efficiently. It provides information by maintaining the accuracy of facts. Based on the criterias of purpose, content, structure, degree of formality, and length, written reports can be classified into informal and formal reports. 2.3.2.1 Informal Reports There are some reports which are relatively informal and short. In today's business environment, writing informal reports has become a frequent practice. Like formal reports, Informal reports serve the same function i.e to transmit data for giving information or decision-making purposes. The difference between a formal and informal report comes due to the preparation methods adopted. Informal reports differ from formal reports in terms of defining a problem, collecting data, and selecting visual aids. 'Informal reports' are shorter and less detailed than 'formal reports'; you may not include all elements of the latter. Features of Informal reports: • The informal reports are quite short and run from a page to four or five pages. It may extend beyond five pages on adding bibliography, appendices, etc. • The words and phrases used, construction, and length of sentences and paragraphs all remain the same as that of formal reports. However, the writing style is usually informal, positive, personal, and conversational. • Such reports contain less data than formal reports. • These reports may contain headings, footnotes, illustrations, and supplementary elements. • The format depends on the purpose and requirements of the report.

Generally, such reports are written in the form of a memorandum and range from a few lines to several pages of detailed information. The reports written in the format of a memorandum are called 'memo reports'. If the reports are written in the format of a letter they are called 'letter reports'. • Memo reports: These are sent to somebody within the company. They follow the format of a memorandum and include analysis, conclusions, and recommendations under the main text part. Features of memo reports: - A memo report is written on the letterhead of the organization. - Inside address or salutations are not required. - The main body of the memo report includes headings appropriate to the matter. - There is no complimentary close or signature. - Sometimes they are signed or initialled at the end. - Most organizations use a printed format for memos in which a memo report can be submitted.

Example: 2.1: Memo Report • Letter Report: Reports written in the format of a business letter are called a 'letter report'. It forms a combination of a business letter and a formal written report.

Features of letter reports: - Letter reports differ from business letters in tone and organization of content. - It conveys technical information from one company to another. - It is written from the viewpoint of the reader. - It presents factual information, consequences, and suggestions directly. - In structure and format it is exactly like a business letter. However, it uses topic headings and illustrations. - Unlike a business letter it does not intend to sell, promote, persuade, or inquire about a product or service. - It is an informational document that is technical in content and tone. Writing a 'letter report' you must organise the material in a logical and coherent manner to make the content easy to understand. The organisational pattern of letter report Subject line: Including a subject line you can clearly state the report's contents Introduction or First Paragraph: • This may be a brief statement of the issue or situation giving rise to the report, reasons for writing the report or questions defined. • It introduces the reader to the problem and the contents of the report. • It contains the summary of findings, conclusions, or recommendations. • It provides a quick understanding of the results of the investigation. Development of subsequent paragraphs: This includes description or explanation of the methods of obtaining data, the facts, theories, and reasoning that led to the conclusions. Concluding Statements It contains a suggestion, a request, or recommendation, or an action to be taken.

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Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. Example 2.2:

Letter Report

2.3.2.2 Formal Reports On the basis of purpose, content, and structure, formal reports can be classified into informational, interpretative, and routine reports. ➤ Both informational and interpretive reports, having different purposes, contain the data of the investigation of the problem, or survey of the situation, or a piece of research. How they differ from each other is shown in the following table.

Informational Reports	Interpretive Reports
They explain an issue clearly and directly. They are written to respond to special circumstances. They present a situation as it is not as it should be. They provide an explanation or understanding of something. They do not contain conclusions and recommendations. They persuade readers to accept certain conclusions or recommendations.	In informative reports, the focus is on information. In interpretive reports, information plays a supporting role. They provide data that management uses in making a decision. They are decision-oriented and analytical. They are organised around topics and subtopics. They are organised around logical arguments and conclusions.

➤ Routine Reports, also called 'form reports' are written in a prescribed form. These are formal and contain information and sometimes recommendations. The main purpose of these reports may be to: - record the progress of projects, - assess the quality of performance of employees, - record the reading of the experiment, and - record routine matters at regular intervals. Some of the widely used reports are like: lab report, progress report, periodic report, and feasibility report.

- **Lab Reports:** The results of a work/experiment done in a laboratory are recorded in the form of reports. These experiments are performed to test a theory, or verify the modifications, or results, or to examine the validity of research. In conducting experiments, you may require various appropriate instruments also. During an experiment, various steps are taken and towards concluding, occurring reactions and their observances are recorded. A lab report presents the findings and results in a logical order. The details are arranged under some headings. Following is given a standardised format of a lab report usually followed in educational institutions and research organizations. 1. Title page/heading 2. Experiment number 3. Data 4. Object or purpose 5. Aim 6. Apparatus used 7. Method or procedure 8. Observations 9. Conclusions 10. Signature.
- **A progress report,** also known as a status report, is used to record the progress of some project. It informs about the status and progress of a particular project. For example, an organization has installed some new equipment in a factory and to know its effectiveness or usefulness, a progress report may be prepared. A progress report can be prepared at different stages of a project to know how much has been accomplished and how much is left. Such reports are useful in many ways; they serve as proof of a work completed and help to know whether the work is progressing according to the schedule or not. A progress report format is likely to include the following headings. 1. The title of the project. 2. Total plan of work to be completed 3. Date 4. Work has already completed 5. Work yet to be completed 6. Possible date of completion 7. Plans and outlook for the future 8. Remarks, if any 9. Signature and designation of the reporting officer
- **Periodic Report** gives information to the managers of the activities that have occurred during a specific period that could be daily, weekly, or monthly, or annually.
- **Feasibility Report** presents solutions or evaluates alternatives to resolve a problem. Such reports are analytical in nature and suggest: - actions to be take, - conditions under which the actions would be successful. A good feasibility report discusses all viable factors and highlights the important aspects. It studies the problem, opportunities, and plan for taking action. The conclusions given in the report are highly significant as they signal required actions.

2.4 Unit Summary ● A 'Report' is a major form of technical/business/professional communication. 'Reports' are written to record and transmit or convey certain facts, ideas, or suggestions useful for others. It can also be the description of an event or a condition. ● In the process of decision making a report plays the role of a basic management tool. In a large organization where different activities take place through distinct departments and where top executives cannot keep a personal watch over all activities, the top management asks the heads of the departments to submit a report before taking a decision. ● The process of writing a report entails collecting the data systematically, examining it, analyse it, and present it objectively. Conclusions and recommendations must be fact-based and given analytically.

- Various types of reports play distinct parts in the management of a business. Some reports present the fact as they are; while others go a step further by including interpretations, conclusions, and recommendations. Primarily, reports could either be - written or oral. Further, a 'written report' could either be formal or informal. Ahead, a 'formal report' can be an interpretive, or informative, or routine.

2.5 Key Terms A 'Report' is a major form of technical/business/professional communication. 'Reports' are written to record and transmit or convey certain facts, ideas, or suggestions useful for others. It can also be the description of an event or a condition.

Memo reports: These are sent to somebody within the company. They follow the format of a memorandum and include analysis, conclusions, and recommendations under the main text part.

Letter Report: Reports written in the format of a business letter are called a 'letter report'.

2.6 Check Your Progress

Subjective: 1) What is a formal written report? Discuss its features in detail? 2) Discuss the types of informal reports. 3) Discuss the types of formal reports. 4) Differentiate between oral reports and written reports. 5) Discuss the characteristics of reports.

Objective: 1) True/False: Engineers, academicians, and researchers record their findings and methods in the form of reports. 2) Complete the line: Letter reports differ from business letters in tone and \_\_\_\_\_. 3) Fill in the gap/s: Feasibility Report evaluates \_\_\_\_\_ to resolve a problem 4)



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Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)

Short Q/A: What is an imperative report? 5) Short Q/A: what is an impression report? References: • Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. • Raymond V. Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson • Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia • Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX, United Kingdom Tel: (01865) 375794. Fax: (01865) 379162 info@howtobooks.co.uk www.howtobooks.co.uk • Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. • Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 • Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition 123

Unit 3:

Structure of Reports 3.0 Introduction 3.1 Unit Objective 3.2 Format of Reports 3.2.1

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Front Matter 3.2.1.1 Cover 3.2.1.2 Frontispiece 3.2.1.3 Title Page 3.2.1.4 Copyright Notice 3.2.1.5 Forwarding Letter 3.2.1.6 Preface 3.2.1.7 Acknowledgements 3.2.1.8 Table of Contents 3.2.1.9 List of Illustrations 3.2.1.10 Abstract and Summary 3.2.2 Main Body 3.2.2.1 Introduction 3.2.2.2 Discussion

or Description 3.2.2.3 Conclusions 3.2.2.4 Recommendations 3.2.3 Back Matter 3.2.3.1 Appendix 3.2.3.2 List of References 3.2.3.3 Bibliography 3.2.3.4 Glossary 3.2.3.5 Index 3.3

Unit Summary 3.4 Key Terms 3.5 Check Your Progress 3.0 Introduction A 'Report', a form of technical/business/professional communication, is written to record and transmit or convey facts, ideas, or suggestions useful for others.

Presenting the report in an attractive and functional format enables the readers to comprehend the information easily. The structure holds elements and presents a 'report', whether informative or interpretative, sequentially. 3.1 Unit Objective This Unit intends to cover the format of the report. 3.2 Format of Reports Presenting the report in an attractive and functional format enables the readers to comprehend the information easily. The structure holds elements and presents a 'report', whether informative or interpretative, sequentially. Elements, categorised under three major sections, present the information in a format, as: I. Front Matter (Report Preliminaries) 1.

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Cover 2. Frontispiece 3. Title Page 4. Copyright Notice 5. Forwarding Letter 6. Preface 7. Acknowledgements 8. Table of Contents 9. List of Illustrations 10. Abstract and Summary

II. Main Body 1. Introduction 2. Discussion or Description 3. Conclusions 4. Recommendations III. Back Matter (Report Supplements) 1. Appendix 2. List of References

3. Bibliography 4. Glossary The terms mentioned above shall not necessarily appear as the headings in a report. They are the elements that structure a report in an organized manner. However, it is needless to say, every element is used in presenting a report depending upon its usefulness and the type of report. Including a particular element in a report depends upon: • The usefulness it offers; • The length of the report; • The complexity of the topic; • The terms of reference; • The formality of the situation; and • The existing practice in your organization. Usually, long and formal reports use all the elements else depending upon the type and size 'reports' use only those elements required and purposeful. Anyway, all kinds of 'reports' contain three elements necessarily. They are 'the title page', 'the introduction', and the 'discussion or description'. Writing a very short report, you need not give a separate page for the 'title page' instead write the 'title' on the top of the first page before the 'introduction'. Including unnecessary elements can only make your report bulky. 'Terms of reference': 'Terms of reference' are the instructions given to the writer guiding him on how to prepare and write a report. These are the conditions the writer must comply with in preparing a report. They clear a writer about: • The kind of information required. • How much the information is to provide. • Date of submission. • How urgent the report is. • To whom the writer has to submit.

"Please investigate the possibility of replacing the machinery in our factory workshop and recommend the most economical method of operating the change-over. A brief report is required before the board meeting on 22nd February". Example 3.1: "Terms of Reference" 3.2.1 Front Matter The front matter elements convey a report physically. It establishes a context or prepares a reader's mind before reading and understanding the report. It enables the reader to locate the information easily. 3.2.1.1 Cover It provides the first contact with the report and creates an impression to the reader. Use white coloured or neutral coloured thick paper for 'cover'. Preparing the 'cover', avoid cluttering it by incorporating too many details. 'Cover' serves three purposes: 1. It protects the document from the damaging effects of handling. 2. It introduces the subject matter and the nature of the report. It informs the reader: - The title of the report, - The name of the author, - The name of the organisation or department for which the report is prepared, - The date, - The report number (if any) - The classification: Secret, top secret, or ordinary (if any). 3. It is aesthetic and psychological in nature as it gives a neat appearance and dignity.

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Example 3.2: 'Cover' A blank sheet called flyleaf is placed at both the front and back of the report. It protects the documents and also provides a space for readers' comments. The use of flyleaf indicates the degree of the formality of the report. Hence, use it only when required and situationally.

3.2.1.2 Frontispiece Generally used in preparing long reports, Frontispiece provides a window display to readers. It creates interest and curiosity in the mind of readers for the content and indicates its importance. It may include: ● A map, ● An organisation chart, ● A photograph of equipment, ● A layout of the plant, etc. 3.2.1.3 Title Page It is used in long reports and those that shall probably be used in future. It performs various functions, like: 1. It defines the report. 2. It provides identifying matter. 3. It helps to orient the report. Title page provides vital information, It contains: ● The title ● Subtitle ● Author's name and designation ● The name and address of authority for whom the report is prepared ● Serial number (in it is in a series) ● Contract or project number, ● Date of completion, ● Approvals, and ● Distribution list. Title page must be complete, accurate, concise, and descriptive. In drafting it: ● Use the subject; ● Do not use negative words; ● Indication action suggested by the report; ● Suggest results or findings; and ● Indicate scope or limitations. Let's analyze different titles and learn to draft a suitable one:

Example 1) THE FRESHMAN REMEDIAL ENGLISH AT UNIVERSITY OF MYSORE Does it clearly state the purpose of the report? No, it does not clearly state whether the report is describing the Program, or proposing to establish it, or intends to discuss its history. Here, the writer needs to add a keyword. Example 2) The Effectiveness of the Freshman Remedial English at University of Mysore Does the title now present the purpose of the report clearly? No, it still needs to be enhanced. Using the word 'effectiveness' the writer has modified 'the Freshman' and not 'Remedial English'. Insert a word in your title like it must clear the purpose and nature of your report. Inserting the words like 'analysis', 'proposal', 'instructions', 'feasibility', 'description', 'progress', 'a study of', etc. you can exactly and completely indicate what the report is about. Example 3) AN ANALYSIS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE FRESHMAN REMEDIAL ENGLISH AT UNIVERSITY OF MYSORE Has the title now been drafted appropriately? It still needs to rework. The exhibit arrangement of words is still not giving us clear clarity about the sense. Example 4) AN ANALYSIS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE FRESHMAN REMEDIAL ENGLISH AT UNIVERSITY OF MYSORE Has the title now been attributed with the virtue of clarity? It is clear now, even at a glance, it is understandable. Grouping of words made using connecting words 'of' and 'at', is suitably arranging the words creating a sense. If your title is brief write it in a single line. If it is long, write it in lines long and short. Where the short lines shall bear the connecting words like 'for', 'by', 'of', 'for the use of', 'at', etc.

Grouping, spacing, and setting the items in a symmetrical format on the title page is of great importance. Some organizations provide a prescribed form for the 'title page'. Usually, the vital contents of the title page are presented by arranging them in some groups or sections. For this, see the example given below in which the whole information has been presented in four groups. ● The first group contains the project and the report numbers written on the top left and right corners. ● The second group has the title of the report typed in capital letters. ● The third group includes the information that indicates the authority for which the report has been written. ● The fourth group contains the information on - the author's name and designation; - The name of the organization; and - The date of submission Example 3.3: Title page items arranged in four sections

However, it is possible that there may be some other items too that need to appear on the title page like: - The name and designation of officers to whom your report is meant for circulation, - The name and designation of approval authority (use separate page if the list is long), and - Notation if the report is a part of a series. 3.2.1.4 Copyright Notice If a report is published, copyright notice is given on the title page as: ©2020 Shri Niwas. You can also give a note like: "

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All rights reserved. No part of this report may be reproduced in any form or by any means without

the written permission from the publisher." 3.2.1.5 Forwarding Letter "Forwarding letter" is also called "introductory or covering letter" or the "letter of transmittal". It transmits the finished report and serves as a permanent written record of the transmission of the report to its primary recipient. If it is an 'external report', you can use the letter format and if it's an 'internal report' you can use a memo layout. It informs the recipient about the research process and matters and discusses issues. It may include or mention: ● Time taken to study and prepare the report, ● Suggestions for further study, ● Side issues of the problem, ● The need for prompt action, ● Highlights of some aspects of the report, and ● The personal benefit the author feels he derived from the work. ● The special limitations or difficulties a researcher underwent in the research or the report-writing process.

- The features of the report that may be of special interest or significance, financial implications, and the summary of the report.
- The statement of subject and purpose.
- The date of submission, the name and designation of the writer and the authority.
- The acknowledgements are usually given in the last paragraph. If the list is long give it on a separate page under the heading 'Acknowledgements'. It contains almost the same information which is given in the preface but it is written in the form of a letter. Letter of transmittal handling has a relationship with the intended audience.
- It is written when a recipient is a single person or a single group.
- A student puts a letter of transmittal to the professor and places it after the title page.
- When on the job, or industry, or government it is often mailed before the report as a notice that the report is forthcoming. Or it may be mailed at the same time as the report but under a separate cover.

3.2.1.6 Preface It contains almost all the information which is given in the 'transmittal letter'. It indicates, briefly, where, in what period, and in which connection the work has been performed. It introduces the report and offers it to the reader. Adding an element depends on the nature of the report and requirement. Hence, if it is for the general audience, where the writer does not know who may read it, you add the 'preface'. If your report itself contains an introduction or summary you can avoid giving the 'preface'.

3.2.1.7 Acknowledgements It is a customary and a necessary element in the format of a report which is used to acknowledge the people who have participated in the process. An acknowledgement page is given to credit the people who have supported and helped in the preparation of the report.

"A special 'thanks' goes to several who contributed in many ways such as providing data, samples, indicating the source of data, entering the data, and emotional support and assistance, etc."

- The guidelines for preparing the acknowledgements are:
- Vary your expression to avoid monotony in the style of writing.
- Categorise people according to their contribution.
- Describe how they have helped
- Avoid cliches such as:
- Last but not least
- All in all
- First and foremost
- Avoid listing names.
- Use simple language.
- Avoid repeating the expressions like: 'thankyou', etc.
- I would like to express my gratitude to...
- I am extremely grateful to....
- We would especially like to thank.....
- We wish to express particular appreciation to.....
- Special acknowledgment is given to ..... Who encouraged me.....
- We owe a lot to.....
- Our sincere appreciation to.....
- My heartfelt thanks are due to.....
- More thanks in a few words would be highly.....
- Our thanks are due to.....
- I acknowledge with thanks the support rendered by.....
- We are grateful to.....
- We appreciate the help from many students, whose questions and criticism while working with the material have been very constructive.

Example 3.4: Varied ways of thanking in the acknowledgment

If you have used any published material clearly mention that permission has been taken for the reproduction of copyrighted material. If the list of sources is quite long, use a different page for it.

3.2.1.8 Table of Contents It is an important element that presents the contents of a report in a structural pattern. A long report must use this element whereas a short report does not need to necessarily use it. It contains headings and subheadings and each is mentioned along with its page number it is located at in the report. Functions, 'table of contents' perform:

- It works as a locating device. It indicates the number of the page on which a topic begins in the report.
- It provides a summary of the report. It lays out the heading and subheading indicating what topics have been covered in the report.
- It displays the extent and nature of the topical coverage and suggests the logic of the organisation.
- It shows the relationship between the main and subordinate elements.

#### STRUCTURE OF REPORT

TABLE OF CONTENTS CONTENTS Page No. Acknowledgments Abstract 1. INTRODUCTION 2.

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FRONT MATTER 2.1 Cover 2.2 Title Page 2.3 Copyright Notice 2.4 Forwarding Letter 2.5 Preface 2.6 Acknowledgments 2.7 Table of Contents 2.8 List of Illustrations 2.9 Abstract 3. MAIN BODY 3.1 Introduction 3.2 Discussion 3.3 Conclusions 3.4 Recommendations 4. BACK MATTER 4.1 Appendix 4.2 List of References 4.3 Bibliography 4.4 Glossary 4.5 Index

#### Example 3.5 Table of Content

Guidelines for creating an effective table of contents: 3.2.1.9 List of Illustrations A report that contains more than four or five illustrations, a list of illustrations is prepared and added in the report just after the 'table of contents using a new sheet. Its layout is the same as that of the 'table of contents. It gives information about: the number, title, and page reference of each illustration. If a report contains both tables and figures customarily the figures are listed first followed by the tables. The heading of the page can be given 'Figures' if the report contains only figures. Similarly, if the report contains only tables the page can be given the heading 'Tables'.

3.2.1.10 Abstract and Summary Abstract and summary are two important elements in the structure of a report. You can read about them in detail through an upcoming unit dedicated to the topics. An abstract provides the crux of a report. In business reports it is known as the synopsis. It generally extends to form 2 to 5 percent of a report. A report having 10 pages does not require an abstract or summary. A report having 10-50 pages must have an abstract. A report extending 50 pages should contain both an abstract and a summary. An abstract assumes the reader must be having some background knowledge of the subject. Writing an abstract avoids using abbreviations, acronyms, or illustrations. It informs the reader the following:

- Objectives
- Main findings or accomplishments
- Significance

Example 3.6: An Abstract A summary is usually given in the reports that extend 50 pages and is meant for all readers. In business reports it is called 'Executive Summary'. Writing a summary:

- present the entire report in a nutshell.
- if required, use headings and visual aids.
- Present information from various parts of the report in the same sequence as it appears in the report.

3.2.2 Main Body The main text consists - introduction, discussion or description, conclusion, and recommendations. This is the main body of the report, it explains the background to

the problem, defines the scope, mentions the method of investigation, cites sources, and presents the data. It gives the details of the study such as the method adopted, data collection methods, and the constraints under which the study was carried out. 3.2.2.1 Introduction The function of an introduction is to put the whole report in perspective and to provide a smooth, sound opening for it. It presents the subject or problem to the readers and gets their attention. A good introduction must furnish the readers with sufficient material concerning the investigation and problem, to lead them to it introduces the subject or problem to the reader and tries to develop the reader's interest. It drives the attention of a reader to matters of significance. It orients the audience to the purpose and scope of the report and provides sufficient background information. It informs about the methods of data collection and sources of data. It furnishes the details concerning the investigation and problem and leads to form an understanding of the objectives and outcomes. It provides a general view of the report before the reader moves ahead to go through the details furnished through the report. It puts the whole report into a frame. It contains: ● Historical and technical background of the problem; ● The purpose of the investigation; ● The scope of the investigation; ● Limitations of the survey; ● Sources of data; ● Methods of gathering data and analysis; ● Definition of terms; ● A brief statement of results; ● A brief statement of conclusions and recommendations; ● The general plan in presenting the content of the report; and ● Authorisation and terms of reference. The introduction may arrange the content keeping them under relevant headings like purpose, scope, etc.

Background of the report: What were those conditions and events that led to the project or survey, are discussed here. Details of previous significant and closely related investigations and studies can also be given here. Purpose: Using a statement of purpose, the writer specifies the objective of the investigation to the readers. If the analyst or researcher has received the 'terms of reference' that can be given here word to word. Scope: Here, the writer states the boundaries of the work, usually, in the case of complex and lengthy investigations. In describing the ground of the report, the writer can mention the methods of investigation, limitation factors such as cost, delivery, time, etc. Authorization: Mention the authority who has assigned the project. Basic principles or theories involved: State the theories and principles used for studying and analyzing the problem. Methods of gathering data: Introduce the reader to the methodology used in gathering the data. General plan in developing the solution: Mention the general plan the researcher adopted in the analysis. Ending the introduction with an explanation of the general plan of the report may provide a logical transition to the next section of the report. 3.2.2.2 Discussion or Description It is the lengthiest part of the report as it contains the information that supports the 'conclusion' and 'recommendations'. It contains the analysis, logic, and interpretation of the information. It presents the data or information analyzed and interpreted. It clears the concepts, ideas, and facts to the reader. Comparisons are made, facts are evaluated, significant relationships are drawn. Solutions of a problem can be given with an explanation of advantages and disadvantages. Using illustrations in the form of tables, figures, and charts, data is presented. It provides differentiation aspects of the problems. It uses subject headings and points suiting the need to present the subject to the reader.

3.2.2.3 Conclusions Conclusions are the result of clear analysis, reasoned judgement and logical interpretation of the data presented in the report. Conclusions and recommendations both can be treated under the same heading or in a separate section. Conclusion part interests the reader as it answers the questions raised in the introduction. It is a significant element and must be drafted carefully. Following are given some guidelines you must refer to in stating the conclusions: ● They must not sound mere a restatement of the findings; ● They must reflect the body of the report; ● They must be logical inferences based on the findings; ● They should be relevant to the stated problem and purpose of the report; ● They should not introduce new material, and ● They must serve as a basis for recommendations growing out of the study. In short, conclusions must reinforce, interpret or clarify the facts already presented in the report. Conclusions can be presented in the narrative form or listing, a series of points. In preparing a list, always place the main conclusion first and then others according to the order of importance. Note, conclusions do not suggest or recommend any future action, they are mainly interpretations or inferences. 3.2.2.4 Recommendations Recommendations are given when the 'discussion' and 'conclusion' indicate that further work needs to be done or a specific solution to a problem has been discovered/developed through the investigation. Recommendations are proposed actions based on the conclusions. They indicate what is to be done hence they must be specific, practical, and definite. They must sound reasonable, workable, logical, and approachable. Write the recommendations in the first person using active verbs for example, 'I recommend that....' or 'We recommend that.....' and not 'It is recommended that.....'. As recommendations are mainly based on the evidence presented in the 'discussion' and 'conclusions' so new evidence or ideas can not be presented.

Guidelines to refer to while drafting recommendations: ● Specific conclusions and findings must justify each recommendation. ● State recommendations in imperative sentence structure. Begin each with an action verb. ● Recommendations should include a recommended plan for implementation. ● Recommendations suggest additional research to investigate unanswered questions that become evident during the study. Purpose: To provide information to assist the Executive Committee of 'The Excellent University' in making decisions about a proposed facility for the construction of an auditorium on campus. Conclusion: After the analysis of the data, the proposed facility of the construction of the auditorium is essential. Recommendation: Construct the auditorium on the University campus in the academic year 20020-21 Example 3.7: Relationship between Purpose, Conclusion, and Recommendation 3.2.3 Back Matter Back matter refers to the elements that appear after the main body and are also called 'report supplements'. Back matter of a report contains - an appendix, list of references, bibliography, glossary, and index. These elements may be useful but not essential for comprehending the analysis, conclusion, and recommendation of the report. 3.2.3.1 Appendix An appendix contains the information relevant to the report but does not fit into the text easily. It is a way of furnishing the details of a descriptive nature which if inserted in the main body may interrupt the smooth flow of the narrative. Appendix: ● Relieves the body of the report from congestion;

- Contains the voluminous details supplementary to the actual text;
- Supports details;
- Add more information to the topics in the report;
- Holds the material that readers can safely omit but can consult if they want to examine the details;
- Contains materials such as - sample documents, detailed conclusions, experimental results, statistical data tables and graphs, specimen questionnaires or samples of forms used in investigations, summaries of results achieved by other organizations, etc.
- Presents recent work or data added at the last moment. In the appendix, the material given must be related to the subject of the report. It should not interrupt the theme of the 'discussion'. Points to keep in mind in preparing the appendix include:
- Add only the contextual and relevant material that is difficult to fit into the text of the report.
- If there is more than one appendix, name them as Appendix-I, Appendix-II or Appendix-A, Appendix-B.
- Do not use too many appendices.
- It should not be more than three or four pages.
- Mention the appendices in the 'introduction' itself. Referring to the appendices to the readers in the 'discussion' at the related and contextual points is a good practice.

3.2.3.2 List of References In preparing a report, various sources of information are cited which should be given credit or recognised by mentioning them. The source of information may include a diagram, illustrations, ideas, or any material summarised or paraphrased or quoted. Citation to sources is done by listing them in alphabetical order at the end of the report. Traditionally, sources are acknowledged by using the footnotes given at the bottom of the page on which they are cited. It is a contemporary practice to mention the primary and secondary data sources in the form of a list called 'list of references'. Citation provides an opportunity for readers to check and read more from the cited sources for further information.

3.2.3.3 Bibliography A bibliography is an alphabetical list of the sources - books, magazines, newspapers, CD-ROMs, Internet, interviews that have been cited in preparing the report. Guidelines to follow in preparing/drafting the bibliography:

- For the purpose of preparing the list alphabetically the name of an author is given in reverse order i.e surname given before the name. If coauthors are involved then only the first name is reversed.
- Bibliography does not refer to any one page or passage.
- The entries in the list are given in the form of indentation.
- Subsequent references to publications of the same author are indicated by a line.
- The sequence of various elements that appear in a bibliography is: - The last part of the name of the author or editor. - The other parts of the name. - Year of publication. - The title of the book. - Place of publication. - The name of the publisher.

Difference between the bibliography and reference list: Bibliography List of Reference It cites sources as whole entities. It cites the exact location of evidence or statement. It may contain works recommendable for further study or cite other pertinent references of benefit to the readers. It does not perform any such function.

It may indicate briefly the content and usefulness of the works cited. It only indicates the sources. It is prepared before a report writer starts writing the report so that he can collect the required information. It is generally prepared while the report is being written.

3.2.3.4 Glossary Reports that are dealing with a highly specialised matter must include glossary. It provides definitions and meanings of abbreviations and terms used in the report and may not be known to a layman. It introduces the special terms used in the report to both technical and non-technical readers. Guidelines to follow in preparing a glossary:

- Define all terms that may be unfamiliar to a general reader.
- Define all terms that may have a special contextual meaning in the report.
- List all terms in an alphabetical order and using a colon separate them from their given definition.
- Define all terms by giving their class and distinguishing features. If your report is not lengthy and contains very few terms to be defined you can list them in the 'introduction' section instead of using the 'glossary' element.

3.2.3.5 Index Indexing refers to listing all the keywords or topics, sub-topics, important concepts, and ideas, covered in the document alphabetically and giving the page number on which they are discussed in the report. It helps in locating specific information presented in the report easily. This element is preferably used in the case of long reports. Small and simple reports do not need it as the table of contents is enough for locating the information in the report.

3.3 Unit Summary Presenting the report in an attractive and functional format enables the readers to comprehend the information easily. The structure holds elements and presents a 'report', whether informative or interpretative, sequentially. Elements, categorised under three major sections, present the information in a format, as: Front Matter (Report Preliminaries):

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**MATCHING BLOCK 17/46**

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Cover, Frontispiece, Title Page, Copyright Notice, Forwarding Letter, Preface, Acknowledgements, Table of Contents, List of Illustrations, Abstract and Summary Main Body: Introduction, Discussion

or Description, Conclusions, Recommendations, Back Matter (Report Supplements): Appendix, List of References, Bibliography, Glossary

3.4 Key Terms

- **Cover:** It introduces the subject matter and the nature of the report. It informs the reader: The title of the report, The name of the author, The name of the organisation or department for which the report is prepared, The date, The report number (if any), The classification: Secret, top secret, or ordinary (if any).
- **Frontispiece:** It provides a window display to readers. It creates interest and curiosity in the mind of readers for the content and indicates its importance. It may include: A map, An organisation chart, A photograph of equipment, A layout of the plant, etc.
- **Title page:** It provides vital information, It contains: The title, Subtitle, Author's name and designation, The name and address of authority for whom the report is prepared, Serial number (in it is in a series), Contract or project number, Date of completion, Approvals, and Distribution list.
- **Copyright notice:** If a report is published, copyright notice is given on the title page as: ©2020 Shri Niwas.
- **Forwarding letter:** It is also called "introductory or covering letter" or the "letter of transmittal". It transmits the finished report and serves as a permanent written record of the transmission of the report to its primary recipient.



- **Preface:** It contains almost all the information which is given in the 'transmittal letter'. It indicates, briefly, where, in what period, and in which connection the work has been performed. It introduces the report and offers it to the reader.
- **Acknowledgements:** It is a customary and a necessary element in the format of a report which is used to acknowledge the people who have participated in the process. An acknowledgement page is given to credit the people who have supported and helped in the preparation of the report.
- **Table of Contents:** It is an important element that presents the contents of a report in a structural pattern. A long report must use this element whereas a short report does not need to necessarily use it.
- **List of Illustrations:** A report that contains more than four or five illustrations, a list of illustrations is prepared and added in the report just after the 'table of contents' using a new sheet. Its layout is the same as that of the 'table of contents'.
- **An abstract** provides the crux of a report. In business reports it is known as the synopsis.
- **A summary** is usually given in the reports that extend 50 pages and is meant for all readers. In business reports it is called 'Executive Summary'.
- **Introduction:** The function of an introduction is to put the whole report in perspective and to provide a smooth, sound opening for it. It presents the subject or problem to the readers and gets their attention.
- **Discussion:** It is the lengthiest part of the report as it contains the information that supports the 'conclusion' and 'recommendations'. It contains the analysis, logic, and interpretation of the information. It presents the data or information analyzed and interpreted.
- **Conclusions:** Conclusions are the result of clear analysis, reasoned judgement and logical interpretation of the data presented in the report. Conclusions and recommendations both can be treated under the same heading or in a separate section.
- **Recommendations:** Recommendations are given when the 'discussion' and 'conclusion' indicate that further work needs to be done or a specific solution to a problem has been discovered/developed through the investigation.
- **Appendix:** An appendix contains the information relevant to the report but does not fit into the text easily. It is a way of furnishing the details of a descriptive nature which if inserted in the main body may interrupt the smooth flow of the narrative.
- **List of References:** In preparing a report, various sources of information are cited which should be given credit or recognised by mentioning them. The source of information may include a diagram, illustrations, ideas, or any material summarised or paraphrased or quoted.
- **Bibliography:** A bibliography is an alphabetical list of the sources - books, magazines, newspapers, CD-ROMs, Internet, interviews that have been cited in preparing the report.
- **Glossary:** Reports that are dealing with a highly specialised matter must include glossary. It provides definitions and meanings of abbreviations and terms used in the report and may not be known to a layman.
- **Index:** Indexing refers to listing all the keywords or topics, sub-topics, important concepts, and ideas, covered in the document alphabetically and giving the page number on which they are discussed in the report.

**3.5 Check Your Progress Subjective:**

- 1) What is 'terms of reference'?
- 2) What are the elements that constitute the 'front matter' and the 'main body' of a formal written report? Describe each of them briefly.
- 3) Distinguish between: - Abstract and summary - Informative and interpretive reports - Cover and title page - Glossary and index

**Objective:**

- 1) True/False: Preface contains almost all the information which is given in the 'transmittal letter'.
- 2) Complete the line: Conclusions are the result of \_\_\_\_\_.
- 3) Fill in the gap: If your report is not lengthy and contains very few terms to be defined you can list them in the \_\_\_\_\_ section instead of using the 'glossary' element.
- 4)

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Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)

Short Q/A: What is bibliography? 5) Short Q/A: What is appendix used for? References:

- Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd.
- Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd.
- Raymond V. Lesikar, Marie E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd.
- Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson
- Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia
- Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX, United Kingdom Tel: (01865) 375794. Fax: (01865) 379162 info@howtobooks.co.uk www.howtobooks.co.uk
- Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015.
- Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001
- Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition 123 Module II:

## Report Writing: Process

**Unit 4: Gathering Information**

**4.0 Introduction**

**4.1 Unit Objective**

**4.2 Gathering Information**

**4.3 Gathering Information: Sampling Procedures for Survey Research**

**4.3.1 Simple Random Sampling**

**4.3.2 Systematic Random Sampling**

**4.3.3 Stratified Random Sampling**

**4.4 Gathering Information: The Process of Questionnaire**

**4.4.1 Types of Questions**

**4.4.1.1 Closed-ended Questions**

**4.4.1.2 Open-ended Questions**

**4.4.2 Cover Letter**

**4.5 Gathering Information: The Process of the Personal Interview**

**4.5.1 Planning the Interview**

**4.5.2 Conducting the Interview**

**4.5.3 Evaluating the Interview**

**4.6 Gathering Information: Telephone interview**

**4.6.1 Advantages and Disadvantages of Telephone Interview**

**4.6.2 Challenges of Telephone Interview**

**4.6.3 Guidelines For Telephone Interview**

**4.7 Unit Summary**

**4.8 Key Terms**

**4.9 Check Your Progress**

**4.0 Introduction** A report is prepared based on findings obtained through research. For research, a report writer refers to two kinds of sources: primary and secondary. Primary sources are interviews, experiments, and company records. The secondary sources are books, articles, bulletins, booklets, pamphlets, handbooks, company reports, newspapers, brochures, manuals, dissertations, and various collections of printed material.

In referring to primary sources, researchers conduct surveys, designing and administering questionnaires, plan, conducting, and evaluating interviews. Surveys can be distinguished by their method of collecting data - face to face, self-report, mail, or telephone. While referring to secondary sources, a report writer goes through the already existing analysis, reports, or publications.

**4.1**

Unit Objective This unit intends to introduce learners with the

methods of gathering information. In particular with: • Sampling Procedures for Survey Research • The Process of Questionnaire • The Process of the Personal Interview • Telephone interview

4.2 Gathering Information Information collection for writing the report is one of the aspects of the writing process. It involves reading, listening, and conducting surveys by personal interviews, questionnaires, telephone interviews, and note-making. Effective data collection or gathering depends on one's - analytical skills, knowledge of the purpose or objective and need for writing the report. For writing reports, one refers to research papers and thesis, the two sources of information. These are called primary and secondary sources of information. In referring to the primary sources of information, a writer gathers information by: • experimentation and observations; • interviews and questionnaires; and • Company records, files, and manuscripts. These are the sources of information that would have not been analysed or referred to before by anyone other than the author. These are the sources that provide a wealth of information to a report writer. In referring to the secondary sources of information, an author cites the information that has already been gathered by other researchers and is available in - books, articles, bulletins, booklets, pamphlets, handbooks, company reports, newspapers, brochures, manuals, dissertations, and various collections of printed material. The process of preparing or writing a report starts with referring to the secondary sources. Generally, a researcher considers the secondary sources first, thinking the problem or issue of the research has already been studied or analyzed in the past and must be published. If the writer finds the problem has not been studied by anyone or the information already available is not sufficient, he/she would conduct primary research. A process of research gets direction on starting from the point of information already available. Gathering information or searching for information requires skills. A person familiar with the techniques of research knows how to find material quickly and easily. Having secured the material, the writer would examine and analyze the information and incorporate the useful data into the report. Since the writer may need to support the main points he/she would have to gather information by interviews or questionnaires and conducting surveys. The techniques of mail questionnaires, telephone interviews, personal interviews can be used under the situations when the researcher or writer: • intends to incorporate updated information; • has access to a person who has specialised knowledge and the information required is not available in any published material; • deals with an unusual subject and no information may be available in any secondary source; • thinks the viewpoint of a particular person can add interest and value to an argument; and • wants to take the public opinion on a particular subject. Collecting information through primary sources include different methods or techniques like surveys, questionnaires, interviews, and reading and listening. However, a good report writer uses the method that is the most purposeful. Now, ahead we shall discuss the sampling procedures for survey research, the process of questionnaire and the interview

4.3 Gathering Information: Sampling Procedures for Survey Research When a researcher has decided that a survey can help in gathering information he would have to determine the population. If the group he wishes to survey is so large and it would be impractical to reach everyone he would survey a sample (a subset of the population). The sample must have characteristics identical to those of the population as a whole. Once the population has been decided for sampling, the researcher would determine the method of sampling. The three commonly used sampling techniques are: • Simple random sampling, • Systematic random sampling, and • Stratified random sampling. For each, the writer must have a list or directory that identifies all the members.

4.3.1 Simple Random Sampling Compile a list of members from the group you want to study to set up a random sampling. Then devise a system that assures every member of the group has an equal chance of being chosen. One way you can work out is to write all the members' names on the slips of paper, put the chits in a bowl and toss them together, and randomly pick a slip. Continue to pick a chit of names, stirring them every time, till you have enough names required for sampling.

4.3.2 Systematic Random Sampling It is quite similar to the 'simple random sample technique'. You would compile a list of members from the group and pick every fifth or ninth name from the list, it would help you to get sampling entrants.

4.3.3 Stratified Random Sampling It involves dividing the group into subgroups based on similar characteristics. Later, make a simple random selection within each subgroup to form the sample. In selecting the proper sample, you should be aware of the relative proportion of the subgroup to the total population. For example, if a researcher wants to conduct a survey of the employees of an organisation, on the basis of income group, then all the income groups should be included according to the percentage each represents to the total employees of the organization.

4.4 Gathering Information: The Process of Questionnaire After the researcher has identified the population for the survey and selected the representative for sampling, he will prepare questions for collecting information. The answers obtained in response to the questions provide data or information required for the report. The questions need to be prepared carefully. Following are given guidelines to be followed in drafting questions for a questionnaire. • They should be kept as short as possible. It helps in asking the needed information straightly and clearly. • Questions must be concerning the topic only. • One question must focus on one point only. • Make the questions very clear so that the sampler can answer them easily. • Prepare comprehensible questions free of jargon and vagueness • Arrange questions in a sequential, coherent, and logical order. Ask easy-to- answer questions in the beginning. Put the questions of related topics or subjects together. • Prepare the questions, in answering which, a respondent does not need to work on his memory. • Questions should not be ambiguous. Structure your sentences that should be grammatically correct using appropriate words. • Avoid asking leading questions. These are the questions that can condition a respondent's mind and lead him/her to not answer truthfully. • Do not ask personal questions. Questions about sex, politics, religion, age, and income must be avoided to ask. Sometimes, when you need to know about the age of the samplers for the purpose of research you can ask them to provide it by selecting a range of age from the given options. • For the mail questionnaire in the covering letter ask the respondent courteously to cooperate and help. • Using the parallel wording, provide transition between questions. • Avoid using 'skip-and-jump' or 'involved rating' types of questions. They become difficult to follow and comprehend for a reader.

Example 1): "How much importance do you give to food, accommodation, and service in your choice of the hotel?" Here, the question is not on - one aspect, it is not clear. To collect data effectively, make one question on one aspect. For example: "How important is food in your selection of a hotel?" "How important is accommodation?" "How important is service?" Example 2): "Do you go to the Gliding Club regularly? Here, it does not clear the repplier what the questioner means by 'regularly' Example 3): "Are you the appropriate target market for the product?" Here, the questioner is using a jargon 'target-market' a layman is not expected to know the meaning of. It can rightly be put as: "Would you consider buying the product? Example 4): "What is your travelling behaviour?" Here, the question is vague. The respondent cannot perceive easily what the question means and how to answer it. It can be rightly put as: "How often do you travel each year?" 1. 5 times 2. 5 to 10 times 3. More than 10 times Example 5): "What type of TV do you prefer?" Here, the question is ambiguous, it puts the respondent in a doubt. He shall not know whether the questioner wants to know about the colour preference, or brand choice, or the types of the tv. The question can be put appropriately as: "Do you prefer portable or non-portable T.V.?" Example 6): "Do you read The Economic Times?" It is a leading question. It must be asked as: "What newspaper do you read?" Examples 4.1: Framing Questions

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Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)

Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. 4.4.1 Types of

Questions To obtain desired information through a questionnaire different kinds of questions are drafted. In the groups of questions there are basically two types: Closed-ended questions and Open-ended questions which are further categorised

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**MATCHING BLOCK 22/46**

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as shown in the diagram below. Figure 4.1: Types of Questions Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. 4.4.1.1

**Closed-ended Questions** These are the questions that provide a respondent with a set or list of possible responses to choose from. Such questions are used when: • we seek specific, precise, reproducible, reliable information; • we are sure of the range of answers the respondent can give; and • We want to maintain the control of topics. These questions make a respondent to identify the appropriate and designated answer. The three common types of closed-ended questions are: 1) Dichotomous Question: It offers the respondent to choose between only two possibilities, say between yes or no, or before or after, or male and female. Such types of questions prove useful when the questionnaire topic can be analysed in black and white terms. For example: Do you own a car?

Yes:\_\_\_\_\_ No:\_\_\_\_\_

A dichotomous question may offer a third option too which shall be neutral in nature. The third item is usually given for if the respondent does not hold an opinion he can choose it. For example: 'no opinion' or 'don't know' 2) Multiple Choice Question: It offers a respondent to choose from several options or possible answers. If you think there may be another possible answer, include an - 'other' category. For example: Q: What mode of communication do you use for communicating with people outside your organization? a. Mail b. Fax c. Telephone d. Cellular Phone e. Electronic Mail f. Other Means (please specify) These types of questions are probably used most commonly in questionnaires. They provide a wide range of responses or choices given by the questionnaire framer. 3) Ranking or Rating Question: It offers a respondent to rank several possibilities. It helps to know the degree of the respondent's feelings about a topic. For example: Q: How would you rate your communication skills? a. Excellent b. Very good c. Good d. Average e. poor 4.4.1.2 Open-ended Questions These are the questions that allow respondents to answer in their own words. Such questions lead to elicit information and generally begin with phrases like 'What do you think about.....?' or 'How would you describe.....?', or 'What is your opinion about.....?'. The three common types of open-ended questions are: 1) Fill-in-the-blank Type: This type of question provides answering space to a respondent. For example: Q: How long have you been working here? 2) Short-answer question: This type of question offers a respondent to provide complete and detailed information. Such types of questions do not help much in statistically tabulating the data provided through an answer. They allow respondents to compose their answers and share details. 3) Restatement Question: This type of question offers respondents to elaborate on their answers given previously. For example: Q: You said you dislike completing travel vouchers. Is that Correct? The uses of restatement questions: • They provide opportunities to clarify points and correct misunderstandings. • They help to pursue a subject further. • They encourage a respondent to explain a statement. • They can be helped to soothe upset customers. Before mailing the questionnaire, revise and test all the drafted questions. To review the questions, on the parameters of content, correctness, direction, vocabulary, arrangement, ambiguity, and length, they can be sent to a panel of experts familiar with the target population or the problem or both. Sometimes to check the usefulness, reliability, thoroughness, and success of the questionnaire a pretest or pilot study can be conducted for which it can be given to a group of people who are similar to the members of the population. 4.4.2 Cover Letter The mail questionnaire goes with a covering letter. It is a significant element used in introducing and convincing the target reader to go ahead with the questionnaire. The principal attributes common to every cover letter are:

- It must have an opening statement: It must focus on the receiver, not on the sender.
- It must be introducing the sender to the recipient.
- It must be brief.
- It must mention the purpose of the survey.
- It must explain the scope of the questionnaire.
- It must provide the recipient with a valid reason for spending his time answering the questionnaire.
- It must explain how the recipient has been selected and what is requested of him/her.
- It must give the filling instructions.
- It can provide a final due date for the questionnaire return.
- It can give details of how to return the questionnaire.
- It must validate that the identity of the respondent shall remain anonymous.
- It must sustain a warm, friendly, and requesting tone. Example 4.2: Cover letter

70%

**MATCHING BLOCK 23/46**

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Communicative English\_Semester (4) (2).pdf (D165871410)

Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. 4.5 Gathering Information: The Process of the

Personal Interview As you know, interviews are planned and structured face to face conversations between an interviewer and a respondent. They are conducted to obtain required information and can lead to acquiring a wealth of it if managed skillfully. One may face interviews not necessarily for a job but on other occasions also. However, it is always your communication skills that can make the process purposeful and successful. Generally, during an interview, an interviewer enjoys control over the conversation as he asks what he intends or requires. Yet, being an interviewee, you can also have some control over the interview interaction by:

- deciding what you want to share,
- planning your answers on anticipating the interviewer's questions, and
- giving direction to the interviewer through your comments and non-verbal cues.

The three stages of the interview process are:

- Planning before the interview
- Conducting the interview, and
- Evaluating the interview.

4.5.1 Planning the Interview An interviewer must plan the interview before conducting it, and it begins with realizing its purpose and objective. To serve your informational needs from the interview and evaluating the answers you would need criteria. The interview process shall provide you with exactly what you intend is dubitable. It is a dynamic process, not static, and which direction it will go is unpredictable. It may not proceed as you had planned. Hence, planning a general strategy and retaining the flexibility to change when needed is of great need. After you have requested the interview, you schedule it and see it takes place at a convenient location and comfortably. During the interview, you need to be objective, initiative, persistent, and tactful. Possessing a suitable appearance and some humour, you can carry forward the conversation effectively. You must know the subject and vocabulary. It largely depends on the alert state of mind of an interviewer that he can elicit complete answers from the responder. The interviewer must be efficient at collecting information, listening, and probing. You can save the time of an interviewee from getting wasted in giving fundamental information by reading about his background before the interview. Outlining the topic and preparing a list of questions that focus on the topic you can - collect the material in a structured manner, open up different areas of discussion, and keep the conversation on track. Developing a set of questions and deciding their sequence helps in conducting the interview effectively. Plan questions that can help you to get information, to motivate the respondent to answer honestly and appropriately, and to establish a good rapport with the other person.

- Ask questions in a friendly way.
- Follow the rules of audience awareness.
- Use easy-to-answer questions at the beginning.
- Motivate the interviewee to give more information if it is required.
- Ensure that your questions are properly comprehensible.
- Ask questions to show that some serious consideration has been given to the subject.
- Ask only those questions that fall within the range of respondent's knowledge and experience.
- Use 'you-approach' in asking questions.
- Phrase questions to break the hearer's preoccupation barrier.
- Phrase the question to limit the answer to the information wanted so that the hearer knows exactly what he wanted.
- Give the answer time to think, to formulate his answer and to speak.
- Provide clarification if the hearer is not able to answer the question.
- Give the answerer credit for his intelligence and let him know that his effort is appreciated.
- Be objective in evaluating the answer. Take into consideration the person's prejudices, his mood, and his image of you.
- Ask questions beginning with why, what, when, how, where, etc. Such questions develop information and data relevant to the purpose.

Guidelines to follow for asking questions in the personal interview

95%

**MATCHING BLOCK 24/46**

SA

Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)

Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. : The

interviewer must avoid asking questions that can fall the other person into some embarrassment. Do not ask questions that are unanswerable, hostile, loaded, and leading. Such questions can lead to taking the conversation off the track and in an unplanned way.

4.5.2 Conducting the Interview During an interview, the exchange of information goes consciously and subconsciously. At the subconscious level, it is the environment at which the interview takes place and the behaviour (friendly or hostile) of both the interviewer and interviewee which develop the conversation and determine the success. At the conscious level, the information exchange goes on by telling your name, your company name, the objective of the survey, introducing the topic, and the role the interviewee is playing in the projects. Consciously manage to remain relaxed, courteous, calm, and at ease even at the time of disagreements. ● Be on time for the interview appointment. ● Build and maintain a positive and professional rapport with the person(s) you are interviewing. ● Remind the interviewee of the purpose and goal of the interview. ● Be cordial and relaxed. ● Concentrate with an intensified focus on the speaker. ● Make a conscious attempt to structure and relate the ideas as they are being used. ● Motivate the respondent by telling the purpose of the interview. ● Explain the selection process of the respondents. ● Try to establish the connection between the goals of your research and their interest. ● Try to gather information but not to influence the respondent's opinions. ● Show an interest in what your respondent is saying. ● Exercise critical and objective evaluation of what is being said. ● Probe for clarification and elaboration of responses that warrant closer attention. ● Try to interrupt only to obtain specific details or to keep the conversation on the track. ● Practice with the speaker's ineptness, possible lack of organization or nervousness. ● Follow a uniform approach in conducting each interview. ● Avoid prejudgement, prejudice, or similar emotions, which tend to override the consideration of content. ● Follow the stated agenda, but be willing to explore relevant sub-topics. ● Revise the action items, goals, and tasks that each of you has agreed to discuss at the end of the interview. ● Close the interview on an appreciative note, with thanks to the interviewee for spending her or his time and showing interest and cooperation. ● Give an indication that you will send a copy of your report. Guidelines to follow when conducting an interview

According to a study, people can speak at the rate of 125 to 150 words per minute. It indicates you can ask 20 questions in a half an hour interview. However, depending on the complexity of the topic and the type of questions an interviewee may take more or less time for responding. 4.5.3 Evaluating the Interview Although the interview shares the general characteristics of the communication process, it has a unique form designed to achieve its specific purposes. It usually involves two individuals and both know what the interview intends to achieve. It is inherent that each participant contributes to the achievement of its objective. Even though one person may contribute more than the other, the result of an effective interview should represent a true synthesis or blend of inputs from both participants. In general it is a direct exchange of information and ideas. concentration , purpose, goal, direction, critical evaluation and similar factors contribute most for getting the best out of what is heard and observed. Ultimately the whole process of the interview will be successful if you strive to get as much information as possible from a respondent. 4.6 Gathering Information: Telephone interview For gathering information, interviews can be conducted over the telephone. In a telephonic conversation where you can only hear a person's voice both the impression and data received would be based on the quality of words and voice heard. Generally, telephonic interviews are determined when: ● The information you are seeking is routine or opinion-based. ● It requires brief answers. ● Only a small number of people can provide the information. It is practically useful when one intends to collect data for some market research. Although the rules applied to a personal interview are similarly applicable to a telephone interview. Still, what are those things an interviewer must care about in carrying a telephonic interview, include: ● The interviewer must try to make his voice sound cheerful and friendly. ● Having correct pronunciation and articulation the interviewer can sound intelligible.

● Listen to what the interviewee is saying patiently. Refrain from interrupting. ● Avoid dominating the situation. ● At the beginning of a telephone interview, state the purpose of the call. ● It may include both open-ended and closed-ended questions. It is always the skilful and strategic approach adopting which an interviewer can reap the advantages of the conversation. Practising a dummy conversation and listening to its recording can help an interviewer to hold the real interaction confidently and effectively. 4.6.1 Advantages and Disadvantages of Telephone Interview The advantages and disadvantages inherent in conducting a telephone interview include: Advantages Disadvantages ● Less costly than in-person surveys. ● Faster than in-person or mail surveys. ● Higher response than mail surveys. ● Better response for open-ended questions (except ranking and rating questions). ● Easier for probing questions. ● Easier to skip some questions, if they are not appropriate. ● More control over the order of asking questions than mail questionnaire surveys. ● More costly than a mail questionnaire survey. ● Lack of well-trained interviewers. ● Lack of clarity in articulation of sounds/words/phrases misleads the interviewer and the respondent. ● Less time for orientation. ● Interviewer's bias can influence the result. ● Detailed data cannot be gathered by this method. ● It is difficult for rating and ranking questions. ● It is difficult to handle lengthy questions. 4.6.2 Challenges of Telephone Interview Conducting a telephone interview involves facing some challenges, and they are like: ● The pace of the telephone survey/interview is controlled by the interviewer. ● An interviewee may show hesitance in participating in the survey or conversation over the phone.



- Respondents may feel pressure in replying to questions hurriedly.
- Anxiety and intense concentration can make the respondent tire quickly.
- It may become difficult for a respondent to handle long questions that contain several ideas.
- Long list of closed questions can also lead a respondent to lose interest in the interview.
- Questions that require a respondent to rank a list of items are very difficult since the respondent must remember the items and then remember the order.
- A respondent relies solely on what is heard to formulate a response.
- Lengthy silence of the interviewer can make a respondent lose the attention.
- The interviewer faces the main problem of keeping the conversation going on and writing answers while mentally preparing to reach the next question.

**4.6.3 Guidelines For Telephone Interview** Conducting a telephone interview requires an interviewer to carry on the conversation smartly, tactfully, and courteously. In a telephone interview or survey, you may happen to deal with different kinds of people who may behave unpredictably. Being quick to their reactions can help you to tune the situation according to your interest. Following is given a set of guidelines you may refer to in conducting a telephone interview.

- Fix the appointment with the respondent and prearrange the time for the survey process.
- Discourage respondents from engaging in other activities while the process of survey is going on.
- Give a brief introduction of the topic and explain the purpose of the study or research.
- Select the suitable words so that they may sound well.
- Group questions topic-wise and follow the consistent format.
- Begin a telephone interview with items central to the topic, which must be important and generate respondent's interest.
- Ask important and interesting questions in the beginning so that the respondent pays attention to the survey process. The way the first question is asked sets the pace and tone for the whole interview process.
- The first question should be very simple and closed-ended.
- The second question should be open-ended to provide an opportunity to the respondent to formulate a response in her/his own words.
- Ask personal questions at the end.
- Use keywords in preview and review that help the respondent to hear the essential points more than once.
- The telephone questionnaire is different from the mail questionnaire. So questions are very often introduced with phrases such as: Now, let us turn to.... Next, we would like to ask a question that is.... Now let us turn our attention.... Now I would like to know about this problem....
- Redundancy that is out of place in a mail questionnaire may be necessary in a telephone interview in order to get the attention of the respondent.
- When you shift from one aspect to another, add transitional statements such as: We are now shifting to the other aspect... I am going to raise some questions about.... We are now switching to another aspect....
- Finally skillful probing by the interviewer makes it possible to get high quality answers to open-ended or opinion based questions.

**Guidelines For Conducting A Telephone Interview**

90%

**MATCHING BLOCK 25/46**

**SA**

Communicative English - 1 (2).pdf (D165871407)

Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. 4.7 Unit Summary • A report is

prepared based on findings obtained through research. For research, a report writer refers to two kinds of sources: primary and secondary.

- When a researcher has decided that a survey can help in gathering information he would have to determine the population. If the group he wishes to survey is so large and it would be impractical to reach everyone he would survey a sample (a subset of the population). The sample must have characteristics identical to those of the population as a whole. Once the population has been decided for sampling, the researcher would determine the method of sampling.
- After the researcher has identified the population for the survey and selected the representative for sampling, he will prepare questions for collecting information. The answers obtained in response to the questions provide data or information required for the report.
- As you know, interviews are planned and structured face to face conversations between an interviewer and a respondent. They are conducted to obtain required information and can lead to acquiring a wealth of it if managed skillfully.
- For gathering information, interviews can be conducted over the telephone. In a telephonic conversation where you can only hear a person's voice both the impression and data received would be based on the quality of words and voice heard.

**4.8 Key Terms**

- **Closed-ended Questions:** These are the questions that provide a respondent with a set or list of possible responses to choose from.
- **Open-ended Questions:** These are the questions that allow respondents to answer in their own words.

**4.9 Check Your Progress**

**Subjective:**

- 1) What are the various methods of data collection?
- 2) What are different types of questions?
- 3) What are the advantages and disadvantages of telephone surveys?
- 4) What are the guidelines for:
  - a. Conducting telephone interviews
  - b. Conducting interviews
  - c. Drafting questionnaires

**Objective:**

- 1) True/False: We can use 'you-approach' in asking questions during an interview.
- 2) Fill in the gap: The three commonly used sampling techniques are: \_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_, and \_\_\_\_.
- 3) Complete the line: Conducting a telephone interview requires an interviewer to carry on the conversation \_\_\_\_.
- 4) Short Q/A: What are three common types of open-ended questions?
- 5) Short Q/A: Why is 'cover letter' considered a significant element of mail questionnaire?

References: • Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. • Raymond V. Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson • Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia • Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX, • Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. • Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 • Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition 123 Unit 5:

Material Organisation 5.0 Introduction 5.1 Unit Objective 5.2 Meaning of Outlining the Material 5.3 Principles of Organisation 5.3.1 Chronological 5.3.2 Spatial 5.3.3 Cause-and-effect 5.3.4 Problem-solution 5.3.5 Topical 5.3.6 Comparison and Contrast 5.4 Types of Outline 5.4.1 Topic Outline 5.4.2 Sentence Outline 5.5 Preparation of Outline: Suggestions 5.6 Format 5.7 Unit Summary 5.8 Key Terms 5.9 Check Your Progress 5.0 Introduction You got the purpose of writing a report, determined the subject or topic, analysed your audience, and collected the required information. This information shall be incorporated into the report by arranging it suitably and is called outlining. All such steps in report writing are not static, they are not performed in isolation. They are rather dynamic, all of them may be going on somewhat simultaneously. Outlining helps to present the information and is one of the basic requirements needed for writing the report. It makes the information clear to the reader and establishes a logical progression of it. In the words of Aruna Koneru, "An outline is a plan of organization for writing the report. It is a structured listing of your ideas using various levels of importance and indicating these with indentations and numbering systems. It classifies the information, which has been collected and then arranged in some order. It is an invaluable working tool. It will indicate the pattern of your report and provide you with a starting point for writing. The process of creating a good outline helps the writer clarify ideas and settle questions of relationships that might go unnoticed. The outline is a preliminary sketch or plan that will help you produce an effective piece of writing rather than an aid itself. Any outline, however, that turned out to be unsatisfactory as a plan to use while writing would also be unsatisfactory for the other uses." 5.1 Unit Objectives This unit intends to introduce students with: • Meaning of Outlining the Material • Principles of Organisation • Types of Outline • Preparation of Outline: Suggestions • Format 5.2 Meaning of Outlining the Material You got the purpose of writing a report, determined the subject or topic, analysed your audience, and collected the required information. This information shall be incorporated into the report by arranging it suitably and is called outlining. All such steps in report writing are not static, they are not performed in isolation. They are rather dynamic, all of them may be going on somewhat simultaneously. In the words of Aruna Koneru, "An outline is a plan of organization for writing the report. It is a structured listing of your ideas using various levels of importance and indicating these with indentations and numbering systems. It classifies the information, which has been collected and then arranged in some order. It is an invaluable working tool. It will indicate the pattern of your report and provide you with a starting point for writing. The process of creating a good outline helps the writer clarify ideas and settle questions of relationships that might go unnoticed. The outline is a preliminary sketch or plan that will help you produce an effective piece of writing rather than an aid itself. Any outline, however, that turned out to be unsatisfactory as a plan to use while writing would also be unsatisfactory for the other uses." Hence, • An outline is a structured flow chart of the report content. It enlists the ideas according to their levels of importance, classifies the information, arranges them in some order. • Outlining helps to present the information and is one of the basic requirements needed for writing the report. It makes the information clear to the reader and establishes a logical progression of it. • Outlining reflects a writer's decision on how to present the information to its audience. This decision depends on the report's purpose and type, the nature of the data and the audience's requirements. • It is like a 'blueprint' and serves as a guide to be followed in preparing a finished product. • Outlining provides scope to incorporate or modify information easily anytime. Outline can be revised and refined as your investigation proceeds. Even before one starts writing a report an outline can be composed, it works as a road map which leads to the destination. • Outline helps a writer to organise his thoughts, ideas, facts, opinions, or other information in a logical way. • Planning of organizing material or outlining is more than a sequential presentation. It requires presenting substantial material, a heap of complicated facts and ideas, in an organised manner. It involves deciding the relative relationship between ideas and the logic of the organisation. • It presents information based on the knowledge of the readers, their reasons for reading, their attitudes, and their familiarity with the subject. Whether it is a simple or complex report an appropriate outline helps to keep control while you gather data and while you write, revise and proofread it. Following is given a set of steps a writer may refer to write effectively. 1. Think about your idea until you get clarity; 2. Limit your subject by carefully considering the function of writing a report;

3. Identify and list each major part of your subject; 4. Develop and divide each major part into its constituent minor parts; 5. Arrange the major and minor parts into the 'discussion' part of your report; 6. Relate these parts continually to your original thesis; 7. Give a sense of continuity or organise unity rather than being merely a collection of headings that fall within the scope of the subject; and 8. Express your message clearly and completely.

**5.3 Principles of Organisation** At the stage of organising the material, professional writers follow many different principles. They are chronological, spatial, cause-and-effect, problem-solution, topical and comparison and contrast.

**5.3.1 Chronological** Information arranged chronologically follows a time sequence. It involves: ● Arranging - the information around the major time segments, or ● Describing - the time sequence of events or stages in a process or steps in doing something. This kind of arrangement is useful: ● Informing the audience about the main stages in the development of something; ● Informative reports; ● Explaining a process; ● Demonstrating how to do something; ● Reporting laboratory experiments.

**5.3.2 Spatial** Information arranged spatially follows a directional pattern in terms of approach to the main topics. It involves preparing the main points from top to bottom, inside to outside, front to back, left to right, east to west, or in some other direction. For example, "the description of a building may progress from extension to interior or from front to back or from story to story". Organising the main topics on the principle of spatial relationship does not necessitate that the points are handled internally on the same principle. This kind of arrangement is useful in providing - informative reports.

**5.3.3 Cause-and-effect** Information arranged on this principle shows a cause-and-effect relationship. Depending on the nature of a topic, the development of a subject may be from 'cause- to-effect' or from 'effect-to-cause'. For example, if a report is to discuss the decline of sales of a company product, it may start with the causes which affected the company's sales in the past one year and how it had led to declining in profit for the current year. Any information that answers 'why' and 'what' questions about a particular condition or development can be organised according to this principle. It is useful for preparing: ● persuasive or informative reports ● Interpretive reports

**5.3.4 Problem-solution** Information arranged on this principle is dividing the material into two main points. The first shows the existence and seriousness of a problem and the second provides a workable solution to the problem. Problem-solving orientation presents the information in a sequence that progresses from posing the problem to diagnosing it and reaching a solution. In posing or discussing the problem, try to explain it and show its effects. In offering the solution, to convince the readers you may propose the solution as it is needful and the best one possible. For example: if you are preparing a report on the problem of employees wasting time during tea breaks in a factory, you shall explain to the workers how the loss of manhours affects productivity and ultimately reduces their bonus. It is useful for preparing - persuasive and interpretive reports.

**5.3.5 Topical** Information arranged on this principle is dividing the details into various main points. Each main point covers one main aspect of the main subject. Each 'main aspect' divides into various sub-topics and sub-sub-topics. It is the most commonly used pattern in organising information that has various aspects to discuss. For example, to prepare a report on 'listening skills, you can divide the acquired information into varied main points (see the example). The main points can further be divided into sub-topics and that depends on the purpose and readers of the report.

**Topical Outline**

Listening skills

1. Introduction
2. Purpose of Listening
3. Cognitive Process of Listening
4. Barriers to Listening
5. Overcoming Listening Barriers
6. Summary

**Example 5.1: Topical Outline Presentation**

**5.3.6 Comparison and Contrast** Arranging the information on this principle shows comparison and contrast of two or more concepts or problems of similar type. Similar to 'cause and effect' it divides the information into two main aspects, where one deals with the comparison between two or more similar concepts or problems, while the other deals with their difference. It is used for preparing persuasive reports, informative reports, and evaluation reports. Let's learn this kind of orientation through illustration. Suppose a report is to be prepared to provide information on the comparison of two institutes that offer MBA degrees. And you intend to compare them on the parameters of - intellectual capital, infrastructure and facilities, industry interface, international linkages, placement performance, extra-curricular activities, faculty satisfaction, and students' satisfaction. Your report could be structured in two different ways: **Example 5.2: Two styles of comparison and contrast outline**

**5.4 Types of Outline** After the writer has determined the principle of organization, he moves to constructing an outline. Two types of outlines that are widely used are: topic outline and sentence outline. The 'introduction' and 'conclusion' steps are left out of the outline.

**5.4.1 Topic Outline** The topic outline is the easiest kind of outline to prepare. ● It provides an overview on the topic at a glance. ● It indicates the position of each topic, and shows their relationship with other topics. ● By using decimalisation and successive depths of indentation, we can indicate major and minor topics. ● It shows the plan of development for each topic that has sub-topics under it. In writing a main topic and its related sub-topics that develop or represent the same idea you must write them in a parallel construction. For example:

**5.4.2 Sentence Outline** Under this form, each topic and subtopic is written in a complete sentence or a part of one. The sentence outline uses the same scheme of number and letter symbols used in the topic outline. It uses end punctuations (commas and semicolons) to separate sentences.

An effective sentence outline contains two elements: the topics being discussed and what the writer plans to say about it. For example: Setting up a new distribution network. The sentence outline is an expansion of the topic outline in that it expresses the separate topics more precisely in subject-predicate form.

**5.5 Preparation of Outline: Suggestions** Following are some suggestions referring to which you can design a logical and well- balanced outline.

➤ **Full Coverage:** Prepare your outline inclusive of all major topics discussed in the report. An outline that provides a general view of the whole report must give a list of all the major topics so that a reader can know the contents of a report easily at a glance. See the example given below that presents the full coverage.

**Preparatory Steps to Oral Communication**

1. Preparation for Presentation
  - 1.1 Identify the topic
  - 1.2 Determine the purpose
  - 1.3 Analysis of audience
2. Organisation of the Material
  - 2.1 Structure of your presentation
  - 2.2 Plan your presentation
3. Mode of Delivery
  - 3.1 Memorised Speaking
  - 3.2 Manuscript Reading
  - 3.3 Extemporaneous Speaking
  - 3.4 Impromptu Speaking
4. Audio Visual Aids
  - 4.1 Text Visuals
  - 4.2 Graphic Visuals
5. Writing the Script
6. Rehearse the Presentation
7. Question-and-answer Session

**Example 5.3 Full-coverage Outline**

➤ Division of the Material: In outlining we divide a material to provide a logical representation of information. Outlining is division, we divide the whole subject matter into main topics and subtopics and sub-subtopics. It goes like the whole is divided into smaller and smaller units. The division of information is a careful task. We evaluate the material and determine which ideas should be grouped together under one topic or subtopic and in what order. There should be no overlapping of ideas and needless repetition. In grouping the ideas virtues of clarity and coherency should be maintained. Guidelines useful for effective division of the material: ● Avoid including more than five or six main points. Extensive material can be divided into more sub-topics and sub-subtopics instead of main points. ● A main topic does not divide into one single sub-topic. There must be at least two subdivisions for each main division. ● Avoid faulty subordination. ● Check for full coordination. ● Avoid overlapping ideas. In the example given above, there are two parts a) original and b) revised. ● In part a), the main topic 'Purpose of Listening' places 'Cognitive Process of Listening' as a subtopic which in itself is another main topic. It does not justify the requirement of an appropriate grouping of material. Topics and subtopics which are of equal rank should be placed in the same level in the outline. ● Indentation of subtopics represented in the b) part shows a clear presentation of them. Example 5.4: Division of material

➤ Clear and Explicit Headings: Compose the headings choosing the words that are highly descriptive and that provide specific information about the topic. The other suggestions about how to write headings are: ● Headings in a report must be consistent in form, style, and content with other headings. ● Topic headings must express the key idea. A reader must get the preview of the topic by reading the headings. ● Headings of the same importance must be typed in the same way and in the same relative position on the lines in which they occur. This gives a visual cue to the relative importance of headings. For writing headings and subheadings there is no single standard format. A most typical and widely used one is given here: Uses of headings: "Headings" is a very significant element that helps:

- A reader - to find any part of the whole document quickly that he is interested in.
- A reader - to know that he has finished reading one section and now he shall move to the next.
- A reader - to glance over the report as a whole.
- A writer - to arrange the material logically, sequentially, and grouping under headings and subheadings. It makes actual writing easy.

Guidelines for writing headings: ● Prepare your reader for what is to follow: Between the title of the chapter and the first heading; and between a heading and any following heading, write at least one or two transitional sentences, perhaps a short paragraph giving any general information, needed-definition, explanation of the purpose, plan of division to follow, the relation between main-heading and subheading. ● Do not use a pronoun whose antecedent is the heading: In the sentence following a heading do not use a pronoun whose antecedent is the heading. The headings are outside the text and grammatically should not be antecedents for such words as 'this' and 'these' etc. ● Keep headings that are logically equal and parallel: Keeping headings that are logically equal and parallel in the same grammatical form make them visually distinct. ● The grammatical form of the first heading is the pattern for the whole series. Choose the form in which all the topics in the series can be most easily expressed. ● The grammatical form may vary from one series of heading to another. One series may be nouns, another gerund, other infinities, etc. Main headings may be one grammatical form and subheads another, but in any single series, the first form used governs throughout the series. ● Limit the length of text matter Limit the length of text matter under a single heading, especially in reports. ➤ Numbering System: Topics and subtopics are given a logical number using a formal system of notation. The numbering of topics helps a reader to recognize immediately the relative

importance of one item to the next. The two popular numbering systems are the numeral-letter system and the decimal numbering system. Numeral-Letter System: It is the combination of letters and numbers. It consists: ● Roman numerals (I, II, III...) to indicate the main topics ● Capital letters (A, B, C...) for first-degree subtopics ● Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3...) for second-degree subtopics ● lowercase letters (a, b, c...) for third-degree subtopics; If the outline goes beyond third-degree subdivisions, continue the numbering system by alternating Arabic numerals and lowercase letters. (see the example) I. A. B. 1. 2. a. b. i. ii. (a) (b) II. A. B. 1. 2. Example 5.5: Numeral-Letter System According to the "Chicago Manual of Style," the divisional numbers or letters for the first three levels must be set off by periods and for the lower levels, they must be set off by single or double parentheses. Decimal Numbering System: The decimal numbering system is a widely used way of numbering nowadays. It uses Arabic numerals and decimals to mark main topics and subtopics. For the main topic,

it uses a single digit and for each division, a decimal is added for example 1. 1.1, 1.2 and 2.1, 2.2, 2.2.1, 2.2.2, etc. 1. 1.1 1.1.1 1.1.2 1.2 1.2.1 1.2.2 2. 2.1 2.1.1 2.1.2 2.2 2.2.1 2.2.2 Example 5.6: Decimal Numbering System ➤ Parallel Wording and Development: The words or phrases used for constructing the main topics or subtopics can have a parallel grammatical construction. It helps in interpreting the thoughts they are conveying and the relationships among them. See the following given example:

a) Original b) Revised In the a) part, as you can notice, the heading "Connectives" has subheadings. The subheading 2.1 is a phrase, 2.2 is a clause, 2.3 is a sentence. These subheadings are not in a grammatically parallel form. Part 2) is the revised form, here the subheadings have been kept in a parallel grammatical form. This kind of structuring is helping to establish a logical connection present among them and aiding to interpret the thoughts they are conveying. An effective outline improves unity, establishes coherency of thought process, ensures planning procedure, and encourages logical presentation of thought. 5.6 Format The format is the arrangement of material on a page. Technical communication is to write to express, not to impress and to write to communicate not to confuse. It is important what you say, and it also matters that you format your text to organise your thoughts effectively. Formatting provides structural and logical organisation to the material. We can create reading interest by using hierarchical headings, emphasizing techniques, and margins, spacing, and pagination. Properly formatted content provides quick access to information and makes it understandable at a glance. Generally, for writing informational and analytical reports, a conventional format called a manuscript is used. Preparation of manuscripts depends upon the 'readers preference' and 'organisation practice'. Some organizations provide their employees with style manuals, an approved format, that report writers must follow. And if determining the reader's preference is difficult and making the document easily accessible is what you intend, you need to use the hierarchical headings, emphasizing techniques, margins, spacing, and pagination carefully and professionally.

➤ **Emphasis Techniques:** Using some emphasizing techniques we can highlight the important information to draw the attention of readers towards. Emphasis techniques are like bulleted lists, or special fonts, or enumeration. Numbering or bullet small-small paragraphs that are related to each other helps to draw immediate attention. The list format indicates the importance of the information and is used for:

- Highlighting major ideas in your reports, proposals, manuals, or e-mails.
- Breaking down complex information into small chunks.
- Overviewing and reviewing the key information.

Guidelines to follow in grouping or listing items effectively are:

- Use an introductory sentence or clause to introduce the group. This sentence is immediately preceded by the list.
- There should be at least two items on your list.
- Write all the items in parallel grammatical structure.
- Begin each item with an imperative verb and follow it with an explanation.
- Bold or italicise the fonts to emphasize words, phrases, headings, and sentences.
- Indent the matter on both sides of the page.
- Use bullets to emphasize items within an indented list. For bulleting the items you can use asterisks (\*), hyphens (-), a lower case (o), typographic symbols like ■, ➤, •, , , □
- Number the items in a chronological sequence.

Overuse of emphasis techniques can work in a converse way, it can distract the attention of the reader. To receive appropriate attention avoid emphasizing too many things.

➤ **Margins:** Margins maintained on the top, bottom, and sides of the page enhances the appearance and readability of the report.

Following are given guidelines to follow for a formal report margins.

S. No.	Type of Page	Left	Bound	Manuscript	Top	Bottom	Left	Right
1.	Cover	1.5	1.5	1	2.	Title Page	1.5	1.5
3.	Front Matter	1.5	1.5	1	4.	Body of Report	1.5	1.5
1	First Page	1.5	1.5	1	1	First page of each chapter	1.5	1.5
1.5	1	All other pages	1.5	1.5	1	5.	Back Matter	1.5
1	First page of each chapter	1.5	1.5	1	1	All other pages	1.5	1.5

➤ **Spacing:** Proper spacing makes a document appear attractive. Generally, printed formal documents are single-spaced. Some organizations use double spacing for reports though the latest trend is to use single spacing. Single-spaced documents keep no paragraph indentation but one extra blank line between the paragraphs. Double-spaced documents keep no extra blank line between paragraphs but paragraph indentation of around one-half inch.

➤ **Pagination:** Elements of front matter and back matter of a report, introduction, conclusions, recommendations, and each main division of the body of report begins on a new page.

If the list of illustrations is short and space allows, we can place it on the last page of the table of contents. Pages are numbered too. The preliminary pages are numbered with lowercase Roman numerals centred about one inch from the bottom of each page. The report body and the back matter of the body are numbered with Arabic numerals about one inch from the top, flush with the right margin or centre about one inch from the bottom of each page. The Arabic numeral '1' is usually omitted from the first page of the report body. Guidelines for pagination:

S. No.	Page Number System
1.	Cover
No number	2.
Flyleaf (if used)	No number
3.	Title page
Page i, but no numeral is printed on that page	4.
First page after the title page	Page ii
5.	Subsequent preliminary pages
Page iii, and so forth.	5.6

**Unit Summary**

- "An outline is a plan of organization for writing the report. It is a structured listing of your ideas using various levels of importance and indicating these with indentations and numbering systems. It classifies the information, which has been collected and then arranged in some order. It is an invaluable working tool. It will indicate the pattern of your report and provide you with a starting point for writing. The process of creating a good outline helps the writer clarify ideas and settle questions of relationships that might go unnoticed. The outline is a preliminary sketch or plan that will help you produce an effective piece of writing rather than an aid itself. Any outline, however, that turned out to be unsatisfactory as a plan to use while writing would also be unsatisfactory for the other uses." Aruna Koneru

- At the stage of organising the material, professional writers follow many different principles. They are chronological, spatial, cause-and-effect, problem- solution, topical and comparison and contrast.
- After the writer has determined the principle of organization, he moves to constructing an outline. Two types of outlines that are widely used are: topic outline and sentence outline. The 'introduction' and 'conclusion' steps are left out of the outline.
- Suggestions referring to which you can design a logical and well-balanced outline.
- Prepare your outline inclusive of all major topics discussed in the report.
- In outlining we divide a material to provide a logical representation of information.
- The words or phrases used for constructing the main topics or subtopics can have a parallel grammatical construction.
- Compose the headings choosing the words that are highly descriptive and that provide specific information about the topic.
- Topics and subtopics are given a logical number using a formal system of notation.
- The format is the arrangement of material on a page. Technical communication is to write to express, not to impress and to write to communicate not to confuse. It is important what you say, and it also matters that you format your text to organise your thoughts effectively. Formatting provides structural and logical organisation to the material. We can create reading interest by using hierarchical headings, emphasizing techniques, and margins, spacing, and pagination. Properly formatted content provides quick access to information and makes it understandable at a glance.

**5.7 Key Terms**

- **Spatial:** relating to or occupying space.
- **Topical:** (of a subject) of immediate relevance, interest, or importance owing to its relation to current events.
- **Pagination:** the sequence of numbers assigned to pages in a book or periodical.

**5.8 Check Your Progress**

**Subjective:**

- 1) Discuss the various principles of organisation of material.
- 2) What are the types of outline?
- 3) Discuss the suggestions for preparing an outline.
- 4) Discuss the guidelines for using headings and subheadings in reports.
- 5) We can create reading interest by using hierarchical headings, emphasizing techniques, and margins, spacing, and pagination. Explain.

**Objective:**

- 1) Complete the line: "An outline is a plan of organization for writing the report. It is a structured listing of\_\_\_\_\_.
- 2) Fill in the gap: Information arranged on the principle of 'topical' is dividing the details into \_\_\_\_\_ main points.
- 3) True/False: Information arranged spatially follows a directional pattern in terms of approach to the main topics.
- 4) Short Q/A: What are the guidelines for pagination in report writing?
- 5) Short Q/A: Preparation of manuscripts depends on what factors?



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## Module III: Report Writing: Writing Elements

Unit 6: Writing Abstract and Summary 6.0 Introduction 6.1 Unit Objective 6.2 Digest, Brief, Synopsis, and Abridgement 6.3 Abstract 6.3.1 Guidelines for Writing an Abstract 6.3.2 Procedure for Writing Abstracts 6.3.3 Forms of Abstracts 6.4 Summary 6.5 Difference Between Summary and Abstract 6.6 Unit Summary 6.7 Key Terms 6.8 Check Your Progress 6.0 Introduction For many, abstract and summary are the two same meaning terms that are used interchangeably. But the professional writers make a distinction between them in terms of function, content and length. Similarly, other terms with about the same meaning are digest, brief, synopsis, and abridgement. Whatever name you can use to term or express the process of writing an account of something like reports, journals, bulletins, and minutes. Ahead in the unit, you will learn about the digest, brief, synopsis, and abridgement and then abstract

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and summary. 6.1 Unit Objective This unit intends to help students learn about the

terms 'abstract' and 'summary', their concept, difference, and usage. 6.2 Digest, Brief, Synopsis, and Abridgement Let's know about the terms: digest, brief, synopsis, and abridgement individually and find how they are different from each other.

Digest: Digest means a brief account or a summary, it is similar to the abstract. Maintaining the author's style, it provides a summary of the entire document.

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There is no fixed rule about the length of a digest but generally, it is kept one-

half or one-third of the original document. Brief: Brief is one of the types of 'summary'. It is in the form of a sentence outline with connecting words and phrases added to it. Synopsis: The synopsis is an orderly arrangement of main points, perhaps in outline form. It is kept shorter than the abstract and does not aim to provide detailed information in the main style of the document. It intends to give only important information or features and not the summary of an entire report. Glancing at a synopsis a reader can view the development of the subject or problem but would have to read the report for details. It tells the reader in general what the report contains and not beyond it. For example: 'The results of the questionnaire survey are shown in the table form and discussed'. To know the results you would have to read the report. Sometimes a synopsis is given on the title page as a title expansion or subtitle. It is appropriately placed as the last paragraph in the introduction of the report. It is also placed at the beginning for dissertation and thesis or typed separately for circulation. Abridgement: It is a shortened form of the original and is prepared for literary works. Some publications like "Reader's Digest" usually print abridges and not abstract, summary, or synopsis of research papers or reports. 6.3 Abstract Abstract refers to a brief, descriptive statement of what a particular report or an article contains. It represents the information in a concentrated form. It does not - interpret the document or critical points of a report, or provide a personal opinion. It represents the whole document in a concentrated form. An abstract is the writing form that:

- condenses the important ideas of long articles and reports;
- gives what the author has stated without evaluating it;
- emphasises on the results in two-third of its length;
- covers the information given in the introduction, conclusion, and recommendations of the report;
- uses the same organization and style of writing used in the report.

All reports and research papers contain abstracts. A writer who has prepared a report and is thoroughly familiar with the content can write its abstract from the outline or table of contents itself. But if you are writing an abstract of a report which someone else has prepared, it shall be helpful if you read the document entirely and underscore the key phrases and sentences. In preparing an abstract you must consider:

- the type of report or article (research, review, theoretical, etc.);
- the problem (what you are trying to do, why);
- the objectives;
- the scope of your work;
- the methods used;
- the applications; and
- the essential results, the major conclusions and recommendations.

Abstracts are printed separately from the original document and circulated among professionals. Since they state what the document is about and the importance of findings, it serves the professionals with the new knowledge. Abstracts are included in the entries of library files and in published indexes. It helps the readers to decide whether the report/article is useful to read or not. 6.3.1 Guidelines for Writing an Abstract Guidelines for writing an abstract reader-oriented and useful:

- Read the document purposefully to discover the author's purpose and point of view.
- Pick out the central ideas and key concepts.

- Orient the abstract to the reader.
- Mention why and how the work was done.
- Place findings in the topical sentence.
- Give details in succeeding sentences.
- Write a general statement in the end.
- Differentiate experiment from hypothesis.
- Give special attention to theoretical papers.
- Be informative but brief.
- Use short, direct, and complete sentences.
- Use formal technical language.
- Use transitional words and phrases to make it effective and a unified unit not like a series of disjointed and unrelated statements.
- Avoid literary jargon, clichés, and flowery language.
- Avoid redundancy.

6.3.2 Procedure for Writing Abstracts For writing an abstract a writer goes through different steps. > First Step: The first step is to write a lead sentence for the abstract. It refers to the key information taken from the findings, conclusions, and recommendations and presents them in a very condensed form. It is written in a very simple and direct language. Depending on the types of papers or reports a lead sentence may differ in terms of its composition. > Second Step: It involves selecting the ideas or notions that characterize or symbolize the information given in the first step. It requires reasoning skills. > Third Step: It is the intellectual process of deciding the valuable information to the users. Evaluation enables us to determine the depth or extent to which the information is required in the abstract. However, if the information is not abstracted effectively and in an adequate depth, users will not be able to accept it for examination.

6.3.3 Forms of Abstracts The two common forms of abstracts are descriptive and informative. Generally, abstracts are kept single-spaced to maintain brevity. 'Descriptive' kinds of abstracts can be placed on the title page too. The descriptive abstracts: It describes what are those main ideas that have been taken up in the report, it tells nothing or little about what the report says about these ideas. It indicates what kind of information is in the report perhaps that is why it is also called 'indicative' abstract. ● It states the purpose and scope of the report. ● It does not include data, facts, observations, or conclusions discussed in the report. It only indicates what type of data, facts, and subjects are discussed in the report. ● It is easy to write and is usually short in length. ● It aids the researchers to decide whether the content shall be of their interest or not. ● It proves useful to readers when the real document is fairly large. ● It tends to be merely an outline of the original or a list of topics covered. Example: "This report deals with the widespread diseases that are hazards in slum areas that can be prevented by removing or destroying the breeding places of flies, mosquitoes, and by killing their adult forms. The informative Abstract: An informative abstract gives a statement of the main points given in the report. It does not inform about the main aspects the report deals with but it tells what the report has to say about these aspects. It is also called an 'introductory summary'. It includes the most important data, facts, observations, or conclusions given in the report. It enriches a reader with the main points discussed in the report. It is treated as a summary.

Example: "This report deals with widespread diseases that are hazards in slums that can be prevented by removing or destroying the breeding places of flies, mosquitoes, and by killing their adult forms. The breeding of flies is controlled by proper disposal of decaying organic matter and of mosquitoes by destroying or draining pools or spraying them with DDT. The control of adult forms of insects requires use of poisons. Screens are used for insects. Minnows can be planted at the places where mosquito larvae grow." Generally, the most common form use of abstract is the combination of both descriptive and the informative. 6.4 Summary Summary is the short condensation of the essential content of a piece of writing. An executive prefers to read this section of a report before he reads the whole document or makes a policy decision. He goes through the summary of findings and recommendations first. A summary includes: - A brief description of the problem, the approach taken to solve it, the results of the problem and final conclusions. - the essence of each main division in proportion to its importance in the report. For writing a summary, a writer would have to go through the whole report thoroughly to pick out its main points and incorporate them in the report. Reading these points later in detail inside the report helps to broaden the perspective and understanding of readers. Main points presented in the outline form consisting of single sentences or small paragraphs form an excellent summary. It helps: - To understand the original document; - To read efficiently; - To develop the skills of discrimination, evaluation, and selection of important points; - To interpret the points; - To represent the points; - To organise the points effectively.

Summary sentences are written in precise, concise, and direct language. They are not written in the first person. For example: "This report deals with ....." or "This report contains....." or "This report discusses....." but not "I placed in this report....." or "I discussed in this report....." In the summary or abstract part, no such information must appear which has not been discussed in the report. Summary or abstract is self-sufficient, comprehensible, and independent unit. It is brief but complete and meaningful. It is useful in many ways. ● It enables the reader to understand the important ideas quickly. ● It provides the reader a 'preview' of the content from which he can determine at a glance whether he should read the whole article/report or not. ● It encourages a reader to delve further into the document. 6.5 Difference Between Summary and Abstract Both the terms 'abstract' and 'summary' are often used interchangeably but the professional writers do make a distinction between them in terms of function, content, and length. Summary Abstract It gives the substance and states what the main text contains. It is informative, it contains the main ideas, the significant facts and important findings provided in the report. It provides continuity by relating the main ideas. It has a beginning, middle, and end through which it develops. The 'beginning' part states why the project was carried out and the report written. The middle part is used to highlight It states precisely what the main report is about. It describes the exact nature and scope of the subject matter of the report. It shows the order of the ideas to be developed. It indicates what is emphasised, helping a reader to make an accurate judgment about the report. Like a title or table of contents, It simply

the most important features of the whole report. By the end, it concludes and makes recommendations. Executives look up to the 'summary' before making a decision. A summary extracts out the major points from the document and presents them in a non-technical style. It stands independently as a meaningful section that any reader can understand. It belongs to the front as well as the conclusion section. It is longer than abstract and is believed to be five to ten percent of the original. indicates what the report is covering and what it contains. It accommodates only the skeletal structure of a report. It is very short and simply provides the main points of the entire report. It uses the same organisation and style of writing used in the report. It belongs to the front matter of the report. It is shorter than the summary. It is believed that it should be about two to five per cent of the original. 'Summary' which means a short condensation of a report's contents, the abstract is a summary of a summary. Whether summary or abstract, it should be brief, clear, and meaningful. It must not provide any information different from the original. An abstract is generally believed to be more useful in establishing communication from one specialist to another. That is why every technical and research paper contains an abstract. However, a report written in a professional organization may not be meant for a specialist and hence this type of report requires a summary. The consultancy reports require a summary. 6.5 Unit Summary Examine the content before you write an abstract or a summary. An abstract or summary is the shorter version or condensed form of an original report. It highlights the main points of the report. It should be clear, understandable, self-sufficient and meaningful.

6.6 Key Terms • Digest: Digest means a brief account or a summary, it is similar to the abstract. • Brief: Brief is one of the types of 'summary'. It is in the form of a sentence outline with connecting words and phrases added to it. • Synopsis: The synopsis is an orderly arrangement of main points, perhaps in outline form. It is kept shorter than the abstract and does not aim to provide detailed information in the main style of the document. • Abridgement: It is a shortened form of the original and is prepared for literary works. Some publications like "Reader's Digest" usually print abridges and not abstract, summary, or synopsis of research papers or reports. 6.7 Check Your Progress Subjective: 1) What are the various terms that you find for writing summaries? 2) What skills are required in writing these various types of summaries? 3) What guidelines are to be followed in writing abstracts? 4) How do abstract and summaries differ from each other? Objective: 1) True/False: The synopsis is an orderly arrangement of main points, perhaps in outline form. 2) Fill in the gap: The first step is to write a \_\_\_\_\_ for the abstract. 3) Complete the line: Abstract refers to \_\_\_\_\_. 4) Short Q/A: What does a 'summary' include? 5) Short Q/A: How much should a 'summary' be of the whole document?

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Writing Definitions 7.0 Introduction 7.1 Unit Objective 7.2 Definitions 7.3 Word Selection Methods 7.3.1 Familiar Words for Familiar ideas 7.3.2 Familiar Words for Unfamiliar Ideas 7.3.3 Unfamiliar Word for a Familiar Idea 7.3.4 Unfamiliar Word for Specific Concepts 7.4 Defining Methods 7.5 Defining Techniques 7.6 Placement of Definitions 7.7 Unit Summary 7.8 Key Terms 7.9 Check Your Progress 7.0 Introduction The exact statement of meaning of an object or idea is called its definition. In business/technical communication for delivering a presentation when we feel that the audience/reader may not be familiar with a particular object or idea, we define it. It develops the understanding of the audience on the idea or object. For example, a presentation on 'Artificial Intelligence' is to be given, a subject new to many. You can start your presentation by defining the term. A technical description must begin with a definition (formal or extended) of the object or process to be described. The introductory paragraphs are used to provide the reader with general information about the content that follows. Usually, the definition is followed by a list of the components and a brief note on the detailed description of each. 7.1 Unit Objective This Unit deals with: to discuss the importance and explanation of definitions; to decide what should be defined; to find how to define the terms; certain techniques for defining terms; and to decide placement of definitions in the report.

7.2 Definitions Definitions clearly express or explain a concept or idea. Technical or business writing uses 'definitions' to present an idea or concept so that it may be comprehensive for the audience or ly. In the words of Aruna Koneru, "Definition is a concise statement of the most significant constituents or features of an object or idea". In the age of advancements and inventions technologically or in other ways, new terms keep coming along. And writers or speakers using the new terms define them for the audience/reader could effectively be informed with their meaning. A reader may not have any confusion; the technical and business writings use definitions to present a matter clearly, comprehensively, precisely and effectively. Definitions are generally inseparable from a text that is explaining and descriptive in nature. In technical writing, a writer is required to explain a term using a sentence or a paragraph. A definition has four parts: the term, the verb, the class, and the differentia. 1. The 'term' is what is to define, it is a word or phrase that has a special meaning in a certain context it is used. A word may have different meanings but a term would have a specific meaning attached to it. A compound term, having two or more words, would have a special meaning, an aggregate of the meanings of the separate words. For example: - A circular saw: It is a device used for cutting, having blade-like projections or a circular frame. - Steel Casting: A casting made of cast iron to which scrap steel has been added. - Tack Weld: A weld of short intermittent sections. There are such compound terms also which may have little or no connection with the componential words and their meanings. For example: - Silver-fish: A small insect without wings that is silver in color and usually found in books and clothes. - Bluebottle: A large noisy fly with a blue body. - Bluestocking: A woman having or pretending to have literary tastes and learning.

2. The 'verb', a grammatical object, connects the 'term' and the 'class'. 3. The 'class' is the group or genus the 'term' is put under. 4. The 'differentia' is the part of the definition that separates the term from all other members of the group or class. It differentiates and it includes everything in the sentence except the 'term', the 'verb', and the 'class', and the article that modifies the term and the class. "Robot is a machine that can perform the actions of a person and which operates automatically or is controlled by a computer." In the definition: The 'term' is - 'robot'; the 'verb' words are - 'is', 'can', 'perform', 'operates', 'controlled'; and the rest is differentia. Example 7.1: Parts of a Definition The words we select and use in professional writing decide the need for defining them. Terms vary in meaning according to the context in which they are used. And the terms used in technical writing may have a specific meaning in the context of its usage that must be clear to the reader which is done through defining them. Defining a term differentiates it from the other popular meanings it may have.

7.3 Word Selection Methods How are words selected in writing definitions, let's learn it. 7.3.1 Familiar Words for Familiar Ideas The definition is unnecessary when we select familiar words for familiar things/ideas. For example: Words Familiar Ideas Polish (v) to make a surface smooth and lustrous through the use of a fine abrasive. (V) to form a cylindrical hole in metal. Drill (N) a revolving cutting tool designed for cutting at the point. 7.3.2 Familiar Words for Unfamiliar Ideas Various familiar words may have different special meanings in different fields. For example, 'puddle' means a small pool of water does mean a mass of molten metal also, in a metallurgical sense. Such commonly used familiar words that commonly people use and have a special meaning (we are unfamiliar with) in science and technology are called 'shoptalk' or as language-specific of a given occupation. Other examples: Words Unfamiliar Ideas Apron The vertical plane in front of the carriage of a lathe. (In aircrafts) An area with a hard surface on an airfield, where aircrafts are turned round, loaded, etc. Boss (N) A circular projection, which is raised above a principal surface of a casting or forging. Sweat (V) To solder together by clamping the pieces in contact with soft solder between and then heating. Christmas tree It is the network of pipes at the mouth of an oil well. Feather (N) A rectangular sliding key, which permits a pulley to move along with the shaft parallel to its axis. Pad (N) A low, projecting surface, usually rectangular. In a particular report, if a writer has used any such familiar word that has some other (unfamiliar) meaning also it may confuse the readers. They may take the word in its most familiar sense. Writers must use such words carefully, and defining them can help readers to understand the text.

7.3.3 Unfamiliar Word for a Familiar Idea A writer may need to use an unfamiliar word for a familiar thing also, and it usually happens when: • Writing a technical report, or • A familiar term does not exist, or • To meet the demand of a subject matter, or • In the interest of maintaining preciseness and accuracy. Words Familiar Idea Gerontology Old age Haematology Blood Lexicography Dictionary Baton A stick used by a music conductor or a policeman Gavel A chairperson's hammer In using such unfamiliar words for a familiar idea, a writer must define them for the term and the text be comprehensible for the readers. 7.3.4 Unfamiliar Word for Specific Concepts There are various technical terms that are unfamiliar and are used by specific professional groups for example, 'agenda', 'jargon', and 'frontispiece', etc. such terms stand for a specific concept and hence they must be defined. For example: Words Specific Concept Bibliophile A person who loves or collects books. Agenda An official list of things to be done or dealt with at a particular meeting. Jargon Technical words or expressions used by a particular profession or group of people and difficult for others to understand. Frontispiece A sort of window display. A picture facing the title of a book. Erratum An error or misprint in printing or writing. Facsimile An exact copy of handwriting, printing, or of a picture. 7.4 Defining Methods Writing definition depends on - how much a reader already knows and how much more the writer intends to tell. > Repetition of Key Terms: A definition that contains the name of the object or repeats the term is called a circular definition; this method takes the reader back to the starting point. For example, "mover is a machine used to move grain or grass", or "a screwdriver is an instrument for driving screws", or "adhesive tape dispenser is a device for dispensing adhesive tape". Reading such a definition, a reader moves in a circle and back to the term though written in a different form. • This method is used to write a definition when we have already defined the term and have established the basic meaning, and now it needs to explain only the particular form. • In the case of a compound term, repetition is permissible when one component is known to the reader, and now it needs to explain the other one. For example, "a pontoon bridge is a temporary bridge supported on flat-bottomed boats or hollow cylinders, called pontoons". • We can repeat all the parts separately if we know that each is familiar and it is only their combined meaning which needs clarification. For example: 'A three- point landing' is a landing by an aeroplane in which it touches the ground simultaneously at three points". In defining the compound terms, focus your attention at the point where attention is required. For example, defining geophysics you shall focus on how geophysics differs

from physics in general. You can also choose to define the basic word i.e. physics and then go to discriminating it. ➤ Inappropriate Class and Differentia: Composing a definition, if you do not use the 'class' and 'differentia' properly, it can create a wrong image as a result. 'Class' and 'differentia' both hold a broad and narrow scope. Using them either too broad or too narrow would not be appropriate. For example: "a watch is a machine", 'machine' is the word that represents the class at the wider percept, it includes many things such as automobiles, typewriters. If the writer goes the other way and chooses a class that narrows the effect, it shall not be appropriate as it may eliminate the term itself. The same mistake can be made in the differentia. For example, a writer using the broad opinion says, "a watch is a means of measuring time", it does not eliminate the class. And if the writer goes the other way and says, "a watch is a device used for keeping time and designed to be worn on the wrist", here the writer has defined only one type of watch. ➤ Grammatical Parallelism: A definition sentence must match the grammatical form of the term defined. In a definition, the 'class' used must be parallel with the 'term'. If the 'term' is a noun, a gerund or an infinitive, the 'class' should be accordingly. For example: ● A fence is a person who makes ● part or all of his livelihood by buying and selling goods. Shucking is removing ● the husk from the grain of corn. To shuck is to remove If a sentence is defining a compound term it does not require the class be compared, though it may happen to be. for example: the husk from the grain of corn. ● A flying saucer is an unidentified object flying. Or ● A flying saucer is capable of flying at great speed and at a great height. Parallelism is observed between the parts of the differentia that come after the class.

➤ Qualifying Phrases: Writing a definition for a specific purpose calls for stating the limitations clearly. If the writer shall focus on just telling what the term means it shall make the reader feel that the definition is inaccurate or incomplete. ➤ Single Example Definitions: Giving a single instance or example is not a definition. For example: "tempering is what is done to make a metal hard", it is not a definition it needs to be extended by adding more examples and illustrations to satisfy the inquisitive mind of a reader. ➤ Word Choice in Genus and Differentia: Writing definitions is using familiar words and language that are not difficult to understand. Wordiness can break the flow of understanding; precision is the key. Hence avoid being too general and verbose in writing a definition. A writer must presume that the reader may not be well informed about the object that needs to be defined. Writing interpretation as well as definition depends on the audience to whom the report is meant. It is necessary to explain the definitions for they help the reader to grow its understanding. 7.5 Defining Techniques Following are discussed different techniques that can be used in writing definitions. 1). Define by class and differentiation: Definitions must be formed using both the parts: 'class' and 'differentia'. For this purpose, we can assign the object to a class or genus and then explain how the object differs from the other objects within the class. For example: 1. The term 'banjo' needs to be defined. First, assign it to a class. It could be 'instrument', or 'musical instrument', or 'stringed musical instrument' that would be a good choice. 2. Now, differentiate the object from the other stringed instruments. "The banjo is a stringed musical instrument that combines a long neck, similar to a guitar's, with a drum-like body similar to a tambourine. There are usually four to five strings plucked with a pick or the fingers."

See the table given below, it shows how classification and differentiation are interdependent. An appropriate genus can help you to write the differentiation appropriately. Term class Differentiation Banjo Instrument With a neck, body, and four or five strings. Musical instrument With a long neck and a drum like and four or five strings. Stringed musical instrument With a long neck similar to a guitar's and a drum like body similar to a tambourine. According to this technique: ● Assign the item to a class. ● Distinguish it from others in the class. ● Find out its salient features. ● Bring out the difference. 2). Define by form and function: It is a usual practice in technical and scientific writing that we write answering what an object looks like and how it works. This form and function pairing comes with a class and differentiation in a definition. For example: Axe: An axe is an instrument for hewing, clearing, or chopping woods. It has a squishy head fixed by a socket on a handle. According to this technique: ● Assign the object to a category. ● Distinguish it from all others by asking what it looks like and how it works. 3). Definition by analysis: It is a useful practice to define a term in general and then divide it into parts. Telling what steps comprise a process or what functional parts make up a device or what constituents make up a substance obviously helps a reader. This technique is applicable to many subjects. A breakdown of a thing or idea permits the reader to think of a little at a time and this is easier for them trying to grasp the whole all at once.

For example: flange: the top and bottom members of a beam. A projecting rim added on the end of a pipe or fitting for making a connection. 4). Definition by etymology: Etymology is the study of the history of words, and it is an easy and popular technique to define a term. It makes it easier for a reader to grasp and remember the word by knowing about the root the word has been derived from. Giving the root of the word then etymology and then the functional definition helps a reader to understand the meaning of the new term. Thermometer: Derived from the Greek 'heat' and 'mention', 'to measure'. An instrument that measures temperature, often through the use of a confined substance such as mercury, the volume of which changes with the change in temperature.

Chromatogram: derived from the Greek word, 'chroma' meaning 'colour'; hence a colored compound and 'graphe' meaning writing. Thus, a chromatogram is the pattern formed by zones of separated pigments and colourless substances. 'Diastrophism': It comes from the Greek word 'diastrophe' meaning 'distortion' and ultimately from 'dia' meaning 'through' and 'stephein' meaning 'to turn'. Thus the word appropriately names the phenomenon of deformation, that is, 'turning through' or 'distortion' of the earth's crust, which created oceans and mountains. 5). Compare and Contrast technique: It is one of the most useful techniques used by writers to explain a technical term. It helps to establish a differentiation between the term defined and other terms with which the term might be confused. For example: ● The external appearance of the true solution is very clear as compared to the colloidal solution. ● The diffusion of particles in the case of true solutions is fast as compared to colloidal solutions. 6). Negative Statement: A negative statement can be used to develop a definition; this technique is also called 'observe iteration', or 'negation', or 'elimination'. Giving a negative statement, a writer can tell what an object is and what it is not. For example: ● "suspensoid" is not an emulsoid but a colloid dispersed in a suitable medium only with difficulty, yielding an unstable solution, which cannot be re-formed after

coagulation. An 'emulsoid' is a colloid readily dispersed in a suitable medium that may be redispersed after coagulation. 7). Concrete Examples and Instances: You can use concrete examples and instances to give the reader some specific definitions. For example: Die Casting: A casting that has been produced by forcing a molten alloy having an aluminium, copper, zinc, tin, or lead base into a metal mould composed of two halves. Tablet: A device used to record 'X' and 'Y' positions. Tablets are used either to digitise geometry or input operator's commands from a menu on the tablet. 8). Basic Principles: By giving or explaining the basic principle you can explain a term. It is usually applicable to processes mechanisms. For example: • Distillation processes, for instance, make use of the principle that one liquid will vaporize at a different temperature than another. • Comparison is the basic principle employed in the liquefaction of gases. • Gases can be easily compressed than solids and liquids. 9). Cause and effect technique: It is a useful technique to define a term or idea. For example: The gases, which can be easily liquefied, show large deviations. Causes are: • At high pressure and low temperature, the intermolecular forces of attraction exist. • The actual volume occupied by gas molecules is not negligible when compared to the volume of the container. 10). Location: It is a defining technique to tell the location of a thing found. For example: "Petalite " is a mineral found in Sweden on the Island of Elba; and in the United States of Bolton, Massachusetts and Peru, Maine; vast deposits are located in Southern Rhodesia and South Africa. 7.6 Placement of Definitions Depending upon the length of a definition and the audience you may place a definition, optionally, at any of the places such as: in the text; in the footnotes, in a glossary at the end of the report, in a special section in the introduction and an appendix. There are some principles or guidelines you can follow in deciding the place for a definition. They include: • If the definition is short and if you feel your entire audience needs the definition, place it in the text with the word defined. Generally, the definition is placed after the word, but sometimes it will fit in more smoothly before the word. It is also a technique that helps break down the reader's resistance in unfamiliar terms. • If the definition is longer than a sentence or two and the readers are mixed partly expert and partly laymen, put them in the footnote, with a numeral or some suitable designating mark or symbol, after the word itself in the text. • If there are many short definitions, placing them in the text would not be appropriate as it may interrupt a reader who may know them already. Hence place them in a glossary. • If you are using some key terms that must be understood before the reader can understand the subject, define them in the 'introduction'. • If there are important key terms, critical to understanding the report, place them under a separate division of the introduction of the report. • If there are one or more extended definitions (of around 200 words) each meant to be for some members and not all, you can place them in the Appendix. Definitions are placed strategically, suiting the purposes, and the convenience of your readers. When you have learnt about the probable knowledge of the audience and assessed the importance of the terms used, you can easily decide where to put the definitions. 7.7 Unit Summary • Definitions clearly express or explain a concept or idea. Technical or business writing uses 'definitions' to present an idea or concept so that it may be comprehensive for the audience or ly. In the words of Aruna Koneru, "Definition is a concise statement of the most significant constituents or features of an object or idea".

- Words selection in definitions: 1)The definition is unnecessary when we select familiar words for familiar things/ideas. 2) Various familiar words may have different special meanings in different fields. Writers must use such words carefully, and defining them can help readers to understand the text. 3) A writer may need to use an unfamiliar word for a familiar thing also, and it usually happens when: Writing a technical report, or A familiar term does not exist, or To meet the demand of a subject matter, or In the interest of maintaining preciseness and accuracy. 4) There are various technical terms that are unfamiliar and are used by specific professional groups for example, 'agenda', 'jargon', and 'frontispiece', etc. such terms stand for a specific concept and hence they must be defined.
- Writing definition depends on - how much a reader already knows and how much more the writer intends to tell. • Different techniques that can be used in writing definitions. 1). Define by class and differentiation; 2). Define by form and function, 3). Definition by analysis, 4). Definition by etymology, 5). Compare and Contrast technique, 6). Negative Statement, 7). Concrete Examples and Instances, 8). Basic Principles, 9). Cause and effect technique. 7.8 Key Terms 1. Term: he 'term' is what is to define, it is a word or phrase that has a special meaning in a certain context it is used. A word may have different meanings but a term would have a specific meaning attached to it. A compound term, having two or more words, would have a special meaning, an aggregate of the meanings of the separate words. 2. The 'verb', a grammatical object, connects the 'term' and the 'class'. 3. The 'class' is the group or genus the 'term' is put under. 4. The 'differentia' is the part of the definition that separates the term from all other members of the group or class. It differentiates and it includes everything in the sentence except the 'term', the 'verb', and the 'class', and the article that modifies the term and the class.

7.9 Check Your Progress Subjective: 1) What is the importance of definitions in technical writing? 2) How are words selected in writing definitions, discuss it. 3) Writing definition depends on - how much a reader already knows and how much more the writer intends to tell, discuss it. 4) What are different techniques that can be used in writing definitions? 5) Definitions are placed strategically, suiting the purposes, and the convenience of your readers, discuss it. Objective: 1) True/False: If there are many short definitions, placing them in the text would not be appropriate as it may interrupt a reader who may know them already. Hence place them in a glossary. 2) Complete the line: A writer may need to use an unfamiliar word for a familiar thing also, and it usually happens when\_\_\_\_\_ 3) Fill in the gap/s: A definition has four parts: \_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_, and \_\_\_\_\_. 4) Short Q/A: If you are using some key terms that must be understood before the reader can understand the subject, where would you place them? 5) Short Q/A: If there are one or more extended definitions (of around 200 words) each meant to be for some members and not all, where would you place them?



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Visual Aids 8.0 Introduction 8.1 Unit Objective 8.2

Visual Aids: Meaning 8.2.1 Purpose of Visual Aids 8.2.2 Guidelines for the Preference of Visual Aids 8.2.3 Guidelines for Preparing Visual Aids 8.2.4 Placement of Visual Aids 8.3 Types of Visual Aids 8.3.1 Tables 8.3.1.1 Dependent Table 8.3.1.2 Independent Table 8.3.2 Figures 8.3.2.1 Graphs 8.3.2.2 Charts 8.3.2.3 Diagrams/Drawings 8.3.2.4 Photographs 8.3.2.5 Maps 8.3.2.6 Icons 8.4 Unit Summary 8.5 Key Terms 8.6 Check Your Progress 8.0 Introduction Writing a report involves working with complex ideas and handling data. To present the data or information comprehensible for readers we use various kinds of visual aids. Usage of visual aids like tables and figures serve a part of the whole content and communicate it effectively. In the words of Aruna Koneru, "Visual aids are forms of supporting material, which provide all forms of intellectual, technical, psychological, emotional, and sensory reinforcement of ideas". Visual aids do not encumber a text but aid to present some significant information relevant to the context.

8.1 Unit Objective This Unit aims to aid learners in understanding what are visual aids, their purposes, types, placement, and usage. 8.2 Visual Aids: Meaning Writing a report involves working with massive data and complex ideas. It needs to work with visual aids that can present some part of large data to the most comprehensiveness and effective deliverance. Visual aids are the elements that express a matter as verbal communication does. Some parts of large data can be best expressed in words, some other through pictures, and some may require both kinds of treatment. As the writer Aruna Koneru has rightfully put it: "visual aids are forms of supporting material, which provide all forms of intellectual, technical, psychological, emotional, and sensory reinforcement of ideas". It signifies incorporating visual devices we intellectually and other ways as required can improve the presentation. Visual aid presentations receive favourable responses, they convince readers to accept what is written. The aids used must correspond to the words written and also must be significantly relevant to the context and content. 8.2.1 Purpose of Visual Aids Purpose of visual aids in professional communication (Aruna Koneru): • Transmit the message quickly and accurately. • Clarify and supplement the verbal analysis, description or discussion. • Confirm and reinforce verbal analysis. • Make the description and analysis more vivid and lucid. • Enable the writer to present large data in less space with greater precision. • Help the writer to explain or to summarize clearly and quickly the given information. • Help the reader to understand and remember the verbal communication easily. • Create more interest than verbal communication. • Enable the writer to present an integrated picture of a number of items or to compare various data. • Enable the writer to present the information in a condensed form. • Emphasise particularly important points. Visual aids should be used selectively and support the content that holds the primary message. A visual aid used in a report must express the content and not replace it. 8.2.2 Guidelines for the Preference of Visual Aids Guidelines for the preference of visual aids include (Aruna Koneru): • Prefer visual aids to summarise your ideas, to support your ideas with evidence and to explain the process. • Prefer visual aids if your ideas are primarily qualitative, structural, pictorial, numerical information, explanation of trends, descriptions of procedures, relationships, locations, or composition of an item. • Decide whether your reader prefers visual aids or verbal analysis. • Prefer visual aid for complicated descriptions by breaking the aid into various components. • Decide where your own skill lies - with verbal analysis or with visual means. • Prefer graphic aid to build credibility. • Prefer visual aids for important concepts or ideas. 8.2.3 Guidelines for Preparing Visual Aids Visual aids are used for presenting the data effectively. We select the material that needs to be presented with visual aids. It depends on the interest, the ability of comprehensiveness of the readers, the complexity of the content, and the purpose that helps us to determine the visual aid usage. Guidelines or points to remember while preparing visual aids for a report: • Each visual must be clear and accurate. Each visual should have as few elements as possible to make its point clear. • Ensure that each visual is complete in itself and deals with one idea. It must be self-sufficient and understandable itself. • Give each visual aid the suitable title and write it against or below the number. Centre the title on the page and ensure that it is no longer than the width of the table or the figure. If the title cannot be accommodated within one line, run it into two or three lines with single spacing.

- The title should be precise and succinct. It should indicate the main point so that readers can easily understand the meaning of the illustration.
- Visual aids are classified into two categories - tables and figures. Give a number to each visual aid either according to their sequence of occurrence or according to the chapter. (that is, Figure 1, Figure 2 or Figure 1.1, Figure 1.2; Table 1, Table 2 or Table 1.1, or Table 1.2, etc.) Every visual should have a title, which should be preceded by a number (usually Arabic numerals).
- When you refer to the visual, use its number rather than its title. The reference to the figure is placed in parentheses unless it is a part of the sentence where it occurs. It is given below:
  - The arrangement of the equipment (fig 6) is planned.
  - Steps to the successful oral presentation are nine as given in table\_
  - Specify the units of measurement and identify the lines of a graph.
  - Provide a context for visual aids to discuss and draw conclusions from the details shown.
  - Only necessary mathematical equations should be included in the text and they must be numbered consecutively, for example (1), (2) and so on. Mathematical formulae will generally be set in italics.
  - Select an appropriate visual aid to illustrate the material that you want to emphasise or to present the information in the manner you intend to make it understandable and useful to the readers.
  - Explain the visual adequately. Each visual should be intelligible by itself. Your explanation may involve a little more than a textual reference. The analysis of the data or the significant points or the consequences of the material or special features of the data or the conclusions drawn from the data shown in the illustrations must be commented on in the text but minor details need not be mentioned.
  - Give directions for reading the illustrations.
  - If the illustration is taken from another source indicate this by 'source' followed by the details of the source.
  - Do not crowd the visual aid with too excessive or unnecessary information. Aid cluttered with too much information confuses the reader. To overcome this problem, get rid of unnecessary information and if necessary break it up into several aids.
  - If the illustration must be presented on the vertical plane of your page, place it against the inside binding.
  - Visual aid must fit within the margins of the report and should not be so large that they distract from the discussion.

### 8.2.4 Placement of Visual Aids

Visual aid placement depends on the function it performs.

- Visual aids are placed within a report, not under the "Appendix" section.
- They are set where they are needed for - emphasis, clarity, simplification, reinforcement, summary, interest, credibility, or coherence.
- They should be placed at the areas from where they could easily be referable.
- An effective process of integrating visual aid in a report is to introduce it, display it, and then discuss it. Introduce → display → discuss

➤ You will mention a primary fact that illustrates the visual under the introductory statement. The focus should be on the information needed to present but not on how attractive the visual should look.

➤ Displaying the visual aid is like separating the visual from the discussion. A visual aid, whether a figure or table must be of appropriate size and must fit on the same page. If it does not come on the same page, continue with your discussion and place the visual at the top of the next page.

➤ Visual discussion must be interpretive; it should not be limited to repeating the data already presented. It should provide the analysis of the data and its significance. It must clarify the data or give details that cannot be captured visually. If the 'discussion' part in itself is small, you can combine the 'introduction' and 'discussion', and display the visual after the discussion.
- Visual aids must be inserted as close as possible to the explanation.
- If it is highly significant, place it in the appendix and refer to it in the explanation.
- If it is small, put it right on the text page.
- If aid is taking a whole page length, place it on the facing or adjoining page.
- If a visual aid is to be consulted throughout the report, place it in the 'appendix' rather than the 'text' section.
- If the text illustration covers several pages, put it in the appendix.
- If it is for general-purpose, place it in the "appendix".
- If it is less important and the reader does not necessarily need it to understand the explanation, place it in the "appendix".

### 8.3 Types of Visual Aids

There are numerous types of visual aids broadly classified as tables and figures. All illustrations other than tables are usually categorized under figures (see the diagram).

#### Figure: 8.1 Types of visual aids/illustrations

#### 8.3.1 Tables

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Tables are used for displaying either numerical or verbal information. A table is the simplest technique to present information, difficult or tedious to handle in the main text, in an accurate, concise, logical, and easy to understand form.

When you have a list of related items and you want to give the same type of information to each, use tables. Tables could be: verbal tables and numerical tables. A table that represents information that is in the form of words or phrases is called a verbal table. A table that represents the numerical data is called a numerical table.

Examples 8.1: Verbal and Numerical Table

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A table arranges the data, verbal or numeric, formal or informal, informal or formal, into columns and rows. The first column is called 'subhead', the other columns are called boxheads. Tables can be classified as dependent and independent.

The informal kinds are called dependable, while the formal kinds are called independent.

#### 8.3.1.1 Dependent Table Features:

- It has no title and column, and heads can be omitted if the text does not need it.
- It would have no table number.
- It depends on the text.
- It may not have a title.
- It does not need to be listed in the list of tables.
- It usually has 3 or 4 columns and maximum 8 to 10.

Example 8.2: Dependable Table

#### 8.3.1.2 Independent Table

An independent table is the most commonly used form of a table. It does not depend on the text and can easily be identified from the text. Independent tables are useful when we want to compare the exact data. It facilitates presenting complex and enormous data effectively.

Guidelines to prepare an independent table effectively:

- Tables should be made - simple, clear, and logical.
- Provide the information in an orderly manner, chronological, or increasing or decreasing order of importance. The information must be given in the order you want the reader to know and understand it.
- There should be consistency in the use of categories, layout, and measures or units.
- Rows and columns must be aligned so do the numerals.
- You can provide totals and subtotals if they are useful to the reader.
- Provide headings for all columns.
- You can use standard symbols and abbreviations to save space.
- In tables, footnote notation is in lowercase small letters raised half a space above a line at the point where they do not apply.
- Leave adequate space above and below a table.
- Try to keep a table on a single page. If it is lengthy, take it to the next page by writing 'continued' or 'cont'd' at the bottom of the table.
- Use the dash ( - ) or N.A. (for 'not applicable') to show that no information is available for that slot. Do not use a zero to show that there is no entry to that particular slot.

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**MATCHING BLOCK 34/46**

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Source: Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press 8.3.2

Figures Any visual aid that is not a table like graphs, charts, drawings, diagrams, photographs, maps, and icons, etc. has been categorized under figures. They present data in the form of non-verbal words and are useful as:

- Figures help to highlight and supplement points in your writing, assist interpretation and emphasize the main points.
- Figures are functional, not ornamental; they must inform and supplement the text.
- They are informative and help in interpreting results or conclusions.
- They provide a visual representation of what has been discussed in the report. Each type of figure presents information in a distinct and particular way. Hence, the selection of a kind of figure depends on what kind of information you have. Wrong selection of figures can result in presenting information confusing to the readers. General guidelines for the usage of all types of figures include:
- Give relevant titles to the figures which must be numbered too. The title part must follow the number. For example: Example 8.3: numbering and title text
- Optionally you can place the 'titles' either above or below a figure.
- Leave double space between the title and the figure.
- Label the components of a figure. For example, you can label x- and y-axes for bar or line graphs. For drawings, pie graphs or photographs, use clear call-outs to label each component.
- Provide a legend or key at the bottom of the figure to explain information. For example: Example 8.4: Map key/Legend
- The legend must be closer to the figure than to the text.
- If you abbreviated any label, place an asterisk (\*) or a superscript number ( 1, 2,... ), define it in the footnote.
- The figure should not be too large or too small. Tables show exact amounts of quantitative information, bar and pie graphs show comparison of discrete, independent items, whereas line graphs show trends or relationships between two or more sets of data. 8.3.2.1

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Graphs Graphs are pictorial forms of tables. Mere glancing at a graph, a reader can grasp the information quickly.

A careful writer prepares a table first and then translates it into a graph.

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Most commonly used graphs are: bar graph, line graph, single line graph, complex line graph, and pie graph. Graphs are useful for showing round totals, distribution trends, direction and for dramatising comparisons.

Types of Graph Examples

Bar Graph

- It is the most easily adaptable, readable, and useful form of a graph.
- It shows a comparison of quantitative information in distinct time periods.
- It is useful for comparing precise data at precise intervals.
- It is useful to illustrate quantities at specific times and quantities of different items during the same period.
- A graph that has bars placed horizontally is called a horizontal bar graph
- A graph that has bars placed vertically is called a vertical bar graph or column graph.
- We can use shading to show comparisons.
- To show the relationship it has two scales one horizontal and the other vertical.
- The independent variable is usually plotted on the horizontal axis.
- The dependent variable is usually plotted on the vertical scale. Preparing a bar graph remember to:
- Not crowd it with too many details.
- Place the graph according to the 'introduce- display-discuss' criterion.
- Achieve balance in length and width of bars.
- All bars must be the same width.
- Keep vertical bars not longer than 7" and horizontal bars not more than 5".
- Use scale units accurately.
- Place the units of measurement on the horizontal axis (x) for horizontal bar graphs and the vertical axis (y) for the vertical bar graphs.
- Label the graph.
- Provide a key or legend to interpret the items. Bar graphs are useful to compare quantities, percentages, and amounts at specific times. Example 8.5: a) Bar Graph Example 8.5: b) Bar Graph

Pie Graph

- It is also known as a percentage graph or circle graph.
- It is a popular form of graph widely used.
- It illustrates how a whole is divided into its parts (pies or slices) and provides a picture of their relationship.
- The divisions of a whole are given into percentages or amounts.
- It also helps to compare the parts to each other and the whole. Constructing a pie chart, label the percentage of the whole. Example 8.6: Pie Graph

Line Graphs It shows trends or relationships between two or more sets of data It is a useful tool to show a relationship between continuous, dependent variables. Example 8.7: Line Graph

Rectilinear / Line Graph • It is used to show the trend of progress over a given period. • It consists of a vertical axis and a horizontal axis. • Usually, the independent variable is plotted horizontally and the dependent variable vertically. • Each axis contains a measurement scale that identifies the factors of a comparison like periods, income, amounts, age, groups, rates, and per cents. • It reveals relationships between the sets of figures. • It uses a line moving upward or downward to create a picture of quantities. To explain, summarise, illustrate, or highlight one or more trends we use line graphs. Example 8.8: Rectilinear Graph Scatter Graph • It is used to show the correlation between two items in your data. • It uses distinct symbols to show the agreement between two variables. • In scatter graphs we see clusters, the absence of it indicates a lack of correlation between the variables. Example 8.9: Scatter Graph

Multiple Line Graph • Using two or more lines it compares the data shown by each line. • The space between the lines indicates the differences. • It can indicate a comparison of both trends and relationships. Example 8.10: Multiple Line Graph

Pictorial Graph • It is a diagram representing numerical data in a pictorial form. • They present quantitative data. • They depict symbols chosen in accordance with the subject matter e.g. using the tree as a symbol shall indicate it is about trees. • Each symbol represents a single unit. Pictorial graphs are intelligible and self-explanatory. Example 8.11: Pictorial Graph Kinds of Graphs 8.3.2.2

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Charts "Charts" is the form of the visual aids that uses only one scale unlike the graphs that show relationships between things by using two scales. Charts are commonly used visual aids that help to represent an idea effectively. Charts do not - carry statistical information, they show non-quantitative information. They are of two types: organisation charts and flowcharts. The organisation charts present the formal structure of the organisation; flowchart shows the states of a process or procedure.

Kind of Charts Example

Organisation Chart • It illustrates the positions, units or functions of an organisation and the way they interrelate. • It partitions the administrative functions of an organisation. • It shows the line of authority in an organisation. • It is used to: - show the hierarchy within an organisation; - to provide readers with a guide to a company's functional areas and the links between and within them. - to depict the interrelationship among the parts of an organisation. - to discuss relations of authority and responsibility among several members of an organisation, and - to explore a business problem that stems from the way a company is structured. • It usually uses rectangles arranged and connected by lines. Example 8.12: Organisational Chart

Flowchart • It shows pictorially how a series of events, activities, operations, and other factors are arranged to accomplish a full cycle. • Flowcharts are used - to show a chronological sequence of activities. - In business reports to condense, clarify, or simplify a description of a series of activities. - to indicate the method by which some process is carried out. - to write technical instructions. • It breaks down the activities into boxes linked together by arrows or lines that indicate the direction of the process. • It uses: - shapes (circles, triangles, squares, etc.) to represent various elements in a process; - lines to connect the shapes; - arrows to show the direction of flow; - labels to identify each element. Flowcharting Symbols Example 8.13: Flow Charts

Kinds of Charts 8.3.2.3

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Diagrams/Drawings Diagrams are sketches or drawings of the parts of an item or the steps in a process. They help to illustrate the text effectively. Though the terms 'diagram' and 'drawing' are interchangeable they are distinct from each other in terms of a function; a diagram emphasises the operational aspect of the object whereas the drawing emphasises the visual likeness of an object. In drawing diagrams, we picture the interior and not the surface of an object. Drawings give us a great deal of freedom to omit the insignificant and emphasise the important ones. Drawings are useful for clarifying instructions by illustrating how certain steps should be performed.

Different types of diagrams are like: Example 8.13: Diagrams/Drawings  
8.3.2.4 Photographs

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Photographs are used to illustrate the text. They are used for giving a realistic and accurate view. They serve two purposes: they assist verbal descriptions and prove the truth of assertions. They represent an object in its real appearance and effectively capture the reader's attention.

Photographs have some limitations also. A photograph provides only the surface information. They sometimes unavoidably present both significant and non-significant facts with equal emphasis. They cannot be created from other notes. They can show only the exterior and cannot show what lies beneath the surface, to overcome this you can use drawings in addition to a photograph to disclose what lies underneath. Incorporating photographs is a useful medium to show exactly how an object or place or condition looks. It can work as a valuable proof of what the writer has said.

Example 8.14: Photograph 8.3.2.5 Maps Maps are useful in depicting geographical and spatial distribution. In order to focus attention on the main facts, the minor details are omitted.

For example, if the bus route is the only important feature all other details shall not plot in the map. It is a useful way to convey geographical information.

Example 8.15: Map 8.3.2.6 Icons Icons are visual representations. They also signal the acceptable or unacceptable, danger, or caution, or warning. For example: • An arrow represents the direction. • Stick figures of men and women on the restroom doors show which room you can enter. Icon usage can save space and communicate a piece of information quickly. Without using a language they communicate information. To create effective and meaningful icons: • Try to communicate one idea with one icon. • Try to create a realistic image using a drawing, photograph, caricature, outline or silhouette.

• The icon should be recognizable, select a view of the object which communicates the intent in the best identifiable way. • Create an icon having universality identifiable anywhere in the world. Following is a table showing what different visual aids illustrate. Visual Aids Best Illustration Table To compare and contrast the data. To present detailed, specific, and factual information. To present the accurate data. To present a lot of data. Graphs To show round totals. To clarify and to dramatise trends. To predict distribution trends. To indicate direction. Bar graph or Column Chart To show relative quantities. To compare discrete quantitative information. To compare precise data at precise intervals. To illustrate quantities at specific times. To show differences in quantity instantly. To show quantities of different items during the same period. Rectilinear graph or line graph To show the trend of progress over a given period of time. To show the continuous along with time. To explain, to illustrate, to highlight or to summarise one or more trends. To demonstrate trends to be compared over a long period. To emphasise movements rather than amounts. To show quantitative relationships between two or more sets of data. Pie graph or circle graph or percentage graph To show the whole in relation to its parts according to percentage. To show proportions of a whole.

Pictorial graph To represent in accordance with the topic or subject. Scatter graph To show the correlation between two items. Flow chart To display a process or procedure through steps or stages. To show a sequence of operations. To show coordinative efforts of several people. To show a chronological sequence of activities. To present technical instructions. Organisation chart or Decision tree To show the relationship between positions. To show the formal structure of a company. To show steps involving actions and decisions. To show the chain of command in an organisation. To depict the organisation of various ideas. Maps To show geographical distribution of data. To show spatial distribution. Photograph To show the actual appearance of something. To emphasise the important detail. To prove the truth of assertion. Diagram To explain the mechanism. To show how something looks or works. To explain a simple phase of a process. To show enlargement of physical details. To indicate the exploded, the sectional, and cut away views of an object. Section View: To show the interior of an assembly. Cut away view: to show both the interior and exterior of an assembly. Icons To show capability, direction. To indicate acceptable behaviour or unacceptable behaviour. To indicate danger.

Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. 8.4 Unit Summary Writing a

report involves working with massive data and complex ideas. It needs to work with visual aids that can present some part of large data to the most comprehensiveness and effective deliverance. Visual aids are the elements that express a matter as verbal communication does. Some parts of large data can be best expressed in words, some other through pictures, and some may require both kinds of treatment. Visual aids are used for presenting the data effectively. We select the material that needs to be presented with visual aids. It depends on the interest, the ability of comprehensiveness of the readers, the complexity of the content, and the purpose that helps us to determine the visual aid usage. 8.5 Key Terms • Map: a drawing or plan of (part of) the surface of the earth that shows countries, rivers, mountains, roads, etc. • Icon: a small picture or symbol on a computer screen that represents a program; a person or thing that is considered to be a symbol of something. • Graph: a diagram in which a line or a curve shows the relationship between two quantities, measurements, etc. • Dependent Table: It has no title and column, and heads can be omitted if the text does not need it. • Independent table: An independent table is the most commonly used form of a table. It does not depend on the text and can easily be identified from the text. 8.6 Check Your Progress Subjective: 1) What are visual aids? Discussing their purpose. 2) What are the guidelines for the preference of visual aids? 3) What are the general guidelines for preparing visual aids for a report? 4) Explain the criteria for a well placement of visual aids? 5) There are numerous types of visual aids broadly classified as tables and figures. Discuss. Objective: 1) True/False: "

Charts" is the form of the visual aids that uses only one scale. 2) Complete the

line: The title should be precise and succinct. It should indicate \_\_\_\_\_. 3) Fill in the gap: If the text illustration covers several pages, put it in the \_\_\_\_\_. 4) Short

Q/A: What are maps useful for? 5)



Short Q/A: What are diagrams useful for? References: • Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. • Raymond V. Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson • Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia • Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX • Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. • Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 • Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition 123 Unit 9: User Manual 9.0 Introduction 9.1 Unit Objective 9.2

User Manual Instructions 9.3 Instruction Manual Element: "Title" 9.4 Instruction Manual Element: "Introduction" 9.5 Instruction Manual Element: "General Warnings And Cautions" 9.6

Unit Summary 9.7 Key Terms 9.8 Check Your Progress 9.0 Introduction At a workplace, we may

be required to write different types of specific writing, for example, report writing, instruction manuals, etc. After having discussed the 'report writing' in detail, we shall now talk about the 'user instruction manual'. It is a technical writing content form and is usually written when detailed, step-by-step directions or specifications are required to be given 9.1 Unit Objective This Unit intends to inform learners about: User Manual Instructions and its elements including: "Title", "Introduction", and "General Warnings And Cautions" 9.2 User Manual Instructions Manufactured goods accompany an instruction manual, short or descriptive, helping a user to understand the functioning of the machine or product. It provides operational guidance, maintenance, and cautions in the form of text and visual aids. User Manual is an instructional booklet that contributes to operational efficiency. • Instruction manuals do not only accompany a product they are used for other purposes also. They instruct readers on different occasions, for example, how to maintain equipment, operate a mechanism, install equipment, manufacture a product, clean a product, test components, set up a product, assemble a product, monitor a system, repair a system, use a website, fill a form, etc.

Instructions at a workplace inform employees about how to perform their job correctly, effectively, and safely. • User instruction manuals provide detailed step-by-step directions for completing a specific task. • User instructions must demonstrate and inform a user clearly and specifically about how to perform a particular task. Your goal must be to provide the user with the information necessary to use your product most safely and effectively. It requires you to know the involved process and steps for writing user instructions. • Writing instruction manuals is a task of high competence for instructions written clumsily, using unsuitable words, and language may lead a reader to misinterpret the instructions. • Instructional manual drafts are often reviewed by experts and revised before they are released. The writing skills required for writing the instructions are the same as discussed in the previous units. However, writing the instructional language calls for assessing and understanding the reader more accurately. You must analyse the type of readers the instructions are required. The format and content depend on the device and the people who shall use it. The writing must be easy to understand and rightly interpretive. What you intend must go across the same way you should analyse the audience, determine the purpose of writing, and use the style that compliments the need. Anticipate possible questions and answers a reader might have and write holding that perspective. Put yourself at the reader's place and reread what you have written. Go through the steps you have written, edit them if found clumsy and not organised in a correct order. There might be some activities that must be performed at the same time or there may be some parallel operations, in such a case, indicate that at the beginning of the set of instructions by providing a summary. Use small paragraphs to communicate a process and enumerate them too, it helps the readers to go through them clearly. For example: Open the disc... Remove the... Then place it....

Writing the instructions effectively requires: • Clear and simple writing; • A thorough understanding of all technical details of the procedure; • The ability to assess the reader of all technical details of the procedure; • The ability to visualise the task in great detail and capture the awareness on paper; • Testing of your instructions on a person for whom the instructions are written. Elements of User Instruction manual: • Title; • Table of contents; • An Introduction; • General warnings and cautions; • Discussion of steps; • Document design; • Writing style; • Graphics; • Target audience; and • Conclusions for instructions.

Example 9.1: Instruction Manual

Example 9.1: Instruction Manual Here, in this unit, we shall cover some five elements and the other remaining shall be discussed through the consecutive unit. 9.3 Instruction Manual Element: "Title" Provide your text with a title that must explain:



What the text is about (the name of the product or service) The purpose of writing instructions. For example, if you are writing instructions for a photocopier and give the text the title "HP Photocopier", it would be uninformative. It can be interpreted as it is about the copier only, it is discussing the instructions, maintenance, set up, functioning, and operation of the machine also shall not be known.

9.4 Instruction Manual Element: "Introduction" Compose an informative 'Introduction' for your manual that should orient the readers to the task. Guidelines for writing the 'introduction':

- Define the specific task and describe where, when, why, and how it is performed.
- Mention the topic you will discuss.
- Give reasons for writing the instructions.
- Indicate the number of steps involved in specific instructions.
- Give a general overview of the task.
- Mention the theory governing the procedure.
- Identify the level of expertise, knowledge and background of the audience to understand the instructions.

In the "introduction":

- Mentioning the topic, you inform the readers about the product the instructions are concerning.
- You can talk about how it can be helpful for the readers to use the product safely and efficiently.
- You can discuss how the maintenance of the machine is important for increasing its longevity.
- You can explain the product's capabilities or ease of use.
- You may include a description of the conditions under which the task must be performed and the time required to perform that task.
- You inform the readers about the number of steps, it helps them plan and organize their thoughts and time.

Following are given three compositions of "introductions" regarding the operations of the Apex overhead projector:

1. The nine steps given below will help you operate Apex overhead projector.
- or 2. The Apex overhead projector is useful for oral presentations. It is easy to use and requires little maintenance. Follow the steps given below for operating the machine.
- or 3. The Apex overhead projector is used to display textual or graphic material on a screen. It is ideal for use in oral presentations because of its capability to enlarge and project the graphic aid. It is easy to use and requires little maintenance. The following nine steps are useful for operating the machine.

Analytical view: In the first example: The writer is giving the name of the product and informing about the number of steps. It does not provide much information. In the second example: The writer is furnishing the name of the product, its usefulness, ease of use and maintenance, and the number of steps. In the third example: In addition to the product's name, its usefulness, ease of use and maintenance, and the number of steps, the writer is also talking about the capabilities. This "introduction" is clear and explicit.

Example 9.3: "Introduction" After giving an overview of the product, you can move ahead by telling the readers typically in a simple list form about the tools or equipment they shall need to perform the task. You can give a picture adjoining the name of the instruments. It may help the readers to know about the tools required at mere a glance. Placing the photos of tools along their names depends on the kinds of readers you have, high tech or low tech.

9.5 Instruction Manual Element: "General Warnings and Cautions" Depending upon the kind of user instructions manual you are writing, you provide general warnings and cautions. To avoid harming an individual or damaging equipment, you must present a warning and caution in the instruction manual.

- Warnings of safeguards must be identifiable; you may use a standard icon for warnings or cautions.
- In addition, explain the reason for the warning - possible consequences if the caution is disregarded.
- Warnings can be given at the beginning of the manual and again at the points within the instructions.
- A hazard alert placed before an appropriate step but not highlighted may not help a reader see the danger. Warnings given with the concerned step in the instructions makes it relevant and purposeful. Design the warnings and cautions well to effectively alert the user to avoid the hazard. You may do so by:
  - varying the type of face and size;
  - using white space in between the warning/caution and surrounding text; and
  - using a warning graphic.
- Clarify the word ("warning", "danger", or "caution") used by providing "text material" accompanying it. The text must have the following three points:
  - a. A one-or two-word identification alerting the reader. For example: "High Voltage Hot Equipment" or "magnetic Parts" It alerts and warns the readers of potential dangers.
  - b. The consequences of the hazard in 3/5 words. For example: "Cuts can Occur"; "Can cause Burns"; "Data Loss" It tells readers the results stemming from the danger, warnings, or cautions.
  - c. Avoidance Steps: In three to five words tell the readers how to avoid the consequences. For example: "Wear Rubber Shoes"; "Don't touch until cool", "Wear protective gloves", "Keep Disks Away".

Example 9.4: Warning or Caution symbols and methods

Notify and emphasize a hazard message use a word "Note", or "Caution", or "Warning", or "Danger", or a color window: "Note": Used to inform an important information, necessary to perform the task. "Caution": for damage or destruction of equipment. "Warning": for serious injury. "Danger": for death. To emphasize a hazard message you can use a coloured box around the "word". Usually,

- "Note" is presented in 'blue' or 'black';
- "caution" in 'yellow';
- "warning" in 'orange'; and
- "danger" in 'red'.

Guidelines for using a warning or caution:

- Give a hazard statement briefly explaining what the possible problem is.
- Mention the consequences if instructions are not followed.
- Give the do's and don'ts.
- Warning or caution must stand out from the rest of the text.
- Use highlighting techniques such as centering, boldfacing, boxing, icons, colour, or any combination. You may signal the word using a varying type case: "WARNING" or "CAUTION".
- Use definite terms and graphics commonly associated with the hazard.
- Do not include instructions that belong to a procedure.
- Do not contain any information not necessary to the warning.

9.6 Unit Summary Manufactured goods accompany an instruction manual, short or descriptive, helping a user to understand the functioning of the machine or product. It provides operational

guidance, maintenance, and cautions in the form of text and visual aids. User Manual is an instructional booklet that contributes to operational efficiency.

9.7 Key Terms

- Instruction manual: a book or booklet giving detailed information about how something should be done or operated
- Icon: a small picture or symbol on a computer screen that represents a program; a person or thing that is considered to be a symbol of something.

9.8 Check Your Progress Subjective:

- 1) What are user manual instructions, explain.
- 2) Discuss the following elements of a user manual instructions:
  - a. "Title"
  - b. "General warnings and cautions"
  - c. "Introduction"
- 3) Write the guidelines for using a warning or caution? Objective:
  - 1) True/False: User instructions must demonstrate and inform a user clearly and specifically about how to perform a particular task
  - 2) Complete the line: A clear and explicit "introduction" would have the product's name, \_\_\_\_\_.
  - 3) Fill in the gap: \_\_\_\_\_ can be given at the beginning of the manual and again at the points within the instructions.
  - 4) Short

Q/A: What does writing the instructions effectively require?

References: • Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. • Raymond V. Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson • Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia • Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX • Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. • Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001

Unit 10: User Manual II 10.0 Introduction 10.1 Unit Objective 10.2

Instruction Manual Element: Steps 10.3 Instruction Manual Element: Document Design 10.4 Instruction Manual: Writing Style 10.5

Instruction Manuals: Graphics Usage 10.6 Target Audience 10.7 Conclusion for Instructions 10.8 Unit Summary 10.9 Key Terms 10.10

Check Your Progress 10.0 Introduction Well-planned, well-designed, and well-written instructions contribute to organisational efficiency. To write an organised and planned instruction manual effectively you must analyse your audience, identify the context in which your audience will use instructions, identify the steps you expect you should do chronologically, discuss what you want the reader to do after having read the document, use precise language, and document design that complements your audience, context, and goal. 10.1 Unit Objective In this unit the learners shall be introduced to the remaining elements of "User Instruction Manual". 10.2 Instruction Manual Element: Steps Instructional steps must be given orderly in a step-by-step sequence. Itemize them and discuss them thoroughly in your instructions. Limit each step to one action and arrange them into the required sequence. For each step include the following information: Purpose and function of the step in relation to other steps. Warnings, cautions and notes, along with reason. Conditions under which the step is performed.

Time required for the step. Specific material required for the step. Example: 10.1 Instructional Steps 10.3 Instruction Manual Element: Document Design Once a writer has determined the objective and purpose and decided the points of instruction the next step he takes is to decide the writing style and document design. Visually appealing document design is essential for writing instructions. Pay special attention to writing and document design factors. These are structure and format, supplementary information, writing style and graphics. Example: 10.2 Document Design For writing the steps, deciding the structure and format depends on the requirement. • Fixed-order steps: When a task is meant to be completed or performed in a specific order of actions you must present them in the correct order. You can use a vertical numbered list for that purpose. • Variable-order steps: These are the steps that can be performed in any order. You can use vertical and bulleted lists to present them. • Alternative steps: Steps providing options to choose to do a task are called alternative steps. To indicate you are presenting alternatives use bulleted lists or lead-in lines. • Nested steps: Substepping a complicated procedure is called nesting the steps. Depending on the complexity of the process we include substeps. Indent the substeps further and sequence them as 'a', 'b', 'c', etc. 10.4 Instruction Manual: Writing Style User instruction manuals are written using simple language that is precise and direct. Refer to Unit 1 for reading the writing skills already discussed in detail. Instructions must begin with imperative verbs. Example 10.3: Imperative Verb Beginning

Following are given keys for writing instructions, you can note how each of the following steps is beginning with a verb. 1. Number your steps 2. Use highlighting techniques. 3. Limit the information with each step. 4. Develop your points thoroughly. 5. Use short words and phrases. 6. Begin your steps with verbs. 7. Personalise your text. • Procedural steps are written in short and identifiable steps. Steps must be written in the order they must be performed. It prepares the reader for the task. Number each step such as 1, 2, 3.... Limit one step to one action, however, you can limit one step to two or three logically connected actions. • Using highlighting techniques like boldface, different font sizes, italics, emphatic warning words, colour, capital letters, windowing, etc. you can call the reader's attention to special concerns. • Do not write lengthy steps. It helps to write content that is clear, definite, and comprehensive. Limit the information with each step. • Before giving the steps, using a small line sentence, inform the reader about the number of steps required to complete the procedure. It instructs the reader what you mean and develops the steps clearly. For example: To turn the machine on: 1. Plug the power card into an AC outlet. 2. Facing the front of the machine, find the power switch on the right side. 3. Turn the power switch to the 'ON' position. • Use short words and phrases. • Personalise your text. Since instructions are meant for users and they could relate to the instructions, write them with 'you' approach. • Grammatical suggestions: 1. Place adjectives and adverbs close to the words they modify. For example: Wrongly placed: The wire that is covered with red plastic.

Revised: The red wire..... 2. Try to avoid adverbs that are difficult to explain or define. For example: Present the visual aid quickly.

Revised: Present the visual aid within one minute. 3. Use specific terms to avoid ambiguity. For example: Do not write lengthy sentences on the transparency sheet. Revised: Write only key words on the transparency sheet. 4. Use active verbs, it helps to indicate an action clearly. For example: The dial should be turned clockwise. Revised: Turn the dial clockwise. 5. Avoid using nouns formed from verbs. 6. active verbs, it helps to indicate an action clearly. For example: Avoid 'utilisation' and use 'utilise', similarly use 'avoid' not 'avoidance' 10.5 Instruction Manuals: Graphics Usage Use graphics like flowchart, diagrams, figures, tables, and photographs etc. in your instruction Manual. It helps readers to comprehend the instructions or messages easily and quickly. Readers grasp the information visually rather than verbally. Using drawings or photographs big, simple, clear, adjoining the text and labelled accurately you can help readers to understand the steps effectively. The use of graphics makes instructions visually appealing and clarifies the points clearly. For example, flowcharts chronologically trace the stages of instructions, visually revealing the flow of action, decision, responsibility, input/output preparation and termination of process. The use of graphics presents the content of an entire set of sequences in a panoramic view. Readers can see the cautions, warnings, and danger at a glance.

10.6 Target Audience The instruction language largely depends on the kind of audience the manual is intended for. Giving the instructions without considering the audience may lead to presenting the text that is confusing. Readers expect the instructions must be clear and easy to understand. It helps them to follow the procedure. Recognize your readers correctly and draft instructions to suit their competence. Writing the instructions assuming that the audience is high tech or low tech in knowledge shall be a mistake as: In the era of technological advancement where technology is changing every day, high- tech readers also need to be updated with the new tech incorporated in the device or system. Hence, clarify the steps without thinking whether they are for high tech or low tech knowledge readers and follow the key to success that says "Don't assume anything. Spell it out - clearly and thoroughly". 10.7

Conclusion for Instructions Instructions can be concluded by: a. Giving a comment about warranties; b. Highlighting the product's ease of use; c. Reiterating the product's applications; or d. Providing a summary of the company credentials. However, you can conclude by giving a disclaiming statement, as shown in the following example. "This operating guide to the ABC overhead projector is included primarily for ease of customer use. Service and application for anything other than normal use or replacement parts must be performed by a trained and qualified technician." 10.8 Unit Summary Instructional steps must be given orderly in a step-by-step sequence. Itemize them and discuss them thoroughly in your instructions. Once a writer has determined the objective and purpose and decided the points of instruction the next step he takes is to decide the writing style and document design.

User instruction manuals are written using simple language that is precise and direct. The use of graphics makes instructions visually appealing and clarifies the points clearly. For example, flowcharts chronologically trace the stages of instructions, visually revealing the flow of action, decision, responsibility, input/output preparation and termination of process. Writing the instructions assuming that the audience is high tech or low tech in knowledge shall be a mistake as: In the era of technological advancement where technology is changing every day, high- tech readers also need to be updated with the new tech incorporated in the device or system. Hence, clarify the steps without thinking whether they are for high tech or low tech knowledge readers and follow the key to success that says "Don't assume anything. Spell it out - clearly and thoroughly". Instructions can be concluded by: Giving a comment about warranties; Highlighting the product's ease of use; Reiterating the product's applications; or Providing a summary of the company credentials. 10.9 Key Terms Target audience: A target audience is the intended audience or readership of a publication, advertisement, or other message catered specifically to said intended audience. Graphics: Graphics are visual images or designs on some surface, such as a wall, canvas, screen, paper, or stone, to inform, illustrate, or entertain. 10.10 Check Your Progress Subjective: 1) Discuss the orientation of information in steps. 2) Discuss the document design of an instruction manual. 3) User instruction manuals are written using simple language that is precise and direct. Discuss. 4) Use graphics like flowchart, diagrams, figures, tables, and photographs etc. in your instruction Manual. Discuss. 5) The instruction language largely depends on the kind of audience the manual is intended for. Discuss.

6) Discuss the conclusion part of an instruction manual. Objective: 1) True/False: For writing instructions, use passive verbs, it helps to indicate an action clearly. 2) Fill in the gap: The use of graphics presents the content of an entire set of sequences in a \_\_\_\_\_ view. 3) Complete the line: Once a writer has determined the objective and purpose and decided the points of instruction the next step he takes is to \_\_\_\_\_. 4)

96%

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Short Q/A: How instructions are concluded? References: • Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. • Raymond V.Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson • Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia • Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX, United Kingdom Tel: (01865) 375794. Fax: (01865) 379162 info@howtobooks.co.uk www.howtobooks.co.uk • Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. • Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 • Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition 123

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<b>2/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	34 WORDS	<b>85% MATCHING TEXT</b>	34 WORDS
<p>Jargons: 1) The responsibility of a person involved in pedagogical pursuits is to impart knowledge to those sent to him for instructions.</p> <p><b>SA</b> Module 16- Guidelines to Effective Business Writing.pptx (D18365636)</p>				
<b>3/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	17 WORDS	<b>88% MATCHING TEXT</b>	17 WORDS
<p>and Emphasis Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd.</p> <p>and Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. 9.3.2.1</p> <p><b>SA</b> Communicative English - 1 (2).pdf (D165871407)</p>				
<b>4/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	23 WORDS	<b>50% MATCHING TEXT</b>	23 WORDS
<p>clause is a group of words that contains a subject and verb and expresses a complete thought. An independent clause is a</p> <p><b>SA</b> Part__I_Communication_Skills_I_11_B[169].pdf (D124271751)</p>				
<b>5/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	28 WORDS	<b>67% MATCHING TEXT</b>	28 WORDS
<p>A dependent clause is a group of words that contains a subject and verb but does not express a complete thought. It cannot be a sentence.</p> <p>A dependent clause is a group of words with a subject and a verb. does not express a complete thought so it is not a sentence</p> <p><b>SA</b> Communicative English_Semester (4) (2).pdf (D165871410)</p>				
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<p>Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd.: Sentences in</p> <p>Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. In</p> <p><b>SA</b> Communicative English - 1 (2).pdf (D165871407)</p>				
<b>7/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	14 WORDS	<b>100% MATCHING TEXT</b>	14 WORDS
<p>Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. 1.4.5.5</p> <p>Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. 1.6</p> <p><b>SA</b> Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)</p>				
<b>8/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	31 WORDS	<b>53% MATCHING TEXT</b>	31 WORDS
<p>three parts. • The first part: It contains the topic sentence. It can figure either at the beginning or at the end of the paragraph. It contains a new</p> <p>three parts. The first part is the topic sentence, it is the heart of the paragraph. It is usually placed either at the beginning or at the end of a paragraph. It contains the new</p> <p><b>SA</b> Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)</p>				

<b>9/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	192 WORDS	<b>93% MATCHING TEXT</b>	192 WORDS
	<p>Short Q/A: What are jargons? 5) Short Q/A: What are cliches?  References: ● Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. ● Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. ● Raymond V.Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. ● Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson ● Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia ● Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX, United Kingdom ● Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. ● Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 ● Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition 123 Unit 2:</p> <p>SA Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)</p>			
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	<p>Unit Summary 2.5 Key Terms 2.6 Check Your Progress 2.0 Introduction A 'Report' is a major form of</p> <p>SA Communicative English - 1 (2).pdf (D165871407)</p>			
<b>11/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	17 WORDS	<b>100% MATCHING TEXT</b>	17 WORDS
	<p>Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. Example 2.2:</p> <p>SA Communicative English - 1 (2).pdf (D165871407)</p>			
<b>12/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	14 WORDS	<b>88% MATCHING TEXT</b>	14 WORDS
	<p>clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate.</p> <p>SA Part__I_Communication_Skills_I_11_B[169].pdf (D124271751)</p>			

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<p>Short Q/A: What is an imperative report? 5) Short Q/A: what is an impression report? References: ● Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. ● Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. ● Raymond V.Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. ● Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archna Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson ● Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia ● Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX, United Kingdom Tel: (01865) 375794. Fax: (01865) 379162 info@howtobooks.co.uk www.howtobooks.co.uk ● Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. ● Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 ● Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition 123</p>		<p>Short Q/A: What is critical listening? 5) Short Q/A: What is content References: ● Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. ● Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. ● Raymond V.Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. ● Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archna Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson ● Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia ● Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX, United Kingdom Tel: (01865) 375794. Fax: (01865) 379162 info@howtobooks.co.uk www.howtobooks.co.uk ● Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. ● Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 ● Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition 123</p>		
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Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. 4.7 Unit Summary • A report is		Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd.) meeting is		
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<b>28/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	16 WORDS	<b>76% MATCHING TEXT</b>	16 WORDS
<p>and summary. 6.1 Unit Objective This unit intends to help students learn about the</p>		<p>and precision. 3.1 Unit Objective This Unit intends to make students learn about the</p>		
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<b>29/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	17 WORDS	<b>64% MATCHING TEXT</b>	17 WORDS
	There is no fixed rule about the length of a digest but generally, it is kept one-		There is no regulation about the length of a précis but preferably it is kept one-	
	SA Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)			
<b>30/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	178 WORDS	<b>99% MATCHING TEXT</b>	178 WORDS
	References: • Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. • Raymond V.Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson • Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia • Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX • Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. • Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 • Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition 123 Unit 7:		References: • Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. • Raymond V.Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson • Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia • Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX, United Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. • Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 • Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition Unit 7:	
	SA Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)			
<b>31/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	178 WORDS	<b>99% MATCHING TEXT</b>	178 WORDS
	References: • Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. • Raymond V.Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson • Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia • Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX • Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. • Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 • Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition 123 Unit 8:		References: • Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. • Raymond V.Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson • Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia • Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX, United Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. • Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 • Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition Unit 7:	
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<b>32/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	39 WORDS	<b>100% MATCHING TEXT</b>	39 WORDS
	Tables are used for displaying either numerical or verbal information. A table is the simplest technique to present information, difficult or tedious to handle in the main text, in an accurate, concise, logical, and easy to understand form.		Tables are used for displaying either numerical or verbal information. A table is the simplest technique to present information, difficult or tedious to handle in the main text, in an accurate, concise, logical, and easy to understand form.	
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<b>33/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	39 WORDS	<b>100% MATCHING TEXT</b>	39 WORDS
	A table arranges the data, verbal or numeric, formal or informal, informal or formal, into columns and rows. The first column is called 'subhead', the other columns are called boxheads. Tables can be classified as dependent and independent.		A table arranges the data, verbal or numeric, formal or informal, informal or formal, into columns and rows. The first column is called 'subhead', the other columns are called boxheads. Tables can be classified as dependent and independent.	
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<b>34/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	18 WORDS	<b>100% MATCHING TEXT</b>	18 WORDS
	Source: Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press 8.3.2		Source:Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press,	
	SA Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)			
<b>35/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	23 WORDS	<b>100% MATCHING TEXT</b>	23 WORDS
	Graphs Graphs are pictorial forms of tables. Mere glancing at a graph, a reader can grasp the information quickly.		Graphs Graphs are pictorial forms of tables. Mere glancing at a graph, a reader can grasp the information quickly.	
	SA Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)			
<b>36/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	34 WORDS	<b>100% MATCHING TEXT</b>	34 WORDS
	Most commonly used graphs are: bar graph, line graph, single line graph, complex line graph, and pie graph. Graphs are useful for showing round totals, distribution trends, direction and for dramatising comparisons.		Most commonly used graphs are: bar graph, line graph, single line graph, complex line graph, and pie graph. Graphs are useful for showing round totals, distribution trends, direction and for dramatising comparisons.	
	SA Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)			
<b>37/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	80 WORDS	<b>100% MATCHING TEXT</b>	80 WORDS
	Charts "Charts" is the form of the visual aids that uses only one scale unlike the graphs that show relationships between things by using two scales. Charts are commonly used visual aids that help to represent an idea effectively. Charts do not - carry statistical information, they show non-quantitative information. They are of two types: organisation charts and flowcharts. The organisation charts present the formal structure of the organisation; flowchart shows the states of a process or procedure.		Charts "Charts" is the form of the visual aids that uses only one scale unlike the graphs that show relationships between things by using two scales. Charts are commonly used visual aids that help to represent an idea effectively. Charts do not - carry statistical information, they show non-quantitative information. They are of two types: organisation charts and flowcharts. The organisation charts present the formal structure of the organisation; flowchart shows the states of a process or procedure.	
	SA Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)			

<b>38/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	111 WORDS	<b>98% MATCHING TEXT</b>	111 WORDS
	Diagrams/Drawings Diagrams are sketches or drawings of the parts of an item or the steps in a process. They help to illustrate the text effectively. Though the terms 'diagram' and 'drawing' are interchangeable they are distinct from each other in terms of a function; a diagram emphasises the operational aspect of the object whereas the drawing emphasises the visual likeness of an object. In drawing diagrams, we picture the interior and not the surface of an object. Drawings give us a great deal of freedom to omit the insignificant and emphasise the important ones. Drawings are useful for clarifying instructions by illustrating how certain steps should be performed.		Diagrams Diagrams are sketches or drawings of the parts of an item or the steps in a process. They help to illustrate the text effectively. Though the terms 'diagram' and 'drawing' are interchangeable they are distinct from each other in terms of a function; a diagram emphasises the operational aspect of the object whereas the drawing emphasises the visual likeness of an object. In drawing diagrams, we picture the interior and not the surface of an object. Drawings give us a great deal of freedom to omit the insignificant and emphasise the important ones. Drawings are useful for clarifying instructions by illustrating how certain steps should be performed.	
	SA Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)			
<b>39/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	46 WORDS	<b>100% MATCHING TEXT</b>	46 WORDS
	Photographs are used to illustrate the text. They are used for giving a realistic and accurate view. They serve two purposes: they assist verbal descriptions and prove the truth of assertions. They represent an object in its real appearance and effectively capture the reader's attention.		Photographs are used to illustrate the text. They are used for giving a realistic and accurate view. They serve two purposes: they assist verbal descriptions and prove the truth of assertions. They represent an object in its real appearance and effectively capture the reader's attention.	
	SA Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)			
<b>40/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	30 WORDS	<b>94% MATCHING TEXT</b>	30 WORDS
	Example 8.14: Photograph 8.3.2.5 Maps Maps are useful in depicting geographical and spatial distribution. In order to focus attention on the main facts, the minor details are omitted.		Example 5.3: Graph Maps Maps are useful in depicting geographical and spatial distribution. In order to focus attention on the main facts, the minor details are omitted.	
	SA Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)			
<b>41/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	21 WORDS	<b>93% MATCHING TEXT</b>	21 WORDS
	Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. 8.4 Unit Summary Writing a		Source: Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. 8.4 Unit Summary Memorandum is a	
	SA Communicative English - 1 (2).pdf (D165871407)			
<b>42/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	17 WORDS	<b>90% MATCHING TEXT</b>	17 WORDS
	Charts" is the form of the visual aids that uses only one scale. 2) Complete the		Charts" is the form of the visual aids that uses only one scale unlike the	
	SA Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)			



<b>43/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	194 WORDS	<b>93% MATCHING TEXT</b>	194 WORDS
	<p>Short Q/A: What are diagrams useful for? References: ● Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. ● Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. ● Raymond V.Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. ● Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson ● Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia ● Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX ● Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. ● Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 ● Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition 123 Unit 9: User Manual 9.0 Introduction 9.1 Unit Objective 9.2</p> <p>SA Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)</p>			
	<p>Short Q/A: What are three methods of note-References: ● Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. ● Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. ● Raymond V.Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. ● Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson ● Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia ● Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford ● Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. ● Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 ● Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition 123 Unit 4: Précis Writing 4.0 Introduction 4.1 Unit Objective 4.2</p>			
<b>44/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	18 WORDS	<b>88% MATCHING TEXT</b>	18 WORDS
	<p>Unit Summary 9.7 Key Terms 9.8 Check Your Progress 9.0 Introduction At a workplace, we may</p> <p>SA Communicative English_Semester (4) (2).pdf (D165871410)</p>			
<b>45/46</b>	<b>SUBMITTED TEXT</b>	160 WORDS	<b>99% MATCHING TEXT</b>	160 WORDS
	<p>References: ● Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. ● Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. ● Raymond V.Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. ● Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson ● Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia ● Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX ● Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. ● Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001</p> <p>SA Communicative English - III (2).pdf (D165871409)</p>			

46/46

SUBMITTED TEXT

190 WORDS

96% MATCHING TEXT

190 WORDS

Short Q/A: How instructions are concluded? References: • Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. • Raymond V.Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson • Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia • Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX, United Kingdom Tel: (01865) 375794. Fax: (01865) 379162 info@howtobooks.co.uk www.howtobooks.co.uk • Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. • Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 • Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition 123

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Short Q/A: What is exploratory References: • Aruna Koneru; Professional Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Anjali Sethi, Bhavana Adhikari; Business Communication; Tata McGraw Hill Education Pvt. Ltd. • Raymond V.Lesikar, Marie. E. Flatley, Paula Lentz, Neerja Pande; Business Communication; McGraw Hill Education (India) Pvt. Ltd. • Soumitra Kumar Choudhury, Anjana Neira Dev, Archana Mathur, Tulika Prasad, Tasneem Shahnaaz; Business English; Pearson • Fiona Talbot; How to Write Effective Business English; London and Philadelphia • Michael Bennie; A Guide to Good Business Communication; 5th edition; Published by How To Content, A division of How To Books Ltd, Spring Hill House, Spring Hill Road, Begbroke, Oxford OX5 1RX, United Kingdom Tel: (01865) 375794. Fax: (01865) 379162 info@howtobooks.co.uk www.howtobooks.co.uk • Janet Mizrahi; Writing for the Workplace Business Communication for Professionals; Writing for the Workplace: Business Communication for Professionals Copyright © Business Expert Press, LLC, 2015. • Meenakshi Raman and Sangeeta Sharma; Technical Communication Principles and Practice; Oxford University Press, YMCA Library Building, 1 Jai Singh Road, New Delhi 110001 • Heike Hering How to Write Technical Reports Understandable Structure, Good Design, Convincing Presentation Second Edition 123