ATSWA

ACCOUNTING TECHNICIANS SCHEME WEST AFRICA

STUDY TEXT

COMMUNICATION SKILLS
PART I

PUBLICATION OF ASSOCIATION OF ACCOUNTANCY BODIES IN WEST AFRICA (ABWA)

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ACCOUNTING TECHNICIANS SCHEME

WEST AFRICA (ATSWA)

STUDY TEXT FOR

COMMUNICATION SKILLS

FOURTH EDITION

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PREFACE

INTRODUCTION

The Council of the Association of Accountancy Bodies in West Africa (ABWA) recognised the difficulty of students when preparing for the Accounting Technicians Scheme West Africa examinations. One of the major difficulties has been the non-availability of study materials purposely written for the scheme. Consequently, students relied on text books written in economicand socio-cultural environments quite different from the West African environment.

AIM OF THE STUDY TEXT

In view of the above, the quest for good study materials for the subjects of the examinations and the commitment of the ABWA Council to bridge the gap in technical accounting training in West Africa, led to the production of this Study Text.

The Study Text assumes a minimum prior knowledge and every chapter reappraises basic methods and ideas in line with the syllabus.

READERSHIP

The Study Text is primarily intended to provide comprehensive study materials for studentspreparing to write the ATSWA examinations.

Other beneficiaries of the Study Text include candidates of other Professional Institutes, students of Universities and Polytechnics pursuing undergraduate and post graduate studies in Accounting, advanced degrees in Accounting as well as Professional Accountants who may use the Study Text as reference material.

APPROACH

The Study Text has been designed for independent study by students and as such concepts have been developed methodically or as a text to be used in conjunction with tuition at schools and colleges. The Study Text can be effectively used as a course text and for revision. It is recommended that readers have their own copies.

FOREWORD

The ABWA Council, in order to actualize its desire and ensure the success of students at the examinations of the Accounting Technicians Scheme West Africa (ATSWA), put in place a Harmonisation Committee, to among other things, facilitate the production of Study Texts for students. Hitherto, the major obstacle faced by students was the dearth of Study Texts which they needed to prepare for the examinations.

The Committee took up the challenge and commenced the task in earnest. To start off the process, the existing syllabus in use by some member Institutes were harmonized and reviewed. Renowned professionals in private and public sectors, the academia, as well as eminent scholars who had previously written books on the relevant subjects and distinguished themselves in the profession, were commissioned to produce Study Texts for the twelve subjects of the examination.

A minimum of two Writers and a Reviewer were tasked with the preparation of Study Text for each subject. Their output was subjected to a comprehensive review by experienced imprimaturs. The Study Texts cover the following subjects:

PART I

1 Basic Accounting
2 Economics
3 Business Law
4 Communication Skills

PART II

1 Financial Accounting
2 Public Sector Accounting
3 Quantitative Analysis
4 Information Technology

PART III

1 Principles of Auditing & Assurance
2 Cost Accounting
3 Taxation
4 Management

Although, these Study Texts have been specially designed to assist candidates preparing for the technicians' examinations of ABWA, they should be used in conjunction with other materials listed in the bibliography and recommended text.

PRESIDENT, ABWA

STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY TEXT

The layout of the chapters has been standardized so as to present information in a simple form that is easy to assimilate.

The Study Text is organised into chapters. Each chapter deals with a particular area of the subject, starting with a summary of sections and learning objectives contained therein.

The introduction also gives specific guidance to the reader based on the contents of the current syllabus and the current trends in examinations. The main body of the chapter is subdivided into sections to make for easy and coherent reading. However, in some chapters, the emphasis is on the principles or applications while others emphasise method and procedures.

At the end of each chapter is found the following:

- Summary,
- Points to note (these are used for purposes of emphasis or clarification);
- Examination type questions; and
- Suggested answers.

HOW TO USE THE STUDY TEXT

Students are advised to read the Study Text, attempt the questions before checking the suggested answers.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The ATSWA Harmonisation and Implementation Committee, on the occasion of the publication of the first edition of the ATSWA Study Texts acknowledge the contributions of the following groups of people. The ABWA Council, for their inspiration which gave birth to the whole idea of having a West African Technicians Programme. Their support and encouragement as well as financial support cannot be overemphasized. We are eternally grateful.

To The Councils of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (ICAN), and the Institute of Chartered Accountants, Ghana (ICAG), Institute of Chartered Account ants Sierra Leone (ICASL), Gambia Institute of Chartered Accountants (GICA) and theLiberia Institute of Certified Public Accountants (LICPA) for their financial commitment and the release of staff at various points to work on the programme and for hosting the several meetings of the Committee, we say kudos.

We are grateful to the following copyright holders for permission to use their intellectual properties:

- The Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (ICAN) for the use of the Institute's examination materials;
- International Federation of Accountants (IFAC) for the use of her various publications;
- International Accounting Standards Board (IASB) for the use of International Accounting Standards and International Financial Reporting Standards;
- Owners of Trademarks and Trade names referred to or mentioned in this Study Text.

We have made every effort to obtain permission for use of intellectual materials in this Study Texts from the appropriate sources.

We wish to acknowledge the immense contributions of the writers and reviewers of this manual.

Our sincere appreciation also goes to various imprimaturs and workshop facilitators. Without their input, we would not have had these Study Texts. We salute them.

Chairman
ATSWA Harmonization & Implementation Committee

A new syllabus for the ATSWA Examinations has been approved by ABWA Council and the various PAOs. Following the approval of the new syllabus which becomes effective from the September 2022 diet, a team was constitutes to undertake a comprehensive review of the Study Texts in line with the syllabus under the supervision of an editorial board.

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Contents

CHAPTER 1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION TO COMMUNICATION

CHAPTER CONTENT

- **Definition of communication**
- **Roles of communication**

1.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this chapter, you should be able to

- Define communication;
- Explain roles of communication.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Communication has been variously defined by different Communication experts; but can simply be described as the interchange of information between or amongst two or more persons. Communication is not limited to the art of speaking or writing. It also covers body language, personal manners and the way these are exhibited in style and effect. In this chapter, we would introduce you to the basic concepts ofcommunication and prepare you for the key ideas you are likely to meet in subsequent chapters. The layout for this chapter is as follows:

- Section 1.2 defines and explains the term "Communication."
- Section 1.3 examines roles of communication.

1.2 DEFINITION AND MEANING OF COMMUNICATION

The word "communication" is derived from the Latin word "communis", which means "common". Individuals involved in communication by this definition, attempt to ensure a common basis for understanding the message that is communicated between or among them. According to the American Societyof Training Directors, a good communication is "the interchange of thoughtor information to bring about mutual understanding and confidence or good human relations."

Mary Ellen Guffey defines communication as "the transmission of information and meaning from one individual or group to another." Communication, therefore, is anything that can make a message much more meaningful to the one being communicated with. Communication is a two-way process and is not complete without a feedback. Feedback ensures that communication is more effective because it confirms receipt and adequate understanding of the intended message.

In a nutshell, communication is

- A process of transmitting thought, ideas, attitudes and feelings from one person to another
- The sharing and imparting information
- The giving of understandable information and the receiving and understanding of the message
- The transmitting of messages and the linking of people

1.3 ROLES OF COMMUNICATION

Communication has been described as a very vital tool in the process of managing people. It is a daily occurrence at the workplace and in our daily lives. Broadly speaking, the six major goals of communication are to

(a) facilitate recipient's level of understanding (education);

(b) elicit receiver's response;

(c) create good relations;

(d) create organisational goodwill,.

(e) inform, and

(f) entertain

(a) To improve recipient's level of understanding (education)

When the sender sends a message, it is obvious to him (sender) what meaning the message is intended to convey. What is not clear, however, is whether the receiver would understand the message as the sender intends it to be. The expected receiver's understanding of a message is the most critical goal or objective of the communication process. A message that is unable to elicit the appropriate receiver's understanding may be ambiguous because it could be interpreted anyhow by various parties if they were the recipients.

ILLUSTRATION 1.1

For example, if a manager were to leave a note on the table of his driver with the message: “we are travelling” it is obvious that the message will mean very little to the recipient as both manager and driver will not attain shared meaning. The issues likely to arise in the mind of the driver are many, such as: Where are we travelling to? What time are we travelling? What date are we travelling? How long are we going to be away? What preparations do I need to make on the company car if we are travelling in the official vehicle? The manager’s message does not in anyway address any of these issues. In the above circumstance, the manager’s message may simply not achieve its objective.

(b) To elicit receiver’s response

Once a message is received, the receiver will respond by one of several actions, depending on his (that is, receiver’s) understanding of the message. In direct conversation, the receiver has the benefit of seeking clarification on the import of the message and the sender could also take advantage of the face-to-face interaction to explain any ambiguities in his message. In written communication, however, this is not possible and the message may thus elicit varying interpretations, based on receiver’s understanding.

ILLUSTRATION 1.2

A written wedding invitation, for instance, may elicit one of the following responses: the receiver may write to notify the sender of his or her intention to attend or not to attend. The Receiver may also attend without giving notice to the sender. Yet another possible reaction could be that the receiver may not attend without notifying the sender.

A message that does not elicit the right response obviously does not achieve its aim. The sender would, therefore, encourage response if the message is worded in a way as to elicitthe single most appropriate and desired response.

(c) To create good relations

Another goal of communication is the creation of good relations between the parties. The sender of a message must ensure that the content of the message does not cause strains in relations. Primary responsibility for creating and maintaining good relations would be assumed by the sender and this can be done by ensuring that the wording of the message looks good, positive and encouraging. Composing messages whose contents do not stress the interests of the receiver is critical.

(d) To create organisational goodwill

Goodwill is a critical success factor in business and communication that must be used to enhance the creation of organisational goodwill. The goodwill of all stakeholders that the organisation deals with such as clients, suppliers, customers, government, the community, etc., is necessary for the continued successful operation of business.

Similarly, when individuals communicate, the receiver of the message must enjoy his or her (sender's) confidence and trust as this is likely to facilitate the receiver's appreciation and response.

(e) To inform

The central message of communication is information which gives us knowledge needed to take decisions. Without information, communication cannot take place. Information may be in the form of ideas, beliefs, thoughts, or attitudes which stimulate a sender to communicate with others for the purpose of awakening their consciousness about the body of facts available to the receiver.

(f) To entertain

Communication can be used to entertain. A person with a heavy heart listening to a jester will smile or laugh at certain critical points of the performance, thus creating relief temporarily or permanently. An interesting story makes the reader's or listener's heart merry.

1.4 HUMAN COMMUNICATION

Human communication is strictly limited to attempts to relate to fellow humans. Non-human communication would naturally involve communication between human and non-human beings. In this sense, communication attempts involving machines, animals or extra-terrestrial bodies such as aliens from space would be outside the scope of human communication as stated here.

1.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the definition and roles of communication are discussed.

In the introduction, communication is defined as the interchange of information between or among persons. It is also noted that communication is not limited to the art of speaking or writing, but covers also body language, personal manners, and the way these are exhibited in style and effect. The origin of the word "communication"as deriving from the Latin word "communis" which means "common", is noted. The implication of this definition is that individuals involved in the communication process need to attempt to ensure a common basis for understanding in order to enhance the process. The difference between human and non-animal communicationis highlighted. The chapter also discussed the various view points or perspectives of communication. The modern perspective of communication derives from the principles of objective measurement and decision-making based on traditional calculations. This view point tends to see organisations as quite, complex entities which may not be fully understood through natural science.

The interpretive, critical and post-modern perspectives of communication have also been discussed.

The following major roles of communication were discussed: level of recipient's understanding, eliciting receiver response, creating good relations, creating organisational goodwill, information and entertainment.

1.6 ENDOFCHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

1.6.1 MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. The following are features of communication EXCEPT
   - A. It involves more than an individual
   - B. It involves transmission of information
   - C. It is not limited to the art of writing
   - D. It is limited to the art of speaking
   - E. It promotes good human relations

2. Which of the following is NOT a role of communication?
   - A. Providing information
   - B. Promoting goodwill
   - C. Creating conflict
   - D. Promoting education
   - E. Providing entertainment

3. Which of the following constitutes human communication?
   - A. Man and woman
   - B. Man and animal
   - C. Woman and alien
   - D. Man and bees
   - E. Man and machine

4. Which of the following is NOT a constituent of communication?
   - A. Sender
   - B. Receiver
   - C. Action
   - D. Channel
   - E. Feedback

5. Which ONE of the following is NOT a stakeholder in the promotion of organisational goodwill?
   A. Customers
   B. Government
   C. Company car
   D. Community
   E. Suppliers

1.6.2 SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. In communication… ....confirms the understanding of the message.

2. Communication is a ....process.

3. Body language is part of…………………………..

4. In a business environment the …………… of all stakeholders is a critical factor for success.

5. Communication is vital in both formal and ....relationships.

1.6.3 ESSAY

1. Define briefly the term "communication"
2. State and explain briefly any FOUR roles/goals of communication.

1.7 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

1.7.1 SOLUTIONS TO MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. D
2. C
3. A
4. C
5. C

1.7.2 SOLUTIONS TO SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. feedback
2. two-way
3. communication
4. goodwill
5. informal

1.7.3 SOLUTIONS TO ESSAY QUESTIONS

QUESTION 1

Communication refers to the transfer of information from a sender to a receiver through an understandable medium where the receiver sends a feedback to the original sender of the information. Communication may be generally classified into three major categories namely: written communication where the information transmitted is, in all cases, documented such as letters, memoranda, reports, journals, press releases, minutes and magazines.

The second category is oral communication which refers to the situation where information to be transmitted is by word of mouth, such as face-to-face conversation, telephone conversation, meetings, public addresses, as well as conferences. The third type of communication, visual communication, involves the use of tables, diagrams, graphs, charts and pictures, which are all connected with sight.

For communication to be effective, certain conditions must prevail. Of importance are issues such as choice of medium, language use, clarity, and choice of words. The communication process is not considered complete until there is a feedback indicatingadequate understanding of the message as it was originally intended by the sender.

QUESTION 2

Communication is concerned with the sending and receiving of information which is accurately transmitted and understood by the receiver. Six roles of communication are:

(a) Facilitating recipient's level of understanding:

When a message is sent by the sender, it is the duty of the sender to explain the intention and meaning of the message so that the receiver can understand the message as originally intended.

(b) Eliciting receiver's response:

Communication experts are of the view that the communication process cannot be complete without the receiver providing a feedback to the original sender. Such a feedback must be an indication to the sender that the message, as intended, has been received and well understood.

(c) Creating good relations:

One of the key principles of communication is to establish positive relationship between or among the parties involved in the process. Communication between two parties, therefore, attempts to solicit and exchange ideas, facts and symbols between them.

(d) Creating organisational goodwill:

Every aspect of an organisation requires good communication. This is because the formulation and implementation of the organisation's goals will depend on effective communication. In a competitive business environment, the existence of communication will ensure the successful implementation of programmes, especially where change is required. It will also enhance goodwill within the organisation.

(e) To inform

The central message of communication is information which gives us knowledge needed to take decisions. Without information, communication cannot take place. Information may be in the form of ideas, beliefs, thoughts, or attitudes which stimulate a sender to communicate with others for the purpose of awakening their consciousness about the body of facts available to the receiver.

(f) To entertain

Communication can be used to entertain. A person with a heavy heart listening to a jester will smile or laugh at certain critical points of the performance, thus creating relief temporarily or permanently. An interesting story makes the reader's or listener's heart merry.

CHAPTER 2

THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

CHAPTER CONTENT

- Stages of the communication process
- Principles of effective communication
- Different models of the communication process
- The importance of communication
- Barriers to effective communication

2.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this chapter, you should be able to

- identify the stages of the communication process;
- explain the principles of effective communication;
- distinguish between different models of the communication process;
- explain the importance of communication;
- identify the factors that constitute barriers to effective communication.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

You will recall that in Section 2 of Chapter 1 communication as a daily occurrence at the workplace and in our daily lives was discussed. It was also suggested that communication improves recipient's understanding, creates good relations and improves organisational goodwill. These goals may be achieved only when the communication is a two-way process and involves a sender and a receiver. This chapter discusses the principles of effective communication, models of the communication process, the importance of the process and the factors which may constitute a hindrance to the process.

2.2 ELEMENTS OF THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Communication has been described as a six-point process covering conception, encoding, channel selection, decoding, interpretation and provision of feedback. The communication process may be more than the totality of these elements. However, adequate understanding of these elements is required to appreciate what happens when one party is expressing an idea to another. Each of the elements of the communication process is explained below:

(a) Conception

The process starts with the conception of the message which may be involuntary and instantaneous; that is, it may not require any serious thought- out reasoning. Others may require a more-structured reasoning and planning.

(b) Encoding the message

At this stage, the sender is required to put the idea or information conceived into the most suitable and appropriate form. It is important for the sender to consider a number of factors in encoding the message such as receiver's level of appreciation and understanding, background, culture, etc. The sender has the duty to ensure that language, vocabulary, symbols, pictures and signs used will convey the intended meaning to the receiver.

(c) Selection of a suitable channel

The suitability of the chosen medium or channel, like other factors already discussed, would impact either positively or negatively on the quality of the response. At this stage, the actual process of transforming the message from sender to receiver takes place. Factors to be considered in deciding on a suitable channel include speed, cost, convenience, confidentiality, distance considerations as well as the nature and type of message.

(d) Decoding the message

This is the level of converting the received code into understandable language. The converted code must correspond with the code used by the sender. A message that is received must be understood by the recipient in order to elicit the right response. To ensure effective understanding, it is the receiver's responsibility to attempt to breakdown the components of the message to the extent that the message in totality makes some sense to him (receiver). Effective decoding of the message may be hampered where it is of technical nature and beyond the receiver's comprehension. Similarly, the receiver's perceptions and emotions could affect effective understanding of the message as originally intended.

(e) Interpreting the message

This is level of assigning meaning to the code of the message received. Interpretation and decoding of any message, although quite related, are two distinct and separate phases of the process. There can only be effective and adequate understanding of the message received if the recipient is able to establish, in his mind, a one-to-one correspondence of meaning with the sender's intention. The sender's inability to ensure that the message is carefully encoded could lead to possible distortion of the message with the effect that the message

may be interpreted in a completely different way from the originally- intended meaning. It is important that the manner in which the sender delivers his message is done carefully and in such a way as not to be misinterpreted or misunderstood by the receiver.

(f) Feedback

Feedback is the element of the process in which the response of the receiver is conveyed to the sender. Without a feedback, the communication process is not considered complete or successful. In the feedback process, the roles are reversed: the original sender of the message becomes the receiver, while the original receiver assumes the role of a sender. Depending on the type of communication, feedback could be oral, written or involve the use of body language.

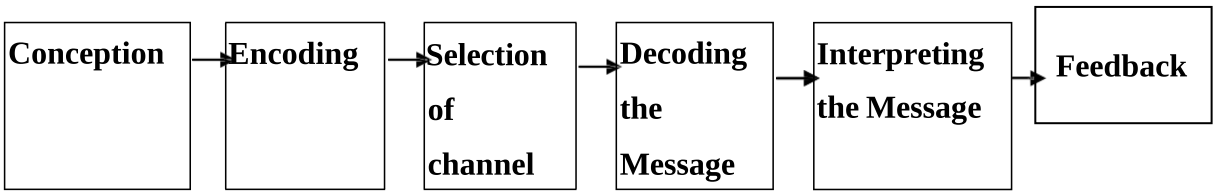


Fig 2.1: The Elements of the Communication Process

2.3 THE PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

In this section, we will deal with the principles required for effective communication. Poor communication in any form could, in the long run, be costly to us as individuals in terms of image and perception. In business, poor communication could greatly damage the organisation's reputation and possibly put off potential clients. Communication experts have advocated the following principles to improve the effectiveness of communication.

(a) Choice of words

If the sender's aim is to ensure effective decoding of the message, then choice of words is critical. The sender must choose words that the receiver understands. This could be effectively done i f h e understands the recipient's interests, attitudes, emotions and knowledge level as these variables could have an impact on message decoding. When a familiar word is used in an unfamiliar way, the intended meaning must be stated in parenthesis the first time it isused. This wIll eliminate any possible confusion in the mind of the receiver.

(b) Clarity of purpose

The sender should be clear, concise and to the point and thus avoid any irrelevant matter. Once this is done, no room is left for ambiguities, which could possibly lead to the message failing to convey the intended meaning.

(c) Listening intelligently

Since communication is a two-way process, the receiver may do a disservice to the process if adequate attention is not paid when the message is being communicated. Listening is just as important as speaking in order that the process is able to achieve the desired results. One approach to addressing this problem of inadequate attention is for the sender to try to read to himself the written message whilst pretending to be the recipient. In this way, the sender is in a position to consider whether listening would be effective and thus deliver the desired results.

(d) Selection of suitable media

The method for delivery of the message could have an impact on the expected results. This impact could be favourable or unfavourable depending on the suitability of the medium in a particular circumstance. For optimum results, therefore, it is imperative that the encoded message is delivered through the most suitable medium in order that the message would elicit the right response. Choice of media should be considered in relation to distance, time, sense of urgency and cost.

(e) Appropriate timing of the communication

It is important to decide when to send a particular message. Depending on the nature of the message a particular time may not be suitable. In our traditional African setting, transmission of news of death of a dear one, for instance, is carefully managed and this includes finding the most suitable time to break such news. This is for the obvious reason of managing the shock or impact of such bad piece of message on the recipient. A departmental meeting billed to hold at the last working hour of Friday is ill-timed, as participants are unlikely to give their best at such a meeting.

(f) Obtaining feedback

Obtaining feedback ensures that the communication has been effective. As stated earlier, a message may not be understood as a result of the in adequacies of the receiver but also because the sender may not have made the right decisions in relation to what likely impression could have been created by language and expressions used, suitability of the timing of delivery, nature of tone and appropriateness of the manner of delivery.

(g) Standards

The quality of response obtained from the communication process is as good as the standard set for all aspects of the process. High standards in choice of media, methods used both in relation to language and presentation are likely to deliver positive results, so long as they are for the purpose and objective of the message.

2.4 IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNICATION

(a) Communication is essential not only for the efficient discharge of one's duties in the formal work place setting, but also to the individual and society at large. Communication is a key to the achievement of organisational goals and objectives.

(b) Communication serves as an intermediary between two parties where the sender sends a message intended to elicit some specific response and the receiver reacts by providing that response.

(c) Good communication i s required not only for presentations, but also more importantly to keep up the interest of the audience in the subject matter being discussed whether in a meeting, seminar, workshop or forum situation.

(d) Communication helps job seekers to obtain the jobs they want. Communication assists in the design of personal profiles, composition of the application letter and discharging oneself creditably at the job interview with confidence.

(e) Communication helps in the provision of good and efficient leadership. Good communication can lead to clear, unambiguous directives and instructions but can also serve the purpose of motivating subordinates at the work place.

(f) Communication helps to promote positive relations with others through enhanced ethical communication, concern, compassion and empathy.

(g) Communication may provide information through the media for a number of purposes, including weather forecast, determination of dress code, means of transport, as well as an update on the happenings around the globe.

ILLUSTRATION 2.1

Why Communication is so important

The purpose of communication is to get your message across to others clearly and unambiguously.

Doing this involves effort from both the sender of the message and the receiver. And it is a process that can be fraught with error, with the message often misinterpreted by the recipient. When this is not detected, it can cause tremendous confusion, wasted effort and missed opportunity.

In fact, communication is only successful when both the sender and the receiver understand the same information as a result of the communication give the information sent and received the same meaning.

In a recent survey of recruiters from companies with more than 50,000 employees, communication skills was cited as the single more important decisive factor in choosing managers. The survey, conducted by the University of Pittsburgh's Katz Business School, points out that communication skills, including written and oral presentations, as well as an ability to work with others, are the main factors contributing to job success.

In spite of the increasing importance placed on communication skills, many individuals continue to struggle, unable to communicate their thoughts and ideas effectively– whether in verbal or written format. This inability makes it nearly impossible for them to compete effectively in the workplace, and stands in the wayof career progression.

Getting your message across is paramount to progressing. To do this, you must understand what your message is, what audience you are sending it to, and how it will be perceived.You must also weigh-in the circumstances surrounding your communication, such as situational and cultural context.

(Adapted from *MindTools.com*)

2.5 MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

Living in a world of complexity and dynamism means that most of the activities that we are involved in cannot be clearly stated when it comes to testing different relationships and their effects, hence the use of models. Models have been used in almost all spheres of life from engineering to the normal communication that takes place in our daily life. The question, therefore, is what is a model? A model–and in our case–communication model, is a theoretical representation of a real world situation in a graphic form.

In the communication model, an obstruction or an approximation isused to reflect an actuality. As represented in the diagram below, the communication model will allow people to gain an improved understanding of what exists in real life.

In the above model, TX is the transmitter of a message and RX is the receiver of the message. When RX responds to TX, there is a feedback.

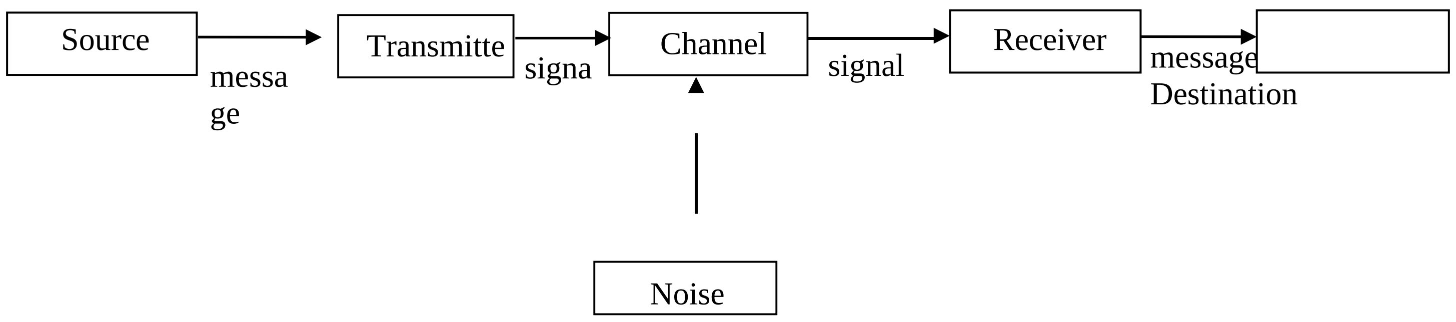
2.5.1 The Development of Communication Models

Ever since the 1940s, management and communication specialists have sought to explain the theory and processes of human communication with the help of models. We would consider two of such models.

(a) Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver (1949)

C. Shannon and W. Weaver who were American researchers devised a model identifying the key processes of communication to explain their work in telephone and radio telecommunications in the late 1940s. They were the first to devise a structural model of communication that attempted to explain information theory beyond its engineering base in order to apply it to human communication. They modelled communication on a process in which a source encodes and then transmits, along a channel, a message whichis received and decoded by its destination upon which it produces an effect. As a result of their background, their model illustrates a one-way system, since they were interested in how an electrical signal was transmitted along a wire or radio wave and what happened to it during transmission. In this model, the concept of noise allowed for distortion and interference of static upon the message's signal which might prevent its clear reception – indeed a background consideration. What should be noted is that, the concept of "noise" in human communication models refers to anything interfering between the transmission and reception of the message.

Shannon and Weaver Model (1949)



(b) Wilbur Schram (1954)

Other communication theorists like Wilbur Schram emphasised the importance of the two-way nature of communication in which the success of the process depends upon the sender receiving feedback. The idea behind his concept is that the sender needs to receive frequent reassurance that hispoints are being received and understood–that is, constant feedback. What should be noted is that Wilbur Schram's model has been accepted by many business professionals as the most suitable model in human communications.

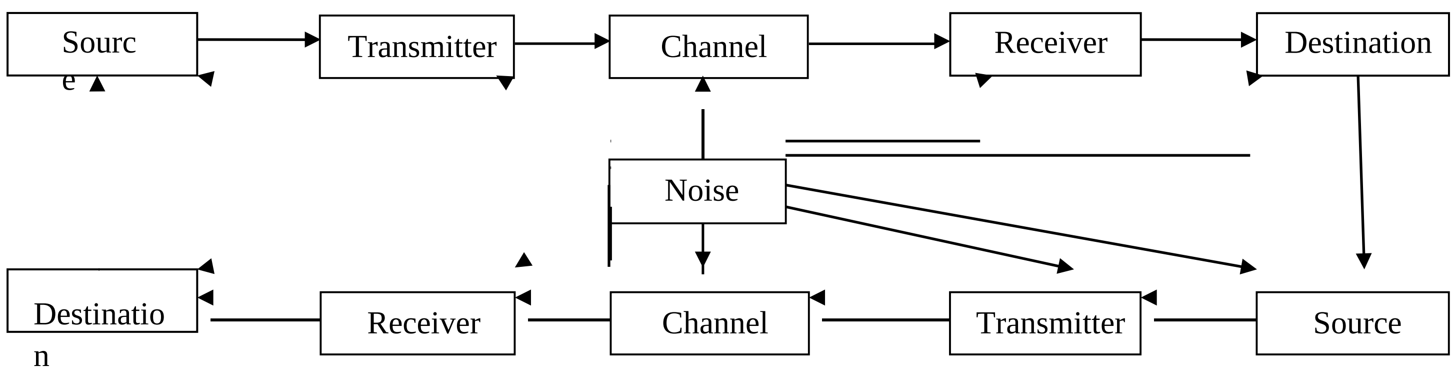
(c) De Fleur (1966)

As demonstrated in the Shannon and Weaver linear model, communication begins with the source and ends with the destination. The realisation that communication is a two-way process, however, led DeFleur into replicating the Shannon and Weaver model to explain the feedback loop in a two-way traffic.

De Fleur's model is based on three fundamental assumptions:

i. that communication is a two-way process
ii. that noise affects every element of the process
iii. that there is no permanent source or sender in the process.

De Fleur Model (1966)



2.6 SEVEN Cs OF EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Experts generally agree that there are 7 Cs of effective communication which are applicable to both written and oral communication. They are as follows:

a. **Completeness** – For communication to be complete, it must convey all facts required to the audience. The sender of the message must take into consideration the receiver's mind set and convey the message accordingly. A complete communication develops and enhances the reputation of an organisation; it is cost saving as no crucial information is missing that will require resending any other message that is missing in the first instance if the message is incomplete; it leaves no question in the mind of the receiver and it assists greatly in decision-making by the receiver or reader of the message as all that is required is given.

b. **Conciseness** – Conciseness deals with conveying the message in the least possible number of words without leaving any facts out. The message that is concise saves time as well as cost; it highlights the main message as it avoids using excessive and needless words; it provides the message in limited words; it is more appealing and comprehensible to the receiver of the message and it isnot repetitive in nature.

c. **Consideration** – Consideration implies 'stepping into the shoes of others." Communication should take into consideration the receiver's viewpoint, mind- set, education level, emotion and so on. Consideration emphasizes the "you" approach; empathizes with the receiver; it emphasizes what is possible as against what is impossible; lays stress on positive words that will endear the communicator to the receiver of his/her message.

d. **Clarity** – Clarity has to do with laying emphasis on a specific message at atime. This makes understanding very easy; it enhances the meaning of themessage and exact, appropriate and concrete words are made use of when the communicator wants to make his/her message clear.

e. **Concreteness** – Concreteness implies being particular and clear rather than being a general statement. Communication that is concrete is supported with facts and figures; uses words that build reputation and the message that isconcrete can never be misinterpreted.

f. **Courtesy** – Courtesy implies that the message that is being sent expresses the sender's respect for the receiver. The sender should be polite, reflective and enthusiastic. Courteous communication is positive and focuses on the receiver and it is not biased.

g. **Correctness** – Correctness implies the communication has no error of any kind, be it grammatical, semantic or phonological. Correct communication is exact and well-timed. It boosts the confidence level of the communicator and has greater impact on the receiver. It makes use of precision, accurate facts and figures, and appropriate and correct language.

2.7 BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Communication barriers are factors that may interfere with the effective implementation of the process and thereby affect its success. Barriers may distort messages or affect the recipient's understanding of the message. The recipient's understanding may not be the intended meaning. These barriers may disrupt the process when they occur between any two of the various stages of the process, although they may affect all stages of the process as well. The main communication barriers are as follows:

(a) Unclear aim or objective

This is a situation where the sender is unsure or unclear about the goal (aim) or the objective (the reason) of the message which he is encoding.

Ambiguity or lack of clarity will result in communication breakdown as the receiver is unlikely to respond as expected by the sender.

(b) Choice of wrong medium

Similarly, the choice of an unsuitable or wrong medium to convey the message could lead to a breakdown in the communication process. In the informal work-setting, for instance, information could be conveyed via several media, such as telephone, circulars, letters, notices and memoranda. Depending on the nature of the information and considering the likely consequences of possible misinterpretation, management could opt for a formal interaction in the form of workers' durbar or meeting to bring information to staff. Once the appropriate medium is chosen, theeffectiveness of the process and the chances of it eliciting the desired response are enhanced.

(c) Wrong timing

Timing of the message, as noted earlier, can be critical to the success of the communication process. In our traditional West African setting, the elders consider the very early hours of the day as the best period for the discussion of very important issues. This obviously is because of the possibility ofhaving the recipient's full attention at such a time and thereby enhancing the effectiveness of the process.

(d) Wrong choice of words

Words that are not carefully chosen can constitute a communication barrier to the receiver. This happens when words are too technical or too difficult and cannot, therefore, be easily decoded by the receiver. Words that appear too easy or too simple may also constitute a problem. It is necessary, therefore, for the sender to be able to assess the receiver in order to be able to choose the most suitable words for the message. This way, the sender ensures that the message achieves its goals.

(e) Meaning of words

Whereas the sender may choose words with a certain and clear meaning in mind, the words in actual fact may connote some other meaning as far as the receiver is concerned. When this happens, the sender and the receiver are at cross purpose as they both have different meanings of the message. Connotative meaning can also arise as a result of one's experiences, opinions, emotional status and interests. In order to obtain shared meaning required for words used, the sender should analyse the message being sent to be able to determine what likely connotations could arise as a result of the use of certain words.

(f) Environmental factors

The environment within which communication takes place can have an effect on the effectiveness of the process. A telephone call from a crowded market centre or from a moving vehicle on a busy motor way would obviously suffer from the effect of noise. Similarly, factors such as distance, room temperature, colour and the immediate physical environment can all affect theeffectiveness of the process. To achieve success, it is the sender's duty to endeavour to eliminate all environmental factors which in his opinion could have a negative impact on the communication process.

(g) Capability of the recipient

Physical disabilities of a recipient will have an obvious effect on the extent to which the recipient appreciates the intended meaning of a message. Hearing difficulties, for instance, are obvious situations that will constitute a barrier. It is important that the sender is able to take the receiver's capability into consideration in order to ensure effective communication.

(h) Pre-judgement

Past experiences, perceptions, anxiety and the state of expectancy of one's mind are likely to constitute a barrier. One major cause of a message not achieving the intended objective is that the receiver would, most of the time, "hear what he wants to hear." Where a person's mind is made up about an issue, it is possible for that person to have an appreciation of the implications of the message that is based on his own judgement, but which is different from the intended and/or actual meaning of the message.

(i) Relationships

Relationships, no doubt, affect the effectiveness of communication.When people have good relationships, the communication flow is greatly enhanced in the sense that hindrances such as hate, prejudiceand discrimination are eliminated.

(j) Information overload

In the workplace, managers and top executives are surrounded with a pool of information. The tendency is that too much information may be dished out to subordinates at a time such that the information becomes too heavy for the person(s) receiving it to handle. Because of this, the information may be misinterpreted or forgotten or overlooked. As a result, communication becomes ineffective.

(k) Information under-load

Information under-load is a situation in which an individual or asegment of an organisation is functioning below his or its processing capacity. A victim of information underload is being deliberatelystarved of information needed for optimal performance. Strikes by workers are usually linked with information under-load.

(l) Distractions/Noise

Communication is affected a lot by noise or distractions. Physical distractions such as poor lighting, uncomfortable sitting arrangement, and unhygienic environment also affect communication, for example, at a meeting. Similarly, the use of loud speakers may interfere with communication.

(m) Emotions

The emotional state, at a particular point in time, affects communication. For example, if the receiver feels that the communicator is angry, he may interpret the information being sent as very bad; whereas he may interpret the same message as good and interesting if he feels the communicator is happy.

(n) Poor retention

Human memory cannot function beyond a limit. It is difficult for a listener to retain what he is being told, especially if he is not interested or not attentive. Obviously this will lead to communication breakdown.

ILLUSTRATION 2.2

The level of attention that a company driver may pay to an instruction issued by his Director may not be the same as what occurs between a man and his wife. Inthe former example, because of the formal and official superior-subordinate relationship, the driver is likely to attach serious and urgent attention to the instruction. The latter relationship may, however, depict a much more relaxed situation between partners and thus reduce the level of urgency and attention paidto the message by the receiver.

2.8 BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE VISUAL COMMUNICATION

Poorly produced visual aids may not be efficient for learning. The following are some of the barriers to effective visual communication.

(a) **Inappropriate use** – either the aid does not do the job because it is wrongly conceived or because of physical limitations.

(b) **Over-use**– too many aids for the length of the presentation.

(c) **Misuse** – the aid fails to work when/as required.

(d) **Poor viewing conditions** – members of the audience may use too little/too much colour and be overcrowded; flip charts are often used to note down ideas from the audience to be drawn together by the presenter, only to be unreadable because of poor handwriting.

(e) **Cost of production** – Visuals are expensive and not easily affordable.

2.9 SUMMARY

Communication covers a six – element process spanning conception, encoding, channel, decoding, interpretation and feedback. For communication to be effective, a number of principles must be observed. These include: choice of words, clarity of purpose, selection of suitable media, listening attentively and intelligently, timing, standards and feedback. Communication is important for various reasons such as for the individual's personal good, job search, for efficient leadership, presentation in a workshop or seminar and also for promoting good relations. The final aspect of this chapter noted communication barriers such as noise, environmental factors, meaning of words, unclear aims/objectives, wrong choiceof medium, recipient capability and pre-judgement.

2.10 END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

2.10.1 MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. Which of the following is NOT an element of the communication process?

   A Feedback
   B Encoding
   C. Channel selection
   D. Recipient
   E. Conception

2. When encoding the message, which of the following may be overlooked?

   A. Language
   B. Symbol
   C. Sign
   D. Paradigm
   E. Vocabulary

3. An appropriate channel of communication is NOT dependent on

   A. Motorway
   B. Cost
   C. Distance
   D. Speed
   E. Convenience

4. ONE of the following is NOT the primary duty of a recipient of a message.

   A. Decoding
   B. Sending feedback
   C. Interpretation
   D. Encoding
   E. Understanding

5. Which of the following is NOT crucial for effective communication?

   A. Choice of words
   B. Clarity of purpose
   C. Giving evidence
   D. Effective listening
   E. Appropriate timing

2.10.2 SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. In transmitting feedback, the..........................becomes a sender
2. To decode a message correctly, the receipient must be conversant with the ....of the words used.
3. visual communication exploits the sense of ....
4. The choice of a wrong medium of transmission leads to ....

2.10.3 ESSAY

1. The communication process is important for the transmission of information in an organisation. However, problems may occur at the various points of the process which may render communication ineffective.
   State and explain briefly each of the parts and explain the problems which may occur therein.
2. Explain briefly any FIVE principles which you consider critical to the effectiveness of the communication process.

2.11 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

2.11.1 SOLUTIONS TO MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. D
2. D
3. A
4. D
5. C

2.11.2 SOLUTIONS TO SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. Receiver
2. Meaning
3. Sight
4. Misunderstanding
5. Barrier

2.11.3 SOLUTIONS TO ESSAY QUESTIONS

QUESTION 1

The communication process flows through six distinct points namely:

1. **Conception**

   The process starts with the conception of the message which may be involuntary and instantaneous; that is, it may not require any serious thought-out reasoning. Others may require a more structured reasoning and planning.

2. **Encoding**

   The encoding stage enables the sender to be able to put the idea or information conceived into the most suitable and appropriate form for example, words and phrases which are then transmitted to the recipient of the message. There is the need for the transmitter to plan the message effectively and take into consideration the needs of the recipient.

   The problems that can occur at this stage have to do with language.

   The language chosen by the transmitter can be too sophisticated with 'jargon' and technical terms to beat the understanding of the receiver of the message. Another problem may include information overload, whereby the transmitter sends too much information to the receiver, which he (the receiver) might not need.

3. Selection of suitable Channel

This is the stage that the transmitter of the message selects the suitable medium for the transmission of information. The common problem at this stage is the wrong selection of the appropriate channel. The transmitter might make the mistake of choosing the wrong channel without giving due consideration to the needs of the receiver. For example, the transmitter may choose the written medium to transmit his information, whilst in actual sense the receiver is an illiterate or semi-literate and reading is not part of his daily activities. In this situation, the oral medium would suffice for the effective transmission of his message.

4. Decoding

The decoding stage facilitates the interpretation of the message by the receiver. At this stage, the receiver can be affected by the problems of selective perception, where the message is interpreted, based on the understanding and perceptions of the receiver- whilst in actual sense, the transmitter meant the message to have a different meaning.

5. Interpreting the message

This is the level of assigning meaning to the code of the message received. Interpretation and decoding of any message, although quite related, are two distinct and separate phases of the process. There can only be effective and adequate understanding of the message received if the recipient is able to establish in his mind a one-to-one correspondence of meaning with the sender's intention. The sender's inability to ensure that the message is carefully encoded could lead to possible distortion of the message with the effect that the message may be interpreted in a completely different way from the originally- Intended meaning. It is important that the manner in which the sender delivers his message is done carefully and in such a way as not misinterpreted or misunderstood by the receiver.

6. Feedback

At this stage the receiver of the message sends a response to the original sender of the message about the receipt and understanding of the message. The problem that can occur at this stage is the refusal or inability of the recipient of the message to communicate his response to the sender. This can lead to a break in communication since the sender might find it difficult to make judgments as to whether o r n o t the message was understood as intended.

QUESTION 2

There are basic principles in ensuring that the communication process is successful.

Five principles critical to the effectiveness of the process are:

(a) Choice of Words

In order that the message sent elicits the right understanding and subsequently, response, it is imperative that the sender uses the most suitable and appropriate words. Different persons and different situations would require the use of particular words and it is the duty of the sender to appreciate these differences at all times in order for him to be able to choose the most suitable words in all cases. To be successful, the recipient's interests, attitudes, emotions and knowledge level must be considered.

(b) Clarity of purpose

It is necessary that the sender is clear, concise and straight to the point. This will remove all ambiguities and ensure that the message is received as intended and not misconstrued because of ambiguity and/or lack of clarity. The message must not be verbose and should be devoid of all irrelevant matters.

(c) Selection of the most suitable media

Choice of media for transmitting the message can impact on the effectiveness of the whole communication process. This is because factors such as distance, time, cost and sense of urgency may have varying degrees of effect on the media used. To ensure effectiveness, therefore, it is necessary that, in all circumstances, the most suitable media is selected for transmission.

(d) Timing Consideration

Timing consideration will always affect the effectiveness of the communication process. Different circumstances and times require that the message is encoded in a particular manner. This will obviously ensure effective understanding of the message as originally intended by the sender. It is for this reason that messages regarding bereavement, for instance, must be carefully handled such that they do elicit the right response rather than being influenced by the anguish and emotions of the recipient.

(e) Feedback

The communication process is not complete without feedback. In the absence of feedbacks; the sender may not know whether the message, as intended, has been understood. The inadequacies of the recipient, use of appropriate wording and timing considerations are but a few of the problems that can affect the effectiveness of the communication process and also the feedback from the process.

(f) Seven Cs of Effective Communication

Any of the seven Cs of effective communication which are completeness, conciseness, consideration, clarity, concreteness,courtesy and correctness may be used in conjunction with the other basic principles explained in (a) to (e) above.

CHAPTER 3

MEDIA OF COMMUNICATION

CHAPTER CONTENT

- Media of communication
- Differences among media of communication

3.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this chapter, you should be able to

- identify the media of communication;
- distinguish between different media of communication.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the media or methods for communicating a message are considered, bearing in mind the basic principle that the suitability or otherwise of the media chosen would either facilitate the achievement of the desired response or impair the whole process of communication. Also to be discussed are factors that determine the choice of a particular medium rather than another. A medium of communication simply refers to the means or method by which one intends to get a message acrossto the intended recipient. In practice, it may be prudent sometimes to use more than one medium. A notice in the office about punctuality to work would use the written communication. However, the same message could be reinforced verbally in a meeting, for instance. This way, we are sure the message would be adequately communicated for effective response. The main methods to be discussed will be verbal, and non-verbal and as well as written communication.

3.2 VERBAL COMMUNICATION

This is the type of communication that involves the use of s p o k e n words. This is also referred to as oral communication in that, in this instance, information is transmitted by word of mouth. Verbal communication is a two-way process involving two or more people proximate in space and time. Effective verbal communication requires communicators to possess good pronunciation skills, good articulation of words or syllables as well as competence in sentence structure. Verbal communication implies communication through words of mouth. It includes individuals conversing with each other, be it direct or telephone conversation. Speeches, presentations, discussions, interviews are all forms of verbal/oral communication. It is recommended when communication is of a temporary nature or where direct interaction is needed.

3.2.1 Forms of Verbal Communication

Verbal or oral communication maybe categorized into various forms such as:

(a) Interviews

This is often referred to as a two-party conversation with a specific purpose. Interviews are part of a system of handling problems or queries of individuals and allows for confidentiality and flexibility in responding to personal issues where necessary.Interviews are also principally used in the recruitment and selection process where job applicants are interviewed to determine their suitability for the positions they are applying for. Other forms of interviews include grievance and disciplinary interviews, appraisal interviews and exit interviews.

(b) Meetings

A meeting is defined as an assembly of people coming together in accordance with legally defined rules and procedures for the purpose of discussing the business of the group as required by law. Meetings may be convened within the organisation at any level. They may also be used to bring members of the organisation into contact with other organisations. Meetings are normally held for a number of purposes such as: provision of information to people who may require them, creation of involvement, participation and interest, discussion of ideas and problems for which members may be seeking solutions, provision of details of report and for purposes of co-ordinating an activity.

(c) Telephony

The telephone is one of the most common methods of verbal communication. In this instance, communication may take place between two or more parties and in different locations or within the organisation's premises. When appropriately used, this method of communication could be very effective as it provides immediate feedback and may be relatively less expensive. Other forms of verbal communication include oral presentationand public addresses.

ILLUSTRATION 3.1

Although telegraphy marked a great advance in rapid long-distance communication, early telegraphy systems could convey messages only by letter. The search was therefore, on for some means of voice communication by electricity as well. Early devices that appeared in the 1850s and 1860s were capable of transmitting sound vibrations but not true human speech. The first person to patent an electric telephone in the modern sense was the American inventor, Alexander Graham Bell, in 1876. At the same time, Edison was also in the process of finding a way to record and then reproduce sound waves, paving the way for the invention of the record player. By the late 20th century, such developments as transoceanic cable, fibre-optics, and satellite technology had revolutionised the use ofthe telephone. Mobile telephones …are increasingly in use.

(Adapted from Microsoft Encarta Encyclopaedia,2005).

3.2.2 Advantages of verbal communication

Among others, these are the advantages:

a. Since verbal communication is interpersonal, there is a high level of understanding and transparency.
b. There is no element of rigidity as there is flexibility because any of the parties involved can change the decision previously taken.
c. Because feedback is instantaneous, decisions are made quickly and without any delay.
d. It is time-saving as well as money and efforts-saving at times.
e. Conflicts, disputes and many issues and differences can be put to an end by talking them over. So, it is best for conflict resolution.
f. It is essential for group or team work.
g. It can be used to boost morale and encourage employees in an organisation.

3.2.3 Disadvantages of verbal communication

a. Verbal communication is not suitable, for example, in Business communication because such communication is formal.
b. Because of its informal nature, what is said can be denied because it is not documented.
c. Meetings, conferences and long speeches consume a lot of time and may be unproductive at times.

d. It is unpredictable as verbal communication is not easy to maintain.

3.3 NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Non-verbal communication involves the transfer of information form a transmitter to a receiver through the use of body language, facial expressions, symbols, dress and pictures. Non-verbal communication techniques are sometimes employed by communicators consciously and, at times, unconsciously. Non-verbal communication is an example of routine and non-routine communication. In this instance, each person involved in the communication process is a facilitator of non- verbal communication. Moreover, the various forms of diagrams, pictures, graphs and slides facilitate the effective transmission of non-verbal communication.

3.3.1 Types of Non-verbal Communication

Many writers use various categories to classify non-verbal communication. Non-verbal communication is classified as

(a) Body language (or Kinesics): This involves the movement of the body and may be divided into the following areas:

- *Facial expression:* Facial expression conveys meaning. A snarling face says something different from a smile. Facial expressions like smiles, frowns, narrowed eyes may be intended to transmit friendliness, anger or disbelief respectively.
- *Gestures:* This involves pointing fingers, shaking of the head to transmit and emphasise focus or disagreement.
- *Movements:* Quick pacing up and down, finger drumming, leisurely strolling may all transmit impatience, boredom or relaxation and are all non-verbal communication techniques which may be used to send messages.

(b) Proxemics: This involves how people use space and distance around them in communicating. A student who enters a lecture theatre and decides to sit in the back row instead of the front may be indicating his reluctance to be involved.

- *Positioning:* Keeping a respectful distance, looking over one's shoulder, sitting close to someone are all forms of using non-verbal cues to communicate. They transmit awareness of differing status, a close working relationship or relaxed mutual trust respectively.

- *Posture:* Standing straight and erect, lounging, sitting hunched up, leaning forward, spreading oneself in a chair are all means ofcommunicating non-verbally. These convey alertness and care, self- confidence (or even over confidence), nervousness or ease respectively.

(c) Paralinguistic features: Feedback sounds of surprise or agreement or annoyance or impatience, for example, "uh-u hooops!". A heightened awareness of what people are saying non-verbally would greatly assist the manager to read a situation and to act–perhaps toward-off a personality clash or to calm an irate customer. The use of tones, stress and intonation as non-verbal cues in oral communication is also important as such cues add emphasis to, or cause significant change in meaning in utterances.

(d) Personal Appearance: Physical appearance always contributes towards how people are perceived. For example, neatly dressed hair, ironed clothes and a lively smile can carry more weight in describing a person than the use of words.

3.3.2 Features of Non-Verbal Communication

The following summarise the important characteristics of non-verbal communication.

(a) Non-verbal communication can be unintentional. The sender may be unaware that he or she is sending non-verbal message and consequently, may not be aware of the impact it may have.

(b) Non-verbal communication may be more honest than a verbal one. Since the message may be transmitted unconsciously, the sender will not have planned it. Therefore a non-verbal message can be more reliable than an oral or a written one.

(c) Neither oral nor written communication exists without non-verbal communication. Examples of non- verbal messages being sent even when the communication may not be face-to- face include: tapping the phone receiver, loudly rearranging papers or keeping silent.

(d) Non-verbalcommunicationreinforcesoralcommunicationbyprovidingnon-verbal cues to emphasize what is being said orally.

(e) Non-verbal communication provides additional visual stimulus. The presence of diagrams enhances the quality of what is being communicated.

3.3.3 Advantages of Non-Verbal Communication

(a) Non-verbal communication can help the communicator to overcome language barriers.

(b) Non-verbal communication makes it possible for information to be conveyed to many audiences.

(c) Non-verbal communication may be more reliable, at times, than verbal or oral communication because it is mostly transmitted unconsciously.

(d) Non-verbal communication is always present because this form of communication is always associated with oral or written communication.

3.3.4 Disadvantages of Non-Verbal Communication

(a) Non-verbal communication can, at times, be difficult to interpret without reinforcing it with written or spoken word.

(b) Non-verbal communication may require additional skills of comprehension and interpretation.

(c) Non-verbal communication does not allow time for evaluation

3.4 WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

Written communication is a form of communication in which the information to be transmitted is documented. It includes letters, memoranda, fax transmission, electronic mails, and organisational periodicals. Since letters and memoranda arediscussed else wherein this pack, fax, e-mail and periodicals are discussed here:

(a) Fax transmission is an electronic means of sending an exact copy of a document by scanning it. In this case, a bonding is established between the sending and receiving machines. The sending machine first scans thedocument, converts it into data and thereafter, both machines start printing it out simultaneously at their respective locations. In recent times, this mode of transmission, which was initially done via telephone lines, has now been incorporated into computer systems.

(b) Electronic mail (e-mail) is the transmission of written messages via computers. It is also possible to transmit diagrams and photographs bye-mail. E-mail may be sent to one person or many people on a world-wide basis. Only one message is required for this purpose. E-mail takes less time to prepare and transmit andit is relatively cheap.

(c) Organisation journal/periodical

An organisation journal or periodical is an internal magazine or newspaper printed by the organisation to inform employees about various workplace issues.

3..41 Advantages of Written Communication

The following are advantages of written communication:

- It provides written record and evidence of receipt.
- It is capable of transmitting complex ideas.
- It provides analysis, evaluation and summary.
- It disseminates information to dispersed receivers.
- It can confirm, interpret and clarify oral communication.
- It serves as the basis of contract or agreement.
- It is more precise and explicit than oral communication
- It assists in the proper delegation of responsibilities.
- It is legally-binding

3.4.2 Disadvantages of Written Communication

The following are some of the disadvantages of written communication:

- It is expensive and takes time to produce.
- It tends to be formal and distant.
- It lacks instant feedback.
- It does not allow for exchange of opinions, viewer's attitudes except over a period of time.

3.5 VISUAL COMMUNICATION

In the context of business communication, visual communication refers to the transfer of information through diagrams, display boards, flip charts and other forms of visual aids. Visual aids exploit sight, which assists the human memory and therebystimulates the business person's level of understanding. In business communication, certain difficult processes are made easy through the use of visual aids.

3.5.1 Types of Visual Aids

(a) ***The White Board:*** White board, which is used with markers, is common in every classroom and it is now the most accessible visual support. This board can be used for drawing very simple diagrams. Once the diagram or the drawing is on the board, the presenter should turn to facilitating effective explanation.

(b) ***Objects and Models:*** In certain instances, real objects are used for presentations because the audience may want to see them. Models, on the other hand, are replicas of actual objects which facilitate effective learning when the real objects are too complex to be exhibited physically. Examples include models of aircraft, cars or buildings.

(c) ***Posters, Diagrams and Charts:*** A poster consists of lettering or pictures or both. The purpose of poster is to enhance the speaker's presentation. A diagram may range from a simple organisational chart to a complex rendering of a three- dimensional object. Diagrams are particularly valuable in showing how something works. A flip chat is a series of pictures, words, diagrams. It is called a flip chart because it is made up of several pages that you flip through. A flip chart is best used when the subject to be discussed needs illustrations.

(d) ***Tables and Graphs:*** Tables are columns of figures arranged in an order that enables the viewer to easily pick out the information needed. Graphs are statistical materials presented in a visual form that helps viewers see similarities, differences, relationships or trends.There are three commonly used graphs namely bar, pie and line.

(d) ***Strips and Slide Projectors:*** These are media that use film strips. Generally both slides and strips project images unto a screen and require a darkened room. This situation makes it difficult for the presenter to maintain eye contact with the audience and for the audience to make notes. The media It can be operated by remote control, which allows the presenter to move around.

(f) ***Overhead Projectors (OHP):*** Overhead projectors show images through a transparent material (acetate film) projected unto a screen behind the operator. No blackout is required though in brightly-lit rooms, images may become faint. This situation gives the presenter the great advantage of facing his audience while writing or showing a transparency and thus retain is his rapport with them.

(g) ***Video Tapes / Video Cassette Recorders**:* The recent development in video equipment has made video recorders almost as common place as a television set. Their familiarity has made them ideal to facilitate effective learning. For one to be an effective user of the video cassette recorder (VCR), it is worth checking that one is conversant with the equipment. Apart from picture control and sound quality one must be able to control the visual image through the fast forward, rewind and freeze-frame buttons. For presentations, the television monitor should be positioned so that it is visible and the screen is not affected by excess light or shadow. In most organisations, the system is mounted on wheels and is easily manoeuvred.

3.5.2 Function of Visual Aids

(a) They can show how things look.

(b) They can show how things work.

(c) They can show how things relate to one another.

(d) They can emphasize important points.

3.6 SUMMARY

A medium of communication refers to the means or methods by which one intends to get a message across to the intended recipient. A number of media have been considered in this chapter on the basis of the two broad methods i.e. verbal and non-verbal communication. The medium chosen for the transmission of a message must be suitable for the purpose in order that it (the medium) can facilitate the process. Where unsuitable media are employed, the process of transmission may be gravely impaired. The various forms, of visual aids and their advantages and disadvantages have been discussed. Briefly, verbal or oral communication occurs in situations where the information to be transmitted is done by word of mouth. Verbal communication may be transmitted through media such as interviews, meetings, telephone, oral presentation, and also through the use of public address systems.

Non-verbal communication involves the transfer of information from a transmitter to a receiver through a number of media some of which are body language, facial expressions, symbols, pictures etc.

In written communication, the information to be transmitted is documented. Forms of written communication may include letters, memorandia, fax transmissions, electronic mails, organisation's periodicals etc.

3.7 END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

3.7.1 MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. ONE of the following is NOT a feature of verbal communication.

    A. Paper
    B. Words
    C. Pronunciation
    D. Articulation
    E. Syllables

2. Which of the following is NOT an example of verbal communication?
    A. Telephone
    B. Meeting
    C. Writing
    D. Interview
    E. Conversation

3. Which of the following is NOT primarily associated with non-verbal communication?
    A. Body language
    B. Facial expression
    C. Symbol
    D. Picture
    E. Conversation

4. Which of the following suggests 'patience'?

    A. Smiling
    B. Pacing up and down
    C. Finger drumming
    D. Strolling
    E. Whistling

5. ONE of the following is an advantage of non-verbal communication.
    A. Overcoming language barriers
    B. More reliable in comparison to verbal communication
    C. Inaccessible to non-natives
    D. Accessible to non-natives
    E. Available for communication.

3.7.2 SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. Communication may be verbal or_______________.
2. Kinesics is also known as___________________.
3. E-mail is primarily a form of_________communication.
4. A___________aid for information dissemination depends on sight.
5. Facial expression is a form of___________language.

3.7.3 ESSAY

1. Explain briefly THREE types of verbal communication.
2. Explain briefly the following;
   a. The white board
   b. Tables and graphs
   c. Stripes and slide projectors

3.8 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

3.8.1 SOLUTIONS TOMULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. A
2. C
3. E
4. A
5. C

3.8.2 SOLUTIONS TOSHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. non-verbal
2. body language
3. written
4. visual
5. body

3.8.3 SOLUTIONS TO ESSAY QUESTIONS

QUESTION 1

There are three types of verbal communication

a. Meetings

Meetings are the gathering together of two or more people to discuss matters of common interest for the purpose of taking appropriate decisions or formulating policies. Meetings can be formal, informal, or statutory. Meetings are normally held for specific purposes such as:

i. provision of information to people
ii. discussion of ideas and problems to arrive atsolutions
iii. coordination of activities in an organisation

Meetings are normally governed by rules laid down by the authority convening the meeting. The leader of a meeting is referred to as the chairman while the record keeper is known as the secretary.

b. Interview

An interview is a face-to-face conversation which attempts to elicit as much information as possible from a person or persons within the shortest time possible. In business, interviews are used for different purposes such as:

i. staff recruitment
ii. disciplinary matters
iii. grievances and complaints
iv. management/staff relations

The interview procedure helps in all matters to discover as much information as possible that will guarantee appropriate decision making.

c. Telephony

The telephone is one of the most common methods of verbal communication. It connects people at great distances apart. Immediate feedback, as in face-to- face communication, is a hallmark of this type of communication. The mobile phone and the video phone are a great technological improvement that make the type adorable.

QUESTION 2

(a) The white board

The white board has come to replace the conventional blackboard as a visual aid during presentations. It is guided by the principle of easily erasable materials through the use of its specialised markers which come in different colours. The presenter can, therefore, quickly draw very simple diagrams, write simple notes and explain them and replace them at will.

(b) Tables and graphs

Whereas tables are columns of figures arranged in a specific order to facilitate a viewer's accessibility to data, graphs are statistical materials that present data pictorially in order to show similarities, differences, relationships and trends. Both tables and graphs are very useful visual aids during presentations, facilitating the bonding between the presenter and his audience.

(c) Strips and slide projectors

Both strips and slide projectors use the mechanism of film strips in serving as visual aids during presentations. Although quite effective in facilitatingthe communication link between the presenter and his audience, strips and slide projectors share the hindrance of being restricted to a specific environment: a darkened room. Nonetheless, the presenter usually has the liberty to move aroundthe room since the mechanism can be controlled remotely.

CHAPTER 4

SYSTEMS OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMUNICATION

CHAPTER CONTENT

- Systems of communication
- The importance of systems of communication
- Informal communication system
- Barriers to organisational communication and their solutions

4.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this chapter, you should be able to

- describe the different systems of communication;
- explain the importance of the systems of communication;
- describe the barriers to organisational communication and ways of overcoming such barriers.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Communication, in well-developed organisations, may take various forms and patterns. In this chapter, the various patterns that may be at play in any standard organisation such as formal, vertical, horizontal, diagonal and also informal systems are discussed. Also to be discussed are the factors that facilitate these different patterns. The chapter also discusses barriers to organisational communication and what measures could be adopted to overcome such barriers.

4.2 FORMAL COMMUNICATION SYSTEM

Formal systems of communication, in the organisation setting, are the types of communication which pass through the official channels in the organisation. In this case, the flow of communication is always backed by some degree of authority.

ILLUSTRATION 4.1

For example, if the Chief Executive Officer originates a written memorandum for his departmental heads convening a crisis meeting, this may be referred to as formal communication. Through formal communication systems, the organisation disseminates all forms of policies, directives and instructions and guidelines for implementation.

This form of communication is very successful because of the authority that backs it up and the possibility of applying sanctions in case of non-compliance.

4.3 THE VERTICAL COMMUNICATION SYSTEM

The vertical system of communication in an organisation refers to the principalchannel for routing directives and policies from top decision makers down throughthe organisational structure to the people who, at various levels, will be required to implement them.

All forms of ideas, suggestions, criticisms and queries that originate from superior levels in the organisation may be referred to as vertical communication and may be grouped as either downward or upward direction.

4.3.1 Downward Communication

Communication that flows from superiors to their subordinates is referred to as downward communication. The downward flow of communication is the most common in organisations. It may take the following forms:

- Job Instructions: These are directives about what to do and how to do it. For example, "Please make sure all the salary vouchers are compiled before the close of the day."
- Procedures and practices: These are information about rules, regulations, policies and benefits. For example, "Don't try to argue with unhappy customers. If you can't handle them yourself, call the manager."
- Point out problems that need attention: e.g. a manager raising an issue about the non-performance of particular accounting software in the organisation database system.
- Feedback: The manager can also provide information about how effective a subordinate is performing.

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4.3.2 Upward Communication

Information flowing from subordinates to superiors is referred to as upward communication. To the organisation, upward communication is as important as downward communication.

Upward flow of communication may take the following forms:

(a) Information of the subordinate about himself, his performance, his problems and grievances.

(b) Information about other subordinates and their problems.

(c) Suggestion about what needs to be done and how it could be done.

(d) Report on what has been done.

(e) Feedback about the subordinate and may include some of the issues listed above. What should be noted is that managers rely on upward communication for ideas and how things can be improved.

4.4 THE HORIZONTAL COMMUNICATION SYSTEM

Horizontal communication also called lateral communication is communication which occurs between people who operate at the same or similar levels in the organisation Communication between and among members or office workers in the same department, co-workers on a construction project are obvious examples of horizontal communication. Horizontal communication occurs at all levels of an organisation and is generally marked by the increased frankness and ease with which groups at similar levels, peer groups communicate. They are less affected or inhibited by the chain of command situation which employees tend to experience when communicating with superiors. Horizontal communication saves time and facilitates coordination in the organisation. Horizontal communication serves five purposes namely

- Task coordination as in a situation where officers on the same level come together to produce, say, time-table of production or shift duties.
- Problem solving that is, the ability of organisation members to speed things up so as to get problem(s) solved with minimum efforts.
- Sharing information that will enhance employee performance.
- Conflict resolution.
- Building rapport among employees.

Despite the importance of good horizontal communication system several forces work to discourage communication between and among peers.The following should be taken note of:

- Rivalry: People who feel threatened by one another are not likely to be cooperative. This threat can come from competition for promotion, praise, or other scarce resources.
- Specialisation: Another problem that inhibits horizontal communication is specialisation. Here, people with different technical specialities may find it difficult to understand one another.
- Information overload: This can also discourage employees from reaching out to others in different areas.
- Motivation: Lack of motivation may prevent co-workers from having effective

lateral communication in the organization.

4.5 DIAGONAL COMMUNICATION SYSTEM

The diagonal system of communication is a combination of vertical and horizontal systems, linking individuals or members of an organisation who are ordinarily not within the same lines of duty. When, for instance, a labour leader is contacted by a manager to resolve the issue of a sacked employee, the correspondence between them may be regarded as diagonal communication.

4.6 INFORMAL COMMUNICATION SYSTEM

Informal Communication is the casual and unofficial form of communication wherein information is exchanged spontaneously between two or more persons withoutconforming to the prescribed official rules, processes, system, formalities and chain of command. It based on personal or informal relations such as friends, peers, family, club members, etc. and thus is free from the organizational conventional rules and other formalities. It is characterized by an indefinite channel of communication, which means there is no definite chain of command through which the information flows. Hence, the information can flow from anywhere. Often such communication arises out of the social relations that an individual creates with other persons on the basis of common interest, likings or disliking. It is direct, spontaneous and flexible. It is personal, unofficial, and mostly verbal. It may overlap routes, levels or positions. It is referred to as the 'grapevine' which indicates informal means of circulating information. The purpose of informal communication includes sharing of information, establishing personal contacts, making friendship, influencing and motivating others, resolving conflicts, supplementing official channels, getting relaxation, searching escape from monotony of work, etc. In the business context, informal communication is called **"the grapevine"** as it is difficult to define the beginning and the end of the communication.

4.6.1 Types of informal communication network

There are **four** types of **Informal Communication network** that show how the communication is facilitated, i.e. how the informal communication passes from person to person. These are:

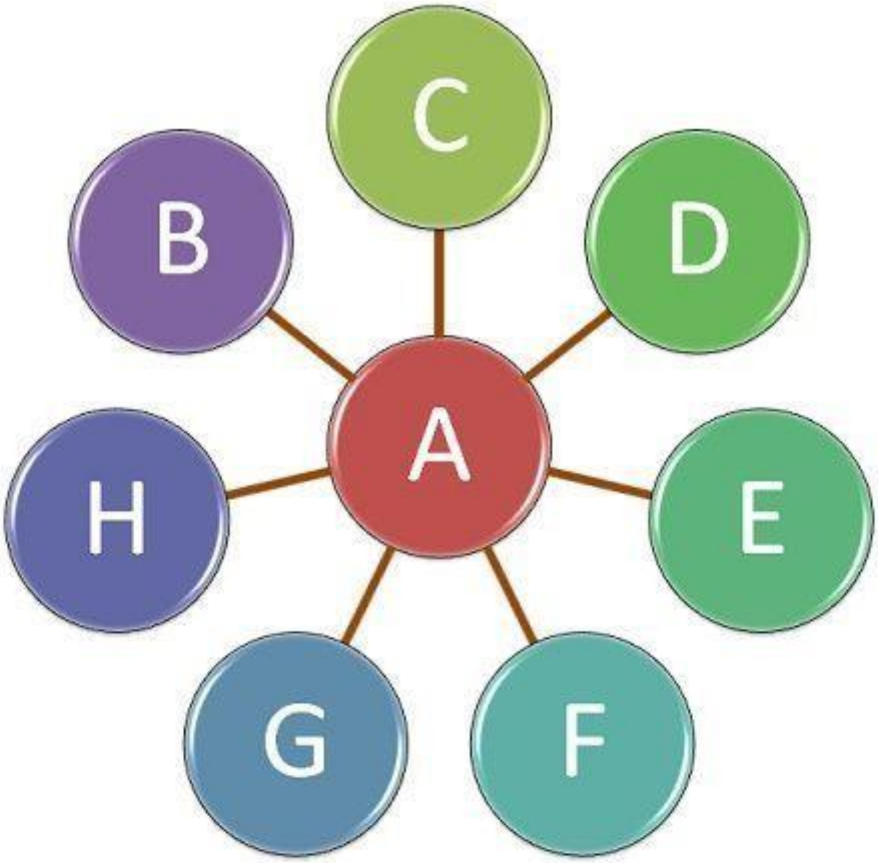
1. Single Strand Chain
2. Gossip Chain
3. Probability Chain
4. Cluster Chain

(A) Single Strand Network

Under this communication pattern, the information flows from one person to the next person in the network. Such as, one person will give information to another person who will communicate it to the next person and similarly the third person will also communicate the same message to the next person in the network and so on. This type of chain is less reliable and accurate to pass on the message. Here, the communication process is linear

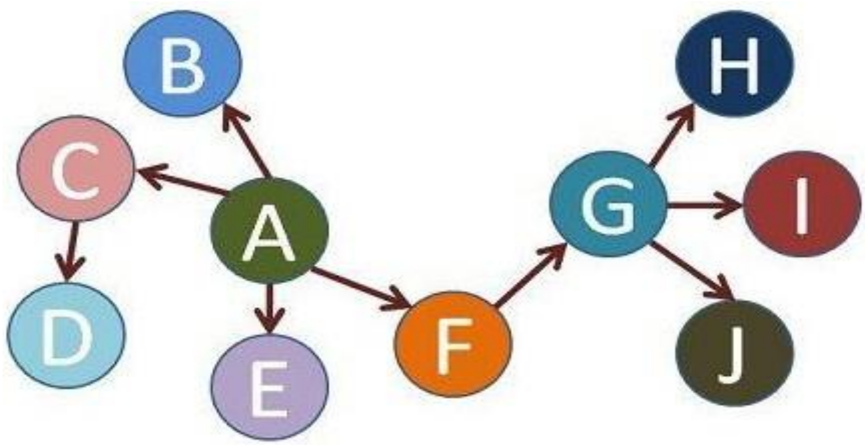
(B) Gossip Chain Network

In the gossip chain network, there is an individual who tells the message to all other members in the network directly. He is generally the central person who seeks out and transmits information that he has obtained. Here, every person inthe network communicates with the others informally. This network is often used when the subject matter is unrelated to the nature of the job. It may be illustrated as follows:



(C) Probability Chain

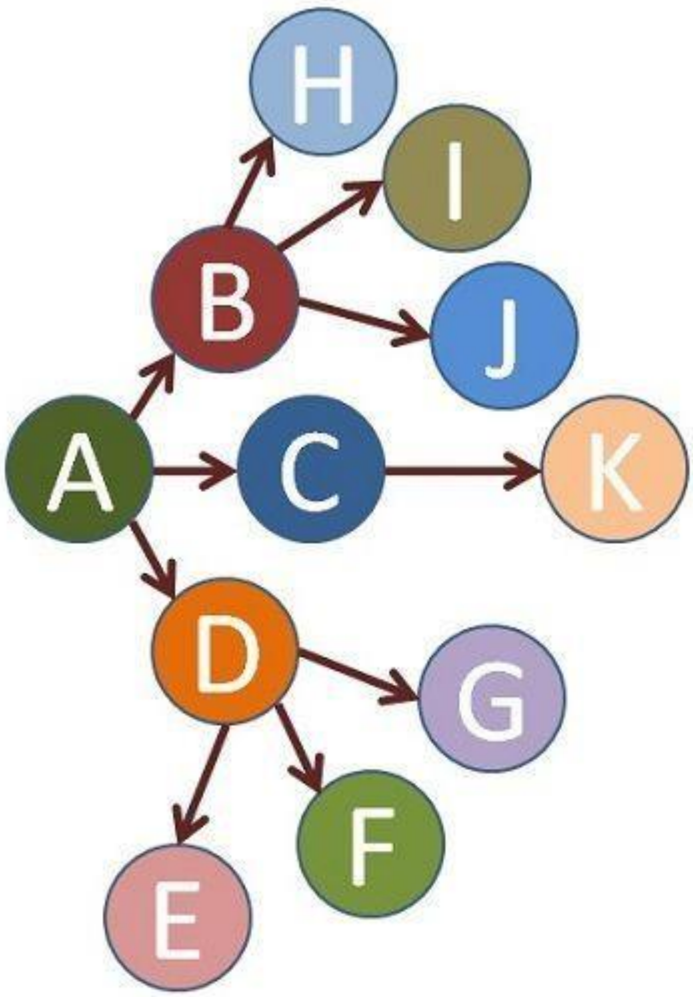
It is a random process in which information may move from one person to any other person or persons according to law of probability. Naturally, in this type of communication, some people of the organisation will be informed and someothers will remain outside the arena of the communication. The information flows to different people chosen randomly. The source of information for each member of the network is different. This chain is used when information is interesting but of little importance. It is illustrated below:



(D) Cluster Chain

Cluster chain is the mostly used and dominant pattern of the grapevine. In thistype one person tells something to some selected trust worthy persons. Some of these persons may inform a few selected other individuals. Here in the picture, A tells some selected and trustworthy persons, B, C and D. B again relays it to his selected persons, H, I and J. C tells K, a person of his choice. D tells it to E, F and G

So, in this network, there is an individual who acts as a source of a message, transmits information to the pre-selected group of individuals out of whom few individuals again tell the same message to other selected group of individuals. Likewise, the chain continues, and the message reaches to all in the network. This pattern is similar to the telephone tree, wherein one person calls other two persons, then these two persons call other three persons and again these three persons are expected to call other three persons. Likewise, this is how information gets transmitted to all persons connected to a telephone network. It is the most common form of informal communication network.



4.6.2 Channels Used in Informal Communication

Informal Communication is conveyed through verbal and gestural means in all directions with the help of the following media:

i. Personal conversation and gossip;

ii. Unofficial discussion;

iii. Spontaneous advice and suggestion;

iv. Facial expression;

v. Body movement;

. vi. Silence, etc.

4.6.3 Importance of Informal Communication

Informal communication is an indispensable part of the entire communication system. Formal communication is comparable to the arteries of a living being, whereas, the grapevine or informal communication is like veins. The latter is a supplement to the former. Where formal communication fails to operate, the grapevine or informal communication comes in handy.

Sometimes, the grapevine is more effective than formal communication. In fact, it has the capacity to carry more information than formal communication. Not only may the volume of the information carried be large, it could also be important and vital.

In an organization, small groups of people work together. It is quite natural that they will become interested in one another and want to know various information regarding one another's service condition, salary, facilities available, appointment, retirement, transfer, punishment, etc.

They will also be interested in knowing any private, secret and confidential information which includes any romantic affairs, family disputes, marriage status, as well as the birth of a child, examination results of their children, special treatment or favour by boss to any member of staff and so on.

The employees generally exchange their views with their peers openly during lunch break or at intervals and get emotional relief from monotony and stress at work. Thus, informal communication promotes social relationships among the participants. It helps to build up unity, integrity and solidarity among them and boosts their morale.

Informal communication or the grapevine, is faster than formal communication. Being oral in nature, it has little or no cost and can reach a maximum number of people irrespective of their positions within a very short time.

Since there are no official procedure and formalities, the grapevine is not binding and compelling, rather it is flexible and spontaneous. The managers can get feedback from their subordinates quickly on the plan and policies through the grapevine. New ideas, suggestions, opinions may come out as people can express their feelings without fear.

4.6.4 Characteristics of Informal Communication

Informal communication has the following characteristics:

i. It is based on informal relationships;
ii. It grows spontaneously;
iii. It takes the form of gossip;
iv. It is conveyed through conversation, facial expression, body movement, silence, and so on;
v. It does not follow any structured route or channel;
vi. Small groups are formed with like-minded people in such communication:
vii. It is direct and fast; and
viii. It is flexible and dynamic in nature.

4.6.5 Advantages of Informal Communication

The advantages of informal communication are:

i. Informal communication, being unofficial and personal, encourages a feeling of togetherness and promotes social relationships among the participants;
ii. Flow of information is fast and is suitable for emergencies;
iii. New ideas, suggestions, opinions may come out through such communication as people can express their feelings without fear;
iv. It can create an atmosphere congenial for work as the relationship between the managers and the employees improves;
v. Information regarding reaction of the workers, attitude of the employees of other departments, intention of peer officers is collected through informal communication.
vi. Informal communication supplements formal communication to fulfill the objective of the organisation;
vii. Sharing of information in a free atmosphere makes the picture clear, bringing out the hidden dimension of the management, if any. It puts an end to misunderstanding and suspicion;
viii. It is an outlet of expression of complaints, dis-likings, grievances, etc.;
ix. The chances of misunderstanding between management and employees become less as employees can speak openly because of the free atmosphere;
x. Communicating informally is effective as information flows easily and the channels are usually active.

4.6.6 Disadvantages/Limitations of Informal Communication:

Informal Communication has the following disadvantages or limitations:

i. Inaccurate, incomplete and half true information are spread through informal communication as everybody interprets it in his/her own way;
ii. In most cases, it is emotional and full of sentiments which can change the meaning of the information being conveyed;
iii. No one can be held responsible as it is not possible to find out the source of the wrong or half-true information in the case on an enquiry;

iv. It is not reliable. Information obtained through informal communication cannot be depended upon as it does not follow any norm and it is too loose a system. No decision can be taken, based on such communication;

v. It spreads rumours and may endanger consolidation and unity of the organisation;

vi. It creates conflicts between groups by spreading rumours against them and reducing their mental strength;

vii. Informal communication often distorts information and gives rise to speculation.

4.6.7 Difference between Formal and Informal Communication

Both formal and informal communication are integral parts of a business organisation. In spite of their usefulness, there are some important points of difference between them. These include, among others:

i. **Accountability:** There is no accountability during the flow of information in informal communication whereas every person is held accountable for any information he shares in a formal communication process.

ii. **Channels:** The channels used in informal communication include unofficial discussion, gossip, suggestions, and personal conversation whereas formal communication is all about formal discussion, facts and professional discussion.

iii. **Organisational consequences:** Management cannot take action against any information that they may receive via informal communication but there are legal and organizational consequences for wrongful information passed through formal communication.

iv. **Flow of information:** Information spreads at a faster rate in case of informal communication than formal communication.

v. **Structure:** A vital difference between formal and informal communication is that the former follows a structured channel whereas the latter is unstructured.

vi. **Control:** Keeping a check on formal communication is easy whereas informal communication cannot be controlled.

vii. **Nature:** Formal communication is rigid and inflexible in nature whereas informal communication is dynamic and flexible in nature.

vii. **Perceived position:** Informal communication is considered carefree and casual whereas formal communication may be seen as distant and cold.

ix. **Friendly or Rigid Position:** A major difference between formal and Informal communication is that the latter is considered friendly and creates a sense of belonging in the company whereas the former maintains the rigidity of positions and thus cannot be termed as friendly.

x. **Official or Unofficial status:** Informal communication is unofficial and casual with an unlimited channel of communication and often does not adhere to any chain of command whereas formal communication follows a prescribed system, organizational rules, conventional formalities and chain of command.

xi. **Rate of Spread:** A major difference between formal and informal communication is that the former spreads at a slow rate, whereas the latter is quick and fast.

xii. **Secrecy:** There is an element of secrecy during formal communication whereas it is difficult to maintain full secrecy in informal communication.

xiii. **Clarifying Things:** In informal communication, one person can reach out to another even if he is at a leadership or management position to clarify things whereas this is impossible in a formal communication as all employees will have to follow a chain of command and use the prescribed channels to sort out issues and clarify things.

xiv. **Reliability:** Formal communication is considered reliable whereas informal communication is less reliable.

xv. **Process time:** Informal communication requires little process time whereas formal communication is a time-consuming process where every angle has to be verified beforehand.

xvi. **Conflict Resolution:** During informal communication, the chance of conflict resolution is high whereas in a formal communication process it becomes very difficult to sort out issues especially if the conflict involves persons in management and leadership positions

xvii. **Understanding:** There is a lack of understanding in a formal communication process because people in high positions do not want to be bothered by employees at a lower level whereas it is not so in informal communication. As every employee can talk and freely mix at all levels.

Here, it is easy to develop an environment and culture of understanding among employees at all levels and positions.

4.7 BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Barriers to effective organisational communication refer to all forms of impediments that may hinder the successful flow of communication in the organization. A number of barriers can retard or distort effective communication. Some of these barriers are discussed below.

(a) Language

Words mean different things to different people. Age, education and cultural background are three of the variables that can influence the language a person uses and the definitions he gives to words.

In an organization, employees come from diverse backgrounds and this can have an effect on the use and understanding of language. Even where all employees speak a common language like English, the interpretation can lead to language barrier. The English word "family", for example, may be interpreted differently based on the individual's background. In the United Kingdom or United States, family refers to one's immediate parents or one's wife and children. In Africa and certain European and Latin American countries, however, family refers to one's immediate parents plus aunties and uncles and grandparents and cousins. One should also not forget that technical jargons can mean different things. Senders tend to assume that the words and terms they choose mean the same to the receiver as they do to them.

(b) Selective Perception

This refers to a situation where people selectively interpret what they see or hear on the basis of their interest, background, experience and attitude. Selective perception allows people to quickly draw conclusions about others, based on a restricted number of stimuli that are of interest to the observer. As a result, prejudice and other shortcomings may creep in.

(c) Information overload

Information overload is a condition by which information inflow exceeds an individual's processing capacity. When there is too much information, the result is less effective communication this is because individuals will elect, ignore, gloss over or forget some information.

(d) Emotion

Emotion refers to how a person feels at the time of receipt of a piece of information. How a person feels will influence how information is interpreted. Extreme emotions such as jubilations or depression are most likely to hinder effective communication.

(e) Noise

Noise is anything that distracts the attention of the sender or receiver from receiving information. Physical, psychological, technical or social noise is any form of noise that occurs in the communication process which impedes the effective transmission and reception of communication.

(f) Filtering

This refers to a situation where a sender purposely manipulates information, so that it will be seen more favourably by the receiver. For example, when a manager tells his boss what he (the boss) wants to hear. Factors such as fear of conveying bad news and desire to please one's boss often lead communicators to filter information.

(g) Cultural Differences

As a matter of reality, individuals in one social group may have different norms, values or behaviours that vary from individuals in an other social group. Here cultural differences and, for that matter, communication difficulties will emerge as soon as communicators encounter each other.

(h) Lack of Feedback

Most communicators find it difficult to communicate their responses back to the original sender of information. When this happens, communication ineffectiveness will emerge because the sender might not know whether or not the message has been received and fully understood.

ILLUSTRATION 4.2

To deliver your message effectively, you must break down the barriers that exist in each of the stages of the communication process.

Let us begin with the message itself. If your message is too lengthy, disorganised, or contains errors, you can expect he message to be misunderstood and misinterpreted. Use of poor verbal and body language can also confuse the message.

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

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

(Adapted from Mind Tools.com).

4.8 OVERCOMING BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Communication is now perceived to be the most important determinant in organisational success. As a result, communicators should strive to eliminate all forms of hindrances that may prevent the effective functioning of the communication process. The underlisted steps will be of immense help in reducing, if not eliminating, the barriers to effective communication in organisations.

(a) Expanding the basis of communication to include feedback

Effective communication requires the receiver to send a feedback to the sender. Sometimes managers feel that two-way communication is unnecessary. However, various studies comparing one-way to two-way communication systems have concluded that information is transferred more accurately when there is a feedback.

(b) Proper use of Language

Communicators should use language that will be understood by those involved in the communication process. Communicators should try and modify the language they use to minimise the difficulties in interpreting the message sent. Here simple words, for example, should be preferred to using high sounding words.

(c) Improving Listening Skills

Many people find listening to be a difficult and agonising exercise and are more often than not impatient. It is, however, necessary that one pays close attention to what the other is saying in order to improve understanding.

(d) Practising Empathy

Empathy is identification with another person's perspective. Carl E. Rogers has suggested that an interesting technique for improving communication is through the practice of empathy. Effective communication, therefore, requires that the listener understands exactly what others mean and theperspective from which they speak. It should, therefore, be noted that empathy is an important ingredient for the efficient functioning of the organisational communication system.

(e) Following Basic Communication Guidelines

Various guidelines have been suggested for improving a organisation's communication practices. Some standard guidelines include:

- Eliminating ambiguities: It is important that senders make their communication as precise and straight to the point as possible so as to minimise the number of possible misinterpretations.
- Using proper follow-ups: Follow-up is necessary in some cases when communication takes place. Certain situations require managers to follow a verbal instruction with a written memorandum confirmingspoken or discussed details.
- Timing of messages: Generally, the timing of some communication is vital. It is necessary that management schedules such communication, so as to avoid noise in the communication channel and the environment.

4.9 SUMMARY

This chapter has done a detailed discussion of various communication patternsin organisations. Formal system of communication is the official means and procedures employed in communicating in organisations. This kind of communication should always be backed by some degree of authority. Vertical system of communication refers to the principal channel for routing directives and policies from top decision makers through the organization's hierarchy to people who are required to implement them. The chapter also discussed downward communication as the type through which communication flows from superiors to subordinates. This appears to be the most common flow of communication in organizations. Upward communication refers to a flow of information from subordinates to superiors, whereas diagonal communication cuts across conventional operational lines.

The horizontal system of communication, which may also be referred to as lateral communication, which occurs among people who operate at the same or similar levels in an organization has been discussed too. Informal communication systems form a large portion of organizational communication patterns. Systems such as the grapevine, rumours, gossips and unintended comments all constitute types of informal communication.

Communication, in general, is always hindered by certain factors that do not facilitate the process. Among others, the following barriers of effective organisational communication have been discussed: language, perception, information overload, emotion, cultural differences and lack of feedback. For the process to be effective these barriers must be managed and a number of measures have been suggested for this purpose.

4.10 END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

4.10.1 MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. Which of the following is NOT an official channel of communication in an organisation?

   A. Memo
   B. Newsletter
   C. Circular
   D. Rumour
   E. Query

2. Which of the following may NOT be accomplished through vertical communication?

   A. Problem solving
   B. Task coordination
   C. Conflict resolution
   D. Camaraderie
   E. Directives

3. ONE of the following is NOT a facilitator of the vertical system of communication.

   A. Superior officers
   B. Subordinates
   C. Supervisors
   D. Visitors
   E. Low-cadre staff

4. Horizontal system of communication takes place between or among

   A. Equals
   B. Superiors and Subordinates
   C. Subordinates alone.
   D. Superiors alone
   E. Superiors and equals.

5. ONE of the following is NOT associated with informal communication?

   A. Grapevine
   B. Rumour

C. Newsletter
D. Gossips
E. Comments

4.10.2 SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. Within an organisation, the informal route used to disseminate unconfirmed information is called____________.

2. Lateral communication within an organisation is more commonly known as _______________.

3. Any impediment to the free flow of information within an organization is usually referred to as_.

4. A receiver communicates his response to the sender through__________.

5. Downward and upward flows of information are both instances of ___________ communication.

4.10.3 ESSAY

1. Examine briefly any FOUR factors which indicate a breakdown of formal communication systems.
2. It has been established that the grapevine is one of the key aspects of informal communication systems in organizations.
   Explain briefly what the grapevine is as an informal communication system and how a manager might use the grapevine for the benefit of the organization.

4.11 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

4.11.1 SOLUTION TO MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. D
2. D
3. D
4. A
5. C

4.11.2 SOLUTIONTOSHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. grapevine
2. horizontal communication
3. barrier
4. feedback
5. vertical

4.11.3 SOLUTIONS TO ESSAY QUESTIONS

QUESTION 1

Indications that the formal system of communication has broken down would include the following:

Loss of coordination

If organisational objectives and the needs of clients are not being met, the system may show signs of lack of communication between the various functional units.

Conflict

Lack of communication and consequent loss of coordination commonly leads to conflict, misunderstanding, the apportionment of blame, etc. Full scale industrial dispute can emerge if a minor conflict is not quickly resolved.

A growth in grapevine communication

Rumour and gossip may flourish even where the formal communication system is healthy, but becomes increasingly subversive, inaccurate and damaging where there is no formal communication to counter act it. Interpersonal conflicts, signs of demotivation and hostility towards the organisation will tend to appear.

Loss of motivation

All the above, added to lack of job satisfaction that poor communication fosters, create motivation problems. Demotivation may appear in the form of absenteeism, high staff turnover, stress related illnesses and so on.

QUESTION 2

The grapevine refers to the organisation's informal communication system that is totally unofficial and which changes constantly. The grapevine has three characteristics. First it is not controlled by management. Second, it is perceived by most employees as being more believable than formal communiqués issued by top management. And third, it is largely used to serve the self-interests of the people propagating it.

Propagators of the grapevine find their material in the form of confidential letters left unattended on desks; accidental, careless remarks and sudden changes in established routines and practices.

The grapevine flourishes more particularly in organisations in which communication channels are more closed than open.

It appears that the grapevine is much preferred by employees because it is particularly used for translating formal communication into their group's own jargon. Managers might benefit from the grapevine because it is from time- to-time used by them as a means of disseminating a message they chose to endorse openly.

Secondly, the grapevine might benefit managers because it gives them the feel for the morale of their organisation, identifies issues that employees consider relevant and helps tap into employee anxieties. Thirdly, the grapevine acts both as a filter and a feedback mechanism, picking up issues that employees consider important.

CHAPTER 5

INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

CHAPTER CONTENT

- Elements of interpersonal communication
- Features of oral communication
- Attitudes and the communication process
- Types and sources of organisational conflict

5.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this chapter, you should be able to

- explain the elements of interpersonal communication;
- identify the features of oral communication;
- explain attitudes and their impact on the communication process;
- identify the different types of organizational conflict and their sources;

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Interpersonal communication is the term applied to the verbal and non-verbal interaction in a one-on-one or small-group setting. “People skills and soft skills” are terms often used to describe someone’s interpersonal abilities.

Interpersonal communication is a cornerstone in what social scientists refer to as the communication climate the quality of the personal relationships that exist within an organisation. The communication climate reflects the workers’ perception of whether the organisation trusts, respects and values them. In other words, factors related to job satisfaction and commitment.

5.2 ELEMENTS OF INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

How members of agroup transfer information between and among each other have been approached differently by different writers. In our case, it can be said that the major elements of interpersonal communication are *listening, speaking and non-verbal.* These are often regarded as the primary elements of a person’s interpersonal communication. It should, however, be noted that writing can also reflect them. Let us consider them.

5.2.1 Listening

Listening is often referred to as the mental activity that a person goes through while he awaits his/her turn to speak. Listening is not the same as hearing. Listening involves comprehending and retaining what is heard.

5.2.2 The Listening Process

The listening process consists of four elements. They are discussed below:

(a) **Hearing**: Hearing is the first element of the listening process. Hearing isa physiological process. When we hear, the auditory nerves are stimulated by sound waves. Every one hears sounds unless he/she has a hearing impairment.

(b) **Filtering**: Filtering is the elimination of unwanted stimuli. Filtering allows a listener to focus on stimuli that are of specific interest. An individual has difficulty concentrating on an oral message when his/her filtering process is unable to eliminate or at least minimize his tracing stimuli.

(c) **Interpreting**: When interpreting, the listener's mind assigns meaning to the stimuli. This assignment of meaning is done through the use of the person's mental filters. Listeners tend not to consider verbal cues as well as non-verbal cues when interpreting oral messages.

(d) **Recalling**: Recalling involves remembering at a later time the information that was interpreted earlier. The success of this element depends heavily on the association (relationship) period on the stimuli during the interpretation phase.

5.2.3 Guidelines for Effective Listening

Listening, as a process, can be improved if the receiver takes an active role. The following guidelines can help to improve listening skills.

(a) **Concentrating on the message**: Keeping concentration upon what is being said and avoiding distractions and mind-wandering, which result in blank patches, will enhance effective listening.

(b) **Keeping an open mind**: When listening, one should not leave room for biasor prejudice.

(c) **Asking questions**: Being ready to ask questions or provide answers are marks which cause the speaker to explain or amplify a point aids the listener understands of the message.

(d) Listening especially attentively for points and sections of personal importance or relevance: This is to ensure that actions and personal follow-up requests are fully and clearly understood before the speaker rings off, departs or a meeting is closed.

(e) Providing a regular feedback indicates that the message is received and understood progressively. Responses such as: “You’re right, I quite agree” affirm effective listening.

(f) Monitoring and controlling personal non-verbal communication signals: Such as those which provide the speaker with positive feedback, can help establish rapport and provide encouragement.

(g) Ensuring that written or tape-recorded notes are made clearly and insufficient details for future reference and follow-up work.

5.3 IMPORTANCE OF LISTENING

Listening enhances good customer relationships. Effective listening is vital to the development of good customer relationships. This can improve quality, boost productivity and save money for the organisation. Poor listening can have the opposite effect.

ILLUSTRATION 5.1

GOOD LISTENERS LISTEN WITH THEIR FACES

The first skill that you can practise to be a good listener is to act like a good listener. We have spent a lot of our modern lives working at tuning out of the information that is thrust at us. It, therefore, becomes important to change our physical body language from that of a deflect or to that of a receiver, much like a satellite dish. Our faces contain most of the receptive equipment in our bodies, so it is only natural that we should tilt our faces towards the channel of information.

A second skill is to use the other bodily receptors besides your ears. You can be a better listener when you look at the other person. Your eyes pick up the non-verbal signals that all people send out when they are speaking. By looking at the speaker, your eyes will also complete the eye contact that speakers are trying to make. A speaker will work harder at sending out the information when they see a receptive audience in attendance. Your eyes help complete the communication circuit that must be established between speaker and listener.

When you have established eye and face contact with your speaker, you must then react to the speaker by sending out non-verbal signals. Your face must move and give the range of emotions that indicate whether you are following what the speaker has to say. By moving your face to the information, you can better concentrate on what the person is saying. Your face must become an active and contoured catcher of information.

It is extremely difficult to receive information when your mouth is moving information out at the same time. A good listener will stop talking and use receptive language instead. Use the “I see,” “un huh,” “oh really” words and phrases that follow and encourage your

speaker’s train of thought. This forces you to react to the ideas presented, rather than the person. You can then move to asking questions, instead of giving your opinion on the information being presented. It is a true listening skill to use your mouth as a moving receptor of information rather than abroad caster.

A final skill is to move your mind to concentrate on what the speaker is saying. You cannot fully hear their point of view or process information when you argue mentally or judge what they are saying before it is completed. An open mind is a mind that is receiving and listening to information. If you really want to listen, you will act like a good listener. Good listeners are good catchers because they give their speakers a target and then move that target to capture the information that is being sent. When good listeners don’t understand theirspeakers, they will send signals to the speaker about what they expect next, or how the speaker can change the speed of information delivery to suit the listener. Above all, a good listener involves all of their face to be an active moving listener.
(Adapted from: Canadian Association of Student Activity Advisors); http://www.casaaleadership.ca/mainpages/resources/sourcebook/listening-skills.html).

Listening enhances effective leadership in the organisation. Good leaders listen to what the customer has to say before offering a response. Good leaders demonstrate their effectiveness by showing that they are listening without necessarily doing everything the customers, the team and other subordinates demand.

Effective listening is just important in a variety of careers. Sales people who listen to customers can discover their needs and build rapport. Effective listening helps individuals and organisations to succeed in the performance of their operations.

5.4 ORAL COMMUNICATION

Speaking, and for that matter, oral communication is the chief means of conveying messages. All forms of speeches, formal, one-on-one and group discussions are all forms of communication that are done by words of mouth.

ILLUSTRATION 5. 2

Understand what you want to achieve.

Before you start working on your talk or presentation, it is important that you really understand what you want to say, who you want to tell and why they might want to hear it. To do this, ask yourself: Who? What? How? When? Where? and Why? Who are you speaking to? What are their interests, presuppositions and values? What do they share in common with others? How are they unique?

What do you wish to communicate? One way of answering this question is to ask yourself about the "success criteria‟. How do you know if and when you have successfully communicated what you have in mind?

How can you best convey your message? Language is important here, as are the non-verbal cues discussed earlier. Choose your words and your non-verbal cues with your audience in mind. Plan a beginning, middle and end. If time and place allow, consider and prepare audio-visual aids.

When? Timing is important here. Develop a sense of timing so that your contributions are seen and heard as relevant to the issue or matter at hand. There is a time to speak and a time to be silent. ''It's better to be silent than sing a bad tune.‟

Where? What is the physical context of the communication in mind? You may have time to visit the room, for example, and rearrange the furniture. Check for availability and visibility if you are using audio or visual aids.

Why? In order to convert hearers in to listeners, you need to know why they should listen to you–and tell them if necessary. What disposes them to listen? That implies that you know yourself why you are seeking to communicate–the value or worth or interest of what you are going to say.

(Adapted from*MindTools.com)*

5.4.1 Checklist of Effective Speaking

Creating the message: In order to create a well-structured oral message, the speaker should

(a) first consider on the context of the oral communication and the outcome desired.

(b) establish the key points to get across and what running order would best link them together at the beginning, middle and end.

(c) advance the salient facts and figures which will support the argument.

(d) decide on what the delivery style of the message should be before embarking on it.

(e) constantly monitor the feedback received from the audience

(f) know when he has said enough and stop on a positive note.

5.4.2 Important speech features to master

(a) **Accent**: Accents of different people may be accepted but it should be devoid of being foxed by local dialect words.

(b) **Pronunciation**: People would not like to hear speeches marred by ugly or resentful habits.

(c) **Enunciation/articulation**: Good oral communication,especially over a poor telephone line or in a large hall,depends on vowels being well rounded and not swallowed.

d) **Intonation/emphasis**: Nothing causes listeners to switch off faster than ponderous utterance of drab monotones.

(e) **Projection**: Effective speakers adopt erect stance and head positions which allow for free and unrestricted escape of air from the lungs and mouth whichare essential to clear delivery.

5.5 ANALYSIS OF ATTITUDES

Many scholars have agreed that 'attitude' may be defined as a group of beliefs that causes us to respond in some way to a particular object or situation.

A person's attitude can influence his/her decision in many ways as it forms the basis for his/her behaviour for taking certain actions.

In delivering speeches, for example, one will need to consider one's own attitudes and the attitudes of one's target audience to check whether there are similarities. Where there are similarities of attitudes, the speech will be delivered and received ina peaceful atmosphere.

On the other hand, there are certain instances where there are differences in attitudes between two parties and in such circumstances, hostilities may emerge as a result of the differences.

5.5.1 Why Do We Have Attitudes

It has been suggested that attitudes and motives are interlinked and depending on an individual's motive, Attitudes can serve four main functions, namely:

(a) **Knowledge:** Attitudes provide a knowledge base and framework within which new information can be placed.

(b) **Expressive:** Attitudes become a means of expression. They enable individuals to indicate to others the values they hold and thus are able to express their self-concept and adopt or internalise the values of a group.

(c) **Instrumental**: Attitudes held would determine the manner one behaves towards a person or object in a particular way; either positively or negatively.

(d) **Ego-defensive**: Attitude may be had in order to protect a person's ego from an undesirable truth. A person who believes in honesty will discourage any form of behaviour that may result in cheating or dishonesty as inexaminations. Based on the person's attitudes, he has developed a strong ego that will resist all forms of dishonest practices.

5.5.2 Attitude Change

Attitudes once held are difficult to change; however, there are certain circumstances that may cause a person to change his attitudes. The following are some of the factors that can assist in attitudinal change:

(a) The characteristics of the persuader that is the one endeavouring to effect the change

(b) Presentation of issues that may cause a person to change from positive to negative or vice-versa as a result of the manner in which issues a represented to convince him/her.

(c) Audience characteristics: Depending on the expectations of a speaker, attitudes can change if the speaker wants the target audience to have a positive perception about him.

(d) Outcome of attitudes: A person may change his attitude if he expects to get some rewards for the change or if some form of punishment will be meted outif he fails to change.

(b) Seeking more information: Showing interest in what prompts the criticisms can help a person to decide how to fix whatever prompted it. One should do the following:

- Ask for specific example. For example “Can you show me where theerrors are?”
- Describe a situation and ask whether it illustrates the problem.
- Ask how you can improve by requesting for specific suggestions that might help.

BODY LANGUAGE

(a) Body language, whether intentional or unintentional, can change the meaning of a verbal message. Body language is universally used because it is impossible to communicate without body language. The same gesture may be interpreted differently in indifferent cultures. Folded arms may signify defensiveness in certain cultures; at the same time, the gesture may mean arrogance in certain other cultures. Body language in inter-personal communication has the following advantages:

(b) It provides instant feedback: Body language conveys instant feedback universally as an expression of friendliness and approval. As smile indicates satisfaction, but a frown shows disagreement.

(c) It communicates a non-verbal message. An individual standing or sitting erect conveys confidence and pride, whereas a person slumping over may be perceived as being tired or depressed. An experienced business communicator can read cues from the way a person stands or sits.

(d) Handshakes communicate non-verbal message. A person who firmly grips a person’s hand demonstrates confidence and familiarity.

5.6 SUMMARY

Impersonal communication is the verbal and non-verbal interactions that take place between individuals in one-on-one situations or in small group situations. Some major elements of interpersonal communication are listening and speaking.

Listening is referred to as the mental activity which a person undergoes while awaiting his/her turn to speak. Listening goes through a process starting with hearing, filtering, interpreting and recalling. Speaking is the principal means by which messages are conveyed. Some important features of speech are accent, pronunciation, enunciation/articulation, intonation/emphasis and projection.

Also discussed in this chapter is the concept of attitudes, why people develop certain attitudes and a general view of attitudinal change. Attitudes can be defined as groups of beliefs that cause us to respond in some way to a particular object or situation. Attitudes have been noted to serve the following purposes among others;

knowledge, expression, instrumentality and projection of one's ego.

The chapter also touches on conflict in organizations and defines organizational conflict as situations that hinder the effectiveness of the organization. Conflicts may occur at the horizontal or vertical level. Some major sources of conflict noted are: money, jobs, goals and the environment. Conflict resolution techniques discussed include prompt action, use of active listening techniques, brainstorming, focusing on the problem, etc.

5.7 END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

5.8.1 MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. Effective speaking is dependent on the following EXCEPT

   A. Context of the oral communication
   B. Prior adoption of delivery style
   C. Feedback
   D. Identification of key points to put across
   E. Timing

2. ONE of the following is NOT an important speech feature.

   A. Good pronunciation
   B. Avoidance of badaccent
   C. Appropriate intonation
   D. Monotones
   E. Appropriate voice projection.

3. Which of the following is NOT undertaken by the facilitator in a conflict situation?

   A. Sale
   B. Management
   C. Resolution
   D. Mediation
   E. Negotiation

4. ONE of the following groups are stakeholders in conflict mediation.

   A. The parties in the dispute
   B. The parties in the dispute and the facilitator
   C. The parties in the dispute and other interestedparties
   D. The facilitator and other interested parties
   E. Other interested parties

5. Which ONE of the following is NOT a potential source of conflict within an organisation?
   A. Ratio of wages to profits
   B. Rates of pay for different jobs
   C. Authority and power
   D. Annual General Meeting
   E. Market situation

5.8.2 SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. The listening process starts with……………………
2. Interpersonal communication involves at least ....person(s).
3. Most people have a................... attitude towards criticism.
4. The processof eliminating unwanted stimuli during listeningis called………………
5. Workers' demands for a greater say in decision-making within a workplace leads to........................... conflict

5.8.3 ESSAY

1. List any FOUR ways management can communicate with
   (a) its staff (b) customers
2. Choose one method of interpersonal communication and explain how incorrect use of language and body language can cause distortions of the message.
3. Identify any FOUR factors you may consider when criticizing a subordinate

5.8 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

5.9.1 SOLUTION TO MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. C
2. D
3. A
4. B
5. D

5.9.2 SOLUTION TO SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. hearing
2. two
3. negative
4. filtering
5. organisational

5.11.3 SOLUTIONS TO ESSAY QUESTIONS

QUESTION 1

(a) Methods of communicating with staff include the following:

1.	Meetings	2.	Team briefing
3.	Telephone messages/Conversations	4.	Conferences
5.	Company newspaper	6.	Memos/Letters
7.	Notice boards	8.	e-mail

(b) Methods of communicating with customers include the following:

1.	Personalised letters	2.	Press advertisement
3.	Leaflets	4.	Television
5.	Telephone	6.	Direct marketing
7.	Press releases		

QUESTION 2

Language and body language are sensitive for both the speaker and the audience. If used wrongly, distorted messages are given and received. There are many instances where the spoken words do not have the intended effect:

- Words not known to the audience,
- Jargon (especially technical jargon),
- Initials with two or more meanings.

Many speakers have phrases in their speeches which they repeat unknowingly to the annoyance of their listeners. A speaking pace which is too fast or a tone which is uninteresting is also frustrating. Questioning may be aggressive, or may be accompanied by aggressive gestures such as the pointing of fingers.

A speaker may discomfort the audience by continuous movements, lack of eye contact and unfriendly facial expressions. Standing with folded arms is defensive and blocking. Dress is seen as a message-giver and, if inappropriate, may distract the attention of the audience. If too casually dressed, the speaker may find that his opinions are discounted or ignored. Presenters must know their audience and be able to respond to its members at the emotive level.

CHAPTER 6

COMMUNICATING AT THE WORKPLACE

CHAPTER CONTENT

- The communication climate
- Building positive relationships
- Entailment in the conversation process
- Accommodating diversity in communication

6.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this chapter you should be able to

- define communication climate;
- explain ways of building positive relationships;
- explain what is entailed in the conversation process;
- explain how to accommodate diversity in communication.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

To many business professionals, communication is the life blood of the successful organization. What this means is that irrespective of one's knowledge about one's job, and field of specialisation, successful performance cannot be guaranteed unless there is good communication at all levels of the organization. This assertion makes it imperative upon all individuals in the organization to possess communication skillsfor the general advancement of the organization.

Good communication climate is critical to the process of communicating in the organization. The mood, emotions, trust, goodwill and level of tolerance of persons involved in the process will either enhance or affect communication. Similarly, the nature of relationships employees develop has been noted as one major factor in organisational communication. There is need to promote, build and sustain positive relationships as a means of enhancing effective organisational communication. Organisations are increasingly showing diverse outlook that reflect diverse workforce, culture, race, language, beliefs and attitudes. The ability or otherwise of communicators to accommodate divergent views, opinions and emotions would dictate the extent of effectiveness and success of the process.

In the following sections, how these factors affect or enhance the communication process in an organization are discussed.

6.2 COMMUNICATION CLIMATE

In business communication, the term "communication climate" is used by social scientists to describe the quality of personal relationships in an organisation. The term may also be seen in relation to the "mood" surrounding organisational communication. The general respect, trust, goodwill and the degree of acceptance of communication in the organisation will reflect the mood or climate of organizational communication.

It should be noted that the climate of organisational communication depends, not so much on the specific and direct duties and responsibilities that members in the organiz ation must perform, but also on their feelings about these duties and responsibilities and about one another.

6.3 CONVERSATION PROCESS

Positive relationships do not just happen. They must be built overtime and they require continuous maintenance. A good conversation is one of the techniques that are used to build and maintain positive relationships.

Relationships generally begin with conversations. At first, the interaction will probably be a cautious one but as trust and comfort begin to be developed, participants begin to reveal more of their personalities and to share information about their lives. People begin to connect on intellectual, personal and emotional levels. Whether conversations occur in person, via telephone, or during a conference, theyare constantly changing events. This means one must listen and adjust one' s delivery on the basis of feedback. The conversation process generally covers five stages.

(a) Greeting

The greeting opens the channel for conversation. It can be verbal or non- verbal like a smile or a wave. Once the greeting has occurred, the conversation then moves to the introduction stage.

(b) Introduction

During this stage, the person initiating the conversation imagines what will follow. An introduction should be as brief an d in f o r m a tiv e as possible. An introduction may be direct or indirect.

(c) Exchange

The business of a conversation is conducted in a give and take manner.During this stage, the purpose of the conversation will come to the fore.

(d) Review

A review of the process allows the parties to reflect on the exchange, to recap the items discussed during a long or complex exchange and to signal that the conversation is ending. Either the sender or the receiver may review the conversation with a view to determining its prospects.

(e) Closing

The closing is the cordial concluding part of the process. Depending on the situation, the closing may be verbal, non-verbal, or a combination of the two.

ILLUSTRATION 6.1

After finalizing a sales agreement with a customer, for example, the sales executive might say "It's been a pleasure doing business with you. I will process your order today and phone you in about a week after the printer would have been installed, in order to be sure you are satisfied with it. Good bye".

Whether spontaneous or planned, successful conversations are honest, objective, sincere and reasonable. Effective interpersonal relations and communications depend very much on these attributes.

6.4 KEYS TO SUCCESSFUL FACE-TO-FACE CONVERSATIONS

A face-to-face conversation has an advantage over written and telephone communication because both the sender and the receiver can use non-verbal cues to help them interpret a message. The following techniques help in making a face-to- face exchange productive.

(a) Choice of Location

After the initiation of a relationship, the choice of a location for its development becomes crucial. A conversation may take place in the office or at a neutral place. The purpose of the meeting should dictate the site and seating arrangements required. The choice of location can greatly enhance the conversation.

(b) Avoidance of Interruptions:

Interruptions, say, by a third party, affect one's ability to hold a meaningful conversation. Therefore, all interruptions must be avoided.

(c) Effective Speaking

Strong effective messages are short and simple. One should always think before speaking and sentences should be structured very well for the receiver to understand. Pitch, speed and volume should be varied to hold the listener's interest. Important points should be emphasised. Emotions should also be controlled.

(d) Clear and Appropriate Non-Verbal Cues

A smile may be appropriate in a specific situation when a genuine smile is offered to someone, it demonstrates acceptance and trust. People speak freely when they feel safe and smile conveys safety.

(e) Questions

Asking questions encourages the other person to communicate. Carefully structured questions can help to gather facts, determine the receiver's needs and encourage dialogue. Good communicators understand and use both closed and open-ended questions.

(f) Accommodating Diversity

To have a successful conversation one should recognize and accommodate cultural and other differences during the conversation. Consider language differences, non-verbal communication differences, and factors such as values, attitudes, religion, political systems and social orders. One should be alert and sensitive about all physical and other disabilities that affect communication.

(g) Effective Listening

When people are conversing, they often think about what they are going to say next, instead of listening to what the other person has to say. By giving the speaker your full attention, you can participate effectively in the Conversation and make the other person believe he/she is important and interesting. One should listen empathetically.

6.5 POSITIVE RELATIONSHIPS

The existence of a positive relationship among communicators in an organisation has been accepted as one of the successful factors in effective organisational communication. It is, therefore, necessary for organisational communicators to make some efforts at bringing about positive relationships for successful organisational communication.

Positive relationships in communication will prevail, if there is a favourable perception of the individuals or parties who are involved in the communication situation within the organisation.

6.5.1 Building, Promoting and Sustaining Positive Relationships

As a matter of guidance, many researchers and writers have provided various guidelines on building and sustaining a positive relationship both in and outside the organisation. These guidelines should not be seen as a solution since the individual must also play a significant role in building and sustaining positive relationship. Scholars have suggested ways to promote positive relationships as discussed below:

(A) Using Descriptive "I" Language

Many communicators unnecessarily attack the other person when delivering a message. Let us consider these examples: "Your report is too sloppy. You'll have to re-type it." "This is the third time this month that you've been late for work. You'll have to be more punctual." "That was a dumb promise you made. We can never have the job done by the end of the month."

Statements like these are often called "you" language because they point a verbal finger of accusation at the receiver. "You are lazy". "You're wrong". These statements do not enhance the building and sustenance of a positive relationship among organizational communicators.

Conversely, descriptive statements are often termed "I" language since they focus on The speaker instead of judging the other person. The "I" language rather fosters positive relationship among communicators within the organization. The "you" statements above can be rephrased in descriptive "I" language as follows: "I'm afraid the boss will get angry at both of us if we turn in a report with these errors. We'll get a better reaction if it is retyped." "Since you've been coming in late, I've made a lot of excuses when people call asking for you. I'm uncomfortable with that, and that's why I hope you'll start showing up on time." "I'm worried about the promise you made. I don't see how we can get the job done by the end of the month." Statements like these show that it's possible to be non-judgemental and still say what you want to say without any verbal attacks. Such statements will rather build and sustain the desired positive relationships.

(B) Focussing on solving problems

Some messages try to force others to do something they don't agree with or understand. If one has a tight deadline, for example, it is easy to say. "Look I don't have time to explain– just do it my way." What should be noted here is that control shows a lack of regard for the other person's needs, interests or opinions. It can causeproblems in the development of positive relationships even if one attains his objectives.

On the other hand, problem-oriented messages are aimed at solving both parties' needs. The goal is not to solve a problem my way or your way, but rather to developa solution that meets everyone's needs. This will help build and sustain positiverelationships among members of the organisation.

(C) Being honest

As a matter of human nature, a person who discovers that he/she has been manipulated will exhibit a defensive reaction. Dishonesty of any form in organizational communication could lead to loss of positive relationships. Conversely, simple honesty is less likely to result in people being defensive, even when the news is not welcome. Even though others might sometimes dislike what one says, one's reputation as being honest can earn one the respect of subordinates, co-workers and management.

(D) Showing concern for others

Being indifferent (lack of acknowledgement or concern for others) is a strong discomforting message. By contrast, a genuine message of interest can make a significant difference. A simple apology for making one wait can do wonders. The secretary who takes the responsibility to get the right person to attend to one's needs will leave a feeling of appreciation, encouraging the person to do business with the company once again. The financial controller who seems genuinely concerned with the accounts officers' opinions– even if one is in disagreement– is easier to work with than the one who appears snobbish.

(E) Demonstrating an attitude of equality

Individuals who act in a superior manner imply that others are inferior – clearly a discomforting message. Nobody likes to feel less valuable than another person, and an air of superiority communicates this sort of message. This kind of attitude can have a negative effect on the development of positive relationships. What should be noted is that the kind of superiority that makes people defensive is not based as much on intelligence, talent, or skill as on dignity and respect.

(F) Listening with an open mind

An assertion that has been made is that listening with an open mind makes a good sense. Whether the people you are dealing with are in your department or another, subordinates or customers, they probably have knowledge that you do not have. Hearing them out may teach you something useful.

Besides providing useful information, listening open-mindedly can promote good relationships. A subordinate whose views are rejected straight away will feel very offended and this will contribute to the development of negative relationships between the subordinate and the boss. Conversely, if the subordinate's views areeven rejected after a careful consideration is given to such views by the boss, the degree of disappointment from the subordinate would not have any significant effect on him/her. This will rather lead to the development of a positive relationship between the subordinate and the boss.

6.6 ACCOMMODATING DIVERSITY IN COMMUNICATION

The emergence of globalisation and dynamism that surrounds most organisations means that organisations need a number of skills and knowledge to be able tocompete effectively in their areas of business operations. In such circumstances, organisations have no alternative but to rely on individuals who are diverse in terms of culture, race, gender, age, education, etc. The organisation should, however, note that communication and other business activities would be more prone to individual differences.

Effective communication in the organisation can take place only when efforts are made to accommodate diversity in the organisation's communication activities. The underlisted strategies may be of immense help to the business professional in managing the issues arising out of diversity.

6.6.1 Learning about different cultures

It has been confirmed that many cultural problems are not caused by malice but by lack of knowledge. Trainers in cultural sensitivity cite examples of how mistaken assumptions can lead to trouble. Misunderstandings that come up in organisational communication are as a result of parties or individuals not being conversant with each other's background and culture. What is suggested as a solution here is that individuals should make an effort to learn and understand other people's backgrounds in relation to their culture, age, education, values, experience, etc.

6.6.2 Viewing diversity as an opportunity

It is easy to think of cultural differences as a bother that makes it difficult to take care of business. Dealing with others who have different attitudes may require some patience and time– both are scarce commodities in a busy work schedule. But what should be noted is that with the right attitude, cultural diversity can stop being just a necessary cost of doing business and can become an opportunity.

6.6.3 Not despising people

It is easy to view people who are different as inferior. A person's first reaction to a physically-challenged colleague might be sympathy or pity. Also, people who learn English as their second language might be perceived as less intelligent than native speakers. Individuals from predominantly traditional majority might seem like members of the "good old boys" club and might not exhibit any respect for people who are from minority groups. To be able to gain successful communication in diverse groups, one is encouraged not to insult or look down on members because of their backgrounds.

6.6.4 Talking about differences

When people from differing backgrounds refuse to talk to one another on such issues, there could obviously be perception problems. People are encouraged to have open discussions of concerns, attitudes and feelings about other groups from diverse backgrounds to enhance the elimination of all forms of misconceptions about others. What should, however, be noted here is that not all talk about differences is constructive. The way people talk about differences can make a tremendous difference as to whether a relationship is improved or impaired.

ILLUSTRATION 6.2

Let us consider two non-productive styles of conversation as proposed by Ellis Cose. "Discussions tend to be conducted at one of two levels–either in shouts or in whispers. The shouters are generally so twisted by pain or ignorance that spectators tune them out. The whisperers are so afraid of the sting of truth that they avoid saying much of anything at all."

6.7 SUMMARY

This chapter discussed a wide range of issues regarding communication at the work place. Organisations require the right atmosphere or climate in order to operate. There are six main categories that could be used in the promotion of positive relationship in the organisation. These include: development of positive personal relationships, focussing on solving problems, being honest, showing concern for others and listening with an open mind. The chapter also discussed the conversation process and the way and manner of managing diverse views in the communication process as a means of promoting good organisational climate. Accommodating diverse views can be achieved through the acquisition of knowledge about different cultures and diversity not viewed as a hindrance but as an opportunity. Diversity can be managed when the communicating parties do not view each other as inferior but as equal. Open discussion of varying backgrounds and individual differences will help manage perception problems arising out of such differences.

6.8 END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

6.8.1 MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. Which of the following does NOT promote positive personal relationships?

   A. Focusing on problem solving
   B. Being honest
   C. Listening with an open mind
   D. Not showing concern for others
   E. Not being dishonest

2. Diversity in communication within an organization may be accommodated through the following, EXCEPT

   A. Learning about different cultures
   B. Viewing diversity as an opportunity
   C. Looking down on people
   D. Not ignoring human differences
   E. Having open discussions

3. In accommodating diversity, open discussions do NOT enhance

   A. Exposure of concerns
   B. Exposure of attitudes and feelings of culturally-different peoples
   C. Elimination of different forms of misconception
   D. Promotion of misunderstanding
   E. Improvement of relationships

4. ONE of the following is NOT a difference in individuals that need to be accommodated in communication.

   A. Gender
   B. Race
   C. Blood group
   D. Age
   E. Education

5. Which of the following is NOT necessarily a reflection of the "Communication climate" in an organisation?

   A. Prestigious working environment
   B. Positive feelings of workers to their duties and responsibilities
   C. The trust and good will of management is felt by employees
   D. Employees feel appreciated by management
   E. Mutual respect among all concerned

6.8.2 SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. A good communication climate in an organisation is dependent on ________________ members of the organisation.

2. The term "communication climate" means the _______________ of personal relationships in an organisation.

3. Personal relationships are usually initiated through _____________________.

4. Cultural _____________________ are not necessarily a hindrance to a good Communication climate.

5. Focusing on problem-solving between two individuals is one of the major steps in the development of good ___ relationships.

6.8.3 ESSAY

1. Describe briefly any FOUR through which positive relationships in an organisation can be promoted.
2. Communicators who succeed in a diverse work place must educate themselves about different cultures in order to be considered successful communicators.
   As an Accounting Officer working in an organisation that has strong belief in diversity, discuss briefly any FOUR techniques you would put in place to have effective communication in such an organisation?

6.9 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

6.9.1 SOLUTION TO MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. D
2. C
3. D
4. C
5. A

6.9.2 SOLUTION TO SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. all
2. type
3. conversation
4. differences
5. personal

6.9.3 SOLUTIONS TO ESSAY QUESTIONS

QUESTION 1

The development of positive personal relationships in an organisation is considered to be a major determinant of organisational effectiveness. The six supportive statements that can be used to provide positive relationships are:

(a) Using the descriptive "I" language. The effective communicator in his desire to improve positive relationship, should eliminate statements that are often called "You" language because they point a verbal finger of accusation at the receiver, e.g. "You are wrong". By contrast, descriptive statements which are often referred to as "I" language should be used. The "I" language is considered to be non-judgmental and will improve positive personal relationship in the organisation.

(b) Focussing on solving problems, not controlling others. A person desiring to improve positive personal relationship should focus on solving problems and not controlling others. Messages should not force others to do things that they do not agree with or understand.

People should concentrate on problem-oriented and messages aim at solving both parties' needs. Solutions should be developed to take total approach on solving problems.

(c) Being honest. Once people discover that they have been manipulated, a defensive reaction is almost guaranteed. People should exhibit honesty since this will reduce defensiveness even when the news is unpleasant.

(d) Showing concern for others. Indifference – lack of acknowledgement or concern for others-is a strong disconfirming message. By contrast, a genuine message of interest can make tremendous difference. A simple apology from a person for an infringement on others' rights can work wonders.

(e) Demonstrating an attitude of equality: People who act in a superior manner imply that others are inferior-a clearly, disconfirming message. Any form of 'superiority can arouse defensiveness and this should be avoided to improve positive personal relationships in the organisation.

(f) Listening with an open mind: Listening with an open mind makes good sense. Listening to others will, by all means, provide some benefits for the listener. A part from providing useful information, open-minded listening can promote good relationships.

QUESTION 2

The decline in birth sand changes in demographic patterns in certain parts of the world means that most organisations will have problems with their staff members.
One way of reducing this shortage is to employ people from different backgrounds i.e.
People from diverse backgrounds.
It should, however, be noted that employing people from diversity backgrounds has its problems and as an Accounting Officer, I will use the following techniques to ensure effective communication in my organization.

(i) Learning about different cultures: Many cultural problems are not caused by malice but lack of knowledge. Mistaken assumptions can lead to trouble. For a person to be an effective communicator in diverse cultural setups, the person should demonstrate an extreme level of open mindedness.

(ii) Viewing diversity as an opportunity. One should view cultural differences as an opportunity. When dealing with people who have different attitudes or customs, even though takes patience, it also offers the learner the opportunity to do business effectively across such cultures.

(iii) Not despising people: Even though it is easy to view people who are different as inferior, this does not promote positive relationships in the organisation. People should eschew this behaviour and try as much as possible to show respect for others from diverse backgrounds.

(iv) Talking about differences: When people from different backgrounds don't talk to one another, wrong perceptions can take root. As an Accounting Officer what can bedone to be a successful communicator is to talk about the differences that exist within the cultures of people from diverse backgrounds. This will be an effective technique to ensure successful communication in the organisation.

CHAPTER 7

COMMUNICATION ETHICS

CHAPTER CONTENT

- Ethics in the workplace
- Conflict in the workplace
- Managing conflicts in an organisation
- Labour and unionism in the workplace
- Handling criticism in the workplace

7.0 Learning Objectives

After completing this chapter, you will be able to

- Understand issues of ethics in the workplace
- Understand the notions of conflict in the workplace
- Know how conflicts are managed in organizations
- Handle criticisms in the workplace

7.1 Definition of Ethics

Ethics may be defined as the generally acceptable ground rules of behaviour within an organisation. These rules are moral principles that govern a person's behaviour or the conducting of an activity. It is, therefore essential to examine attitudes in the workplace and determine how they could generate conflict within the organisation.

7.2 Attitudes in the workplace

Since ethics shape the concept of right and wrong that are accepted by an individual or social group, people's attitudes towards work, fellow workers (superiors and subordinates) and day-to-day activities may vary, especially because of their varying backgrounds, race, religion, culture, etc.

7.2.1 Fundamental Provisions of Attitudes

It has been suggested by researchers that attitudes are related to motives. So, depending on an individual's motives, attitudes can provide the following fundamentals: knowledge, expression, instrumental device and ego-defensive mechanism:

(a) **Knowledge:** Attitudes provide a knowledge base and framework within which new information can be placed.

(b) **Expressive:** Attitudes become a means of expression. They enable individuals to indicate to others the values they hold and thus are able to express their self-concept and adopt or internalise the values of a group.

(c) **Instrumental:** Attitudes held would determine the manner one behaves towards a person or object in a particular way; either positively or negatively.

(d) **Ego-defensive:** Attitude may be had in order to protect a person's ego from an undesirable truth. A person who believes in honesty will discourage any form of behaviour that may result to cheating or dishonesty as in examinations. Based on the person's attitudes, he has developed a strong ego that will resist all forms of dishonest practices.

7.3 Attitude Change

Attitudes once held are difficult to change; however, there are certain circumstances that may cause a person to change his attitudes. The following are some of the factors that can assist in attitudinal change:

(a) The characteristics of the persuader, that is, the one endeavouring to effect the change.

(b) Presentation of issues that may cause a person to change from positive to negative or vice-versa as a result of the manner in which issues are presented to convince him/her.

(c) Audience characteristics: Depending on the expectations of a speaker, attitudes can change if the speaker wants the target audience to have a positive perception about him.

(d) Outcome of attitudes: A person may change his attitude if he expects to get some rewards for the change or if some form of punishment will be meted out if he fails to change.

7.4 Conflict in Organizations

The workplace is an assemblage of people from diverse origin, cultures, linguistic and educational backgrounds. Coupled with all this is the fact that each individual has his/her own peculiarities. The interplay of such disparate aggregation of humans, without some control by some authority, may only be compared to sanatorium. To maintain peace and sanity, it is only to be expected that such an assemblage must device a set of regulatory principles of right and wrong that are acceptable by individuals and social groups.

Conflict is an inevitable situation in organisations. It can be a serious problem to organisational effectiveness. Conflict has always had a less positive side and it is always considered very bad. But as to whether conflict is bad or not we need first to define what it is.

Conflict in organisations i s defined and interpreted in many ways. But for the purpose of organisational communication, conflict may be defined as any behaviour intended to obstruct the achievement of some other person's goals. Conflict is basedon the incompatibility of goals and arises from opposing behaviours. It can be viewed at the individual, group or organisational level. The behavioural approach to conflict defines it as the disagreement that occurs within and among people in a work group. Here, conflict deals with interpersonal relations and also within individuals.

7.4.1 Definition of conflict

In any organisation, some form of friction, disagreement or discord arises within and among the members or within a group in such organisation as long as they communicate with each other. Conflict can arise between members of the same group or it can occur between members of two or more groups. However, there is no single universally accepted definition of conflict. What we can say is that in a conflicting situation, there must be recognised opposing interests between /among parties involved; there must be a belief by each side that the other one is not willingto accept and that conflict is a process. In other words, conflict is an interactive process which display the elements of incompatibility, disagreement or dissonance which can be within an individual or between and among individuals or groups.

7.4.2 Types of Conflict

The types of conflict which are possible in organisations are:

(a) Intrapersonal conflict– i.e. within the individual which may arise from stressful conditions of work.

(b) Interpersonal conflict - i.e. between individuals. This is the most common type of conflict which is present in workgroups because of the different views and objectives of group participants.

(c) Conflict between individuals and groups.

(d) Conflict between groups in the same organisation i.e. inter-group conflict.

(e) Inter-organisational conflict -i.e. between two or more organisations.

7.4.3 Sources of Conflict

Conflict can be said to occur either on a horizontal axis, that is between individual managers or between workers working at the same level or on a vertical axis, between workers and managers. Many conflicts relate to economic aspects of payand access to resources in the organisation. The main sources of conflict discussed here are internal and can be summarised under the following headings:

(a) **Money:** The ratio of profits to wages – a conflict between workers and managers or among workers themselves may arise where a sum of money is to be shared.

(b) **Job:** Rates of pay are different for each job and sometimes one group claims a job, possible to safeguard their future security or loss of earnings, if the job is given to others. The right to do the job can lead to disagreement between groups on demarcation lines ‟between jobs and this frequently occurs.

(c) **Goals:** Managers are concerned with efficiency and workers with security. Managers may want newer, more efficient machinery; this may displace workers as few of them will be needed. Conflict may occur between marketing and finance managers as their policies and interests often differ.

(d) **Environmental factors:** Downward fluctuations in the market for a product are a threat to workers security''. Such problems may cause conflicts even within union, if the rank and file do not think their leaders are doing sufficientto secure their jobs.

(e) **Authority and Power:** Workers are pressing for more, say in decisions, which affect their lives. This is vertical conflict. In addition, subordinates may resent the fact that there is always a superior above them.

(f) **Nature of work:** The socio-technical system organises people in a particular way which often leads to a boring job, no control of the pace of work, no responsibility of group identity.

(g) **Individual differences:** In society, human beings are not alike in their nature, interest, attitudes and aspirations. Because of this basic difference and when they cannot accommodate each other, conflict arises.

(h) **Cultural differences:** Culture is said to be the way of life of people. This way of life differs from one culture to the other. This cultural difference among people sometimes cause tension and leads to conflict.

(i) **Clashes of interests:** In organisations, interests of workers sometimes clash with that of the employers and when this happens, conflict is inevitable.

(j) **Social change:** In society, as in organisations, there is usually a difference between the way the old and the new generation react to social change. The way the new generation react to, say, moral norms may be different from that of the old. When this happens, there will be conflict. In this sense, conflict is an indication of disequilibrium.

(j) **Conflicting roles:** Sometimes an employee may be expected to perform a role outside his normal role in the organisation. When this happens, he may step on another employee's toe and conflict or power tussle may arise. The same is true of a situation where an employee views a task as his own responsibility and another employee comes in to take over the responsibility.

(k) **Unpredictable policies:** In a situation where a change in rules and regulations Or policies is not communicated to employees, there is bound to be confusion andthis may lead to conflict.

(l) **Different personal values:** An employee might be asked to perform a task that is against his moral or ethical belief. When this happens, there will be conflict.

7.4.4 Methods of Solving Conflict

Although a certain amount of organisational conflict may be seen as inevitable, there are a number of ways in which management can attempt to avoid the harmful effects of conflict. The under-listed techniques may be of immense help in situations where one is a participant and in situations where one is a facilitator:

(a) **Acting promptly:** It should be noted that the longer a problem goes unattended to, the greater the chances that it will escalate into a major issue. If the conflict involves emotions, the parties will need time to cool off. 24- 48hours should be sufficient.

(b) **Scheduling a meeting:** Whenever possible, meet face-to-face so that the participants can take advantage of non-verbal cues.

(c) **Using Active Listening:** Every conflict has two sides and each party believes his or her side is the accurate or "right" side. Both parties want to be heard and understood. Before a conflict can be resolved, both parties must be able to separate what happened from how they feel about it. Paraphrasing can be valuable in this effort.

(d) **Focusing on the problem not the person:** Laying blame delays resolution. The parties must respect themselves and each other.

(e) **Brain storming:** Parties should look for win-win opportunities, and negotiate, if necessary.

(f) **Formalising the solution:** Putting the solution on paper allows both parties the opportunity to see as well as hear it and minimises the likelihood that they will later disagree on the solution.

(g) **Implementing the solution and setting a follow-up:** The follow-up creates an air of accountability.

7.4.5 Towards Conflict Resolution

(a) **Taking the first step:** One person in a conflict must initiate its resolution. Although some perceive the person who takes the first step as the weaker party, others believe he/she is the stronger. Before taking the first step, one should critically analyse the situation and one's role in it. When approaching the other person, one should do it with sincerity. It is better to issue an invitation, rather than to give a directive.

(b) **Listening before speaking:** During the resolution meeting, one should allow the other person to tell his/her side of the story first story. One should demonstrate empathy. Words should be chosen carefully. For one toget angry, arguing, telling the person to be quiet and listen will make the situation worse. One should listen attentively and look for areas of agreement.

(c) **Proffering a solution:** After identifying areas of agreement, one should move to those in which resolution will be necessary. One should begin to propose a solution. A second meeting should be scheduled for lists that are complex and long with the assurance that one would come up with possible solutions.

(d) **Supervisor's intervention:** As a manager or accounting supervisor, one may learn about the existence of a conflict by (a) observing it, (b) being told of it by one or both parties involved or (c) being informed by a third party. When the supervisor becomes aware of a conflict situation, he should demonstrate neutrality towards all the parties involved in the conflict. However, the supervisor must refrain from apportioning blame or forcing the offender to apologise. In all this, the privacy of the exercise should be upheld.

7.4.6 Conflict Resolution, Mediation and Negotiation

Conflict resolution, mediation and negotiation are three distinct, though related activities. In conflict resolution, the ultimate goal is to ‘ put to rest’ an identified conflict situation. In conflict mediation, on the other hand, the focus is on the“middle-man position” which the facilitator plays, whereas conflict negotiation involves the “give-and-take‟, which all the parties in a conflict situation engage in.

Whether resolving, mediating or negotiating in a conflict situation, the facilitator is guided by certain communication ethics. What are these? Communication ethics are guiding principles which, when faithfully followed, ensure the success of the task of a facilitator in a conflict situation. And what are these principles? They may be summarised as: listening, summarising and questioning. This tripartite cycle operates in a vicious circle. Effective listening followed by an objective summary of all the arguments involved and finally by appropriate questioning forms a full circle, which may be repeated several times over before the conflict situation may be said to be resolved, mediated or negotiated.

In practical terms then, the facilitator is not a ‘ rescuer’, but a “supporter” of those involved in a dispute. The disputants are the real owners of the conflict and should, therefore, be given the chance to ‘steer their ship’ –the facilitator should only providethe enabling environment.

7.4.7 Conflict Management Styles

Conflict, as it has been said, is inevitable in organisations. Conflict also comes from a variety of sources such as individual differences, personality differences, values, clash of interests, etc. When conflict is embraced as a way of life, one can make the most out of the conflicting situation by taking the situation as an opportunity to make things

better. There are five conflict management styles identified: Accommodating, Avoiding, Collaborating, Competing and Compromising.

a. **Accommodating** – this is when one cooperates with the other party in the dispute with a view to resolving it. It indicates a willingness to meet the needs of the other party at the expense of one's needs. One party knows when to give in to the other party. This style is appropriate when the resolution of the conflict matters more to the other party when peace is more valuable the winning. This approach may, at times, not give the best outcome. This style is also known as 'smoothing.'

b. **Avoiding** – this is when one simply avoids the issue involved in the conflict. Avoiding is adopted when the atmosphere surrounding the conflict is charged and there is the need to cool off. During the period of avoiding, the issue involved may be resolved. On the other hand, during the process of waiting, the conflict can escalate. This is also known as "withdrawing."

c. **Collaborating** – this is where one partner collaborates with the other party to achieve their goals. It requires a degree of trust on the part of each of the parties involved. To reach a consensus here may take some time and effort to get everybody to agree to the solution proffered. Collaboration encourages the sharing of ideas for solutions to the conflict. This style is also known as "win- win" technique.

d. **Competing** – this is when one refuses to co-operate with the other party infinding solution to the conflict. Here, each party to the conflict pursues his goal, resisting pressure from the other party to submit, or to force the other party to accede to his request if the conflict is to be resolved. This approach is employed when quick, decisive action is needed. This is known as the "win-lose" approach.

e. **Compromising** – this is where neither party achieves its aim. In this situation, each party is expected to sacrifice personal goals to achieve the ones they agree upon. Each party agrees to do its part to resolve the conflict. In other words, each parties involved in the conflict is ready to give up at least a part of what it wants. This is known as "lose-lose" technique.

7.5 Labour and industrial relations within an organisation

Labour and industrial relations are two interrelated concepts that take place within organisations.

7.5.1 The concept of labour

Labour refers to the effort expended on a particular task, toil or work which requires hard work for its accomplishment and which also demands effort. Labour also refers to workers in general; the working class, the workforce, sometimes specifically the labour movement, organized labour, etc.

7.5.2 The concept of industrial relations

Industrial Relations refer to the relationship between Management and workers in a given industry. Industrial Relations is alternatively referred to as labour relations. The relationship between employer and employees borders on employer and employees' welfare, salaries and fringe benefits, industrial harmony, staff development, career development, etc., which are the rights of each employee. Labour/ Industrial Relations are very vital in labour /industrial organisations and they are usually enhanced by the labour/ trade unions, which are the pressure groups within the private and public services theworld over. Examples are the Nigeria Union of Teachers(NUT), Nigeria Bar Association (NBA), Nigerian Union of Journalists (NUJ), to mention but a few.

7.5.3 The labour unions and the trade unions

Labour Unions are a continuous association of wage-earners for the purpose of maintaining or improving the conditions of their employment. They are alternatively referred to as trade unions. Efforts are usually made to ensure that people of integrity are elected to represent their interests with the Management of the organisations. Those people are supposed to be selfless, mature, dogged, and trustworthy.

The Labour/Trade Unions operate within the ambit of the labour law. Labour law refers to the entire statutory law which regulates the relationship between employer, employee, labour union and the Government. Labour laws are normally enforced by industrial courts and industrial arbitration panels, especially if and when there are industrial conflict and disharmony to be resolved. Labour laws are very germane to industrial relations. The rights of both the employer and the employee are explicitly stated in the industrial laws and any personage who violates them is liable to the appropriate sanctions as the judge may deem fit. For this reason, every member within the working environment is expected to be familiar with the job ethics, conditions of service and code of conduct within the organisation.

(A) Bargaining and bargaining strategies

Bargaining refers to making an agreement between parties concerning the sale of property; or a contract by which one party binds himself to transfer the right to some property for a consideration, and the other party binds himself to receive the property and pay the consideration. Bargaining, furthermore, refers to making an agreement or stipulation or mutual pledge. Bargaining is also a discussion in order to reach an agreement about a sale, contract or anything of that nature.

While bargaining, the robustness of bargaining power is very pertinent. Bargaining power refers to the ability to influence the setting of prices or wages, usually arising from some sort of monopoly position- or a non-equilibrium situation in the market. It is also the general concept of how much leverage or influence a bargainer has in the course of a negotiation.

(B) Reasons for bargaining within labour organisations

There are various reasons for bargaining within labour organizations. These include the following:

(i) The need for improved working conditions,

(ii) Breaching of agreement between the employers and the employees,

(iii) Violations of the rights of the employees,

(iv) Salary increase,

(v) Stagnation in workers’ promotion,

(vi) Deprivation of workers’ entitlements.

(C) Bargaining strategies

The term, bargaining strategies, refers to a plan of action intended to accomplish a specific goal. It is also the use of advance planning to succeed in politics or business, based on one or more of the following considerations:

(i) Observation of workers' needs,

(ii) Ascertaining the needs as necessary and genuine,

(iii) Making the needs known to the appropriate authorities,

(iv) Consultation with the authorities on the needs and how to work towards achieving them,

(v) Consultation with members through meetings, opinion polls, congresses, commitments,

(vi) Entering into memorandums of understanding between the negotiating parties,

(vii) Embarking on warning strikes, if all other avenues to resolve the issues fail,

(viii) Finally, sometimes industrial actions are inevitable.

(ix) Continuation of further negotiations and bargaining, even when the industrial actions persist.

7.6 HANDLING CRITICISMS IN HUMAN COMMUNICATION

Criticisms in human communication have been in existence since time immemorial.

Even though criticisms are disliked by people, they cannot be eliminated hence the business person should learn the art of giving and receiving criticisms effectively.

7.6.1 Giving Criticisms

(a) **One should be sure he has the authority to criticise the receiver:** Lack of authority to criticise will lead to the rejection of criticisms.

(b) **Criticise one relevant concern at a time:** When people are piled with many criticisms they become dejected– hence criticisms should not be compounded.

(c) **Check facts:** Facts should be checked before delivering criticisms as receivers of criticisms who identify any element of lies in criticisms can argue about them.

(d) **Criticise privately:** Face-to-face criticism is preferable. Receivers of criticisms should not be embarrassed in the process.

(e) **Offer only constructive criticisms:** Criticisms that are offered to remedy problems are more effective.

(f) **Accept partial responsibility:** If appropriate, one should accept partial responsibility for the problem.

(g) **Use "blameless" gestures:** One should be aware of the verbal and non-verbal cues that accompany the message. Conversational pace and tone should be used. Blameless gestures should be used.

7.6.2 Receiving Criticisms

People find it more difficult to receive criticisms and mostly respond with "fight or flight." Fighting is manifested in defensiveness, arguments and counterattack remarks. Feeling can be physical (e.g avoiding face-to-face or telephone contact), or mental tuning out. All these do not solve the problems involved. When faced with criticisms, the following should be adopted:

(a) **Agreeing:** A person faced with factual criticisms should acknowledge the other person's feelings and make a promise to reduce the errors or faults that led to the criticisms.

(b) **Seeking more information:** Showing interest in what prompts the criticisms can help a person to decide how to fix whatever prompted it. One should do the following:

- Ask for specific example. For example. "Can you show me where the errors are?"
- Describe a situation and ask whether it illustrates the problem.
- Ask how you can improve by requesting for specific suggestions that might help.

7.7 SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed issues of ethics in the workplace. It has identified the types and sources of conflicts in organizations. The management of conflict as well as ancillary issues in human communication such as giving and receiving criticisms, have also been discussed.

7.7 END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

7.7.1 MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. Which of the following does NOT promote positive personal relationships?

   A. Focusing on problem solving
   B. Being honest
   C. Listening with an open mind
   D. Not showing concern for others
   E. Not being dishonest

2. Diversity in communication within an organisation may be accommodated

through the following EXCEPT

A. Learning about different cultures
B. Viewing diversity as an opportunity
C. Looking down on people
D. Not ignoring human differences
E. Having open discussions

3. In accommodating diversity, open discussions do NOT enhance

A. Exposure of concerns
B. Exposure of attitudes and feelings of culturally-different peoples
C. Elimination of different forms of misconception
D. Promotion of misunderstanding
E. Improvement of relationships

4. ONE of the following is NOT a difference in individuals that need to be accommodated in communication.

A. Gender
B. Race
C. Blood group
D. Age
E. Education

5. Which of the following is NOT necessarily a reflection of the "Communication Climate" in an organisation?

A. Prestigious working environment
B. Positive feelings of workers to their duties and responsibilities
C. The trust and good will of management is felt by employees
D. Employees feel appreciated by management
E. Mutual respect among all concerned

7.7.2 SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. A good communication climate in an organisation is dependent on ____________________members of the organisation.

2. The term "Communication Climate" means the ___________of personal Relationships in an organisation.

3. Personal relationships are usually initiated through___________________.

4. Cultural Communication Climate

5. Focusing on problem-solving between two individuals is one of the major steps in the development of good_____________relationships.

7.7.3 ESSAY

1. Describe briefly the FOUR ways through which positive relationships in the organisation can be promoted.
2. Communicators who succeed in a diverse work place must educate themselves about different cultures in order to be considered successful communicators.
   As an Accounting Officer working in an organization that has strong belief in diversity, discuss briefly any FOUR techniques you will put in place to have effective communication in such an organization?

7.8 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

7.8.1 SOLUTION TO MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. D
2. C
3. D
4. C
5. A

7.8.2 SOLUTION TO SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. all
2. type
3. conversation
4. differences
5. personal

7.8.3 SOLUTIONS TO ESSAY

QUESTIONS QUESTION 1

The development of positive personal relationships in an organisation is considered to be a major determinant of organisational effectiveness. The six supportive statements that can be used to provide positive relationships are:

(a) Using descriptive "I" language. The effective communicator inhis desire to improve positive relationships, should eliminate statements that are often called "You" language because they point a verbal finger of accusation at the receiver, e.g. "You are wrong".

By contrast, descriptive statements which are often referred to as "I" language should be used. The "I" language is considered to be non-judgmental and will improve positive personal relationships in the organisation.

(b) Focusing on solving problems - A person desiring to Improve positive personal relationships should focus on solving problems and not controlling others. Messages should not force others to do things that they do not agree with or understand. People should concentrate on problem-oriented messages aimed at solving both parties' needs. Solutions should be developed to take total approach on solving problems.

(c) Being honest. Once people discover that they have been manipulated, a defensive reaction is almost guaranteed. People should exhibit honesty since this will reduce defensiveness even when the newsis unwelcome.

(d) Showing concern for others – Lack of acknowledgement or concern for others is a strong message that shows unwillingness to cooperate with others. By contrast, a genuine message of interest can make tremendous difference. A simple apology from a person for an infringement on others' rights can work wonders.

(e) Demonstrating an attitude of equality: People who act in a superior manner imply that others are inferior – a clearly, disconfirming message. Any form of' superiority can arouse defensiveness and this should be avoided to improve positive personal relationships in the organisation.

(f) Listening with an open mind: Listening with an open mind makes good sense. Listening to others will, by all means, provide some benefits for the listener. A part from providing useful information, open-minded listening can promote good relationship.

QUESTION 2

The decline in births and changes in demographic patterns in certain parts of the world means that most organizations have problems with the adequacy of their staff members. One way of reducing this shortage is to employ people from different backgrounds i.e. people from diverse backgrounds.

It should, however, be noted that employing people across diversity has its problems and as an Accounting Officer, I will use the following techniques to ensure effective communication in my organization

(i) Learning about different cultures: Many cultural problems are not caused by malice but lack of knowledge. Mistaken assumptions can lead to trouble. Fora person to be an effective communicator in diverse cultural setups, the person should demonstrate an extreme level of open mindedness.

(ii) Viewing diversity as an opportunity. One should view cultural differences as an opportunity. When dealing with people who have different attitudes or customs, even though takes patience, also offers the learner the opportunity to do business effectively across such cultures.

(ii) Not despising people: Even though it is easy to view people who are different as inferior, this does not promote positive relationships in the organisation. People should eschew this behaviour and try as much as possible to show respect for others from diverse backgrounds.

(iii) Talking about differences: When people from different backgrounds do not talk to one another, wrong perceptions can take root. As an Accounting Officer what can be done to be a successful communicator is to talk about the differences that exist within the cultures of people from diverse backgrounds. This will be an effective technique to ensure successful communication in the organisation.

CHAPTER 8

COMPREHENSION AND SUMMARY

CHAPTER CONTENT

- Understanding the objectives of a comprehension text
- Practical knowledge of accurately tackling comprehension questions
- Understanding the essence of a summary passage
- Summarizing passages accurately

8.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this chapter, you should be able to

- Demonstrate an understanding of the objectives of a comprehension text
- Develop the capacity to understand and respond accurately to comprehension question
- Demonstrate an understanding of the objectives of a summary passage
- Develop the capacity to understand and respond to summary questions

8.1 INTRODUCTION

It has been observed over the years that candidate's performances in the compulsory section of the Communication Skills paper has not been impressive as the scores obtained are usually below average. This section presents the candidates with either a comprehension or a summary passage, after which the candidates are asked to answera number of questions. Whether the passage is for comprehension or summary, almost the same language skills are being tested. In each case, the passages given are written in good modern prose. The passages are of various forms; some might be narrative, descriptive, expository or argumentative, directions or instructions, explanation of an idea, and so on. These various forms, of course, might have been taken from translations, fiction, drama, travels, modern historical records, current economic and/or political interest in Africa or other lands. This is so because candidates' level of understanding of the content of some given information is being tested. The slight difference between summary and comprehension is that in the former, the candidates are expected to answer the questions in complete sentences and in specific number, stating the main ideas in the given passage. This is why comprehension and summary are taken together in this chapter.

8.2 COMPREHENSION

Comprehension is essentially the ability to understand something. It is the understanding and interpretation of what is read. It is the reason for reading. If readers can read the words, but do not understand or connect to what they are reading, they are not really gaining anything from their reading. So, to succeed in comprehension, the reader must be able to read purposefully, absorb what is read, analyse it and make sense out of it.

How then should candidates handle comprehension passages? The simplest answer, of course, is for them to READ them; there is no alternative if they want to UNDERSTAND the contents of the passages. But there are different categories of readers. This is the crux of the matter. There are slow and fast readers, for example. Each of these categories of readers has its own way of approaching the reading as long as their goal is the same – to understand the information the writer of the passage is passing on to the reader. While a slow reader can hardly read the passage twice before answering the questions, a fairly good reader may conveniently read the passage three times. Usually, the first reading is fairly fast to familiarize the reader with the contentof the passage. At this stage, the reader should not endeavour to pause to consider meanings of certain words, group of words or expressions. If this is done, the reader will not only confuse himself/herself but will also ruin subsequent reading(s).

Having gone through the passage once fairly quickly, the second and/or subsequent reading(s) should be attempted more slowly and purposefully. Here, the reader should take note of main or major points and disregard irrelevant materials. It is at this stage that the reader begins to determine the meaning of words, groups of words or expressions used as well as the general information provided in the passage. Generally,traditional or what is known as free-choice questions are asked at the end of the passage. The reader is free to answer the questions the way he likes, based on his/her understanding of the content of the passage. The answers given are expected to be written in the reader's own words as much as possible. The facts that are contained in the passage read are also expected to be used.

The types of questions that are asked in comprehension exercises are a combination of free choice questions and questions on grammar, vocabulary and figures of speech. As it has been said earlier, in answering free choice questions, the reader must be careful as well as use his /her own words as much as possible. It should be emphasized here that the answers given must be very short ones. The obvious advantages derivable from this are that less time is wasted and the chances of making grammatical mistakes are reduced to the barest minimum, if not totally eradicated.

When the questions are on grammar or vocabulary, the reader may be asked to replace words taken from the content of the passage with other words or he/she may be asked to explain given words, phrases and/or expressions. When the questions require explanation, the reader is free to explain the way he/she understands the words,phrases or expressions as long as his/her explanations are not too long. This is best done in phrases, which should fit the context in which the word, phrase or expression occurs in the passage. The same is applicable to the question that requires replacing a word with another word. The words that are replacing the words extracted from the passage should fit in perfectly into the context of such words. A noun, for example, cannot be given to replace an adjective. In other words, the word replacing a particular word should belong to the same word class; otherwise it will be out of place. Wherethe question stipulates a replacement with another word, ONE word is required and not TWO as some candidates usually do. Disobeying this rule costs candidates a loss of marks and so this should be avoided by all means.

In addition to questions on grammar and vocabulary, questions on different types phrases, clauses and sentences and their functions, word classes and their functions and different kinds of figures of speech are asked. The level of understanding of the reader is revealed in his/her responses to these types of questions.

From the above consideration, answering comprehension questions is not an easy task. To do well in a comprehension exercise therefore, the reader should be prepared to read wide. The reader should not only rely on textbooks, but must also be prepared to read wide. The reader should read anything that is written or printed in Standard English. In this respect, he/she should read newspapers, magazines, periodicals, journals, and so on regularly.

ILLUSTRATION 8.1

Read the following passage carefully and answer the questions on it

One of the reasons for the <u>emergence</u> of externalities is the fact that property rights are either not well defined or poorly enforced. When property rights are well established, the owners can be fully protected in law against any person misusing or abusing it.

In what has come to be called the Coase theorem, it has been shown that, if property rights are well established, parties to pollution can voluntarily work out solutions without resort to intervention by a third party like government.

Let us illustrate how the Coase <u>proposition</u> could work in a hypothetical case of two firms having property rights on a stream. Suppose Firm A is a laundry business and has property rights over the use of the stream. Then assume that Firm B is a textile manufacturer and pollutes the stream so that the laundry firm cannot use it. Either B can compensate A to accept the polluted water or A to induce B to stop polluting it by stopping the manufacture of textiles. Coase notes that, if transaction cost is zero, the result will be the same no matter who initiates the action. Thus, a voluntary action to protect one's property rights can lead to internalization of externalities.

The major problems in the application of the Coase theorem are worth noting. First, the assumption of zero transaction cost is untenable, especially where agents affected by detrimental externality are numerous. It is always difficult to organize such agents for establishing a consensus which may result in optimal bargaining. Second, the parties to the bargaining may have unequal bargaining resources. For example, if illiterate villagers whose land has been rendered useless by pollution attempt to extract concessions from a sophisticated oil company, they may not be able to achieve their own aim.

Despite the above shortcomings, however, the Coase theorem underscores two important points about dealing with an externality problem. These are that there is a need to have property rights well defined and legally enforced, and that voluntary actions could be initiated in most cases. Such a lesson is particularly relevant in LDCs where governmental resources have been overstretched in trying to cope with many social problems. Self-reliance in resolving some pollution problems is, therefore, indicated.

QUESTIONS

a. In the context of the passage, what are 'property rights'?
b. What does the writer say should be done to prevent a third party intervention in a property rights claim?
c. What are the two weak points of the Coase theorem, according to the writer?
d. The writer gives two advantages of the Coase theorem. What are these?
e. … whose land has been rendered useless by oil pollution
    i. What is the grammatical name given to this expression?
    ii. What is its function?
    iii. What type of phrase is '*by oil pollution*.'?
f. Why does the writer use two commas in the sentence: *Coase notes that, if transaction cost is zero, the result will be the same no matter who initiates the action*.?
g. Give another word to replace each of the following words as used in the passage.
    i. emergence
    ii. proposition
    iii. compensate

iv. initiates

v. consensus

vi. sophisticated

SOLUTION

a. The expression, 'Property rights' means the privilege of owning property. OR It is the privilege of owning property.

b. i. Property rights should be well defined.

ii. Property rights should be properly established.

c. i. The hypothesis of zero transactions cannot hold where affected agents are many as a consensus is not easy to arrive at.

ii. Parties involved in property rights dispute may not have equal bargaining power.

d. i. Property rights should be properly defined and legally enforceable.

ii. Self-reliance in resolving property rights problems is possible.

e. i. (Relative) adjectival clause

ii. It qualifies (the noun) "villagers"

iii. It is a prepositional phrase

f. The two commas are used to isolate the adverbial phrase (if transactions cost is zero)

g

i.	emergence	- coming, advent
ii	proposition	- suggestion, recommendation
iii	compensate	- repay, redress, requite, indemnify, recompense
iv.	initiates	- begins, starts, pioneers, originates
v.	consensus	- agreement, understanding

vi. sophisticated - cultured, refined, urbane, polished

8.3 SUMMARY WRITING

Summary writing is, essentially, a comprehension test. In this exercise, a passage, usually of a considerable length, is given and at the end, certain forms of questions are asked. The types of questions asked here are different from those asked at the end of a comprehension passage. For summary, at the end of the passage given, two or three, or even more, questions are asked calling for the main ideas in the passage. As a matter of fact, the questions are rather specific and concise.

The questions that may be asked take the form of stating

- The problems hindering something;
- The stages of a process;
- The advantages of one thing over another;
- The uses of and/or reasons for something;
- The argument for and/or against an idea;
- The similarities/differences between/among two or more subjects;
- The differences between certain views, etc.

To do well in a summary exercise, the reader requires:

a. an understanding of the content of the given passage;

b. a thorough understanding of the instructions given;

c. setting out the requirements very succinctly.

The reader should have no problem with understanding the passage given, since this isessentially a comprehension technique which has been discussed in the first part of this chapter. There is no shortcut to understanding the information contained in the passage other than to read it. The passage, as in the case of comprehension, is passing on SPECIFIC INFORMATION and the writer has a way of passing this information across to the reader. This may be in form of an expanded idea, a process, a view, and the like. It is, therefore, the duty of the reader to look for this information and the way the writer puts his message across.It is necessary to state here that the reader cannot understand the passage at ONLY one reading. It is advisable that the reader should take time off to read the passage two or three times.

We might say that understanding the passage and understanding the instructions given are two different things. It is a common feature to find candidates using the right materials, but disobeying instructions or vice versa. And the reason for this is that these candidates only understand the passage but fail to understand the instructions. To know what the instructions/questions demand, candidates should analyse the content of the questions/instructions. If it is similarities, differences, advantages, uses of, or reasons for are demanded, these are precisely what should be looked for and written out.

8.4 PRINCIPLES OF SUMMARY WRITING

The procedure for answering summary questions include the following

a. Reading the passage for the first time fairly rapidly without actually paying too much attention to details;

b. Reading the passage again a second (or even a third) time fairly slowly, now paying attention to details;

c. Reading the questions/instructions making sure what is demanded in each question/instruction is understood;

d. Jotting down, in note form, the materials needed from the passage as required by the questions/instructions;

e. Writing out a summary of items in one's own words making use of the materials that have been gathered from the passage. Here, adherence to the number of sentences required in the correct form is compulsory. Each sentence must not be too long to avoid adding irrelevant material and making grammatical mistakes;

f. Cancelling out neatly, either in ink or pencil, all irrelevant notes that have been jotted down during reading;

g. Reading the answers written to make sure that the materials therein are relevant to the demands of the questions/instructions.

ILLUSTRATION 8.2

Read the following passage carefully and answer the questions on it

From trado-medical (traditional medicine) point of view, sickness is a physical house cleaning. This can be borne out by indisputable evidence. The process of active disease is one which actually saves life and enables us to live long.

It enables the body to cleanse itself of dangerous excesses of impurities that the cleansing organs have been unable to eliminate in the normal way. The situation has become one in which the body is full of waste matters and so the body must seek some way by which to throw it off, or death will ensue. The most usual way is by means of fever – a burning up – such as pneumonia, a feverish cold, etc., and in children, measles, scarlet fever, boils, etc. These processes are produced by the body in an effort to purify it and soothe itself.

Fever, diarrhoea, catarrh, dysentery or an eruptive disease are simply various attempts on the part of nature to cleanse the system. So they should, by no means, be suppressed.

Death should never occur from an acute disease, and under rational natural treatment it does not. Death ensues when suppressive medication is given. The medication may reduce disturbing symptoms for a short time, but it stops the body's effort at self-purification. If the purpose of disease were universally understood from this stand- point it would quickly lose its terrors, and instead be regarded as a friend in disguise.

Many a patient has never fully come to understand himself until he has gone through a severe illness. Then perhaps in the quietness of a trado-medical hospital bed he has a chance to think over all the problems that have brought on his ill health condition. Once he had found the cause he can make these changes that will finally bring him into harmony with himself and nature. It would be accepted as a punishment for abuse of the body by the transgression of the immutable health laws of nature, as advocated by trado-medical physicians. Those who do not obey laws must pay the penalty. This is a great and fundamental truth that cannot be reiterated too frequently and tooforcefully.

We can thus make ourselves free from both acute and chronic diseases by helping nature to make the body clean by taking proper diet and exercise. Trado-medicalism not only cures disease but also helps to maintain health. It can diagnose and cure diseases caused by harmful spell directed to patients by evil hands. Above all, it teaches one to move in line with the natural laws of health and thus remain disease freetill old age.

This is the simple logic why trado-medical doctors regard the appearance of an acute disease as beneficial.

a. In THREE short sentences, state the THREE reasons, one for each, the writer offers as regards sickness being beneficial.

b. In THREE short sentences, state the THREE things, one for each, the writer says we can do to help nature make our body clean.

SOLUTION

a. **i**. Sickness is an agent of purification. OR
Sickness is a physical house cleaning. OR
Sickness cleanses the body of dangerous excesses of impurities.

ii. Sickness ensures long life. OR
Sickness enables one to live longer.

iii. Sickness saves life.

b. i. No suppressive drugs/medication must be used.

ii. Proper diet must be taken.

iii Exercises must be performed.

CHAPTER 9

BASIC LANGUAGE SKILLS

CHAPTER CONTENT

- Identification of basic skills that promote communication
- Functioning of the basic skills in reading and writing
- Types and barriers of the different receiving and sending skills in communication

9.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this chapter, you should be able to

- identify the basic language skills that promote communicative activities;
- examine the working of these language skills in promoting communication.

9.1 INTRODUCTION

Skills, in general terms, refer to endowments (natural or acquired), which an individual possesses and which may, therefore, be used to perform specific tasks. A natural skill is one which is bequeathed to one by nature. That is, one may be born with it or grow up with it, such that it may be taken as an integral part of the person. An acquired skill is one, which is learnt either in a formal or an informal environment. Skills, whether natural or acquired, are of immense benefit to the possessor, since they place him or her at an advantage over another person, who is unskilled. An unskilled labourer, for instance, has a major disadvantage at a construction site in that he or she may be the last to be hired. The skilled labourer, on the other hand, is easily hired because it is expected that his or her skill would be an asset when the construction work demands it. In the same vein, a skilled communicator is of immense benefit to his or her organisation.

What are the relevant language skills that promote communicative activities and how are they inter-related? Basically, there are two types of language communicative skills: receiving and sending. Receiving skills are sub-divided into Listening and Reading skills, while Sending skills are sub-divided into Speaking and Writing skills.

9.2 RECEIVING SKILLS

The receiving skills in man may be likened to the satellite dish which adorns most homes. A satellite ends signals in the direction of the dish. If the dish is not predisposed to receiving such signals, the residents would not benefit from the information coming from the satellite. Furthermore, the better the positioning of the dish, the optimal the reception would be (assuming that the decoder and associated electronic materials are functioning optimally too). As far as language communication receiving skills in man are concerned, listening and reading appear to

be fundamental.

9.2.1 Listening Skill

Listening is a more advanced human activity than hearing because the former requires an effort by the listener to receive information, whereas the latter does not. When an unexpected visitor presses the door-bell, we may or may not hear it, but when the visitor is expected, we are on the lookout forthe bell to ring and, therefore, we listen to it. It is not unlikely that we wouldhear it when it eventually rings.

(A) Definition of Listening Skill

Listening skill may be defined as one aspect of our abilities to receive information attentively. Listening, then, is an active rather than a passive activity. There is a popular saying (cited on the web pages of the Canadian Student Activity Advisors Association), which pitches listening against talking as follows:

We were given two ears but only one mouth.
This is because God knew that listening was twice as hard as talking
(http://www.casaaleadership.ca/mainpages/resources/sourcebook/listening.skills.html) Though subjective, the statement above underscores the complex nature of listening, implying special skill to cope with it.

(B) Types of Listening.

Listening can take different forms. It is generally agreed that the four major types of listening are: informative, empathic, attentive and critical. A fifth type, discriminative, cuts across the other four.

(a) Informative Listening (also known as Inquisitive Listening) is a case in which the listener's primary concern is to understand the message.A successful informative listener is one who is able to grasp the message as it was intended by the giver.

(b) Empathic Listening (also known as Relationship Listening) puts emphasis on understanding and sharing the feelings of the other person- the information- giver. In this case, the listener demonstrates an emotional participatory attachment to the speaker. Therapeutic listening, where medical personnel and other professionals allow a patient to talk through his or her problems, is a good example of empathic listening.

(c) Attentive Listening (also known as Appreciative Listening) puts the disposition of the listener as of prime importance-not the message *per se.* The success of attentive listening depends on how much enjoyment the listener is able to derive from it. Listening to music, an orator or specific radio programmes are good illustrative examples of attentive listening.

(d) Critical Listening (also known as Objective Listening) is the ability to receive information *with a grain of salt.* This means that critical listening requires the listener to make enough room for objectively receiving the information. Speaker credibility, logical arguments and psychological appeal are key elements that guide critical listening.

(e) Discriminative Listening is the master-key of the other four types of listening. It cuts across the other four listening types in the sense that its main feature, which is grading, is beneficial to all types of listening. For instance, informative listening through the consideration of different shades of the speaker's delivery- rate, volume, voice and emphasis, maydetect different shades of meaning, just as empathic listening could be strengthened through sensing the impact of certain responses, such as "Isee, "or" Indeed", etc. In the same vein, attentive listening may be enhanced by differences between sounds made by different instruments, just as critical listening may be facilitated in judging, not only the speaker's message, but his or her intentions as well, through sensitivity to pauses and other vocal and non-verbal cues.

(C) Barriers to Effective Listening

Effective listening may be handicapped by the following:

(a) Inappropriate receptive poise

An inappropriate receptive poise by the listener is when he or she is not favourably predisposed to listening. This may happen in several ways, which may be broadly divided into physical and mental indisposition. A physically or mentally indisposed listener, positions himself or herself wrongly for effective listening. For instance, a member of an

audience, who decides to
look out through the window in order to count the number of red cars driving by during a speech, is not likely to benefit from much of the information being provided by the speaker. This is because the eyes are physically focussed away from the message and the mind is busy contemplating other matters – sorting out cars by their colours and then counting them.

(b) Lack of cooperation with the speaker

A listener, who does not 'cooperate' with the speaker, makes the delivery more difficult. How does the good listener cooperate? Cooperation comes mainly in form of encouragement to go ahead with the information delivery because there are positive signs that what has been delivered so far has been well received and there is room to accommodate further items that may be offered. Lack of encouragement to forge ahead with information delivery discourages the giver of the information, and this may constitute a great barrier to effective listening.

(c) Loss of concentration

When a listener loses his or her concentration on the information that is being provided by the speaker, the reception is likely to be impaired. For instance, when a listener's mind wanders away from the message being received, it is likely that the part of the message supplied during period of inattentiveness would be lost. This may adversely affect what had been received earlier as well as what may be received afterwards. Loss of concentration thus constitutes a barrier to effective listening.

(d) Relaxing while listening

Listening is a positive activity, and as such can never be done in a passive manner. Therefore, a listener cannot afford to relax when listening. The listener’s mind is not a pint pot that can be filled by pouring in speech. The input has to be monitored, analysed and filed by the mind, and these activities cannot be carried out effectively while relaxing.

(e) Speech lag

Because the listening speed is faster than that of the speaking rate, the listener's mind has to slow down to keep pace with the speaker. This is known as speech lag. The resultant effect on the listener is that his mind may wander and loose concentration.

(D) Enhancing Effective Listening

Effective Listening may be promoted by sharpening the following skills:

(a) Living up to expectation.

There are specific traits which characterise a good listener. Therefore, for effective listening, the listener must show evidence that he or she possesses such traits. When the giver of information perceives such traits in a person, then there is the likelihood that the information flow would be enhanced. It is, therefore, not enough to be a good listener-the good listener must be seen to be one. To enhance effective listening, then, the listener must act as a good listener.

(b) Use of other bodily receptors apart from the ear

It is obvious that the ears are the primary means through which the human body receives sound impulses. However, a good listener exploits other bodily receptors in order to enhance effective listening. For instance, looking at the speaker straight in the face, barring cultural peculiarities, may be a signal to the giver of information that the listener has undivided attention. Eye contactis an indication of keeping in touch.

(c) Use of non-verbal signals.

Effective listening may be enhanced through the use of non-verbal signals. In an attempt to encourage the giver of information, a good listener could use non-verbal signals at his or her disposal. Take, for instance, the use of a simple smile to indicate reception and approval of a message. This is the type of feedback mechanism that a speaker requires in order to forge ahead more vigorously with his or her message.

(d) Use of receptive language

In circumstances that permit the receiver of information to react, using language, it is important to consider the appropriateness of the language being used. In such circumstances, receptive rather than broadcast language is recommended. Receptive language consists of words and expressions that confirm receipt and acceptance of the message, whereas broadcast language ischaracterised by an undirectional flow of information, which is not a response

to any stimuli. The former is obviously the preferred alternative. Included in receptive language are expressions such as "Really?" ... "Obviously!”..."I didn't know that," etc.

(e) Concentrating on the information

Concentrating on the content of the information, rather than mentally debating or judging it, enhances listening. This is because such an attitude prevents unnecessary distraction and, therefore, enhances listening.

9.2.2 Reading Skill

Reading skill is the other major ability of man (apart from listening skill), required for receiving information. There is a close relationship between reading and writing since the former is an attempt to decode the latter.

(A) Definition of Reading Skill

Reading may be defined as an activity designed to decipher a message which

been coded according to a given orthography. It is not unusual for different languages to employ divergent orthographies for their codification needs. To guarantee standardisation, relevant authorities usually set up regulatory bodies. However, in view of the potential divergences that may arise between codification (through writing) and interpretation (through reading), it is important to constantly sharpen our skill. The rate at which we read and the accuracy of our reading are bothessential yardsticks for measuring success in this endeavour.

(B) Types of Reading

Overtime, man has evolved different methods to cater for his reading needs. The most popular types of reading are: scanning, skimming, light, word-by-word and study-type.

(i) Scanning

Scanning (sometimes referred to as Rapid Survey), is mainly concerned with speed. The activity must take place within the shortest time. Scanning a telephone book, for instance, means searching for specific information (e.g. names). Even on the page, where a relevant name is picked up, all other information is irrelevant andmay, therefore, not be remembered. Skimming

Skimming is also a speed-conditioned reading type. Although no specific item or key word is being looked for, skimming provides an overview of the text. It is a quick glance at the written material to be read. This type of reading is very well employed in sampling, which involves exploring the content of a written material with a view to obtaining details about certain parts, e.g chapter headings or the introduction. Selective reading, which involves reading a specific part of a text and taking out its essence and leaving out the rest, is an expanded version of skimming.

(ii) Light Reading

Light reading, as the name suggests, is " reading for pleasure." Most people read novels, e.g. fiction, just for the fun of reading and would easily forget the story line almost immediately afterwards.

(iii) Word-by-word Reading

Word-by-word reading (also known as Close Reading), involves paying attention to each word in a text. This method is painfully slow, but very rewarding. It is widely used in such disciplines as literature and religious studies, where interpretation is of paramount importance.

(iv) Study-type

Study-type reading is associated with preparing for tests and examinations. The main aim in this case is to assimilate the text and be in a position to recall and exploit this knowledge when the need arises. Different approaches have been developed to take care of the special needs of this type of reading. The most popular of these is the Survey, Question, Read, Recall, Review (SQ3R) approach.

SQ3R is a reading plan developed as a sequence of events that culminates in effective reading. The plan works as follows: first, the reader surveys the text by isolating the key words and ideas as set out in chapter titles and sub- titles; next, possible questions that may be asked by the examiner are drawn up; then, the actual reading takes place; followed by an attempt to recall the facts unaided through recitation; finally, a self-assessment of the reader's performance is carried out by comparing the recitation with the raw text.

Developed by Francis Robinson at Ohio State University during World War II, SQ3R proved to be very efficient for military men who neededto effectively read manuals and retain information contained therein.

Since then, variations of the methods have evolved. The most popularones are:

SQ3R2	Survey, Question, Read, Recall, Review (Repeat)
SQ4R	Survey, Question, Read, Recall, Review, Reflect
SQ5R	Survey, Question, Read, Recall, (W) Rite Reference and Review
SER	Survey, Explore, Review
PSQ5R	Predict, Survey, Question, Read, Recall, (W) Rite, Reference and Review
PROR	Preview, Read, Organize, Review
PORPE	Predict, Organize, Rehearse, Practise, Evaluate
OK4R	Organize, Know, Read, Recall, Review, Reflect

It is good to note that all of them operate on the principle of a step-by-step approach to effective reading. There is no need for one to be rigidly glued to anyof them. Instead, one should be willing to experiment with any that seems to satisfy one's goals. PORPE, for instance, though time-consuming, has proved to be highly suitable for preparing to answer essay questions, just as OK4R has been for multiple-choice questions.

(C) Barriers to Effective Reading

Effective reading may be hampered by several negative factors. Some of these are discussed in the following sub-sections:

(i) Sub-Standard Writing System

If the orthography of a language is not standardized, the ensuing irregularities would adversely affect reading. We may recall a popular computer adage here: *Garbage in, garbage out (GIGO).*

(ii) Inappropriate Reading Methods

Another hindrance to effective reading is the use of an inappropriate reading method. For example, a businessman decides to go through the daily papers quickly, but adopts the word-for-word reading type, it is likely that he would spend more time than he can afford to accomplish the task. This practice may be likened to *putting a square peg in a round hole.*

(iii) Bad Reading Habits

When a reader has imbibed bad reading habits, it becomes extremely difficult to achieve positive results in reading. Bad reading habits include reading for reading sake, favouring speed at the expense of quality of reading and paying undue attention to volume, rather than depth of reading. It is generally agreed that the three worst adult reading habits are:polysyllabic fixation (reading by focusing on the syllables of words, rather than on phrases and larger segments); sub-vocalisation (readingin low tones); and habitual regression (occasionally revisiting words earlier read)

http://www2.hawaii.edu/~linares/readclinics.pdf).

(iv) Conservatism

The average human mind is conservative. This is why old habits diehard. Since reading starts from pre-adult years, it is not surprising that old bad reading habits cultivated from earlier years are hard to shed off.

(D) Enhancing Effective Reading

Four factors that may enhance effective reading are the determination to improve on one's performance, openness to new techniques, willingness to combine methods and readiness to be motivated to practice.

(i) Determination to improve

One's determination to improve on one's performance is one of the factors that may positively influence effective reading. There is a popular belief that "where there is a will, there is a way". Somereaders have been able to double their reading speed through sheer motivation, backed up by necessary training.

(ii) Openness to new techniques

Being open to new techniques is another positive factors that eliminates rigidity and promotes flexibility. There is, thus, a willingness to modify existing practice or completely migrate to a new more cost-effective practice.

(iii) Combining Methods

Preparedness to combine different methods, which are appropriate, also has positive effects on effective reading. There circumstances in which single reading method can guarantee success. For example, preparing for a multi facetted examination, in which there is a section on 'summary' and another on éssay writing' may certainly require different approaches to reading.

(iv) Motivation to practice

Reading is not once-for-all-time affair. There is a constant need to practice. Thus effective reading has to be backed up by a strong motivation to practice.

9.3 PROOFREADING

Proofreading means carefully checking for errors in a text before it is published or shared. It is the very last stage of the writing process, when you fix misspelt words, and misplaced punctuations, typographical errors, formatting issues and stylistic inconsistencies.

Proofreading is essential for any text that will be shared, whether it is an academic paper, a job application, an online article, or a print flyer. Depending on your skills and budget, you can choose to proofread the text yourself or hire a professional. Proofreading focuses mainly on minor errors and inconsistencies. Often a text must havegone through several stages of editing before it is proofread.

In the publishing industry, proofreaders usually check a printed "proof copy" of the text and mark corrections using specialized proofreading marks. In other fields, though, professional proofreaders often work with digital texts and make corrections directly using the track changes feature in Microsoft Word or Google Docs.

9.3.1 Steps in proofreading

Basic proofreading skills are important for anyone who writes. For everyday texts, such as business reports, blogs, correspondence, or college papers, there are some techniques needed for effective and efficient proofreading. Some of these skills are:

i. **Edit your writing first**

Before getting to the final stage of proofreading, the text should be thoroughly revised and edited. There's no point spending time fixing minor errors if you might later remove whole sections or rewrite paragraphs.

ii. **Take a break from the text**

When the same words are being read and re-read for hours or days, it becomes muchharder to notice mistakes. Before proofreading, set your work aside for a while so that you can look at it with fresh eyes. It is ideal to wait for at least a day or two before final proofreading.

iii. **Proofread a printout**

Reading the text on a printed page is another useful strategy for noticing things that might have escaped attention while reading on the screen. If the final version will be printed, this is also a good chance to check whether formatting is correct andconsistent on the page.

iv. **Use digital shortcuts**

While reading from a printout can help in spotting errors, word processing software can help in fixing them efficiently. A spell check can also be carried out, although this may not catch every mistake. The Find and Replace functions can be used to fix mistakes like a repeatedly misspelt word, switching between American and British English, or inconsistent capitalization. To avoid accidentally adding more errors, every replacement must be clicked and checked.

v. **Learn from your mistakes**

Attention should be paid to the errors that keep recurring in the text.

9.3.2 Common errors to look out for in proofreading

Knowing what to look out for is the most challenging part of proofreading. It is easier to notice typographical errors, but subtle mistakes in grammar and punctuation can be harder to recognize.

Some of what to watch out for when proofreading are as follows:

a. Spelling and word choice confusions:

- Confusion between homophones, e.g. *there/they're/their*
- Misuse of definite and indefinite articles, *the/a/an*
- Misuse of preposition.

b. Misplaced punctuation

- Missing or misuse of commas
- Confusion between hyphens and dashes
- Incorrect use of apostrophes

c. Stylistic inconsistencies

- Switching between American and British English conventions
- Inconsistent capitalization of terms and titles
- Inconsistent treatment of numbers

d. Formatting issues

- Incorrect formatting of quotations and citations
- Inconsistent paragraph indentation and spacing
- Missing or misplaced page numbers, headers, and footers.

9.4 SENDING SKILLS

As far as language sending skills in man are concerned, writing and speakingappear to be fundamental.

9.4.1 Writing Skill

From the days of cave-drawing by the earliest civilisations to those of the currentdigital revolution, man has always sought the ways and means to 'talk' *via* the written medium.

(a) Definition of Writing Skill

Writing skill is the special ability in man that enable him to state his desires, thoughtsand actions in written form. In writing, symbols are used to represent words and expressions. There are different systems of writing.

(b) Types of Writing Systems

The major writing systems developed over several civilisations of man maybe divided into: limited writing systems (pictographic) and full writing systems (alphabetic

(i) Limited Writing System (LWS)

Drawing is the major tool of the limited writing system (LWS). This could be in form of pictography or ideography. Pictograms are associated with the early stages of civilisation. Cuneiform writing (developed by the Mesopotamians) and Hieroglyphic writing (by the Egyptians) are good illustrative examples of LWS.

In LWS, several images are chronologically presented. For example, to express the idea: *An old man is leaving the house for the farm,* three images may be needed: (l) house, (2) bearded adult male, facing the farm, and (3) farm.

(ii) Full Writing System (FWS).

A f ull writing system makes use of alphabets. Unlike a pictographic system, FWS conveys no meaning to the reader who does not have the knowledge of the underlying language. For instance, there is no one-to-one correspondence between the English word "man" and the concept, "human, adult, male" that it represents.

(c) Barriers to Effective Writing

Writing is essentially an organised system. Therefore, any disorder is likely to jeopardise its efficacy. Disrespect for established rules;misapplication of rules; bad writing habits; non-standardisation andresistance to change are some of the greatest barriers to effective writing.

(i) Disrespect for established rules

Every standard writing system has its own rules. When these rules are disrespected, the ensuing writing would not be effective. If a writer decided to write in Arabic, starting from the right hand side of the page to the left, he or she is likely to encounter problems similar to those likely to be encountered by someone writing in English from the right hand side of the page to the left just like someone walking backwards!

(ii) Misapplication of rules

When orthographic rules are misapplied, effective writing is hindered. For example, the addition of "s" to the singular form of several words in English transforms them to the plural form. But the application of this rule to such words as *sheep, furniture, aircraft,* etc. will be in appropriate.

(iii) Bad writing habits

Habits are our usual ways of performing specific tasks. When one usually writes illegibly, illogically or haphazardly; the text would not be optimally presented. Illegibility blocks physical appeal, just as illogicality blurs a sensible train of thought. A text haphazardly written is likely to lead to a lot of confusion.

(iv) Non- standardisation

A non-standardised writing system is not capable of generating an optimal text. This is because non-standardisation encourages inconsistency.

(v) Resistance to change Orthographies change overtime. If a writer refuses to go along with approved changes, his or her writings may become isolated and consequently violate current norms.

(vi) Enhancing Effective Writing

Effective writing may be greatly enhanced by high levels of legibility, clarity and use of specific norms.

(vii) Legibility

Legibility is a yardstick of text-appeal. Whether handwritten or type written, a text should be legible. A successful writer always aims at the highest level of legibility in order to be appealing.

(viii) Clarity

The clarity of a text determines its acceptability. When a text is written and logical language, it is easy to understand.

(ix) Use of specific norms

All orthography makes use of specific conventions, which its users are supposed to be conversant with. It is therefore the responsibility of an effective writer to use such conventions appropriately. The use of aabreviations such as ë.g.” (for example) or ëtc” (et.cetera, ánd so on and so forth) is common place in modern English writing)

(iii) Use of spec Abbreviations

An abbreviation is a shortened form of a word, such as “Sept” for “September”. The term, *abbreviation*, comes from the Latin word ***brevis,*** meaning “short”. In American English, many abbreviations are followed by a period (such as "Dr." or "Ms."). In contrast, British usage generally omits the period (or full stop) in abbreviations that include the first and last letters of a single word (such as "Dr" or "Ms"). When an abbreviation appears at the end of a sentence, a single period serves both to mark the abbreviation and close the sentence.

- Common Latin Abbreviations Used in English
  Some of what the common Latin abbreviations stand for and how they are used are as follows:

i. **A.D.**

A.D. stands for *Anno Domini* 'in the year of our Lord' and refers to events after the birth of Christ. It is used as part of a pair with B.C.

A.D. traditionally precedes the date, but this is changing.

ii. **A.M.**

A.M. stands for *ante meridiem* and is sometimes abbreviated a.m. or am.

A.M. means before noon and refers to morning. It starts just after midnight.

iii. **P.M.**
P.M. stands for *post meridiem* and is sometimes abbreviated p.m. or pm.

P.M. refers to afternoon and evening. P.M. starts just after noon.

iv. **Etc.**

This stands for *et cetera* 'and the rest' or 'and so forth'. In English, we use the word etcetera or et cetera without necessarily being aware that it is actually Latin.

v. **E.G.**

This means 'for example.”

vi. **I.E.**

This means “that is.”

- **Some abbreviations used in citations**

i. **Ibid**

Ibid., from *ibidem* means 'the same' or 'in the same place.' This is used to refer to the same author and work (e.g., book, html page, or journal article) as the one immediately preceding.

ii. **Op. Cit.**

Op. cit. comes from the Latin *opus citatum* or *opere citato* 'work cited.' Op. cit. is used when *ibid.* is inappropriate because the immediately preceding work is not the same. You would only use op. cit. if you have already cited the work in question.

iii. **Cf.**

This is used for a comparison with an outside work.

- **Some common abbreviations used in proofreading are:**

i. **ab:** Abbreviation (Use a standard abbreviation or write out the word in full.)

ii. **ad:** Adjective or adverb (Use the correct form of the modifier.)

iii **agr:** Agreement (Use the correct ending to make the verb agree with its subject.)

iv. **awk:** Awkward expression or construction.

v. **cap:** Capital letter (Replace a lowercase letter with a capital letter.)

vi. **case:** Case (Use the appropriate case of the pronoun: subjective, objective,or possessive.)

vii. **coh:** Coherence and cohesion (Make clear connections as you move from one pointto the next.)

viii **coord:** Coordination (Use coordinating conjunctions to relate equal ideas.)

ix. **cs:** Comma splice (Replace the comma with a period or a conjunction.)

xi. **d:** Diction (Replace the word with one that's more precise or appropriate.)

xii. **dm:** Dangling modifier (Add a word so that the modifier refers to something in thesentence.)

xiii. **frag:** Sentence fragment (Add a subject or verb to make this word group complete.)

xiv. **hyph:** Hyphen (Insert a hyphen between these two words or word parts.)

xv. **inc:** Incomplete construction.

xvi. **irreg:** Irregular verb (Check index of verbs to find the correct form of this irregularverb.)

xvii. **ital:** Italics (Put the marked word or phrase in italics.)

xviii. **jarg:** Jargon (Replace the expression with one your readers will understand.)

xix **lc:** Lowercase letter (Replace a capital letter with a lowercase letter.)

xx. **mm:** Misplaced modifier (Move the modifier so that it clearly refers to anappropriate word.)

xxi. **mood:** Mood (Use the correct mood of the verb.)

xxii. **org:** Organization (Organize information clearly and logically.)

xxiii. **p:** Punctuation (Use an appropriate mark of punctuation.)

xxiv. **//:** Parallelism (Express paired words, phrases, or clauses in grammatically parallelform.)

xxv. **run-on:** Run-on (fused) sentence (Separate the word group into two sentences.)

xxvi. **slang:** Slang (Replace the marked word or phrase with a more formal or conventional expression.)

xxvii. **sp:** Spelling (Correct a misspelled word or spell out an abbreviation.)

xxviii. **subord:** Subordination (Use a subordinating conjunction to connect a supportingword group to the main idea.)

xxix. **tense:** Tense (Use the correct tense of the verb.)

xxx. **trans:** Transition (Add an appropriate transitional expression to guide readers fromone point to the next.)

xxxi. **unity:** Unity (Don't stray too far from your main idea.)

xxxii. **wordy:** Wordy writing (Cut out unnecessary words.)

xxxiii. **ww:** Wrong word (Use a dictionary to find a more appropriate word.)

b) Acronym

An *acronym* is a word sometimes formed from the initial letters (fused with segment(s)) ofa name (for example, *NURTW*, from National Union of Road Transport Workers) or by combining initial letters of a series of words (*radar*, from radio detection and ranging). An acronym is also said to "denote a combination pronounced as a word . . . rather than as justa sequence of letters." It is sometimes a pronounceable word formed from the first letter (orfirst few letters) of each word in a phrase or title. The newly combined letters create a new word that becomes a part of everyday language. Using shortened forms of words or phrases can speed up communication Acronym is also called a *protogram*.

(i) Popular Acronym examples

Some popular acronyms and what they stand for:

- Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome

- LASER - Light Amplification by the Stimulated Emission of Radiation
- RADAR - Radio Detection and Ranging
- SMART - Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant, Timely
- SWOT - Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats
- GSM - Global System for Mobile Communications

Groups, organisations, and even individual occupational positions are often known more by their acronyms than their real names. Some professional acronyms that used to be pronounced letter by letter are now pronounced as words.

- NASA - National Aeronautics and Space Administration
- SWAT - Special Weapons and Tactics
- UNICEF - The United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund
- UNESCO -The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural

Organisation

- WAEC - The West African Examinations Council
- ECOWAS - Economic Community of West African States
- NASS - The National Assembly

(ii) Internet acronyms

With interactions happening on e-mail, text messages, Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, and more, acronyms are a part of everyday language. Given the propensity to send quickmessages or posts, fun tweets, the grammar rules pertaining to acronyms and capitalisations are generally not observed. Some of the internet acronyms are:

- FOMO - Fear Of Missing Out
- GIF - Graphics Interchange Format
- JPEG - Joint Photographic Expert Group
- RAM - Random Access Memory
- LOL - Laugh Out Loud

(iii) Acronym usage

Acronyms may be formal or informal. Technically, all the letters in acronyms should be capitalized, but there are exceptions.

In professional writing, the full version of any acronym used should be given at the first mention and the acronym be given in parenthesis. Thereafter, the acronym can be used throughout the rest of the piece of writing.

In an informal situation, most acronyms don't use all capital letters. For example, when people are sending messages to friends, colleagues, parents and relatives, or using social media, they often write acronyms in lowercase letters because it is easier and quicker.

(iv) Acronyms and Abbreviations

The difference between **acronyms** and abbreviations is that acronyms are like proper words created from the initial letter or two of the words in a phrase, and they are pronounced like other words (cf. *sanu, radar, laser,* or *UNESCO*). By contrast, abbreviations do not form proper words, and so they are pronounced as strings of letters, for example, *S.O.B., IOU, U.S.A., MP, lp,* or *tv*.

Acronyms and abbreviations are both means of shortening names or expressions. Whereas the former do not account for the initial letter of every contributory word to the new expression, the latter do. However, an originally alphabetical abbreviation may be accorded the status of an acronym, especially due to common usage in technology and everyday life) (Akmajian et al. (eds.), 2010; Badejo et al. (eds.) 2014).

c) Hyphenation

Hyphenation is the use of a <u>hyphen</u> to break up a word when it reaches the edge of the line. Furthermore, hyphenation may be defined as the use a dash-like punctuation mark to join two words into one or separate the syllables of a word. The word *dash-*

like in the sentence above is formed using *hyphenation*.

In other words, the process of using a hyphen, that short dash in compound words like *dog- friendly*, *fast-acting*, and *well-known*, is what hyphenation is all about. We also use hyphenation when we are writing and need to split a long word between lines, breaking it in half and adding a hyphen between complete syllables.

There are basic hyphen rules that must be followed in writing. These are:

1. Use a hyphen for two-word modifier before nouns.
   When a modifier consists of two words that join together to describe a noun, ahyphen should be used:
   - The two-word modifier needs to come before the noun, e.g. *grass-fed* beef.
   - Both words need to function together to describe the noun, e.g. *hungry-looking* dogs.
   - Neither word should be an adverb ending in –ly, e.g. *human-friendly* laws.

2. Hyphenate compound words that are not combined.
   Many compound words are combined or 'closed' into single words such as *bookcase, cupboard,* and *racecar.* However, there are also many compoundwords and adjectives that are not combined. Here are some examples: *state-of- the-art, free-for-all, mother-in-law, eye-opener, editor-in-chief, out-of-date.*

3. Use a hyphen with many prefixes
   There are three prefixes that nearly always require the use of a hyphen. These areself-, ex-, and all-, as in these examples:
   - The test was *self-administered*.
   - Her *ex-husband* was a cab driver.
   - God is *all-knowing*.

Also a hyphen can be used when the prefix ends with the same letter as the start of theroot word. For example:

- We should *re-elect* the class prefect.
- Let us conduct a *meta-analysis* of the research.
- You are actually expressing an *anti-intellectual* sentiment.

In addition, a hyphen can be used when a prefix comes before a proper noun as in the following examples:

- This action of yours is *un-African*.
- They usually take a vacation in *mid-July*.
- One of the artworks displayed is a beautiful *pre-Raphaelite* painting.

4. Use a hyphen with a few suffixes.
   Most suffixes do not take hyphens. However, there are a few suffixes that need to behyphenated. These include –elect, -style, -based, and –free. For example:
   - The *president-elect* will be present at the ceremony.
   - The painter avoided using *lead-based* paints in painting the rooms.

- Our compound is usually *mosquito-free* this time of the year.

A hyphen is also used when the suffix starts with the same letter or sound that ends theroot word as in these examples:

- The container has a *drip-proof* lid.
- The girl's skirt has a *bell-like* shape.
- They followed a wheel *barrow-wide* path.

5. Hyphenate compound numbers and fractions.
   A hyphen is used in some situations involving numbers and fractions. For example:
   - At age *twenty-five*, he has achieved a lot.
   - The car was going *seventy-five* kilometers an hour.
   - In all, there were *eighty-nine* bottles of beer in

   the crates.All spelt-out fractions are hyphenated as in

   these examples.

   - *Two-thirds* of fresh students are accommodated in the hostels.
   - The figure represents an increase of *one-fifth* of a percent.
   - The rod is three and *one-half* feet in length.

6. In some cases, to avoid confusion in meaning, hyphens should be used.
   If a word to be written will cause confusion without a hyphen, to be on the safe side, ahyphen should be used as in these example:
   - The contractor *re-signed* the contract.The contractor resigned the contact.
   - She *re-sent* the e-mail.She resent the e-mail.
   - The group was made up of *small-business* owners.The group was made up of small business owners.

(e) Précis Writing

Précis writing is a summary or a gist of a comprehensive passage that is supposed to cover all the details and important aspects of the passage conveyed with the use of a minimal number of words. It is like a miniature portrait of the passage. It retains the essential points accompanied with the mood and tone of the author of the passage.

There should be no subjective interpretation or comment in the précis. The writing shouldbe clear with effective sentences and diction. It is the coherence of the views presented inthe writing that matters and this can be achieved by making it concise and to the point.

(i) Features of a good précis

- It must have a title;
- It is marked by clarity, brevity and precision;
- It is written to reflect the writer's own words, not just lifting sentences from theoriginal passage;

- It must be a miniature of the original passage;
- It must have a logical order, well-knit and well-connected;
- It must have coherence;
- It must use linking devices such as *so, therefore, and, because, further,* etc.;
- It must follow the order of presentation of ideas as contained in the original passage;
- It must be written in reported speech;
- It must not contain any details not found in original passage.

(ii) General Guidelines to follow while writing a précis

- Read the passage or text closely, and identify the central idea so that the précis canbe given an apt title;
- Look out for the total number of words contained in the passage/text. If total numberof words is not given, calculate the number by approximation;
- Read the passage/text two or three times;
- Make notes by highlighting the most important points in the passage/text;
- Arrange the points in the most logical order and ensure the order of thought is thesame as that of the original;
- Review your rough draft by removing irrelevant materials and make sure that thereare no language-related errors;
- Before writing the précis, read the original passage/text to make sure nothing ismissed out;
- Write the précis in the third person, indirect speech, and appropriate past tense;
- Count the number of words of the précis and put the number in a bracket at the end.

ILLUSTRATION 9.1

Writing a précis of a given passage.

Sample Passage:

There is an enemy beneath our feet - an enemy more deadly for his complete impartiality. Herecognises no national boundaries, no political parties. Everyone in the world is threatened by him.The enemy is the earth itself. When an earthquake strikes, the world trembles. The power of aquake is greater than anything man himself can produce. But today scientists are directing a greatdeal of their effort into finding some way of combating earthquakes, and it is possible that at sometime in the near future mankind will have discovered a means of protecting itself from earthquakes. An earthquake strikes without warning. When it does, its power is immense. If it strikes a moderncity, the damage it causes is as great as if it has struck a primitive village. Gas mains burst, explosions are caused and fires are started. Underground railways are wrecked. Buildings collapse,bridges fall, dams burst, and gaping crevices appear in busy streets. If the quake strikes at sea, hugetidal waves sweep inland. If it strikes in mountain regions, avalanches roar down into the valley.

Consider the terrifying statistics from the past: 1755: Lisbon, capital of Portugal - the city destroyedentirely and 450 killed. 1970: Peru: 50,000 killed. In 1968 an earthquake struck

Alaska. As this is a relatively under populated part, only a few people were killed. But it is likely that this was one ofthe most powerful quakes ever to have hit the world. Geologists estimate that during the tremors,the whole of the state moved over 80 feet farther west into the Pacific Ocean. Imagine the power of something that can move an entire subcontinent!

This is the problem that the scientists face. They are dealing with forces so immense that man cannot hope to resist them. All that can be done is to try to pinpoint just where the earthquake will strike and work from there. At least some precautionary measures can then be taken to save lives and some of the property. (330 Words)

Based on the above paragraph, the topic sentence for each of the four paragraphs is:

- Earthquake - the deadly enemy of mankind.
- Damage caused by an earthquake in general.
- Damage caused by an earthquake in particular,
- What can the scientists do?

The above four topic sentences are developed into the following outline:

- **Earthquake - the deadly enemy of mankind.**
    - Earthquake strikes all without a distinction of national boundary or political affiliation.
    - The power of a quake is greater than that of a man-made weapon of destruction.
        - Scientists are trying to find out means to combat earthquakes; they will find someway to protect themselves from earthquakes.
    - **Damage caused by an earthquake in general:**
        - Strikes without warning.
        - Modern city when struck reduced to a primitive village.
    - **Damage caused by an earthquake in particular.**
        - Earthquake strikes plains, seas and mountains causing all round destruction.
        - In 1755, Lisbon destroyed, 450 killed.
        - In 1970, Peru struck, 50,000 killed.
    - **What can the scientists do?**
        - In 1968, Alaska hit, subcontinent moved 80 feet into the Pacific Ocean.
        - Scientists cannot resist the powerful earthquake.
        - They can predict the place of origin of the quake so that precaution

Based on the above outline, the précis of the passage **looks like this:**

Earthquake - The Great Destroyer

An earthquake is mankind's deadly enemy. It strikes all without a distinction of nationality or political affiliation. The power of a quake is greater than that of any man-made weapon of destruction. An earthquake strikes mankind without a warning. A modern city when struck is reduced -to a nibble. A quake strikes plains, seas and mountains causing all round destruction. A quake struck Lisbon in 1755, killing 450; Peru in 1970, killing 50,000; Alaska in 1968, moving it80 feet into the Pacific Ocean. Scientists are trying to find out the means to combat earthquakes, to predict the origin of any quake, so that precautions can be taken to save man and property from

(Culled and adapted from: gdpi.hitbulleye.com)

(f) Features of Effective Writing

There are several traits that combine together to constitute a piece of good writing, and thesetraits may greatly vary depending on the writer, the reader, and the context. For example, the writer's tone for an academic research paper should be entirely different from the tone for a blog post. Similarly, a writer needs to understand features/qualities of good and effective writing to be much more formal for business writing purposes than for an online review.

While there are no hard and fast rules on features/qualities of good/effective writing on the basis of which a piece of work can be regarded as good, average, or bad, there do exist several writing traits that are generally considered to be the core ingredients of good/effective writing. These traits apply to all forms and genres of writing, and are universally regarded as 'best practices.'

So whether one is writing an essay, a short story, a blog post, or even a letter to a friend or a college application, here are some features/qualities that can make such writings really standout.

(i) Characteristics of effective writing

- **Focus:** A piece of writing should have a single clear central idea. Each paragraph should have a clear main point or topic sentence. A good/effective piece of writing does not bombard its readers with unnecessary information and ideas, and is entirely focused on the central idea/plot of the writing. It makes sure that the readers come along with ease; and do not have to reread a portion or get lost in the details.

- **Development**: Each paragraph of the writing should support or expand the central ideaof the topic. The idea of each paragraph should be explained and illustrated through examples, details, and descriptions. Supporting details must be relevant and clear. Theymust be related to the subject matter and sufficient.
- **Unity**: Every paragraph in a piece of writing should be related to the main idea. Eachparagraph should stick to its main point. Ideas expressed in a piece of writing must bepresented in a meaningful and logical manner so that they seem connected. The flow ofgood/effective writing is a smooth sail, rather than a road full of bumps.
- **Coherence**: A piece of writing should logically, flow smoothly, and "stick" together. Inother words, everything in the writing should make sense to a reader.
- **Correctness**: A piece of writing should be written in generally correct standard English,with complete sentences, and be relatively error-free.
- **Organisation:** Organization is the progression, relatedness, and completeness of ideas. The writer establishes for the reader a well-organised piece of writing, which exhibits a constancy of purpose through the development of elements forming an effective beginning, middle, and end. A well-organised piece of writing is not only clear, it's presented in a way that is logical and aesthetically pleasing.
- **Ideas and themes:** For a piece of writing to be considered well crafted, it has to contain clearly identifiable ideas and themes.
- **Voice:** In any piece of writing, the voice should be consistent and identifiable. Thisis what sets the writer apart from all other writers. It's his unique way of stringing words together, formulating ideas, and relating scenes or images to the reader.
- **Language/Choice of words:** Good writing includes precise and accurate word choices and well-crafted sentences. A writer should never underestimate or fail to appreciate the most valuable tool: words.
- **Creativity/Originality:** The best of writing carries some of the personality and individuality of the writer. Though the idea of originality or creativity in writing is somewhat arbitrary, putting old ideas together in new ways and creating remixes of the best that writing has to offer is a skill worth developing.

- **Grammar and Style:** For a piece of writing to be considered good/effective, it hasto follow the rules of grammar (and break those rules only when there's a good reason). Style is also important in ensuring that a piece of writing is clear and consistent. While following the rules of grammar is very important, style is also important in ensuring that a piece of writing is clear and consistent.

ILLUSTRATION 9.2

The extract below is a good illustrative example of a piece of writing aimed at exploring the concept: *public relations.* It kicks off with the role of public relations in politics and entertainment, presents the criteria for a successful public relations practice and finally puts forward a state-of-the-art assessment of public relations. Its layout, the orderly logical presentation of the ideas and the clarity of the language are all worthy of note.

Public relations activities are a major part of the political process in many nations. Politicians seeking office, government agencies seeking acceptance and cooperation, officials seeking support for their policies, and foreign governments seeking aid and allies abroad all make extensive use of services provided by public relations specialists.

Public relations also plays an important role in the entertainment industry. The theatre, films, sports, restaurants, and individuals all use public relations services to enhance their image and thereby increase their business. Other public relations clients are educational, social service, and charitable institutions, trade unions, religious groups, and professional societies.

The successful public relations practitioner is a specialist in communication arts and persuasion. His work involves various functions including the following:

(1) planning that is, analysing problems and opportunities, defining goals, determining the public to be reached, and proposing and formulating a campaign of activities;

(2) writing and editing materials such as press releases, speeches, stockholder reports, product information, and employee publications;

(3) placing information in the most advantageous way;

(4) organizing special events such as press functions, award programmes, exhibits, and displays;

(5) setting up face-to-face communication, including the preparation and delivery of speeches;

(6) providing research and evaluation using interviews, reference materials, and various survey techniques; and

(7) managing resources by planning, budgeting, and recruiting and training staff to attain these objectives. Specialized skills are required to handle public-opinion research, media relations, direct mail activities, institutional advertising, publications, film and video production, and special events.

Although its activities, goals, and effects have been subject, at times, to severe criticism, public relations is a significant force in the developed world. To avoid misuse of professional skills, several public relations organisations have developed a code of ethics for members. In totalitarian countries, the state has a monopoly on communications, and any public relations activities are government controlled, as propaganda. Public relations services are so far little used in many developing nations, but they are likely to become more prevalent in the future.

(Adapted from Microsoft Encarta Encyclopaedia 2005 © 1993-2004 Microsoft Corporation).

9.4.2 Speaking Skill

The second fundamental language sending skill in man is speaking. Speaking is tolistening what writing is to reading. In other words, speaking provides the raw materials which listening consequently processes.

(a) Definition of Speaking Skill

Speaking is the art of producing sound waves, to which we ascribe meaning.

Speaking skill enables us to express ourselves verbally. Since our desires, thoughts and actions vary, speaking skill needs to be adjusted accordingly in order to faithfully and effectively reflect them.

(b) Types of Speech

There are two basic types of speech: formal and informal

Formal Speech

Formal speech (also known as official speech) is characterised by officialdom. This means that there are laid-down rules and regulations which must be obeyed. Formal speeches are delivered at ceremonies and public functions, which call for appropriate decorum in terms of mode of address, choice ofwords, timing, poise, etc.

ILLUSTRATION 9.3

In the formal speech presented below, a State Governor shows evidence of adhering to the acceptable format of a formal speech: use of honorifics, appropriate mode of address (formal opening, development and closure of address),and careful choice of words:

Your Excellency, the Deputy Governor,

The Honourable **Speaker,**

Honourable members of the Yobe State House of Assembly,

Distinguished Ladies and Gentlemen!

You would recall that when I addressed this Honourable House on Monday, 13 January. 1992, I informed you that our 1992 Budget estimates would soon bepresented for your deliberations. Today, I have come to fulfil thatinitial undertaking before this Honourable House. As you are, no doubtaware, this Budget shall constitute the first fiscal exercise of the present **administration in the state.**

Honourable members, if you would kindly cast your minds back to the historicoccasion of my assumption of office on 2nd January, you would recall that in my maiden address I did indicate the wanton neglect and deprivationwhich several years of misallocation of resources had visited on our people, especially the rural dwellers. Due to obvious reasons, they were left without basic facilities and amenities that would otherwise maketheir lives comfortable. In every corner of the State, our people barely managed to make ends meet without sufficient water for human and animal consumption, educational facilities **health care delivery facilities, good road networks and input for improved agricultural production.**

Having analysed these problems and prescribed a five-point freedom charter to the people, they immediately responded and gave us an over-whelming mandate. The immediate task before us now is to discharge the odious task of emancipating them from the five evils of poverty, hunger, ignorance, oppression and disease. In accordance with the SDP charge for a just society, we have decided to approach the achievementof this onerous task through the implementation of integrated rural development. This policy is predicated on the provision of water,electricity, health care delivery facilities, roads and inputs forimproved agricultural production to our people in the rural areas. It is in that light that the proposals in the budget being presented before this Honorable House were carefully tailored for your kind consideration.

Mr. Speaker, Honourable members, this Budget may not necessarily solveall our immediate problems. All of us must not lose sight of the fact that what we hope to achieve may not come in the first one hundreddays of the present administration, or in the first year of this administration. Our programmes shall be implemented in phases. However, if we did so much as to lay an enduring, solid and self-sustaining foundation for the effective take-off of Yobe State, even posterity would not judge us as people that failed. It is in this regard that I appeal once again to all of you, Honourable Members, that although some of you are from a political party other than our own, we should close ranks and work as one to ensure the speedy development of the State. We should at all times be mindful of that cake at home, the common

man, irrespective of whether he voted for the SDP or NRC, heneeds the services that this Budget seeks to provide. In view of that, therefore, let us shun partisanship and give these Budget proposals the objective attention and fair deliberations they require.
Finally, I wish you successful and fruitful deliberations on this AppropriationBill. I also wish you the blessing and guidance of the Almighty Allah in this arduous task. I thank you very sincerely for having found time to listen to me. Good day and God bless us all.

(An excerpt from the address by His Execellency, The Governor of Yobe State, Alhaji Bukar Abba Ibrahim, to the Yobe State House of Assembly on the occasion of presenting the state's Appropriation Bill (budget) for1992 on Monday, 20th January, 1992.)

(ii) **Informal Speech**

Informal speech is characterised by the absence of officialdom. There are hardly any restrictions in terms of subject, choice of words, timing, poise, etc. The overriding principle is to engage in the art of talking *with out borders.* Most of our daily conversations, especially outside the office, fall within this category of speech.

(c) Barriers to Effective Speaking

Effective speaking, whether formal or informal, may be hampered mainly by inadequate preparation, in appropriateness of format and inappropriateness of context.

(i) Inadequate preparation

Any action for which we are inadequately prepared may not be s performed optimally. For formal speaking, formal preparation is necessary. This may involve drawing up an outline, rehearsing the speech and previewing thecontext.

(ii) Inappropriateness of format

The format of a speech is very important. It must present the message appropriately and be admissible by the audience. An inappropriate format, for instance, would be one in which a technical report on current research on breast cancer is presented to an audience made up of industrialists, seeking investment opportunities. An appropriate format for the report would be one in which emphasis is placed on what yet-to-be- patented drugs have been found to be effective in cancer treatment.

(iii) Inappropriateness of context

The context within which a speech is presented contributes to the determination of it effectiveness. When a speech is delivered, for instance, in a beer parlour, to an audience made up of construction workers, it may be perceived as a comedy. Some members of the audience would easily take it as a mockery of the middle or upper class

(d) Principle of Effective Speaking

Three basic principles that promote effective speaking are: purposefulness, clarity and preparedness.

(i) Purposefulness

Goals and objectives should be set in order to achieve effectiveness in speaking. The speaker should attempt toprovide answers to such questions as: To whom would the speech beaddressed? What is the message? How the message is best delivered? When (i.e.in terms of timing) and where (i.e. in terms ofphysical context) is the message to be delivered?

(ii) Clarity

Simplicity is a signal of clarity. It is advisable not to drown one's audience in complex formulations. Correct pronunciationbacked up by appropriate pausing, suitable volume, warm enthusiasm, necessary poise, correct choice of words and the use of an outlineare all essential tools of clarity.

(iii) Preparedness

Preparedness helps in limiting unpleasant surprises. It maps out the conception, development and execution of the speech.

9.5 SUMMARY

The basic language skills in man may be split into receiving and sending skills. Whilst the former serves the purpose of decoding information, the latter acts as the means for generating the message.

Receiving skills are broken down into listening and reading skills, while sending skills, on the other hand, are split into speaking and writing skills. Each category of these skills has different types which may be hindered or enhanced. It is, therefore, the responsibility of each communicator, desirousof efficacy, to cultivate the positive and avoid the negative aspects and factors highlighted in this chapter.

9.6 END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

9.6.1 MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. The two sub-divisions of receiving skills in human communication are.

   A. Talking and reading
   B. Talking and speaking
   C. Listening and reading
   D. Hearing and listening
   E. Hearing and talking

2. The following are types of listening EXCEPT

   A. Informative
   B. Empathic
   C. Critical
   D. Formative
   E. Attentive

3. Sending skills in human communication may be sub-divided into

   A. Writing and speaking
   B. Talking andspeaking
   C. Writing and Composition
   D. Narration and writing
   E. Composition and narration

3. The following are barriers to effective writing EXCEPT

   A. Disrespect for establishedrules
   B. Bad writing habits
   C. Misapplication of rules
   D. Bad listening habits
   E. Non-standardisation of writing

5. SQ3R2, are reading habits, stands for

   A. Survey, Quite, Read, Recall, Review, Reflect
   B. Survey, Question, Read, Recall, Review (Repeat)
   C. Survey, Question, Read, Recall, Review, Reflect
   D. Survey, Quit, Read, Recall, Review(Repeat)
   E. Survey, Question, Read, Recall, Review

9.6.2 SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. Language skills may be natural or …………………………..
2. Language skills are basically for sending and …………….. information.

3. Writing systems are basically pictographic or ………………..

4. The act of listening objectively is referred to as .... listening.

5. Hearing is apassive activity while listening is a(n) .... activity.

9.6.3 ESSAY

1. Explain briefly any THREE ways in which listening may be impaired and anyTWO ways it can be promoted.

2. Discuss any THREE factors that may
   a. hinder reading.
   b. promote reading

3. Explain briefly, with examples, any THREE ways writing may be
   a. impaired
   b. promoted

9.7 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

9.7.1 SOLUTIONS FOR MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. C
2. D
3. A
4. D
5. B

9.7.2 SOLUTIONS TO SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. Acquired
2. Receiving
3. Orthographic
4. Critical
5. Active

9.7.3 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER ESSAY QUESTIONS

QUESTION 1

Effective listening may be handicapped by the following: inappropriate receptive poise, lack of cooperation with the speaker and loss of concentration, relaxing while listening and speech lag.

(a) Inappropriate receptive poise

An inappropriate receptive poise by the listener is when he or she isnot favourably predisposed to listening. This may happen in several ways, which may be broadly divided into: physical and mental indisposition. A physically or mentally indisposed listener, positions himself or herself wrongly for effective listening. For instance, a member of an audience, who decides to look out through the window in order to count the number of red cars driving by during a speech, is not likely to benefit from much of the information being provided by the speaker. This is because the eyes are physically focussed away from the message and the mind is busy contemplating other matters–sorting out cars by their colours and then counting them.

(b) Lack of cooperation with the speaker

A listener, who does not 'cooperate' with the speaker, makes the delivery more difficult. How does the good listener cooperate? Cooperation comes mainly in form of encouragement to go ahead with the information delivery because there are positive signs that what has been delivered so far has been well received and there is room to accommodate further items that maybe offered. Lack of encouragement to forge ahead with information delivery discourages the giver of the information and this may constitute a great barrier to effective listening.

(c) Loss of concentration

When a listener loses his or her concentration on the information that isbeing provided by the speaker, the reception is likely to be impaired. For instance, when a listener's mind wanders a way from the message being received, it is likely that the part of the message supplied during period of inattentiveness would be lost. This may adversely affect what had been received earlier as well as what may be received afterwards. Loss of concentration thus constitutes barrier to effective listening.

(d) Relaxing while listening

Listening is a positive activity, and as such can never be done in a passive manner. Therefore, a listener cannot afford to relax when listening. The listener’s mind is not a pint pot that can be filled by pouring in speech. Theinput has to be monitored, analysed and filed by the mind, and these activities cannot be carried out effectively while relaxing.

(e) Speech lag

Because the listening speed is faster than that of the speaking rate, the listener's mind has to slow down to keep pace with the speaker. This is known as speech lag. The resultant effect on the listener is that his mind may wander and lose concentration.

However, Effective Listening may be promoted by sharpening the following skills: living up to expectation, use of other bodily receptors (apart from the ear), use of non-verbal signals, use of receptive language and concentration on the language.

(a) Living up to expectation.

There are specific traits, which characterise a good listener. Therefore, for effective listening, the listener must show evidence that he or she possessessuch traits. When the giver of information perceives such traits in a person, then there is the likelihood that the information flow would be enhanced. It is, therefore, not enough to be a good listener-the good listener *must be seen to be one.* To enhance effective listening, then, the listener *must act as a good listener.*

(b) Use of other bodily receptors, apart from the ear

It is obvious that the ears are the primary means through which the human body receives sound impulses. However, a good listener exploits other bodily receptors in order to enhance effective listening. For instance, looking at the speaker straight in the face, barring cultural peculiarities, may be a signal to the giver of information that the listener has undivided attention. Eye contact is an indication of keeping in touch.

(c) Use of non-verbal signals.

Effective listening may be enhanced through the use of non-verbal signals. In an attempt to encourage the giver of information, a good listener could use non-verbal signals at his or her disposal. Take, for instance, the use of a simple smile to indicate reception and approval of a message. This is thetype of feed back mechanism that a speaker requires in order to forge ahead more vigorously with his or her message.

(d) Use of receptive language

In circumstances that permit the receiver of information to react, using language, it is important to consider the appropriateness of the language being used. In such circumstances, receptive rather than broadcast language is recommended. Receptive language consists of words and expressions that confirm receipt and acceptance of the message, whereas broadcast language is characterized by a uni-directional flow of information, which is not a response to any stimuli.The former is obviously the preferred alternative. Included in receptive languages are expressions such as"Really?"... "Obviously!”... "I didn't know that", etc.

(e) Concentrating on the information

Concentrating on the content of the information, rather than mentally debating or judging it, enhances listening. This is because such an attitude prevents unnecessary distraction and therefore enhances listening.

QUESTION 2

(a) Effective Reading may be hampered by several negative factors. If, for instance, the orthography of a language is not standardized, the ensuing irregularities would adversely affect reading. We may recall a popular computer adage here: *Garbage in, garbage out (GIGO).*

Another hindrance to effective reading is the use of an inappropriate reading method. This practice may be likened to *putting a square peg in a round hole.*

When a reader has imbibed bad reading habits, it becomes extremely difficult to achieve positive results in reading. Bad reading habits include: reading for reading sake; favouring speed at the expense of quality of reading; paying undue attention to volume, rather than depth of reading.

The average human mind is conservative. This is why old habits die hard. Since reading starts from pre-adult years, it is not surprising that old bad reading habits cultivated from earlier years are hard to shed off.

(b) Four factors that may enhance effective reading are: the determination to improve On one's performance, openness to new techniques, willingness to combine methods and readiness to be motivated to practice.

One's determination to improve on one's performance is one of the factors that may positively influence effective reading. There is a popular belief that “where there is a will, there is a way”. Some readers have been able to double their reading speed through sheer motivation, backed up by necessary training. Being opento new techniques is another positive factor since it eliminates rigidity and promotes flexibility. There is, thus, a willingness to modify existing practice or completely migrate to a new more cost-effective practice.

Preparedness to combine different methods, which are appropriate, also has positive effects on effective reading. There are circumstances in which no single reading method can guarantee success. For example, preparing fora multi-facetted examination, in which there is a section on 'summary' and another on 'essay writing' may certainly require different approaches to reading.

Reading is not a once-for-all-time affair. There is a constant need to practise. Thus, effective reading has to be backed up by a strong motivation to practise.

QUESTION 3

(a) Every standard writing system has its own rules. When these rules are disrespected, the ensuing writing would not be effective. If a writer decided towrite in Arabic, starting from the right hand side of the page to the left, he or she is likely to encounter problems similar to those likely to being countered by someone writing in English from the right hand side of the page to the left- just like someone walking backwards!

When orthographic rules are misapplied, effective writing is hindered. For example, the addition of "s" to the singular form of several words in English transforms them to the plural form. But the application of this rule to such wordsas *sheep, furniture, aircraft,* etc. would be inappropriate.

Habits are our usual ways of performing specific tasks. When one usually writes illegibly, illogically or haphazardly; the text would not be optimally presented.

Illegibility blocks physical appeal, just as illogicality blurs asensible train of thought. A text haphazardly written is likely to lead to a lot of confusion.

A non-standardized writing system is not capable of generating an optimal text. This is because non-standardisation encourages inconsistency.

Orthographies change over time. If a writer refuses to go along with approved changes, his or her writings may become isolated and consequently violate current norms

(b) Effective writing may be greatly enhanced by high levels of legibility, clarity and use of specific norms.

Legibility is a yardstick of text-appeal. Whether hand- written or type-written, a text should be legible. A successful writer always aims at the highest level of legibility in order to be appealing.

The clarity of a text determines its acceptability. When a text is written in simple and logical language, it is easy to understand.

All orthography makes use of specific conventions, which its users are supposed to be conversant with. It is, therefore, the responsibility of an effective writer to use such conventions appropriately. The use of abbreviations such as "e.g." (for example) or" etc." *(et. cetera) 'and soon and so forth'*), is common place in modern English writing.

CHAPTER 10

GRAMMAR

CHAPTER CONTENT

- Understanding the basic aspects of the grammar of the English language
- Examining grammatical rules and their application in various contexts in the English language
- Practical demonstration of the workings of grammatical rules in the English language

10.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this chapter, you should be able to

- identify grammatical rules and mechanics that relate to good use of the English language;
- examine the operational use of these rules and mechanics in language.

10.1 INTRODUCTION

Language employs different skills in order to ensure its adequacy and consistency. One of such skills is grammar, which is the subject of this chapter. Grammar may be defined as the totality of rules that govern the appropriateness of an expression. It is only a well-formed utterance that is acceptable to the native speaker of a language. As such, any utterance that deviates from the standard norms of a language is at best shocking, if not appalling, to the native speaker.

What are the most prominent aspects of grammar that determine good use of language? First, there is the vocabulary. Next are the different word classes which traditional grammar called "parts of speech."In addition, there are different types of phrases, clauses and sentences. The types and functions of the sentence are also important aspects of grammar which should be clearly identified. Finally, there are also mechanics, common errors in sentence construction and figurative expressions. T ense distinction plays a vital role in determining good use of language.

10.2 VOCABULARY

A vocabulary is an assemblage of all the expressions at the disposal of an individual or a group of people. The vocabulary may be basic or advanced.

10.2.1 Basic vocabulary

The basic vocabulary in a language includes all words and expressions that are needed for an individual to minimally function in a language. Words, such as *eye, nose, leg, he, use, die, go, 'come, eat*, etc. are common everyday words that the average user of any language would use from time to time.

10.2.2 Advanced vocabulary

Advanced vocabulary is more complex than basic vocabulary in the sense that whereas the latter is needed for routine common place experience, the former is restricted in its accessibility and use. Complex ideas or concepts usually require advanced vocabulary in order to be fully expressed. It is, therefore, not surprising that advanced vocabulary demands greater effort, on the part of the user, for its cultivation and development.

10.3. THE WORD

The English language, like any other language, is a set of symbols or signs. It is made up of sounds and marks. The sound we hear and the marks which represent them on paper. Each sound or mark that is produced in a language act has a meaning. Basically, the sound we make is realised at the level of speech while the marks are realised at the level of writing. In both cases, they give meaning. To produce a message, the sound or marks of English are patterned in various dimensions. The smallest of these dimensions is the WORD.

Concerning the meaning of words, it is important to note three important properties. The first one is that there is no one-to-one relationship between words and what they stand for. For example, there is no reason for calling a TREE, tree or BOX, box. Each of these can equally be called another name. Secondly, words and their meanings are arrived at by a consensus by those using the language. This is why it is said that language is conventional. Thirdly, language changes and therefore, the meanings attached to words in language also change. It is like fashion; certain dresses are acceptable today, tomorrow they may change while some may even go into extinction.In like manner, meanings of words may shrink, expand or even be completely replaced. The word functions at the level of phrases, clauses and sentences. The position it occupies indicates which class it belongs.

10.4 WORD CLASSES

Word classes or parts of speech, in traditional grammar analysis, are categories of words (or expressions), classified according to their positions/functions in a sentence. The word classes are nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

10.4.1 Nouns

A noun may be defined as the name ascribed to a person, place or thing. Basically, there are two types of noun: proper and common. A proper noun is one ascribed to a specific person, object or thing. The first letter of such a name is capitalised in modern English (e.g. Olajumoke, a personal Yoruba name from south western Nigeria, meaning" the honourables have assembled to take care of this one", *Aso Rock*, the official residence of the President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and *Mercedes*, a popular German brand of motor vehicle).

A common noun, on the other hand, is one shared by a group. For example, the word, *man*, refers to both sexes of human beings, when used as a common noun.
In addition to these two general types, there is also a collective noun which is used to designate a group of persons or things e.g team, crowd or flock; an abstract noun which refers to an intangible thing that cannot be discerned with any of our five senses e.g. kindness, craftsmanship or faithfulness; a concrete noun which refers to something we can discern withour senses such a house, goat or car.

Functionally, nouns are perceived in terms of *cases*. The nominative case is one in which the noun functions as a subject within the sentence; the objective case is when it functions as the object (i.e. indicating its relationship with other words, e.g. the verb, within the sentence);the genitive case (i.e. possessive), etc.

Structurally, nouns are categorized into simple, compound and complex nouns.

(A) Simple Nouns

A simple noun usually consists of a single word, whose meaning is uni-dimensional.

(B) Compound Nouns

A compound noun usually has at least two components, which contribute to the overall meaning of the noun. Examples are: *house-keeper: classroom; motor-cycle rider*, etc.

(C) Complex Nouns

A complex noun is one that is made up of several parts, which may not be easily decomposable (e.g. *antidisestablishmentarianism: multi-parliamentarianism*, etc.)

10.5 PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH NOUN USAGE

There are problems of number encountered in the use of nouns. The first problem is with regular nouns. In English, the form of the noun usually varies to show whether it refers to one or more persons, places or things. The plural forms of most nouns are derived by either adding *s* to their singular forms e.g. *girl/girls, goat/goats* or *road/roads*; or *es* to singular forms that end with *s, sh, ch, x* or *z* such as *James/Jameses, grass/grasses, church/churches*, etc. The second problem is with exceptional nouns. The plural forms of exceptional nouns like *wife*, *thief* are derived by substituting the *f* with *v* and adding *es*. So wife becomes *wives* and *thief* become *thieves*. Some nouns form their plurals by a change of vowel as in *foot/feet, mouse/mice, tooth/teeth*; some thatend with a *y* are changed to *i* and *es* is added e.g. *battery/batteries*, *lottery/lotteries*, *story/stories*; while others use the same form for both singular and plural e.g. *information/information, furniture/furniture*, *equipment/equipment*. The third problem has to do with foreign plurals. Forming plurals from their singular forms is highly irregular e.g. *memorandum/memoranda*, *alumnus/alumni*, *crisis/crises*, *larva/larvae*, *criterion/criteria*, etc. The fourth problem is with compound nouns. These compound nouns are produced when two or more words form the unit.The plural form in this case is formed by the addition of the normal *s* to the noun in the unit e.g. *passer-by/passers-by, father-in-law/fathers-in-law, hanger-on/hangers/on.* The last problem is with collective nouns. The collective noun causes a problem only in connection with verb agreement and pronoun reference. Almost invariably, a collective noun can be considered as either singular or plural according to its use e.g. **The crowd *has* dispersed** (*crowd* is used as singular here) but **The contents of the suitcase *were* awesome.** (*contents* is used here as a plural)

The other problem with noun use is with respect to case. The term "case" means the change in the form of a word to indicate its relationship to another word or words. The noun changes its form to indicate possessive case. The possessive singular form is derived by adding an *apostrophe* and *s*

e.g. *Kwaku's* car, *sun's* rays while the possessive plural is formed by adding an *apostrophe* alone to the *s* plural form of the noun for example, *Susans'* house, *boys'* playground. However, the problem arises when the plural form of the noun does not end with an *s*, the apostrophe and *s* are

added as in children's corner, men's shoes. The possessive plural is formed by adding an apostrophe and s to the last element of the compound noun by an apostrophe plus *s*, for example, *sister-in-law's* children, *the President of Sierra Leone's* directive.

10.6 Pronouns

A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun. The pronoun changes its form according to its usein the sentence much more frequently than the noun. There are different types of pronouns according to the way they designate the nouns for which hey stand. There are personal pronouns e.g. *I, you, she, they, it, me, him, etc.;* demonstrative pronouns e.g. *this, that, these,* and *those;* interrogative pronouns e.g. *who, which, whom, whose* and *that;* relative pronouns e.g. *who, which, that, whoever, whichever, whatever,* etc.; indefinite pronouns such as *everyone*, *everybody, one, none, anyone somebody,* etc.; compound personal pronouns such as *myself, itself, himself, themselves, oneself*, etc. and reciprocal pronouns e.g. *each other, one another.*

As in the case of nouns, pronouns have problems of number and case. The problem of number affects personal, relative and indefinite pronouns. Since the major function of a pronoun is totake the place of a noun, it must, therefore agree in number with the noun that it represents. The problem of agreement sometimes occur when a collective noun is considered as either singular orplural. This problem can be solved by making the verb to agree with the noun and the antecedent reflecting the same number, e.g. **The team *is* proud of *its* last outing**. Also when two or more singular antecedents are joined together by *or* or *no*r, the pronoun and the verb must be in the singular, e.g. **Either Jack or Jill *is* expected to lead the group**; whereas if they are joined by 'and', the pronoun and the verb must be in the plural e.g. **Jack *and* Jill *are* leading the group.** But when two or more singular and plural antecedents are joined by *or* or *nor*, the pronoun and the verb must agree with the nearer, for instance, *Neither* **Kofi *nor* his *brothers listen* with rapt attention during the lecture.**

The relative pronoun assumes the number of the noun or pronoun to which it refers and, therefore, must take either a singular or plural verb accordingly, e.g. There are many young men *who are* afraid of joining the army. Indefinite pronouns which have no expressed antecedents are usually regarded as singular or plural depending on the way they are used and meaning. Therefore, any pronoun having an indefinite pronoun as antecedent should agree with it in number, e.g. ***Each*** **of the girls in the class took** ***her*** **studies seriously**

Case in the pronoun, as in the case of noun, indicates a change in the form of the pronoun according to its use in the sentence. Personal, relative and interrogative pronouns have forms to indicate nominative, possessive and objective cases. For example, when it is used as the subjectof a verb, the personal pronoun is in the nominative case: ***She*** **was told** ***they*** **were all on holidays**; when used as the possessive, adjective, the personal pronoun takes the possessive case:**The bucket is** ***hers***, when it is used as the direct or indirect object of the verb, the personal pronoun is in the objective case: **The thunder hit** ***him*** **on the head**. (direct), **The lecturer gave** ***me*** **another opportunity.** (indirect)

10.7 Verbs

A verb is a word that expresses action or state of being. It is also a word or group of words that states action, being or state of being. Its form in the sentence changes depending on the nature of its noun (person and number: who and how many people are involved in the action

e.g. I *eat/*she *eats /they eat;* tense: when the action took place; voice: whether *active* or *passive*-

e.g. it *ate/*it *was eaten;* mood: whether *indicative, subjunctive* or *imperative*- e.g. *I eat* /*ThatI eat... / Eat!).* The verb is the most complicated word class/part of speech. A complete analysis of its forms and shades of meanings would require a book on itself. The following treatment, with special reference to troublesome areas of verb usage, should give anyone the confidence to use the verb correctly.

10.7.1 Types of Verbs

There are four kinds of verbs according to their function.

a. Transitive verb: this is when the action in the verb proceeds from the subject to the object which receives the action e.g. **The boy kicks the ball**. The subject, *boy*, performs the action upon the object, *ball*. A transitive verb, therefore, takes a direct object.

b. Intransitive verb – this states the action or condition of being without necessarily giving the receiver of the action specified in the verb, e.g. **The sun** ***shines***. Intransitive verb, therefore,does not take a direct object.

c. Linking verb – this serves as a link between the subject and its complement. A linking verb is intransitive by nature. The principal linking verb is ‘to be’. Others are ‘seem’, ‘taste’, ‘appear’, ‘become’,’feel’, ‘get’, etc. Linking verb is incomplete in itself without a complement, e.g. **The story *seems* incredible**.

Auxiliary verb – as the name implies, auxiliary verb helps or assist. Notable examples are the various forms of *have, can, may, be, shall* and *will*. Others are *must ought* and *do.*

10.7.2 Grammatical properties of verbs

a. Voice – There are two voices: *active* and *passive*. The active voice is used when the subject performs the action of the verb while the passive voice is used when the action of the verb is performed on the subject. For example

The school *gave* the principal a present – active

The principal was given a present by the school – passive

b. Mood – This expresses the attitude or thought of the speaker toward action of the verb.

There are three moods: indicative mood which is used in making a simple statement of fact; imperative mood which is used for order or command; and subjunctive mood whichis used in making a statement that is contrary to fact. Examples:

The sun *rises* in the east – indicative

Stop! – imperative

I wish I *were* him – subjunctive

c. Person and Number – The verb indicates person and number in the third person of the present tense only. For example:

I laugh – first person

You laugh – second person

He laughs – third person

d. Tenses – In some languages, such as English, the point in time at which action takesplace is very significant. This is because the form of the verb that is used to describe the action is dictated by its time of occurrence. In contrast, many African languages do not make use of an overt system of tense distinction. There are different forms of tense distinction, though the basic ones are: present, past and future,

(i) Present Tense

The present tense presents the action as taking place at the time of speaking. The present simple tense handles static situations in the present e.g. **He *goes***, whereas the present continuous tense expresses *on-going* actions e.g. **He *is going***. The present perfect tense indicates that a current action has been completed

e.g. **He *has gone.***

(ii) Past Tense

The past tense expresses an event that happened prior to the present moment e.g. **I *went*, I *saw*.** The past tense also could be *simple* or *continuous,* e.g. **He *went*, He *was going***. The past perfect tense expresses the completion of a past event before another past event e.g. **He *had gone* before I arrived**.

(iii) FutureTense

The future tense expresses an event that will take place at a later time than now. Just like its present and past counterparts, the future tense could be simple e.g.I *will go* or continuous e.g. **He *will be going*** or perfect e.g. **He *will have gone***

10.8 Adjectives

An adjective is a word that qualifies or modifies a noun or a pronoun. This qualification or modification may be done at three different levels: simple e.g. *handsome, simple,* comparative e.g. *more handsome, simpler* and superlative e.g. *most handsome, simplest.* For example

He is an *old* man - simple

Kemi is *fatter* than Kofi – comparative

This is the *sweetest* apple I have ever eaten – superlative

A few adjectives, however, have irregular comparatives and superlatives, e.g. bad, worse, worst; good, better, best; may, more, most; little, less/lesser, least, etc.

In addition, some adjectives have typical endings like *-al* actual, general; *-ful* useful, colourful; -*ish* childish, foolish; - *ic*or -*cal* allergic, nonsensical; -*like* manlike, warlike; -*less* senseless, speechless; -*ous* generous, marvellous; -*some* handsome, troublesome, etc.

In many languages, there is an agreement between the adjective and the noun or pronoun it qualifies, which may necessitate a change in the form of the adjective, Examples from French: un stylo *blanc* "a whitepen"; une maison *blanche* "a white house"

An adjective does not pose a problem to the learner of English language because it does not change the form according to its function in the sentence.

ILLUSTRATION 10.1

In the passage below, adjectives (e.g. *greedy, innocent, so-called, oppressive, new, excessive, polygamous, insatiable*, and *vacant),* contribute immensely to the development of the story line:

A greedy landlord once assembled his innocent neighbours in order to challenge a so-called oppressive law recently promulgated by the Local Government Council. The new law was aimed at curbing excessive accumulation of wealth by limiting each inhabitant to the ownership of one plot of land only.

As a matter of fact, the greedy landlord already had fifteen houses-each registered in the name of a member of his polygamous family. Yet, he had his insatiable eyes on the vacant plot of land adjacent to the central market–a shopping complex built on it could fetch a handsome reward!

10.9 Adverbs

An adverb is a word that qualifies or modifies a verb (e.g.She danced *fast),* an adjective *(* He was *rather* rude), or another adverb (She danced *very* fast). It is used to indicate place or direction (e.g.*where),* degree (e.g. *too* much), manner (e.g, *consequently)* and belief or doubt (e.g. *perhaps)* There are two types of adverbs: original such as *soon, there, here, very, often, now*, etc. and derived such as *badly* derived from *bad, clockwise* derived from *clock*, dangerously from *dangerous*, etc. Adverbs also have different types according to meaning

- Adverbs of place e.g. *here, there, up, down, nowhere,* etc.
- Adverb of manner such as *well, gracefully, joyfully,* etc.
- Adverb of time e.g. *always, briefly, now*, etc.
- Adverb of degree such as *very, hardly, extremely*, etc.

As in the case of Adjectives, Adverbs have comparative and superlative forms. For example: *soon, sooner, soonest, near, nearer, nearest; badly, worse, worst,* etc.

The comparative form of the adverb should be used, like that of the adjective too, when comparing two situations, e.g. Kwame is *more* fashionable than Ibrahim. It must be noted that there are words which may be either adjectives or adverbs, depending on their function in the sentence. For instance

- The man went into a *far* country – adjective
- How *far* is Lagos to Dakar? – adverb
- A *just* judge is always impartial – adjective
- He had *just* arrived when the rain started falling – adverb
- He gave him a *hard* blow on the face – adjective
- You must try *hard* to pass this examination – adverb

The adverb is very mobile. In other words, the adverb can occur at the nitial, middle or final position in a sentence, e.g.

- Probably, he can do the job – initial
- He can probably do the job – middle
- He can do the job probably – final

10.10 Prepositions

A preposition is a word that combines with a noun or pronoun to show relationship between two entities. For example: "*on the table," "under his pillow" "by the river side," "inside their room,"* etc.

The preposition constitutes a closed word class. There are simple or complex prepositions. For example

- *at, by, for, from, on, along, below during, except, between, with, up,* etc. are simple prepositions.
- *in front of, by means of, in addition to, out of, with regard to, in spite of, by virtue of, in accordance with, because of*, etc. are complex prepositions

Usually, the preposition should be placed in between the two nouns or pronouns it links, e.g. He is reading *in* the library.

10.11 Conjunctions

A conjunction is a word that joins sentences, clauses, phrases, words; or even paragraphs. Like the preposition, the conjunction constitutes another closed word class. It can also be divided into simple and complex, according to form. For instance

- and, since, but, if, that, before, if, etc. are simple conjunctions.
- in case, as if, as long as, so that, as soon as are complex conjunctions. Conjunctions can also be classified as either coordinating or subordinating.

Coordinating conjunctions are seven in number: *and*, *but*, *or*, *for*, *nor*, *so* and *yet*

'And' - used to join independent clauses e.g. **Joan *and*** I. *'But'* - used to join things that are different and contrasting e.g. *She is not good looking but she is pleasant.'Or'* - used to make a choice between two things, e.g.**Do you prefer tea *or* coffee?**'For' - used to give reason, proof or explanation, e.g. **Adanini could not attend the lecture *for* he took ill suddenly**. *Nor, so* and *yet* are also used to give reasons.

Subordinate conjunctions join clauses that are not equal in status. The most common subordinate conjunctions are as because, since, when, where, why, while, although, though, until, in order that, except that, etc.

In addition to coordinating and subordinating conjunctions, there are correlative conjunctions. Examples are *both…and, not only…but also; neither…nor; either…or* and *whether…or*. It is necessary to note that correlative conjunctions are used in place of coordinating conjunctions when a greater emphasis is desired, e.g.

The pen you are looking for is *either* on your table *or* on the shelf in the library.
***Neither* you *nor* I would attend the birthday party.**

ILLUSTRATION 10.2

Consider the logical reasoning portrayed by the use of conjunctions *(although, what is more* and *as a consequence),* in the following passage:

With the advance literacy the difference between written and unwritten languages became more conspicuous and more relevant for a greater number of people; for to become literate implied for speakers of unwritten languages to acquire a second language. Although this had been quite normal in societies with restricted literacy, the ideas of equality, democracy and universal schooling, and the proliferation of the politics of identity have lent credence to the notion that acquiring literacy in a second language is an undue disadvantage. What is more, as long as there is a visible difference between written and unwritten languages, the politically correct assertion of the equality of all languages is implausible to any one but linguists, and the demand that no one be discriminated against on the basis of language remains unfeasible. As a consequence, many unwritten languages have been reduced to writing in modern times.

(Culled from Florian Coulmas: So*ciolinguistics,* 2005, p. 209)

10.12 Interjections

Generally, interjections perform no grammatical function. An interjection expresses emotions like surprise, joy, pain, pleasure, disbelief, etc. Some of the common ones are: *wow, hey, oh, eh, ugh, yeah, alas,* etc.

***Wow*, isn't this wonderful?**
***Oh*, sorry about that, I should have known better.**
***Ugh*, this site is horrible**!

10.13 PHRASES

A phrase is a group of word. It is a higher level of grammatical description to the word class level and a lower level to the grammatical description of the clause or the sentence. It has its internal structure and it serves as a constituent of sentence. It does not contain a subject and verb. There are five types of phrases: noun phrase, adjectival phrase, verb phrase, adverb phrase and prepositional phrase. A phrase is named by the word class/part of speech to which its most important element belongs to. For example, **We all like *fried plantain***.

10.13.1 Noun Phrase

A noun phrase has a noun as its head e.g. *The man behind the wheel; the beautiful shrub in the garden; The aged man.* A noun phrase has three elements: the head, determiner and modifier. The head is usually a noun or a pronoun, e.g. ***The boys* are here**; or an adjective, e.g. ***The rich* also cry**; or realised by a participle or by a numeral, e.g. ***Her driving* is amateurish, *Those two* should be enough**.

The determiner in a noun phrase is realised by indefinite /definite article, e.g. *half a bag, both of them*; possessive pronoun, e.g.*Ade's car, my umbrella, his hat*; demonstrative pronoun, e.g.***This, those, that; numerals***, e.g. *one of you, seventh hour, hundred meters.*

The modifier can be realised by an adjectival phrase, adverbial phrase, a noun phrase and propositional phrase, e.g. *as old as her mother* (adjectival), *then senator* (adverbial), *the local government chairman* (noun), *will you be able to give a talk on*

10.13.2 Adjectival Phrase

An adjectival phrase is a phrase that has an adjective as its head. For example, the boy is very *courageous.* There are two elements in an adjectival phrase – *the head* and *the modifier* e.g. *very useful*. Here, 'useful' is the head while 'very' is the modifier. The modifier in adjectival phrase may be before the head or after it, e.g. **He must be *extremely* brave** (before); **The student is not brave *enough to confront the lecturer*** (after) An adjectival **phrase the functions** of a modifier and the head in a noun phrase, e.g. an *extremely interesting* excursion (modifier), ***The young*shall grow** (head of a noun phrase.

An adverbial phrase is a phrase that has an adverb as its head, e.g. rather *dangerously.* There two elements in the structure of an adverbial phrase: the head and the modifier, e. g. *less dangerously*– Here *'less'* is a modifier while 'dangerously' is the head. The main function of an adverbial phrase is that of pre-modifier and post modifier in the internal structure of other phrases and an adverbial in clauses and sentences. For example: *almost very* sure (adjectival phrase; *somewhat* special (adverbial phrase); *mostly* in the evenings (prepositional phrase);*the then* mandate (noun phrase).

10.13.3 Verb phrase

A verb phrase is a phrase that functions as the main verb in the sentence e.g. I *have finished* the job. There are two elements in the structure of the verb phrase: lexical verb and an auxiliary verb, **e.** g. **He *has finished* his assignment** – 'finished' is the lexical (main) verb and 'has' is the auxiliary verb. There may be more than one auxiliary verb in a verb phrase, e. g. **She *has been* looking for you**; **You *may have been* waiting for him**; **James *may not have been* written**. The features of the verb phrase had been discussed under Verb as a word class in terms of aspect, voice and mood.

10.13.4 Prepositional phrase

A prepositional phrase is a phrase that has a preposition in it, e. g. **The troublesome student kicked the ball *over the fence***– 'over' is the preposition in the prepositional phrase 'over the fence.' There are also two elements in a prepositional phrase: prepositional and prepositional complement, e. g. **He locked the boy *inside the room***.*'inside'* is the preposition while 'the room' is the prepositional complement. The prepositional, however, can be more than one word, e.g. *because of, according to, on account of, in addition to,* etc.

10.14 CLAUSES

There are situation where a sentence functions in the structure of another sentence or in the structure of a phrase, e. g. ***That he failed the examination* was not a surprise** or **This is the officer *that came to arrest my brother***. '*That he failed the examination'* and *'that came to arrest my brother'* are examples of clauses. When they appear in sentenceslike this, they can either be independent (main) or dependent (subordinate) e. g**. I will come to see you when it is convenientfor me**. '**I will come to see you'** (independent) and *when it is convenient for me* (dependent) . There are three types of subordinate/dependent clause.

10.14.1 Noun clause

This type of subordinate noun clause is introduced by *why, how, whether* or *what.* For example, ***Why he did that* baffled everybody**; ***How the money got lost* nobody could say, *Whether to go now or later* is your headache; *What to do with the money* is entirely yours.**

10.14.2 Adjectival clause

A subordinate adjectival clause is of two kinds. It is either restrictive where the information given is necessary for understanding the noun it describes, e. g. **The man *who burnt the shop* has been arrested by the police**; or non-restrictive, the information given if omitted, will not affect the meaning of the sentence, e. g. **The man, *who burnt the shop,* has been arrested by the police.** The difference between a restrictive and a non-restrictive adjectival clause is that non-restrictive adjectival clause is always usually separated by commas.

10.14.3 Adverbial clause

A subordinate adverbial clause is finite, non-finite or verb-less, e.g

***If he did that*, something must be wrong with him** (finite)
***To say the truth*, he was actually wrong** (non-finite) ***Unable to make her target*, she was sacked** (verb-less)

There are eight kinds of adverbial clause

a. Adverbial clause of time – introduced by words such as *before, when, after, since,* etc. e. g. ***When the road is clear* I will set out on the journey**
b. Adverbial clause of comparison – introduced by words like *as … as, than,* e. g. **He is not *as bad as* you have painted him.**
c. Adverbial clause of concession – introduced by words like even if, although, though, e. g. **The director would not have given him the money *even if he had*.**
d. Adverbial clause of condition – introduced by words such as *unless, in case, provided (that), if,* e. g. ***If the coach had known* she would not have included her name in the team.**
e. Adverbial clause of degree/result – introduced by words such as *so … that, as fast as,* e. g**.** **I wonder why he could not walk *as fast as* others**.
f. Adverbial clause of purpose – introduced by words like *so that, in order that, that,* e. g. **She worked all day and night *so that* she can earn extra wages**
g. Adverbial clause of manner – introduced by words such as *as if, as though,* e. g. **The**

athlete ran *as if* he was being pursued.

h. Adverbial clause of reason/cause – introduced by words like *as, that, in as much as, because,* e. g. **The father was angry with his son *because* he told him a lie.**

10.15 THE SENTENCE

The next syntactic unit above the clause is the sentence. A sentence is a group of words, bound together by a rule or rules in order to express an idea, opinion or thought. Sentences have components and are classified according to structure and intention. The components of a sentence are the subject (S), and a predicator (P); it often has a complement (C) and an adjunct (A) as well. According to structure,a sentence can be simple, compound, complex (and, at times, compound-complex) And according to intention, a sentence is either declarative, interrogative, imperative or exclamatory.

10.15.1 Components of a Sentence

a. The Subject

The subject can be a noun, a pronoun or a noun (nominal) group. It comes before the predicator and has number concord with the predicator. For example

i. **Cows eat** – (*Cows* is the subject (noun), *eat* is the predicator; both agree in terms of number)

ii. **He swims** – (*He* is the subject (pronoun); *swims* is the predicator; both agree in terms of number)

iii. **The books recommended by the Institute are** – (*The books recommended by the Institute is the subject* (nominal group), ***are*** is the predicator; both agree in terms of number)

a. The Predicator

The predicator is the verb in the sentence. It can be a simple verb or a verbal group. It follows the subject and in number concord with the subject. It precedes the complement, if there is any in the sentence. For example:

i. **He cries** - (*cries* is the predicator (simple verb), *He* is the subject; both agree i terms of number; there is no complement)

ii. **The driver might have been attacked** – (*might have been attacked* (verbal group) is the predicator, *The driver* is the subject; no complement)

iii. **They didn't do it** – (*didn't do* is the predicator (verbal group), They is the subject and *it* is the complement)

c. Complement

The complement comes after the predicator. It can be a noun, a pronoun or a noun (nominal) group. Usually, it has no concord with both subject and predicator. For example

i. **He was considered a fool** – (*a fool* is the complement, *wasconsidered* is the predicator, *He* is the subject)

ii. **The guests at the party ate several pieces of meat** – (*several pieces of meat* (nominal group) *is* the complement, *ate* is the predicator, ***The guests at the party*** (nominal group) *is* the subject)

d. Adjunct

The adjunct is an optional component in a sentence. When it is present in a sentence, it comes after the complement. It can be in a sentence even if there is no complement. It can be a simple adverb, an adverbial or prepositional phrase. It is mobile, i. e. it can occurat different places in the sentence. For example

i. **The professor put the reading glasses *on the shelf*** - (o*n the shelf'* is the adjunct)

ii. **He is working *in the garden*** - (*'in the garden'* is the adjunct; the sentence has no complement)

iii. ***Anxiously*, he was waiting *for the result*** - (there are two adjuncts in this sentence – *'anxiously'* and *'for the result*)

iv. **I have *never* taken alcohol** - (*'never'* is the adjunct, sandwiched between the verb phrase, *'have taken'*)

10.15.2 Classification of sentence by structure

A sentence is simple, compound and complex (and compound-complex) by structure.

a. Simple Sentence

A simple sentence is one in which the user of language expresses an idea through the use of an uncomplicated sentence structure (e.g. **I am a student: He eats regularly***)*.

b. Compound Sentence

A compound sentence is one in which two or more sentences have been coordinated. Each of the two coordinated sentence can stand in its own as a complete sentence. (e.g. **You can read your book or watch the football match.)**

c. Complex Sentence

A complex sentence is one in which the several parts making up the sentence may not be easily decomposed. A complex sentence contains subordination. (e.g. **You shouldb e able to remember where you have seen him before**.)

d. Compound-complex Sentence

A compound-complex sentence contains at least two independent clauses and at least on dependent clause, (e. g. **He was advised to see the doctor now that he has the money to pay or he should risk going later when he will not be sure that he will meet the doctor**.*)*

10.15.3 Classification of sentence by intention

A sentence is either declarative, interrogative, imperative or exclamatory by intention.

a. Declarative Sentence

A declarative sentence makes a statement. e. g. **The food is very delicious**

b. Interrogative Sentence

An interrogative sentence asks a question and is normally characterised by a reversal of the normal order of the subject and verb. e.g. **Have you been able to submit your assignment?** It can also begin with WH-word, e. g. **Who are you looking for?**

c. Imperative Sentence

An imperative sentence expresses a command, or an entreaty and is characterised by the verb in the imperative mood, e. g. **Send me your photograph, please.**

d. Exclamatory Sentence

An exclamatory sentence conveys a strong emotion. It is introduced by phrases beginning with the word **How** or **What.** Its terminal punctuation is the exclamatorymark (!), e. g. **What a mess! How beautiful is the scenery!**

10.16 COMMON ERRORS IN SENTENCE CONSTRUCTION

Errors are enduring mistakes which people make, sometimes without being aware that something is a miss in the speech act. Where as a mistake may be corrected by the same person that has committed it, errors are seldom corrected because listeners do not usually want to embarrass the speaker and the speaker is invariably unaware of his or her fault. Some of the commonest errors involve: mixture mix-up of Subject and Object, mixture of singular and pluralforms, multiple application of rules, misuse of word-formation rules and over-generalization.

10.16.1 Mixture of tenses

For all speakers of English, whether first (Ll) or second (L2) language speakers, tense is an aspect of grammar to which much attention must be paid. In written English, in particular, the mixture of tenses should be avoided. For example

He said he usually comes - wrong

He said he usually came - right

10.16.2 Mix-up of Subject and Object

The mix-up of subject and object is a common error, especially committed by L2 users of English.

As a Nigerian, the country should honour him - wrong
As a Nigerian, he should be honoured by the country – right

He prayed for her which is good - wrong
It is good that he prayed for her - right

10.16.3 Mixture of singular and plural forms

Many people tend to use singular and plural forms of words indiscriminately. When a noun reflects an entire group of persons or things, the group is taken as an entity.

The team, made up of officials and players, *arrive* on schedule - wrong

The team, made up of officials and players, *arrives* on schedule – right

One of them *are* late- wrong

One of them *is* late - right **Nobody are here** - wrong

All of them are here! - right

10.16.4 Multiple applications of rules.

Sometimes, there are multiple ways of marking a particular grammatical form. Both examples below are correct, although the plural form-of the noun has been arrived at differently in each case:

***Ships* are beautiful to behold** - right

***Sheep* are easy to rear -** right

However, some users of English erroneously apply two rules that essentially perform the same function. The plural formation rule that gives the plural the same form as the singular and the rule that allows 's' to be added to the singular form in order to generate the plural have been applied in this example:

Sheeps are easy to rear - wrong
Sheep are easy to rear - right

Cases of multiple applications of rules leading to ungrammatical expressions are particularly rampant in the use of adjectives (comparative or superlative) as in these examples:

He is *more greater* than his father - wrong
He is *greater* than his father - right

God lives in the *most highest* heavens – wrong
God lives in the *highest* heavens - right

10.16.5 Misuse of word-formation rules

Some users of English sometimes use word-formation rules wrongly. This practice has the tendency of generating grammatically incorrect sentences.

He always found a scholarship scheme to take care of his current desires - wrong
He always finds a scholarship scheme to take care of his current desires - right

He founded a scholarship scheme to take care of his desires - wrong
He founds a scholarship scheme to take care of his desires – right

10.16.6 Over-generalization

Errors of concord alsooccur when peopleover- generalize concord rules. For instance, there is a concord rulethat makes it obligatory for the verb to be in thepast tense because of the adverb *yesterday*.

The spaceship blasted off yesterday.

Nevertheless, the word formation rule that correctly generated the example above has been over-generalized in the sentence below.

The astronaut broadcasted from space.

10.16.7 Concord

In grammar, the term, concord, refers to the agreement between or among different parts of a sentence. An adjustment in the structure or form of a part of the sentence may trigger an adjustment in the structure or form of another part of the sentence. For example:

. **The *boy* comes regularly.**

The *boys* come regularly.

The boy came *yesterday*

10.16.8 Faulty Parallelism

This has to do with expressing the elements of the sentence that are of equal importance by parallel grammatical constructions. When this is not done, the sentence will be guilty of faulty parallelism, e. g.

The flowers were *beautiful and of great variety*. - wrong

The flowers were *of great beauty and variety*. – right

10.16.9 Misplaced Modifiers

In the sentence, modifiers are expected to be placed as near as possible to the word/words which they modify, e. g.

We were told that he was killed *by telephone* - wrong

We were told *by telephone* that he was killed – right

10.16.10 Dangling Modifiers

A dangling modifier occurs when an element in the sentence, usually a participial phrase, has nothing to modify, e. g.

***Walking round the school*, the Administrator's office was seen -** wrong

***As we walked round the school*, the Administrator's office was seen** – right

10.16.11 Incomplete or Illogical comparisons

Comparisons should be free of illogicality, especially when sentences are written. The comparisons should also be complete, devoid of any ellipsis, e. g.

John is *better than any student* in his class - wrong

John is *better than any other student* in his class - right

10.16.12 Split Infinitives

The infinitive is a single grammatical unit, hence it should not be separated or be split, e. g.

He used to punctually attend lectures - wrong

He used to attend lectures punctually - right

10.16.13 Faulty subordination

Faulty subordination occurs when the most important idea of a sentence is not put in the main clause, e. g.

He has just become the CEO of his company when he had an accident – wrong

He had an accident just as he became the CEO of his company–right

10.17 SENTENCE EFFECTIVENESS

So far, we have been explaining how sentences are made up of components such as words, phrases and clauses in certain grammatical patterns. Some common violations of these structural patterns have also been touched. In essence, a badly constructed sentence can hardly be effective.For sentences to be effective, however, they must follow certain principles.These principles are *variety, emphasis* and *logic*.

10.17.1 Variety

Sentences can be ineffective as a result of monotony. This is because, in most cases, the sentences written are of the same pattern and type. Variety can be achieved through sentence length, subordination, word order, command/question/exclamation, and use of parenthesis.

a. **Variety through sentence length** – though there is no single ideal sentence length, the sentence must be long enough to cover the subject matter reflecting the thought and meaning that it is conveying. In other words, there should be a mixture of simple, compound, complex and compound-complex sentences in our writing. For example

The best way of keeping notes is to keep all notes on any given topic together, regardless of the source of the information. In order to do this best, the student will need a loose-leaf folder or binder rather than a bound notebook because of the advantage of re-ordering pages, writing or removing them and adding new material. If for some reason the student cannot keep his notes in a loose-leaf folder or binder, he should, at least, make certain that he has a separate bound notebook for each of his courses, or each area in which he intends to take notes.

(***Learn How to Study*** – Derek Rowntree, page 106)

b. Variety through Subordination

Variety is achieved through the use of modifying subordinate phrases or clauses instead of having different sentences to express the same idea, e. g.

Many candidates never have the time to study. Yet they complain of failing their examination. Such candidates have no right to complain - wrong

Candidates who never had the time to study have no right to complain about failing their examination - right

c. Variety through Word Order

The usual order of the English sentence is subject-verb-object. When this order is used all the time it creates monotony. This order may be turned to achieve variety. For example:

***Effortlessly*, he passed his examination** - Adverb

***At last*, she found who she wants to spend the rest of her life with** - prepositional phrase

***To drive home his points*, the prosecutor called in his witnesses** – verbal phrase

***As he entered through the gate*, his children ran to meet him** - adverbial clause.

Variation through the use of word order should, however, be used with caution so that meaning and intelligibility may not be lost.

d. Variety through Command, Question, Exclamation

When a command, question or exclamation is used at times, it enables one to achieve variety. It is used as a means of having varied sentence patterns. For example:

Nigeria will be great – declarative

Make Nigeria great.
Will Nigeria be great?
Great Nigeria!

It should, however, be used with caution, as excessive use of this may look too unnatural.

e. Variety through Parenthesis

Variety may be achieved through the use of parenthesis. The parenthesis is to introduce an interruption in the sentence pattern. The interruption, at times, can be removed without affecting the meaning conveyed by the sentence. For example

Kofi, not Susan, is to be blamed for it.

The king, abdicating his throne, decided to live permanently in exile.

10.17.2 Emphasis

This is when the words in the sentence are ordered in such a way that some parts are more prominent than the others. This can be achieved through position, subordination, parallelism and repetition.

a. Emphasis through Position

One or more elements have greater importance than others when we construct sentences. The important elements are placed in position of prominence. These positions are either at the beginning or at the end of the sentence. For example

***In all probability*, the team will lose the match**

He may achieve his goal *eventually.*

b. Emphasis through subordination

Subordination is an excellent means of achieving emphasis as well as variety, e. g. **The Registrar spends the whole of the morning hours *attending Council* meeting.**

c. Emphasis through Parallelism

Parallelism is the putting similar or contrasting ideas into similar grammatical constructions. In this type of constructions, a phrase is parallel to a phrase, a clause is parallel to a clause, a noun with a noun, etc. For example

Some books are *to be tasted*, others *to be swallowed*, and some few *to be chewed and digested.* – Francis Bacon

d. Emphasisthrough Repetition

Repetition of words or phrases enhances the quality of sentences. It is a major devicefor emphasis.

For example

We shall fight on the land, we shall fight on the sea and we shall fight in theair; we shall never surrender.

d. 10.17.3 Logic

The purpose of grammatical rules is to bring logic and order to the spoken and written sentences. This is achieved by making sure that there is logical consistency in subject and voice, verb mood and thought.

a. Logical Consistency in Subject and Voice

Here, the same subject should be maintained throughout the sentence. A shift in the subject will necessarily involve a shift from active to passive voice. For example

In the morning, *we* went to the farm; in the evening our compound *was given* a clean sweep. (subject shift from 'we" to "our")

In the morning, we went to the farm; in the evening we gave our compound a clean sweep. (subject is consistent)

b. Logical Consistency in Verb Mood

Logical consistency in verb mood is achieved when there is no moving back and forth between the indicative and imperative mood of the verb in the sentence. For example

Measure two cupful of flour and you should mix it with water slowly. (shift from imperative to indicative mood)

Measure two cupful of flour and mix it with water slowly. (consistent)

c. Logical Consistency in Thought

A sentence may be correct grammatically and still it may be unsatisfactory on logical grounds. For example

The *members* of this class will remember what *their* teacher did for *them* for the rest of their *life*. – illogical

The *members* of this class will remember what *their* teacher did for *them* for the rest of their *lives*. - logical

10.18 FIGURATIVE EXPRESSIONS

Figurative expressions may be generally defined as utterances which are not intended to be given literal meaning. This means that such expressions are not intended to be limited to their surface meanings. Consciously or unconsciously, practically all users of language make use of figurative expressions in one form or another. They constitute a great device in embellishing language. Figurative expressions come in many forms: figures of speech, idioms, parables, proverbs, etc.

10.18.1 Figures of Speech

The language user employing a figure of speech seeks to achieve a specific purpose by transforming the meaning of a source text through any of the following ways: expansion (*see* examples in Type (a) to (h) *below*), a bridgement (*see* example in Type (i) *below*), switch (*see* examples in Type (j) to (p) *below*), or transfer *(see* examples in Types (q) and (r) *below*). Here are definitions and examples of several types of figures of speech:

(a) **Alliteration:** the repetition of the initial consonant sound of a word, e.g .***pitter- patterwent the rain***.

(b) **Anaphora:** the repetition of the same word or phrase at the beginning of successive clauses or verses, e.g. ***I have a dream!...I have a dream!*** **(**Martin Luther King)

(c) **Assonance:** when there is identity or similarity in sound between internal vowels in neighbouring words, e.g. ***Tough Tofa will win the election*** (Bashir Tofa was a presidential candidate in elections in Nigeria)

(d) **Hyperbole:** the use of exaggerated terms for emphasis, e.g.***I'm starving!***

(e) **Onomatopoeia:** the sound of a word suggests its meaning, e.g. ***The meow of a cat is instinctive.***

(f) **Paradox:** a statement that appears to contradict itself, e.g. ***He is rich, but poor.***

(g) **Pun:** a play on words, sometimes on different senses of the same word, e.g.
She sells sea shell at the sea shore.

(h) **Synecdoche**: using a part to represent a whole or a whole to represent a part, e.g. ***Nigeria will win the 2012 World Cup***.

(i) **Understatement:** deliberately making a situation seem less important or serious than it really is e.g. Terrorism may pose a threat to the survival of Nigeria as a nation.

(j) **Antithesis:** the juxtaposition of contrasting ideas, e.g. ***It was the best of times, it was the worst of times .***(Charles Dickens: *A Tale of Two Cities*).

(k) **Apostrophe:** having a break in a discourse in order to address some absent person or thing, some abstract quality, an inanimate object or a non-existent character, e.g**. *Hello darkness,* *my old friend, I've come to talk to you again.*** (Paul Simon).

(l) **Euphemism:** substitution of an inoffensive term for one considered offensively explicit, e.g. ***He passed away in his sleep.***

(m) **Irony:** use of a word to convey the opposite of its original meaning, ***He experienced the sweet taste of defeat.***

(n) **Metaphor:** implied comparison between two dissimilar things that actually have something in common, e.g. ***Life is ... a journey, a dance, a dream.***

(o) **Metonymy:** substituting a phrase with another with which it is closely associated, e.g. ***She is a home-maker.***

(p) **Oxymoron:** an expression in which contradictory terms appear side by side, e.g. ***He believes in dictatorial democracy***.

(q) **Personification:** giving human qualities or abilities to an inanimate or abstract object, e.g. ***Hello darkness, my old friend, I've come to talk to you again.*** (Paul Simon).

(r) **Simile:** drawing a parallel between two things or people that are fundamentally dissimilar, e.g. ***Some people still believe that house flies in Maiduguri are as big as cockroaches.***

10.18.2 Idioms

An idiom is a figurative expression that is fixed in nature and whose meaning cannot be deduced from the words that make it up, e.g. ***It rained cats and dogs.***

10.18.3 Parables

Parables are simple (usually, short) stories narrated in order to illustrate a moral or spiritual lesson, e.g. ***The parable of the ten virgins.*** (The Holy Bible).

10.18.4 Proverbs

A proverb is a wise saying, which users of a language agree contains fundamental truth or advice, e.g. ***A stitch in time saves nine.*** In certain cultures, it is usual to enrich one's speech with a proverb before a major assertion is made. This communicative device assures the audience that the speaker is not dependent on his/her personal wisdom alone, but on that of the entire community.

10.19 MECHANICS

Mechanics are various devices at the disposal of a writer to assist the reader in deciphering a text. These include punctuation, use of italics, capitalisation, abbreviations and spelling and paragraphing.

10.19.1 Punctuation

Punctuation is a signal used in writing to guide the reader. Just as road signs guide a driver as to when to accelerate or slow down, punctuations indicate when to pause what to read in a breadth, when to raise the voice,etc.

10.19.2 Common Punctuation Marks

Common punctuation marks include comma, fullstop, semi-colon, colon, quotation marks, apostrophe, dash and dots. The appropriate use of each one of them embellishes the quality of a text.

(A) Comma

The comma **(,)** is the punctuation mark used to indicate a pause, especially to mark off a breath-group, that is, a sequence of words that should be uttered together in one breath. A part of a sentence may be isolated from the rest of the sentence by two commas–one at the beginning, the other at the end of the segment, as in the sentence: **The man, though old, is irresponsible.** However, the same effect may be achieved through the use of a single comma as in: **The man is irresponsible, although he is old**, where the additional information is placed at the end rather than in the middle of the main idea being put forward.

(B) Full Stop

A full stop, **(.)**, marks the end of a statement or an abbreviation. It is associated with a much longer pause than the command indicates no admittance of any other word into the sentence. In other words, it sets the boundary between the sentence, at the end of which it stands, and the rest of the text.

(C) Semi-colon

The semi-colon, **(;)**, is another punctuation mark associated with a pause. In this case, the pause is longer than that of a comma, but not as long as that of a full stop. *Example:* **He went forward; she looked sideways**.

(D) Colon

The colon, **(;)**, is a punctuation mark placed at the beginning of an enumeration of a list of items, a quotation, or an explanation. *Example:* **The following are members of the group: Chairman, Vice-Chairman and Secretary.**

(E) Quotation Marks

In order to give a word-for-word rendition of a person's speech, quotation marks **('……' or "…..")** are used. A pair of marks, one at the beginning and the other at the end, is used for this purpose. *Example:* **He said, "Go away"** and she left immediately.

(F) Apostrophe

The apostrophe **(')**, is used to denote possession (as in: ***John's*** **father**, that is, the father that John has) or the omission of letters or numbers (as in: *don't* or 26th February*'12.*

(G) Dash

The dash, **(-)**, is a horizontal stroke whose purpose is to create a space (that is, a slot), into which some missing information may be placed. *Example:* **She is a hardworker– a true nationalist.**

(H) Dots/Ellipsis

Dots **(…)**, are a series of round marks or spots (usually three in number) used to indicate suspense. It is also called ellipsis. This means that some information or material has been deliberately with- held. *Example:* **She looked at him straight in the face and…**

(I) Exclamation Mark

The exclamation mark, **(!)**, is used to indicate intense emotion. For instance, when giving a command, the exclamation mark placed at the end of the declaration ensures that the tense emotion involved is indicated. Example: **“Go!”** he said.

(J) Question Mark

The question mark **(?)** is used after an interrogative sentence. It can also be used in a question that does not require an answer – this is called rhetorical question. For example: **Will you come along with me to the party? Can we say we are better off than our forefathers?**

(K) Hyphen

Hyphen (-) is used to form compound words e. g. show-case; to form compound adjectives **e.** g. up-to-date; to indicate a break of words at the end of a line which continues on the next line e. g. counterpart **(counter – part)**; countable **(count – able)**

10.20 Use of Italics

Italics are used for titles of books, magazines, journals newspapers and other published works. For example: *A Man of the People* by Chinua Achebe, *Newswatch*, *The Daily Times*, etc. It is also used for foreign words or phrases e. g. ***addendum, alumnus, persona non grata,*** etc.

10.21 Capitalisation

Capital letters are used for the first word of every sentence and the first word of every line of poetry e. g. *T*he only honourable thing to do is to go and apologise. Capital letter is used for proper names and derivatives of proper names e. g. **Danladi** (name of a person), **Ghana** (name of a country), **Sierra Leonean** (derivative from Sierra Leone). It is also used for all organisations such as **West African Examinations Council, Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria, United Nations Organisation, Catholic**, etc. It is used to begin titles like **Judge, Major-General, Inspector General**; day of the week or month, e. g. **Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday,** etc.; races, ethnic groups and languages e. g. **African, Fulani, French**, etc.

10.22 Abbreviations

Abbreviations are used for titles before proper names e. g. **Mr., Mrs., Dr., Hon., Col., Rev.**, etc. They are used for titles after proper names e. g. **John Johnson**, Ph.D, Matthew **Danqua** Esq., Lucy May, D. Litt., etc. They are used for certain words in addresses footnotes, bibliographies e.g. **St.** (for Street), **p**. (for page), **pp.** (for pages), **vol., op. cit., ibid.** etc. They are used for governmental agencies and institutions e.g.

DSS, UNESCO, ILO, CIA, etc.

10.23 SUMMARY

Grammar has been shown to be the entirety of rules that govern the acceptability of an utterance in a language. In this chapter, the vocabulary, parts of speech and tense distinction have been identified as playing significant roles in ensuring the adequacy of grammar. The chapter also explored the use of punctuation marks and some common errors committed by the users of English. Finally, it touched on various figures of speech used in English.

10.24 END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

10.24.1 MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. Which of the following best illustrates the sentence in English?
   A. Simple, compound and complex
   B. Simple only
   C. Compound only
   D. Complexonly
   E. Complex,Simple or compound

2. ONE of the following is basic tense distinction
   A. Past and future only
   B. Present and future only
   C. Past and present only
   D. Past, present and perfect
   E. Present, past and future

3. Which **ONE** of the following best defines a verb?
   A. An action word
   B. The name of a person or thing
   C. A word that represents a noun
   D. A word that represents an adverb
   E. A word denoting exclamation

4. ONE of the following is **NOT** a case when analysing nouns

   A. Nominative
   B. Predictive
   C. Objective
   D. Genitive
   E. Possessive

5. Which of the following is NOT a figure of speech?

   A. Hyperbole
   B. Anaphora
   C. Alliteration
   D. Onomatopoeia
   E. Idiom

10.24.2 SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS(SAQ)

1. The substitution of an otherwise “offensive’’ word with another which is considered inoffensive is called..............................
2. An expression containing contradictory terms that appear side-by-side is said to be.................
3. The word in *italics* in the sentence: He is a ***big*** boy, is a (n)..............................
4. Whereas basic vocabulary is simple,. .... vocabulary is complex in nature.
5. An adverb qualifies a(n) .... or another adverb.

10.24.3 ESSAY

1. Discuss the TWO basic types of vocabulary.
2. Explain briefly with, TWO examples each, the THREE basic types of sentence structure.
3. Identify and discuss briefly ANY three types of tense distinction.

10.25 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

10.25.1 SOLUTION TO MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. A
2. E
3. A
4. B
5. E

10.25.2 SOLUTION TO SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. euphemism
2. oxymoron
3. adjective
4. advanced
5. verb

10.25.3 SOLUTIONS TO ESSAY QUESTIONS

QUESTION 1

A vocabulary is an assemblage of all the expressions at the disposal of an individual or a group of people. The vocabulary may be basic or advanced.

The basic vocabulary in a language includes all words and expressions that are needed for an individual to minimally function in a language. Words, such as *eye, nose, leg, he, use, die, go,' come, eat,* etc. are common everyday words that the average user of any language would use from time to time.

Advanced vocabulary is more complex than basic vocabulary in the sense that where as the latter is needed for routine commonplace experience, the former is restricted in its accessibility and use. Complex ideas or concepts usually require advanced vocabulary in order to be fully expressed. It is, therefore, not surprising that advanced vocabulary demands greater effort, on the part of the user, for itscultivation and development.

QUESTIONS 2

The major types of sentence structure are: simple, compound and complex. A simple sentence is one in which the user of language expresses an idea through the use of an uncomplicated sentence structure (e.g.*I am a student: He eats regularly).*

A compound sentence is one in which the sentence may be decomposed into smaller ones (e.g. *He is an intelligent student, but he is also humble)* A complex sentence is one in which the several parts making up the sentence may not be easily decomposed (e.g. *Having subjected himself to public* *scrutiny, the experienced politician won the presidential election at his second attempt)*

QUESTION 3

In some languages, such as English, the point in time at which an action takes place is very significant. This is because the form of the verb that is used to describe the action is dictated by its time of occurrence. In contrast, many African languages do not make use of an overt system of tense distinction. There are different forms of tense distinction, though the basic ones are: present, past and future.

The present tense presents the action as taking place at the time of speaking. The present simple tense handles static situations in the present (e.g. He *goes),* where as the present continuous tense expresses *on-going* actions (e.g. He *is going).* The present perfect tense indicates that a current action has been completed (e.g. He *has gone).*

The past tense expresses an event that happened prior to the present moment (e.g. I *went,* I *saw).* The past tense also could be *simple* or *continuous* (e.g. He *went,* He *was going).* The past perfect tense expresses the completion of a past event before another past event (e.g. He *had gone* before I arrived).

The future tense expresses an event that will take place at a later time than now. Just like its present and past counter parts, the future tense could be simple (e.g. I *will go)* or continuous (e.g. He *will be going)* or perfect (e.g. He *will have gone)*

CHAPTER 11

ESSAY WRITING

CHAPTER CONTENT

- Identification of different types of essays
- Executing essay writing through different methods
- Generation of ideas for good essay writing

11.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this chapter, you should be able to

- Identify different types of essays
- know different methods of writing essays;
- Explore ways of generating ideas for essay writing;
- write good essays.

11.1 INTRODUCTION

An essay is a collection of ideas put together by a writer according to a standard format. Essay writing is designed to test candidates' power of expression, the systematic organisation of their thoughts and their knowledge of mechanical accuracy. There are different types of essays, just as there are different methods of writing them. In this chapter, we consider what is general to essay writing, the types and methods of essay writing, as well as the ways of generating the ideas needed for successfullyundertaking the task of essay writing.

11.2 GENERAL CONSIDERATION

In essay writing, consideration is given to four aspects when an essay is being graded. These are; Content, Organisation, Expression and Mechanical Accuracy. In assessing the content of an essay, candidates' approach to the topic, points given on the topic and the relationship between the ideas expressed and the demand of the topic are considered. The content the candidate provided can be either through his personal experience or from a secondary source. He can also resort, purely, to his imagination. As a matter of fact, the candidate that is very imaginative always score well in content.

Organisation has to do with the way and manner the candidate's ideas are conveyed to the reader. It shows the state of mind of the candidate because the more organised his mind during the process of writing, the more this is reflected in his writing. Here, qualities such as coherence, unity and logical development of ideas are looked for. These are reflected in the sentence structures and paragraphs. The candidate's choice of words should reflect the type of essay and paragraphs should be linked by connectives such as *however, because, on the one hand, so far, in other words, firstly,* etc.

Expression is very important in essay writing. This is where the candidate displays his understanding of the English Language. This involves the choice of appropriate words, sentence arrangement and imaginative use of idioms, figurative expressions and proverbs.

Mechanical accuracy involves the application of grammatical rules in writing. Violation of such rules as punctuations, spellings, use of abbreviations, concord, tenses and so on are looked for. Perhaps many of the mistakes the candidate makes here could have been avoided if he were careful enough to read over what he had written.

At this point, it is necessary to say that different essay topics call for different approaches. In other words, every occasion requires the language appropriate to it i.e. conventional forms, spelling, punctuation and diction. Good arrangement will exhibit a suitable and fascinating opening or what is generally called introduction, good paragraphing through the use of appropriate connectives which link paragraphs. A paragraph can serve as introductory, transitional, emphasising and a concluding paragraph.

It is important to stress the usefulness of an outline in essay writing. Writing a good essay can be likened to a beautiful well-built house. It will be difficult, if not impossible, to build such a house without a solid foundation and a building plan. In like manner, it will be difficult to write a good essay without an outline. An outline serves as a guide during the process of the development of the writing; it is also a safety device in thesense that it will not allow the imagination of the candidate to run wild. Outlines may be classified as formal, topic, sentence and paragraph. There is no hard and fast rule as to which to use, so the candidate can choose any one that will benefit him.

11.3 TYPES OF ESSAY

There are two basic types of essays: simple and long. Most people, who have ever been through school, have at one time or the other, experienced the former; the latter is more professional and requires longer schooling experience. In addition to these, there are three common types of essays – Narrative, Descriptive and Argumentative.

11.3.1 Simple Essay

A simple essay is one in which the writer treats a relatively easy, straight-forward topic. Both the style and content of a simple essay are accessible to the average native speaker of a language in terms of comprehension. Examples of simple essays may be found in primary as well as secondary school class-work, newspaper, articles, community notice boards, etc. Such topics as "My first day in school," "My best friend," can easily be handled as simple essays.

11.3.2 Long Essay

A long essay is essentially formal in nature. In terms of size, it is more voluminous than the simple essay. A long essay usually contains details and some times results of scientific findings, which are presented in support or against specific view points in the essay. Long essay writing may be regarded as simplified version of bookwriting.

11.3.3 Narrative Essay

Of all the different types of essay, it seems narrative essay is the easiest to attempt in any examination. Narrative simply means "narrating, giving an account of any occurrence." Narration, therefore, involves orderly presentation of a series of events. It varies from plain story-telling, recital of facts to an exciting and hilarious account of an actual incident experienced. Whichever way one looks at narrative writing, ORDERLINESS is its essential characteristic. A good narration should have a witty and captivating beginning, liveliness, realistic situation, originality and suitability of style.

11.3.4 Descriptive Essay

This type of essay is quite different from either narrative or argumentative. This is so because it involves different selection and arrangement of materials. Description involves the use of DETAILS, which must be given.The description may be an object, a person, an animal, a place, a scene, etc. A good and attractive beginning is essential to descriptive writing. The success of any descriptive writing depends on such factors as the amount of details available, the way these details are selected and the way they are arranged.

There are two options in the style of writing the description: pure descriptive form or the elaborate and complex form. With the pure simple form, sometimes the candidate may not be able to write the required number of words and thereby the writingwill become bare and uninteresting. The elaborate and complex form is also fraught withdanger – the danger of laying emphasis on irrelevant points or facts that may be particularly not essential to the description.

11.3.5 Argumentative Essay

Argumentative essay is different from either Narrative of Descriptive essay. Argumentation involves looking at an issue or topic from a standpoint. Anybody involved in argumentation is expected to SUPPORT or GO AGAINST what the argument is about. There are a few ways open to anybody involved in argumentation. The person supporting or opposing a topic may depend solely on facts and figures, or use examples, explanation, comparisons and contrasts in defending his stand. To avoid a weak and an ineffective argument, the speaker/writer MUST take a definite stand. After this, he can then proceed to give clear, cogent/pungent reasons for the stand he hastaken. Taking a stand does not mean one cannot talk about the other side, if only to use such move to puncture the point of the opponent. In writing an argumentative essay, for example if the topic requires stating a problem and offering solutions, what need be done is to first clearly define the problem, identify cause(s) and reasons for the problem before stating how the problem can be solved in terms of recommendations.

11.4 METHODS OF ESSAY WRITING

There is a traditional or classical way of writing essays. This is taught from the earliest exposure to the discipline. However, modern technology is beginning to modify this traditional means by introducing novel ideas.

11.4.1 The Classical Method

Ways of assembling materials and writing may vary from one individual to the other, but the fundamental principles involved are essentially the same. A good essay is, therefore, associated with certain features: an appropriate topic, a discernable outline,and a standard structure.

(A) The Topic

The topic is of utmost importance in an essay. This is because it not only gives an overview of the entire essay, but at the same time serves as its image-maker. An unimpressive title is enough to put off a potential reader, whereas a s t i m u l a t i n g one would arouse the interest of the reader. It is, therefore, necessary to pay great attention to the choice of an appropriate title for an essay. This is done at the foundation stage of the exercise.

(B) The Outline

An outline is a sketch which an essay writer makes at the initial stage of the exercise. At this stage, the essay writer is playing the role that the architect does in the building industry: a vision is mapped out while waiting for the full execution when the actual construction starts.

Two types of outline are common: topic and sentence. In drawing up a topic outline, the writer's slices up' the write-up into 'chunks' with each chunk being a 'heading. Each heading may be subsequently sub-divided into smaller headings, which could also be sub-divided further. The sentence outline, on the other hand, though organized along the same lines as the topic outline, employs 'sentences', rather than headings. Good essay writers use both types of outline, starting out with the topic outline, followed by the sentence outline.

ILLUSTRATION 11.1

The topic, *Fraud and the Professional Accountant,* is treated here, using the topic- outline approach:

TITLE: Fraud and the Professional Accountant.

OUTLINE:

INTRODUCTION

-What is fraud?

-Examples of fraudsters: the criminal, the unpatriotic, the egoist, etc. Who is the professional accountant?

-Qualities of a trained and competent accountant. -The meeting point: financial records.

BODY

-The enticing nature of fraud

-The long and short-term effects

-Professional ethics of the accountant.

-Towards building a virile nation: the role of the accountant.

CONCLUSION

-The supremacy of professional ethics

(C) Structure of the Essay

Basically, an essay has three parts: introduction, body and conclusion. Each part contributes to the overall image of the essay. So, a defect in any of the three parts soils the overall image.

(a) Introduction

An introduction is the gateway to an essay. The writer must ensure that the reader's 'entry' is free of obstacles. The introduction may be definitional, historical, philosophical, etc.; depending on the approach the writer chooses to adopt. Usually, the last segment of the introduction presents the issues addressed by the essay.

ILLUSTRATION 11.2

In the sample introduction presented below, it may be observed that the author attempts to define key concepts (sounds, constructions, meanings and forms of words) that relate to the subject under discussion. This is a good example of a definitional introduction.

In the traditional view of language, words are put together to form sentences. The words differ from each other in both sound and meaning. For example, *clock* and *gong,* refer to different sorts of objects and are distinguished by different consonants at the beginning and end. Hence the sentences: *The clock has been sold* being distinguished from *The gong has been sold* also differ in sound and meaning. The function of clock is different from that of gong. However, not only the words but also the construction and the 'forms of words' will vary from one individual

sentence to another. For example, *The gong has been sold* has a passive construction with the *gong* as Subject, while *He has sold the gong* has an Active construction in which it appears as object. Moreover, in both of these sentences the noun is in the singular to match; contrast *The gongs have been sold* or *He has sold the gongs*, where both *have* and *gongs* are in the plural. In such examples, the choice between different forms of words- between the endings of *gongs* and *gong* on the one hand and *have* and *has* on the other – varies independently of the variation in construction (Passive versus Active). But in other cases, the construction itself requires that a word should be in one form rather than another. For example, in *He hit them,* the word *them* is Object and must therefore appear in what is traditionally called the 'accusative' case. Contrast *They have sold the gong,* where the same pronoun is Subject and must, therefore, appear as the 'nominative' *they* instead. In describing a language, all four varying facets-sounds, constructions, meanings, and forms of words-have to be given due attention.

(Adapted from Matthews, P.H.: *Morphology* (1973: 1)).

(b) Body

The body of an essay is the segment that lies between the introduction and the conclusion. This is where ideas are presented, debated or discussed, depending on the nature of the essay. A balanced body presents both sides of an argument, before synthesizing them and taking a position, which is later reflected in the conclusion.

(c) Conclusion

The conclusion is the third critical part of an essay. If we take the introduction as the foundation of an essay and the body as its walls, then the conclusion is the roof. A good conclusion first summarizes an essay, gives the stand of the writer inrelation to the topic and then opens up future direction(s) of the topic.

11.4.2 Current Trends

In this age of electronic revolution, the traditional mode of essay writing is fast giving way to more contemporary, computer-assisted means. Word processing software programmes, such as *MS Word,* enable the user to be either automatically corrected when a wrong word is used in the text or at least notified, through underlining, when a word is mis-spelt or a sentence has a grammatical fault. Furthermore, the internet has a

whole range of sample essays and offers assistance to would-be writers at little or no cost at all. There is nothing wrong with taking up such offers, especiallyfor training purposes, provided one does not lose sight of the fact that information, even from such seemingly reliable sources, needs to be handled with care.

11.5 IDEA GENERATION

In essay writing, generating ideas is very important since ideas are the focal point of the exercise. As many ideas as are possible need to be generated in order to avoid running out of supply. But then, ideas are thoughts that are produced in the mind. And experience has shown that the mind is nourished by such mental activities as association, dissociation, composition, decomposition and compounding of ideas.

11.5.1 Association of Ideas

The association of ideas is a process through which the presence of an idea in the mind stimulates the presence of another. In other words, the word, *school,* for instance, could bring forth the ideas of *teacher, chalk, book, pupil,* etc. In essay writing, then, the association of ideas is a fertile ground for developing a topic.

11.5.2 Dissociation of Ideas

The process of drawing an idea away from another is called dissociation. This is particularly useful when we are concerned with what separates, rather than what unites them. Dissociation, then, is a means used in generating ideas for contrastive essay writing.

11.5.3 Composition of Ideas

A composed idea may not necessarily be a replica of all the features of its constituent parts. The essential point here is that two or more ideas have been brought together and the resulting idea has its own unique identity. Review essays usually exploit this means of generating ideas.

11.5.4 Decomposition of Ideas

An idea is said to be decomposed, when a deliberate attempt is made to split it up into its constituent parts. This means of generating ideas may also be referred to as simplification of ideas.

11.5.5 Compounding of Ideas

Compounding is a process of generating ideas, through which the two or more original ideas still retain their individual identities in the new one. A compound idea, then, could easily be split into the smaller units that make it up.

11.6 SUMMARY

This chapter has been able to identify the two basic types of essay writing as the simple and the long as well as the three common types – narrative, descriptive and argumentative. It has also been shown that there are now two basic methods of essay writing: the classical and the current, although both approaches may not be mutually exclusive.

11.7 END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

11.7.1 MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

2. ONE of the following is NOT a major part of an essay.

   A. Title
   B. Introduction
   C. Body
   D. Conclusion
   E. Paragraph

2. At which of the following stages is the outline of an essay done?

   A. Before conception
   B. After writing the introduction
   C. At the onset

D. At the tail-end
E. After writing the conclusion

3. In writing an essay, two common types of outline are

A. Title and topic
B. Topic and sentence
C. Clause and sentence
D. Title and phrase
E. Clause and phrase

4. The two major types of essay are

A. Simple and long
B. Complexand long
C. Simple and complex
D. Simple and direct
E. Direct and long

5. In writing an essay, ideas may NOT be generated in the mind through

A. Decomposition
B. Compounding
C. Association
D. Cooperation
E. Dissociation

11.7.2 SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. The process through which ideas are generated in the mind by relating one idea to another is called...........................
2. The process of generating an idea in the mind through the assemblage of ideas that retain their identities is called...........................
3. The type of essay that is short and accessible to all readers is a..................essay
4. In terms of size, an essay that is voluminous is called. ....essay.
5. An overview of an essay is best captured in its................................

11.7.3 ESSAY

1. Discuss briefly the structure of an essay.
2. Discuss briefly the FIVE methods of idea generation in essay writing.

11.8 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

11.8.1 SOLUTION TO MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. E
2. C
3. B
4. A
5. D

11.8.2 SOLUTION TO SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. association
2. compounding
3. simple
4. long essay
5. title

11.8.3 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER ESSAY

QUESTION 1

Basically, an essay has three parts: introduction, body and conclusion. Each part contributes to the overall image of the write-up. So, a defect in any of the three parts soils the overall image.

An introduction is the gateway to an essay. The writer must ensure that the reader's 'entry' is free of obstacles. The introduction may be definitional, historical, philosophical, etc.; depending on the approach the writer chooses to adopt. Usually, the last segment of the introduction presents the issues addressed by the essay.

The body of an essay is the segment that lies between the introduction andthe conclusion. This is where ideas are presented, debated or discussed, depending on the nature of the essay. A balanced body presents both sides of an argument, before synthesizing them and taking a position,which is later reflected in the conclusion.

The conclusion is the third critical part of an essay. If we take the introduction as the foundation of an essay and the body as its walls, then the conclusion is the roof. A good conclusion first summarizes an essay, gives the stand of the writer in relation to the topic and then opens up future direction(s) of the topic.

QUESTION 2

In essay writing, generating ideas is very important since ideas are the focal point of the exercise. As many ideas as are possible need to be generated in order to avoid running out of supply.But then, ideas are thoughts that are produced in the mind. And experience has shown that the mind is nourished by such mental activities as association, dissociation, composition, decomposition and compounding of ideas.

The association of ideas is a process through which the presence of an idea in the mind stimulates the presence of another. In other words, the word, *school,* for instance, could bring forth the ideas of *teacher, chalk, book, pupil,* etc. In essay writing, then, the association of ideas is a fertile ground for developing a topic.

The process of drawing an idea away from another is called dissociation. This is particularly useful when we are concerned with what separates, rather than what unites them. Dissociation, then, is a means used in generating ideas for contrastive essay writing.

A composed idea may not necessarily be a replica of all the features of its constituent parts.

The essential point here is that two or more ideas have been brought together and the resulting idea has its own unique identity. Review essays usually exploit this meansof generating ideas.

An idea is said to be decomposed, when a deliberate attempt is made to split it up into its constituent parts. This means of generating ideas may also be referred to as simplification of ideas.

Compounding is a process of generating ideas, through which the two or more original ideas still retain their individual identities in the new one. A compound idea, then, could easily be split into the smaller units that make it up.

CHAPTER 12

SPEECH MAKING

CHAPTER CONTENT

- Identifying the elements of speech making
- Wring and delivering speeches
- Using visuals in speech presentations
- Understanding the different speech delivery methods

12.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this chapter, you should be able to

- identify the elements of speech making
- highlight aspects of visuals in a speech presentation;
- know the different speech delivery methods.

12.1 INTRODUCTION

A speech is the art of disseminating information verbally. It is more advanced than merely talking. Even when the delivery is based on a written text, the aspect of the presentation that concerns us here is the means of delivery, that is, the verbal mode. In this chapter, the elements of speech making are identified. Then, the place of visuals in oral presentations is highlighted before attempting to distinguish speech-making from speech-writing.

12.2 ELEMENTS OF SPEECH MAKING

Generally, there are some characteristics of speech making, which may be regarded as its elements since they ensure its quality. These are: appropriateness, clarity, adequacy and fluency.

12.2.1 Appropriateness

Appropriateness may be defined as the provision of a requirement in the dosage or amount expected in a given situation. It is, therefore, a great yardstick for measuring the success or otherwise of the entire communication process (i.e. source, encoding, channel, decoding, receiver, feedback and context). Indeed, all the elements of oral presentations may be used to evaluate various aspects of the entire communication process. However, appropriateness is the underlying current that runs through all the other elements of speech delivery (i.e., clarity, adequacy and fluency). For instance, even when the 'source' is clear, is it appropriate on this occasion? Or when the decoding is *adequate*, is it appropriate on this occasion?

12.2.2 Clarity

Clarity, as a feature of an oral presentation, may be viewed from two different perspectives: on the one hand, language choice and use; on the other, the message. As far as language choice is concerned, the oral presenter must ensure that his or her competence in the chosen language is unquestionable and that he or she is able to function very well in it. In some circumstances, code-switching or code-mixing (or both) may be resorted to, provided that such choices, in terms of use, contribute positively to the overall goal of making a successful oral presentation.

The clarity of the message itself is also important. If, at the end of an oral presentation, the audience does not get the essence of the message, then the exercise, as a whole, has been futile. Sometimes, simplicity is the key to clarity. An oral presentation should use simple, clear and concise language to enhance coding and decoding obligations on the part of the sender and receiver respectively. Other factors that may enhance clarity include adequate preparation (based on the perceived needs of the entire communication process), rehearsal (may be dressed, *insitu)* and self-appraisal by the oral presenter.

12.2.3 Adequacy

Adequacy is a measure of sufficiency. In speech delivery, the adequacy of the preparation, delivery and feedback comes into play. There should be no shortfall. Neither should there be an over-supply in the quantity of each contributory factor to the overall communication process. Adequacy in terms of coverage (i.e. setting specific goals and achieving them) and time (i.e. executing the delivery within aspecific time- frame) needs to be given special attention. For instance, gauging the attention-span of the audience, its taste and its mood are all important in ensuring effective delivery.

12.2.4 Fluency

Fluency is a measure of the rate of flow. Inconsistency in the rate of flow of speech signals breaks in transmission. And who likes to listen to disconnected speech? Nobody! Connecting the new information to the old, inconclusive one may be hard on the listener, who may have been forced to swim in ignorance for sometime. To maintain a smooth ride for the train of thought of both speaker and audience, therefore, delivery should be vivid and smooth, rather than bumpy.

12.3 USE OF VISUAL AIDS IN SPEECH DELIVERY

Technically, speech delivery is primarily meant to be decoded through listening. However, since the ultimate aim of communication is to get information as accurately as possible across, there is nothing wrong with exploiting the other human senses of perception, especially sight, to get the job done fully. Speech delivery is greatly enriched by visual aids since the latter essentially perform a reinforcing or demonstrative role.

12.3.1 Conventional Visual Aids

The long history of visual aids dates back to the beginning of speech delivery when drawings were made on rocks and other large surfaces to serve as illustrations. Inm o r d e n times, especially since the advent of paper, cardboards have been extensivelyused in classrooms as well as at other public functions to complement the traditional blackboard. At a certain point in the evolution of the cardboard, flash cards emerged and were hailed as the visual aid *par excellence*, in view of their multi- functionality and interactive use. Nowadays, props (live objects of various sizes) such as oranges, chopsticks, loaves of bread and even a hammer may be brought to an oral presentation and used as aids in order to address such themes as simplicity, experimentation, basicsof life and power respectively.

Posters and flip charts too come in handy both in the regular classroom and in corporate board rooms. The ease with which they can be presented, amended and recalled makes them very appealing to the average oral presenter.

12.3.2 Electronic Visual Aids

Electronic devices have continually offered man great opportunities to perfect his dreams of visual aids. From the early days of film projectors and slide projectors to the more recent times of extremely more and more complex appliances, such as close- circuit television and internet conferencing, electronic visual aids have made an impressive mark on oral presentation. Indeed, PowerPoint presentation has gained prominence as the most powerful visual aid ever developed by man to date. This is because it not only permits one to create slides that contain digitalised images and texts, but also makes room for alterations, allowing for additional charts and images, sounds and motion pictures.

On the whole then, visuals are a great presentation-enhancing tool. However, care should be taken not to allow them to divert attention away from the presentation itself. Visuals should be strictly limited to the supplementary role they are supposed to play in enhancing the delivery.

12.4 SPEECH MAKING AND SPEECH WRITING

Speech making and speech writing are two contiguous activities, which may not necessarily be performed by the same individual within the same context. This means that an individual could perform either of the activities without necessarily performing the other. In logical sequence, speech writing precedes speech making. However, a speech could be made without it ever having been written at all. It is unusual for speech to be written after it has been made-except in the case of the transcript of a recorded version of the speech being made for record purposes. Nonetheless, there are different forms of each of these activities.

12.4.1 Speech Making

Speech Making may be classified as either closed or public. Whereas the former is less formal, the latter is very much so. In closed speech making, the audience is usually limited to a few individuals who are reasonably familiar with one another. A speech at a family dinner or a cabinet or board meeting may be regarded as closed. Even when made at a public forum, a speech may still be considered closed.

ILLUSTRATION 12.1

Consider the speech of the old man in Chinua Achebe's *A Man of the People* as described in the following passage:

An elderly man who I believe was also a local councillor now stood up. He had sat on the edge of his seat directly opposite the microphone, his hands like a climber's grasping his iron staff. His attitude and posture had shown total absorption in what was being said:

'I want to thank the young man for his beautiful words, he said. Every one of them has entered my ear. I always say that what is important nowadays is no longer age or title but knowledge. The young man clearly has it and I salute him. There is one word he said which entered my ear more than everything else-not only entered but built a house there. I don't know whether you others heard it in the same way as I did. That word was that our own son should go and bring our share. There was great applause from the crowd. That word entered my ear. The village of Anata has already eaten, now they must make way for us to reach plate. No man in Urua will give his paper to a stranger when his own son needs it; if the very herb we go to seek in the forest now grows at our very backyard are we not saved the journey? We are ignorant people and we are like children. But I want to tell our son one thing: He already knows where to go and what to say when he gets there; he should tell them that we are waiting here like a babe cutting its first tooth: anyone who wants to look at our new tooth should know that his bag should be heavy. Have I spoken well?

(Culled from Chinua Achebe: A Man of the People, pp.140-141).

Public speech making, on the other hand, takes place in an open environment, in which the audience is large and the setting formal. It usually generates anxiety or even fear in the inexperienced speaker, presumably because of the possibility of 'not getting it right'. However, there are ways of surmounting the obstacle. Aristotle is reported to have taught his followers that there were three different areas in which the persuasive ability of a speaker may be judged: *ethos* (ethical appeals, i.e. of the speaker), *pathos* (emotional appeals, i.e.to the listener) and *logos* (logical appeals of the text). These areas are popularly referred to as The Rhetorical Triangle by rhetoricians. It means a successful public speaker is one who is able to secure a balance *(note:* the triangle is equilateral) among the three inter - dependent areas: an over flowof one into another would cause an imbalance and impede success. For instance, if a speech is excessively emotional, it may lose grounds on logic, just as it may lose grounds on emotional appeal if the speaker is dull and unimpressive.

ILLUSTRATION 12.2

The speech made by Mr. Ikem Osodi in Chinua Achebe's ***Ant hills of the Savannah*** in response to a question, portrays a character versed in the exploitation of The Rhetorical Triangle:

I think I should take the advantage of this forum to propound the new radicalism which I believe we should embrace... First and foremost this radicalism must be clear-eyed enough to see beyond the present clap trap that will heap all our problems on the door step of capitalism and imperialism... Please don't get me wrong. I do not deny that external factors are still at the root of many of our problems. But I maintain that even if external factors were to beat the root of *all* our problems we still must be ready to distinguish, for practical purposes, between remote and immediate causes, as our history teachers used to say... May I remind you that our ancestors-by the way you must never under rate those guys; some of you seem too ready to do so, I'm afraid. Well, our ancestors made a fantastic prove on remote and immediate causes. If you want to get at the root of murder, they said, you have to look for the blacksmith who made the matchet...Wonderful proverb, isn't it? But it was only intended to enlarge the scope of our thinking not to guide policemen investigating an actual crime.

(Culled from Chinua Achebe: ***Ant hills of the Savannah*** ,p. 146)

12.4.2 Speech Writing

Speech writing is the art of putting an oral presentation into a written form. As an art, it demands specific skills to be successful. It is indeed believed to be more demanding than its sister-activity, speech making. This is because speech writing is essentially prognostic–the writer envisages given situation (in future), into which what is being written (at present) will fit. This implies predicting the audience (its mood, taste and desire), the event (its trajectory) and the objectives and the image of the speaker. In addition, it must adhere strictly to the pertinent writing conventions (e.g. the use of relevant punctuation marks and grammatical rules). In short, speech writing must not only conform to orthographic rules, but must also obey the basic principles of The Rhetorical Triangle explained in the previous section. It is pertinent to note at this juncture that speech writing may be personal or professional.

(A) Personal Speech Writing

In personal speech writing, the one going to deliver a speech takes it upon himself or herself to write the speech. The major advantage of this approach is that it is much easier to read what one has written than what somebody else has written. But this places a great responsibility on the (personal) speech writer - he or she must write appropriately! This means avoiding unpalatable idiosyncrasies in one's speech (since we tend to write the way we speak). In any case, there is nothing wrong with seeking professional advice at any given point of the exercise.

(B) Professional Speech Writing

Some people earn a living by writing speeches. Such people undergo professional training in order to qualify for such practice. In principle, the professional writer knows the nature of the appropriate text for each occasion, when to throw in a joke, when to present statistical evidence, when to tell a story (and for how long), etc. In practice, however, it is not easy to accurately predict these often delicate matters. The professional speech writer knows all too well that he or she must obey the principles of The Rhetorical Triangle to the letter. Unfortunately, great orators have been known to dispense with the services of professional speech writers – even when these are attached to their offices.

12.5. SPEECH DELIVERY METHODS

Speaking has more formality than talking; it has less formality than reading.

Speaking allows for meaningful pauses, eye contact, small changes in word order, and vocal emphasis. Reading is a more or less exact replication of words on paper without the use of any nonverbal interpretation. Speaking provides a more animated message. There are four methods of speech delivery.

12.5.1 Impromptu Speech

Impromptu speaking is the presentation of a short message without advance preparation. Impromptu speeches often occur when someone is asked to "say a few words" or give a toast on a special occasion. You have probably done impromptu speaking many times in informal, conversational settings. Self-introduction in group settings is an example of impromptu speaking. An impromptu speech is generally most successful when it is brief and focused on a single point.

A step-by-step guide that may be useful if you are called upon to give an impromptu speech in public is as follows:

a. Take a moment to collect your thoughts and plan the main point you want to make.
b. Thank the person for inviting you to speak.
c. Deliver your message, making your main point as briefly as you can while still covering it adequately and at a pace your listeners can follow.
d. Thank the person again for the opportunity to speak.
e. Stop talking.

The advantage of this kind of speaking is that it is spontaneous and responsive in an animated group context. The disadvantage is that the speaker is given little or no time to contemplate the central theme of his or her message. As a result, the message may be disorganized and difficult for listeners to follow.

12.5.2 Extemporaneous Speech

Extemporaneous speaking is the presentation of a carefully planned and rehearsed speech, spoken in a conversational manner using brief notes. By using notes rather thana full manuscript, the extemporaneous speaker can establish and maintain eye contact with the audience and assess how well they understand the speech as it progresses. Speaking extemporaneously has some advantages. It promotes the likelihood that you, the speaker, will be perceived as knowledgeable and credible. In addition, your audienceis likely to pay better attention to the message because it is engaging both verbally and nonverbally. The disadvantage of extemporaneous speaking is that it requires a greatdeal of preparation for both the verbal and the nonverbal components of the speech. Adequate preparation cannot be achieved the day before you're scheduled to speak.

12.5.3 Speaking from a Manuscript

Speaking from manuscript is the word-for-word iteration of a written message. In a manuscript speech, the speaker maintains his or her attention on the printed page except when using visual aids. The advantage to reading from a manuscript is the exact repetition of original words. Unless the speaker has rehearsed the reading as a complete performance animated with vocal expression and gestures, the presentation tends to be dull. Keeping one's eyes glued to the script precludes eye contact with the audience. For this kind of "straight" manuscript speech to hold audience attention, the audience must be already interested in the message before the delivery begins.

The success of this medium depends on two factors: the speaker must be an accomplished public speaker who has learned to use a conversational tone while delivering a prepared script, and the speech written in a style that sounds conversational.

12.5.4 Speaking from Memory

Memorized speaking is the rote recitation of a written message that the speaker has committed to memory. Actors, of course, recite from memory whenever they perform from a script in a stage play or movie. When it comes to speeches, memorization can be useful when the message needs to be exact and the speaker doesn't want to be confined by notes. The advantage to memorization is that it enables the speaker to maintain eye contact with the audience throughout the speech. Because the speaker is free of notes he can move freely around and use hands to make gestures. If the speech involves the use of visual aids, this freedom is even more of an advantage. Unless the speaker plans and memorizes every vocal, gesture, and facial expression, the presentation will be flat and uninteresting, and even the most fascinating topic will suffer. The speaker might end up speaking in a monotone or a sing-song repetitive delivery pattern.

12.6 PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE SPEECH DELIVERY

Delivering a speech is a task that needs the application of appropriate elements, techniques and resources in order to produce an effective speech that connects with the audience and achieves the aims of the speaker. In order to do this, the speaker has to employ the principles of effective speaking. These principles are: use of gestures, use of vocal resources, appropriate posture, right setting, use of humour, proper structuring of the speech and use of audio and visual aids.

12.6.1 Use of Gestures

Gestures complement the word of mouth. Gestures could be used as illustrators, initiators and facilitators of speech. A speaker is advised to use diverse and appropriate gestures as non-verbal complements along with facial expressions to heighten the expressive nature of the speech and communicate effectively.

12.6.2 Use of Vocal Resources

An effective speaker would make use of vocal resources at his disposal. Resources such as tempo and rhythm of voice, pitch of voice, volume of voice should be varied and tailored to the message and the event. By doing this, the speech will not be delivered in monotone. These dynamic acoustic properties would ensure that the speaker connects effectively to his audience.

12.6.3 Appropriate Posture

The posture of the speaker matters. The speaker must maintain erect posture. The posture of the speaker has a way of contributing significantly to the impression the audience forms of the speaker. It is then important that the speaker should maintain a posture that would encourage the audience to have a positive impression of him as someone that deserves to be heard.

12.6.4 Right Setting

When the speaker has an input into the choice of the venue that is appropriate, the speaker should choose a venue that is appropriate for speech delivery. It should be a venue where the audience would not be in any form of discomfort. It should also be a venue whose location is appropriate in the sense that the noise level in the environment is low and other environmental factors are conducive to speech delivery.

12.6.5 Use of Humour

An effective speaker inserts humour into the speech. He must use light humour in a way that it would not be a distraction. Light humour introduces a form of entertainment which serves to elicit the interest of the audience in the topic and speech. In using humour, however, the speaker should limit it so that it is not over-used.

12.6.6 Structuring the Speech

It is important that the speaker structures his speech properly. The speech should have an introduction, body and conclusion. The speech would be an effective piece if it has a very strong and interesting introduction; the body should contain the heart of the topic, illustrated with examples, formulae with internal connectives while the conclusion must a short and powerful summary of the discourse.

12.6.7 Use of Audio and Visual Aids

Audio aids such as a public address system and audio visual aids such as overhead projectors or slides are aids that enhance public speaking. The speaker should use public a address system where necessary. This would help him and prevent him from shouting himself hoarse. He could also use visual aids such as charts and flash cards to illustrate information to give quality to his speech.

ILLUSTRATION 12.3

Before you start working on your talk or presentation, it is important that you really understand what you want to say, who you want to tell and why they might want to hear it. To do this, ask yourself: Who? What? How? When? Where? and Why? Who are you speaking to? What are their interests, presuppositions and values? What do they share in common with others? How are they unique?

What do you wish to communicate? One way of answering this question is to ask yourself about

the "success criteria". How do you know if and when you have successfully communicated what you have in mind?

How can you best convey your message? Language is important here, as are the non-verbal cues

discussed earlier. Choose your words and your non-verbal cues with your audience in mind. Plan a beginning, middle and end. If time and place allow, consider and prepare audio-visual aids.

When? Timing is important here. Develop a sense of timings that your contributions are seen and heard as relevant to the issue or matter at hand. There is a time to speak and a time to be silent. "It's better to be silent than sing a bad tune."

Where? What is the physical context of the communication in mind? You may have time to visit the room, for example, and rearrange the furniture. Check for availability and visibility if you are using audio or visual aids.

Why? In order to convert hearers in to listeners, you need to know why they should listen to you–and tell them if necessary. What disposes them to listen? That impliesthat you know yourself why you are seeking to communicate–the value or worth or interest of what you are going to say.

(Adapted from***MindTools.com)***

12.7 Checklist of Effective Speaking

Creating the message: In order to create a well-structured oral message, the speaker should:

(a) First consider the context of the oral communication and the desired outcome.

(b) Establish the key points to get across and what running order would best link Them together at the beginning, middle and end.

(c) Advance the salient facts and figures which will support the argument.

(d) Decide on what the delivery style of the message should be before embarking on it.

(e) Constantly monitor the feedback he receives from his audience

(f) Know when he has said enough and stop on a positive note.

12.8 Important speech features to master

(a) Accent: This is a distinctive manner of oral expression which shows the relative prominence of a syllable or musical note with regard to stress or pitch. It may also be the usage or vocabulary that is characteristic of a particular group of people. Accents of different people may be accepted but they should be devoid of being confused with local dialect words.

(b) Pronunciation: This is the way and manner in which a word or a language is customarily spoken. People will not like to hear speeches marred by ugly orresentful habits.

(c) Enunciation: This is the aspect of pronunciation that brings articulatory organ together so as to shape the sounds of speech in such a way that the sound(s) uttered will be intelligible to the audience. Good oral communication–especially over a poor telephone line or in a large hall–depends on vowels being well rounded and not swallowed.

(d) Intonation: This is the rise and fall of voice or pitch according to due measure and proportion. Nothing causes listeners to 'switch off' as the ponderous utterance of drab monotones.

(e) Projection: This is a calculated attempt by the speaker to raise the volume of his voice to the volume of the space occupied by the audience. A well-projected speech is clear and understandable to the entire audience.

12.9 Features of a good speech

Oral communication is the oldest and most widely used medium of communication. It can take place in different forms and speech is one of them. Speech is generally, the most effective medium of delivering the message in meetings, seminars, conferences, etc. Speech refers to delivering the message through words of mouth or spoken words in front of the audience gathered in a meeting, seminar or conference. Through speech, the speaker can present his opinions and thoughts on any matter to a large audience at a time. A speech is a highly structured form of address in which a speaker addresses an audience gathered to hear a message. Therefore, it is widely used in delivering an oral message in business, social, political and religious gatherings.

Features of a good speech include, among others, the following:

a. **Clarity**: Clarity is an essential feature of a good speech. A speech should be clear and unambiguous so that the audience can understand it easily. If it is not clear enough to express its meaning to the audience, it will become ineffective.
b. **Definite Message**: The message of the speech should be definite and relevant to the subject matter.
c. **Conciseness**: The audience becomes impatient with a long speech. Hence, speech should be as concise as possible, long enough to cover the subject matter.
d. **Interesting**: A speech should be delivered in an interesting and pleasing way so that the audience is motivated to pay attention. In order to make the speech interesting, various anecdotes, examples, quotations, and jokes can be injected into it.
e. **Audience**: Speech is delivered to a specific audience. So the speaker should actively consider the expectations, interest, and nature of the audience.
f. **Speaking slowly**: An ideal speech is one that is delivered slowly and in a usual tone. It helps the audience to hear and understand the message clearly.
g. **Free from Emotions**: Another important feature of a good speech is that it should be delivered in an unbiased and unemotional way. Speaker's emotion may drive him away from the main theme.
h. **Use of Body Language**: Good Speech goes with necessary body language. Therefore, at the time of delivering a speech, the speaker should use various nonverbal cues.
i. **Audience Participation:** A good speech is one that ensures the participation of the audience with the speaker. That means the audience will ensure their attention through effective listening, expressing their solidarity with the speech and the person delivering it.
j. **Interesting opening remarks/introduction:** A speaker wins or loses the battle for holding his audience in the first few minutes he starts his speech. If the speaker impresses his audience with his opening remarks or introduction, he is well on his way to winning a space in their heart because speech delivery involves a heart to heart dialogue.
k. **Listener oriented:** The audience is the speaker's customer. It is his business to know the audience's needs and wants, its desires and expectations. The speaker has to be very sensitive to the body language of his audience and modify the speech to fine tune it to the taste of the audience.
l. **Background and experience of the audience:** An impressive speech that will have an everlasting impact is the one that matches the frequency of the speaker and that of the audience. Using a very sophisticated language, which persons with a particular background, educational, social, and cultural only can understand and relate with, for rural semi-literate persons can hardly make any impact.

m. **Originality:** A good speaker develops his style and does not copy or imitate anyone else. He must have his own style, his own way of speaking, using body language and developing a rapport with his audience. Of course, there is no harm in learning from great orators by copying their fine points to improve delivery, but the speaker's original style should be maintained.

12.10 SUMMARY

In this chapter, appropriateness, clarity, adequacy and fluency as the elements of oral presentation have been identified. Also highlighted are aspects of visuals in speech making before attempting to distinguish speech-making from its sister-art, speech- writing. In all aspects of oral presentation then, the principles of The Rhetorical Triangleseem to be necessarily obeyed to guarantee success.

Finally, a checklist of items that facilitate effective speaking has been presented, complemented by some important speech features that should be mastered.

12.10 END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

12.10.1 MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. ONE of the following is NOT a characteristic of speech making.

    A. Appropriateness
    B. Clarity
    C. Clumsiness
    D. Adequacy
    E. Fluency

2. Which of the following is most appropriate to use in facilitating an oral presentation?

    A. Aid
    B. Aids
    C. Visual Aids
    D. Manual Aids
    E. Drawing board

3. Which **ONE** of the following is a basic type of speech?

    A. Poetry
    B. Written
    C. Public
    D. Prose
    E. Précis

4. A speech-writer who earns a living by writing speeches is a

    A. Professional
    B. Personal
    C. Elementary
    D. Illiterate
    E. Semi-literate

5. All the following lists are NOT components of The Rhetorical Triangle EXCEPT

    A. Appeal and logic
    B. Appeal, emotion and logic
    C. Appeal, resolution and logic
    D. Resolution and appeal
    E. Resolution, logic and emotion

12.10.2 SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. The persuasive ability of a speaker is judged from ethical, emotional and. ....appeals.
2. In speech making, the mode of delivery is..........................
3. A speech delivered without advance preparation is called ....
4. In speech delivery.................is a measure of the rate of flow.
5. Speech delivery is primarily meant to be decoded through ....

12.10.3 ESSAY

1. Discuss briefly any THREE elements of speech making.
2. Explain briefly the interrelatedness of the three components of The Rhetorical Triangle.

12.11 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

12.11.1 SOLUTION TO MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. C
2. C
3. C
4. A
5. B

12.11.2 SOLUTION TO SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. logical
2. verbal/Oral
3. Impromptu
4. fluency
5. Listening

12.11.3 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER ESSAY QUESTIONS

QUESTION 1

Generally, there are some characteristics of speech making, which may be regarded as It’s elements since they ensure its quality. These are: appropriateness, clarity, adequacy and fluency.

Appropriateness may be defined as the provision of a requirement in the dosage or amount expected in a given situation. It is, therefore, a great yardstick for measuring the successor otherwise of the entire communication process (i.e. source, encoding, channel, decoding, receiver, feedback and context). Indeed, all the elements of speech making may be used to evaluate various aspects of the entire communication process. However, appropriateness is the underlying current that runs through all the other elements of speech making (i.e., clarity, adequacy and fluency). For instance, even when the 'source' is clear, is it appropriate on this occasion? Or when the decoding is *adequate*, is it appropriate on this occasion?

Clarity, as a feature of an oral presentation, may be viewed from two different perspectives: on the one hand, language choice and use; on the other, the message. As far as language choice is concerned, the oral presenter must ensure that his or her competence in the chosen language is unquestionable and that he or she is able to function very well in it. In some circumstances, code-switching or code-mixing (or both) may be resorted to, provided that such choices, in terms of use, contribute positively to the overall goal of making a successful speech.

The clarity of the message itself is also important. If, at the end of the speech, the audience does not get the essence of the message, then the exercise, as a whole, has been futile. Sometimes, simplicity is the key to clarity. A speech should use simple, clear and concise language to enhance coding and decoding obligations on the part of the sender and receiver respectively. Other factors that may enhance clarity include adequate preparation (based on the perceived needs of the entire communication process), rehearsal (may be dressed, *in situ)* and self- appraisal by the oral presenter.

Adequacy is a measure of sufficiency. In oral presentation, the adequacy of the preparation, delivery and feedback comes into play. There should be no shortfall. Neither should there be an over-supply in the quantity of each contributory factor to the overall communication process. Adequacy in terms of coverage (i.e. setting specific goals and achieving them) and time (i.e. executing the delivery within a specific time-frame) needs to be given special attention. For instance, gauging the attention – span of the audience, its taste and its mood are all important in ensuring effective delivery.

Fluency is a measure of the rate off low. Inconsistency in the rate off low of speech signals breaks in transmission. And who likes to listen to disconnected speech? Nobody! Connecting the new information to the old, inconclusive one may be hard on the listener, who may have been forced to swim in ignorance for some time. To maintain a smooth ride for the train of thought of both speaker and audience, therefore, delivery should be vivid and smooth, rather than bumpy.

QUESTION 2

Public Speech Making takes place in an open environment in which the audience is large and the setting formal. It usually generates anxiety or even fear in the inexperienced speaker, presumably because of the possibility of 'not getting it right'. However, there are ways of surmounting the obstacle. Aristotle is reported to have taught his followers that there were three different areas in which the persuasive ability of a speaker may be judged: *ethos* (ethical

appeals, i.e. of the speaker), *pathos* (emotional appeals, i.e. to the listener) and *logos* (logical appeal of the text). These are popularly referred to as The Rhetorical Triangle by rhetoricians. It means a successful public speaker is one who is able to secure a balance *(note:* the triangle is equilateral) among the three inter dependent areas: an overflow of one into another would cause an imbalance and impede success. For instance, if a speech is excessively emotional, it may lose grounds on logic, just as it may lose grounds on emotional appeal if the speaker is dull and unimpressive.

CHAPTER 13

CORRESPONDENCE

CHAPTER CONTENT

- Understanding different types of correspondence and their appropriateness
- Exploring different methods of correspondence

13.0 LEARNING OBJECIVES

After completing this chapter, you should be able to

- identify different types of correspondence;
- exploit different methods of correspondence.

13.1 INTRODUCTION

Correspondence is a written communication activity that involves a minimum of two parties – one supplying to the other information needed for the promotion of the interests of both and all other parties that may be involved. All correspondences are documented- even television network correspondents have their reports documented, despite the fact that they are often transmitted verbally on air. In this chapter, we shall first identify the two basic types of correspondence and then, present a fe w methods ofcorrespondence such as letters, memoranda, circulars and press releases

13.2 TYPES OF CORRESPONDENCE

Correspondence could take place within or outside an organisation. This means there are basically two different types of correspondence: internal and external.

13.2.1 Internal Correspondence

Internal correspondence is intended for consumption within an organisation or an establishment. It is, therefore, addressed to a member (or members) of the organisation or establishment. Sometimes, organisational secrets may be involved. In such cases, a greater burden is placed on anyone receiving or sending an internal correspondence. Nevertheless, internal correspondence may be secret (i.e. restricted to the parties directly involved) or open (i.e. to all members of the organisation). External Correspondence

External correspondence, on the other hand, is destined for consumption outside the organisation or establishment. It may also be secret or open. In either case, every organisation endeavours to closely monitor all its correspondence with persons or bodies outside its borders. This is a kind of quality-control measure to ensure that any out-going information would not eventually damage the image or operations of the organisation. Information that is already in the public domain is usually difficult to control.

ILLUSTRATION 13.1

The following Press Release serves two purposes: it dissociates the company from its former employee and reassures the public of its commitment to rendering excellent services. Apart from fulfilling legal obligations, the press release is used as an image-maker for the company.

Press Release

This is to inform the general public that Mr. XYZ, whose photograph appears below, is no longer an employee of Ada John Mohammed Group. Any member of the public, who transacts any business with the said Mr XYZ, on behalf of A. J. Mohammed Group, does so at his or her own risk. We continue to provide you excellent import and export services.

SIGNED

Management

13.3 METHODS OF CORRESPONDENCE

As an information resource, correspondence needs a channel, through which it is conveyed. Letters and memoranda are two reputable methods of correspondence.

13.3.1 Letters

A letter is a piece of writing directed *in absentia* at an individual as if there were face- to-face contact. Letters come indifferent shapes and sizes. Long or short, letters distinguish themselves from other texts through their well-defined structure. Depending on the type of letter to be written, all or some of the following features must be present:

a. Correspondence address
b. Date
c. Addressee or Addressee’s address
d. Salutation
e. Subject matter
f. Body of the letter
g. Closing
h. Name of writer (and/or Signature)
i. Designation/Position

Letters distinguish themselves from other texts through well-defined structure: the address of the writer and the date are indicated at the top of the page; the addressee is identified by name or title; the body of the letter contains the message, which is intended to be delivered. Finally the sender signs off. It should be noted, at this juncture, that a letter could be formal/official (adhering strictly to structural and grammatical rules) or informal/private. Consequently, a more categorical distinction is made between personal and official letters.

The outline looks like this:

Correspondence Address

Date
Addressee/Addressee’s Address
Salutation
Subject matterBody of the letter Closing
Name (and/or Signature)
Designation/Position

(A) Personal Letter

A personal letter is one written by an individual in his or her capacity as a being. Personal letters offer us the opportunity to express our feelings, worries, anxieties, emotions, needs, desires, etc., to our relations, friends, colleagues, acquaintances,neighbours, etc. The language used in a personal letter isusually informal.

ILLUSTRATION 13.2

The letter cited below illustrates the general features of a personal letter: absence of a formal structure *(note:* absence of letterhead); use of informal form of address *(note:* use of first names); sharing of 'given' information (shared by writer and addressee) and use of informal language.

Abuja,

13th May, 2006

Dear Soji,

'How are you? I arrived safely in Abuja about two hours ago. The journey was very smooth and the scenery was great. Have you heard from Mohammed yet? I hope he keeps his promise. Any way, you understand him better than the rest of us do.

I don' t hope to belong here – just want to have a look around town, visit a few friends and arrive in Jos before the weekend, so as to take along rest before the conference begins next Monday.

Let's know what you'd appreciate most to have from Jos. Meanwhile take good care of yourself. Cheers!

Yours sincerely,

Fagge.

(B) Official Letters

An official letter i s usually formal, devoid of personal feelings or emotions and is written to convey an official position on an issue. An official letter is usually writtenon the headed paper of a company or an establishment. The company's name, address (postal and electronic), telephone numbers as well as the name of the Chief Executive are regular features of the top (or bottom) of the headed paper.

An official letter may bear a reference number, which is usually indicated just below the address at the top of the page. Below this is the area (i.e. the left- hand side of the page); reserved for the name and address of the addressee. The next line is the official take-off point of the letter since this is where the addressee's attention is drawn by 'calling out' his or her name, using a title (e.g. *Dear Mrs Black,)*.

Still movingownwards, we arrive at the next line, which indicates the subject matter of the subject at hand. A single line is usually sufficient. Then, we come to the body of the letter (laid out in form of introduction, body and conclusion). Finally, there is a signing-off or closing of the letter through the use of such a phrase as *Yours faithfully,* followed under by a signature, which is in turn followed by the title (and function) of the person signing the letter. (In some instances, when copies of the letter are sent to other addressees, their names or initials are indicated at the bottom of the page on the left hand side).

Applications for employment as well as response to such matters fall within this category of letters.

ILLUSTRATION 13.3

Consider this letter of appointment issued to a successful applicant.

ASSOCIATION OF ACCOUNTANCY BODIES IN WEST AFRICA

AABWA House
21-27, Accountancy Layout,
Abuja, Nigeria

Tel. +234 66 482 177717 E-mail:registrar@aabwa.org

Registrar: Goki O. Kugba, FCAA

Your Ref.

Our Ref.: R/App/39.Vol.II March 22, 2005

Mr. Abdullahi Kureto,

33, Freedom Street, New Town. 4001

Dear Mr. Kureto,

Appointment as Manager-in-Training (Finance)

Sequel to your application dated January 21st, 2005 and your successful performance at the just-concluded interview, the President, acting on behalf of Council, has approved your appointment as Manager-in-Training (Finance) with effect from June 1st, 2005. Your appointment shall be due for confirmation after two years, subject to satisfactory performance.

As a Manager-in-Training (Finance), you are directly responsible to the Director Finance, who will give you assignments from time to time in addition to your regular duties.

Please let me know in writing by the 30th April, 2005 if this offer is acceptable to you.

Meanwhile, I seize this opportunity to congratulate you.

Yours faithfully,
Kogi O. Kugba
Registrar

13.3.2 Memorandum

Memorandum is a term that may be used indifferent contexts and it usually appears in its shortened form: *Memo*. Which is derived from *memorandum* (the singular). When used in the context of an agreement (e.g. a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU)), it involves a multi-party arrangement, through which responsibilities, privileges and other matters are clearly spelt out. In this sense, it is a document that prepares the grounds fora contractual agreement. In another sense, the term, memo, is used for a special type of correspondence that takes (place within an organisation. In this sense then, the memo is an official, though simplified method of correspondence. All the writer needs to do is to fill all the relevant sections of the document. A memo has a rigid format (made up of headings): sender, receiver, subject and date-all stated at the 'head' of the paper.

The memo has for long been the conventional means of corresponding quickly and efficiently in an organisation primarily because of the simplicity of its ready-made format. Consider the example given below, in which a junior partner (assigned the identity A^3) is corresponding with the Principal Partner in an Accounting firm (CSSis the Chief of Security Services; LCWs are Late-Comers-to-Work*):*

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">MEMO</td></tr>
<tr><td>FROM: A^3 (Signed)</td><td>TO: Chief Security Officer</td></tr>
<tr><td>SUBJECT: Lateness to work</td><td>DATE: 3rd June1986</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">As directed at the breakfast meeting, CSS has been informed of the decision to turn back all LCWs at the gate with effect from tomorrow morning.</td></tr>
</table>

Nowadays, electronic mail (popularly referred to as e-mail) and other internet-basedmeans of text messaging have greatly borrowed from the traditional format o fthe memo.

13.4 SUMMARY

In this chapter, we have defined correspondence as an activity 'that involves a sender getting information across to a receiver for the mutual benefit of both parties involved and the general interest of the organisation to which they both belong. Two types (internaland external) and two methods (letters and memoranda) have been discussed. There is no doubt that correspondence plays a major role in the day-to-day running of an organisation.

13.5 END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

13.5.1 MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. In an organisation, the two basic types of correspondence are

   A. External and international
   B. International andregional
   C. Internal and external
   D. Internal and regional
   E. External and regional

2. ONE of the following is NOT a characteristic of internal correspondence.

   A. May not be disclosed to outsiders
   B. Sometimes restrictive
   C. Must be kept within the organisation
   D. Sometimes secretive
   E. Maybe disclosed to outsiders

3. Internal correspondence maybe either secret or

   A. Closed
   B. Open
   C. International
   D. National
   E. Departmental

4. An external correspondence issued to the mass media on a specific issue which is meant for public consumption is

A. House release

B. Press release

C. Press note D.
House report

E. Situation report

5. Which of the following is NOT a feature of an official letter?

A. Written on the letterhead
B. Contains personal feelings
C. Carries a reference number
D. Conveys an official position
E. contains address and telephone number(s)

13.5.2 SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. In an official letter, the receiver is known as the.........................

2. A letter may be personal or...............................

3. Feelings, desires, needs, emotions and anxieties are all permissible in a(n) ....letter.

4. When copies of an official letter are sent to other addressees, their names or positions are indicated at the.............................

5. The conventional means of sending information quickly and 'efficiently in an office primarily because of the simplicity of its ready-made format is ---------

13.5.3 ESSAY

1. Discuss briefly the TWO basic types of correspondence.

2. Discuss briefly, giving an example, the greatest appeal of a memorandum.

13.6 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

13.6.1 SOLUTIONS TO MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. C

2. E

3. B

4. B

5. B

13.6.2 SOLUTIONS TO SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. addressee
2. official
3. personal
4. bottom
5. memorandum

13.6.3 SOLUTIONS TO ESSAY QUESTIONS

QUESTION 1

Correspondence could take place within or outside an organisation. This means there are basically two different types of correspondence: Internal and External.

Internal correspondence is intended for consumption within an organizationor an establishment. It is therefore addressed to a member (or members) of the organization or establishment. Sometimes, organizational secrets may be involved. In such cases, a greater burden is placed on any one receiving or sending an internal correspondence. Nevertheless, internal correspondence may be secret (i.e. restricted to the parties directly involved) or open (i.e. to all members of the organization).

External correspondence, on the other hand, is' destined for consumptionoutside the organization or establishment. It may also be 'secret or open. In either case, every organisation endeavours to closely monitor all its correspondence with persons or bodies outside its borders. This is a kind of quality-control measure to ensure that any out-going information would not eventually damage the image or operations of the organization. Information that is already in the public domain is usually difficult to control.

QUESTION 2

The greatest appeal of a memorandum is the simplicity of its ready-made format, coupled with

its ability to dispose of issues quickly an deficiently.

Memoranda is a term that may be used in different contexts and it usually appears in its Shortened form: *Memo,* which is derived from *memorandum* (the singular). When used in the

context of an agreement (e.g. a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU)), it involves a multi-party arrangement, through which responsibilities, privileges and other matters are clearly spelt out. In this sense, it is a document that prepares the grounds for a contractual agreement. In another sense, the term, memo, is used for a special type of

correspondence that takes (place within an organisation. In this sense then, the memo is an official, though simplified method of

A correspondence. All the writer needs to do is to filll the relevant sections of the document. memo has a rigid format (made up of headings): sender, receiver, subject and date- all stated at the 'head' of the paper.

The memo has for long been the conventional means of corresponding quickly and efficiently in an office, primarily because of the simplicity of its ready-made format. Consider the example given below, in which the Group Managing Director (GDM) of an organization sends a memorandum to all the staff of the establishment:

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">MEMORANDUM

GDM/Gen./vol.II</td></tr>
<tr><td>FROM: GMD (Public Relatio</td><td>TO: All Staff</td></tr>
<tr><td>SUBJECT: Public Holiday</td><td>DATE: 29th June, 2012</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">The Federal Government has declared Monday the 3rd of July, 2012 as a public holiday. All offices will therefore remain closed on that day. Regular activities will resume on Tuesday the 4th of July, 2012 at 8.00am.</td></tr>
</table>

CHAPTER 14

MEETINGS

CHAPTER CONTENT

- Identifying different categories of meeting that take place in an organisation
- Understanding the basic procedural tools used to run meetings

14.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this chapter, you should be able to

- identify the various categories of meetings that take place in an organisation;
- identify the fundamental tools associated with meetings;
- discuss the utilization of meeting tools.

14.1 INTRODUCTION

A meeting is the bringing together of all parties concerned with an issue. There are two types of meetings: formal and informal. Whereas the former is official, the latter is not. In this chapter, we concentrate on formal meetings. A general meeting may involve all members of an organisation. Other meetings may be restricted in terms of membership, e.g. Executive Council Meeting, Management Meeting, Board Meeting, Departmental Meeting, etc. In this chapter, different categories of meetings and the fundamental tools associated with them are also discussed.

14.2 CATEGORIES OF MEETINGS

Irrespective of the size of its membership, a formal meeting may be categorized as regular, special or emergency, depending on the circumstances in which it is called.

14.2.1 Regular/Statutory Meetings

An organisation may have its regular meetings once a month, for instance, on the last Thursday of the month at 3.00pm. All members of the organisation that are expected to attend regular meetings are supposed to give them priority in their schedule. This means avoiding scheduling other organisational or even personal matters to times that may clash with the regular meeting day.

14.2.2 Special Meetings

A special meeting of a body or an organisation could be summoned in case there is a specific matter that needs to be addressed on its own (i.e. outsider outine matters which are discussed at regular meetings). This is usual for elections to specific positions, briefings or other big events.

14.2.3 Emergency Meetings

An emergency meeting of a body or an organisation is called when there is a case of an unforeseen matter that requires immediate attention. In view of the urgency attached to it, an emergency meeting tends to create higher levels of tension in its participants than those observed in people attending other categories of meetings.

14.3 FUNDAMENTAL TOOLS OF A MEETING

Whatever the category of meeting, there are three fundamental tools of a meeting. Each contributes significantly towards the success of the meeting. They are: notice of meeting, meeting agenda and minutes of meeting.

14.3.1 Notice of Meeting

A notice of meeting is the means through which the intention to hold a meeting is publicised. Its circulation may be restricted to only those expected to attend or it may be unrestricted and therefore made public. In either case, it is necessary to give ample time for the notification to reach its target in time to give room for participants to include the meeting in their schedule. Poor notification usually leads to poor meeting attendance. Even a regular meeting needs a notice of meeting.

ILLUSTRATION 14.1

In this illustration, the bank is satisfying its legal obligation and, at the same time, making its AGM as enticing as possible.

LAGOON SIDE BANK LTD.

11-22 Bank Lane
Ramadi. Akobo State.

http://www.lagoonside.com Tel. +234 33 234 0566

Office of the Secretary e-mail: sec@lagoonside.com

February 1st, 2016

Dear Sir/Madam,

Notice of the 5th Annual General Meeting.

This is to inform you that the Annual General Meeting (AGM) of shareholders comes up in the auditorium of Lake Kaba Holiday Resort on Monday the 16th of May, 2016 at10.00am. In case you are unable to be personally present at the meeting, a proxy-form is hereby enclosed for your use so that you can be adequately represented.

This year's meeting promises to be exciting as the AGM is taking place in the south-east zone of the country for the first time ever.

Your copy of the 2014/2015 Annual Report which will be presented to the AGM is hereby enclosed.

We look forward to seeing you at Lake Kaba Holiday Resort. Yours

Yours faithfully,

A. O. Gamadi, J.P.
Company Secretary

14.3.2 Meeting Agenda

A meeting agenda is a step-by-step listing of all the activities that are billed to take place during a meeting. The singular form, *agendum*, though logically appropriate, is never used in this context. This is prepared by the secretariat responsible for planning the meeting, in consultation with the chairman of the meeting. It is usually circulated, along with the minutes of any previous meetings and the papers submitted for discussion, before the meeting in order to give those attending a chance to prepare their contributions well in advance. It is normal practice for the agenda to be adopted at the beginning of the meeting. And any issue that is of paramount importance that is not included in the circulated agenda may be taken before the commencement of the meeting.

At regular meetings, in particular, it is usual to start with the chairman's opening remarks, followed by the consideration and adoption of the minutes of a previous meeting. Next to be discussed are matters arising from the minutes of the previous meeting(s). And finally the substantive issues of the current meeting are addressed.

ILLUSTRATION 14.2

A sample Agenda is presented here:

IKOFA LANDLORDS ASSOCIATION

5TH REGULAR MEETING OF THE IKOFA LANDLORDS ASSOCIATION

HOLDING AT CITY HALL, IKOFA ON SATURDAY, NOVEMBER 25, 2006 AT 10.00AM.

AGENDA

1. Adoption of the Agenda.
2. Chairman's Opening Remarks
3. Adoption of the minutes of the 4^{th} Regular Meeting held on Saturday,
   23rd September, 2006
4. Matters Arising from the Minutes of 4^{th} Regular Meeting
5. Reports from Committees
   :- -Sanitation Paper No. 5/011/01
   - Health Paper No. 5/011/02
   - Schools Management PaperNo. 5/011/03
6. Auditor's Report (Year ending June, 2006)
7. Report of an inquiry into the collapsed building at No. 2, Market Road.
8. Any Other Business
9. Adjournment
10. Date of next meeting

14.3.3 Minutes of Meeting

The third tool (in terms of sequence of acquisition) is the minutes of meeting. The minutes of a meeting are defined as the official record of all that transpires during the meeting. They are, therefore, written out and are formally adopted as the correct record of the proceedings of the meeting, usually at a subsequent meeting.

There is a standard format for writing minutes: the title of the meeting, including details of place and time, is stated at the top of the title page; next, membership of the meeting is indicated, with provision to show whether a member was actually present or absent or sent in an apology (at the particular meeting); then come the 'substantive' matters for discussion. Such issues could be staff matters, reports from various committees or administrative and financial reports. The motion for adjournment comes at the end since it marks the formal closure of the meeting. Dateof the next meeting may be decided just before the close at the meetin

ILLUSTRATION 14.3

The minutes of the meeting, whose agenda is presented in Illustration 13.2 above, could look as follows:

MINUTES OF THE 5TH REGULAR MEETING OF THE IKOFA LANDLORDS ASSOCIATION HELD AT CITY HALL, IKOFA, ON SATURDAY, NOVEMBER 25, 2006 AT 10.00AM.

5.1 Membership

1.	Chief I.O Akowonjo	Chairman	
2.	Justice Z. U Odo	Vice Chairman(AWA)	
3.	Dr. P. I.Eze	Member	(Abs)
4.	Madam C.U. Cashy	Member	
5.	Honourable N.M.I. Takeam	Member	
6.	Alhaji Mohammed Isa Abdul	Member	
7.	Rev. Teke Kulopodo	Member	
8.	Mr. S. A Juro	Member & Secretary	

AWA – Absent with apology

Abs– Absent

5.2 Adoption of the Agenda

The motion for the adoption of the agenda was moved by Madam Cashy and seconded by Hon. Takeam./

5.3 Chairman's Opening Remark

The Chairman welcomed members to the 5th Meeting and expressed his satisfaction with the punctuality and large turnout of members.

5.4 Adoption of the Minutes of the 4th Regular Meeting held on Saturday, 23rd September, 2006.

The minutes of the 4th Regular Meeting were read and later adopted following a motion to that effect moved by Alh. Abdul seconded by Madam Cashy.

5.5 Matters Arising from the Minutes of the 4th Regular Meeting

It was reported that the issue of the provision of adequate road traffic signs, especially at Zebra Crossings, had been brought to the attention of the Chief Vehicle Inspection Officer, who had promised to look into the matter...

5.6 Reports from Committees

- Sanitation (Paper No. 5/011/01)

As its 10th regular meeting held on Saturday, 8th July, 2006, it was observed that 9th Street on 2nd Avenue had not had its refuse cleared for two consecutive weeks.

The Committee, therefore, directed the Zonal Supervisor (D), to take up the matter with the Ministry of Environment. The report was accepted, but the Chairman asked the Committee to maintain its vigilance and ensure that refuse did not pile up on the streets.

- Health (Paper No. 5/011/02*)*

The Committee was unable to submit a written report. But its Chairman, Justice Odo, was reported to have headed a team that visited the General Hospital last month.

- Schools Management (Paper No. 5/011/03)

The committee's submission could not be discussed for technical reasons.

5.7. Auditor's Report (Year ending Jun, 2006).

The Auditor's Report was presented by Mr. P.J. Sofo, Principal Partner, Sofo and Partners. The report ...

A motion for the acceptance of the report was moved by Madam Cashy and seconded by Hon. Takeam. The report was, therefore, accepted.

5.8. Report of an Inquiry into the collapsed building at No.2, Market Road.

It was reported that the Ad-hoc committee set up to look into the matter had not yet concluded its sittings. However, a verbal report was given by its Chairman, Rev. Kulopolo. A member pointed outthe urgency of the matter and wondered why it was taking solong to conclude the case. The Chairman urged the Committee to speed up action so that it could submit its report at the next meeting.

5.9. Any Other Business

No issue was raised.

5.10 Adjournment

The meeting adjourned at 4.00pm when a motion to that effect was moved by Rev. Kulopolo and seconded by Alh. Abdul.

5.11 Date of next meeting

The date of next meeting was fixed for Saturday, 24th January, 2007 at the usual time and venue.

____________________ ____________________

Chairman Secretary

14.4 TECHNICAL TERMS ASSOCIATED WITH MEETINGS

There are several operational terms, associated with meetings, which are designed to ensure the smooth conduct of such gatherings. Such terms as: quorum, motion, point of order, proxy, chairman, secretary voting and casting vote, etc. are hereby discussed.

14.4.1 Quorum

A quorum is the minimum number of the members of an assembly or society that must be present at a meeting in order for the meeting to be considered as valid. This is usually stated in the Constitution or the legal document setting up the body. It is a device to protect the body from any minority group that may meet and take decisions on behalf of the entire group. A meeting is called to order when the Chairman is satisfied that the quorum has been formed.

14.4.2 Motion

At a meeting, a motion is a formal proposal made by a member for the body to adopt as the position taken by the house. Usually, a seconder of the motion is required before it is put up for adoption. However, there could be a counter motion, which takes the opposite view of the motion on the floor of the house. A decision to adopt either the motion or c ounter motion is made through voting: the majority decides which way to go.

14.4.3 Point of Order

When a member of a meeting feels that the correct procedure is not being taken in handling a matter, he raises a point of order, which temporarily stops all other discussions until the chairman decides whether it is "in order" or" out of order". In the former case, the procedure must be corrected, whereas in the latter, the procedure would continue (since the point of order is not valid).

14.4.4 Proxy

A proxy is someone who has been authorized to represent someone else, especially in voting. An Annual General Meeting (AGM) of a company usually makes provision for such representation. A proxy has all the rights of a full member of a meeting.

14.4.5 Chairman

The Chairman presides over a meeting. Guided by the agenda, he dictates what is to be discussed at any point in time.

14.4.6 Secretary

The secretary is the scribe of the meeting. He takes the minutes of the meetings and ensures that the notice of meeting gets to all members ahead of each meeting. He or She is usually in charge of the logistics of the meeting.

14.4.7 Vote

A vote is the principal instrument used to decide the majority opinion at a meeting. The ballot may be open or secret.

14.4.8 Casting Vote

When voting is dead locked because no majority has emerged, the chairman has the right of a casting vote. The casting vote, then, is the extra vote (cast by the chairman) in order to decide an issue when votes on each side are equal.

14.4.9 Resolution

This is a formal decision passed by simple majority after necessary voting has been taken by members at any meeting.

14.4.10 Standing Order

This is a body of rules governing the conduct of meeting held by any particular Committee in the organisation.

14.4.11 Sine die

When a meeting is adjourned, or postponed, indefinitely, the Latin phrase, *sine die* is used. What this means is that one specific date has been fixed for the next meeting.

14.4.12 Ad-hoc

This is a Latin word and is used when a committee is set up for a specific or special purpose and is wound up as soon as the task for which it is set up is completed. An ad-hoc committee is opposed to standing committee.

14.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the reader has been exposed to the two basic types of meeting: formal and informal. It was shown that the former may be categorised into regular, special and emergency meetings. Finally, it has been demonstrated that the three fundamental tools of meetings are notice of meeting, meeting agenda and minutes of meeting. The success of a meeting is highly dependent on the judicious use of these tools. Some termsassociated with meetings are also explained.

14.6 END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

14.6.1 MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. ONE of the following is NOT a feature of a special meeting.

   A. Handling of routine matters
   B. No consideration of minutes of any previous meeting
   C. Taking of minutes
   D. Notice of meeting
   E. Called to consider a specific issue or issues

2. Which of the following is NOT a feature of a regular meeting?

   A. Notice of meeting
   B. Consideration of minutes of a previous meeting

   C. Agenda
   D. Motion for adjournment
   E. Call to the bar

3. Which of the following is the purpose for convening an emergency meeting?

   A. There is a ceremony to be performed
   B. There is a member of staff to be sent off
   C. There is an urgent matter at hand
   D. There is money to be shared
   E. It is the middle of the month

4. ONE of the following is NOT a purpose for which a notice of meeting is sent to members of a meeting.

A. Invite participants to an event
B. Inform participants prior to the take-off of an event
C. Inform participants after the take-off of an event
D. Give ample time for participants to plan to attend an event
E. Give room for participants to include an event in their schedule

5. Which of the following states the three fundamental tools of a meeting?

A. Notice of Meeting, Chairman's Opening Remarks and Agenda
B. Notice of Meeting, Agenda and Minutes of Meeting
C. Minutes of Meeting, Chairman's Closing Remarks and Agenda
D. Agenda, Chairman's Opening Remarks and Chairman's Closing Remarks
E. Notice of Meeting, Chairman's Closing Remarks and Agenda

14.6.2 SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. A meeting convened to consider a particular issue is called a(n) ....meeting.

2. A notice of meeting is essentially an indication of the intention to................. a meeting.

3. A meeting usually ends with a motion for...........................

4. A motion must be ....for it to be valid.

5. Recording the minutes of a meeting is the responsibility of the..................................

14.6.3 ESSAY

1. Discuss briefly the THREE different categories of meeting that may take place in an organization.

2. Discuss briefly the THREE fundamental tools of meetings.

14.7 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

14.7.1 SOLUTION TO MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. A
2. E
3. C
4. C
5. B

14.7.2 SOLUTION TO SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. special
2. hold
3. adjournment
4. seconded
5. secretary

14.7.3 SOLUTIONS TO ESSAY QUESTIONS

QUESTION 1

Irrespective of the size of its membership, a formal meeting may be categorized as regular (statutory), special or emergency, depending on the circumstances in which it is called.

An organisation may have its regular (statutory) meetings once a month, for instance, on the last Thursday of the month at 3.00pm. All members of the organisation that are expected to attend regular meetings are supposed to give them priority in their schedule. This means avoiding scheduling other organisational or even personal matters to times that may clash with the regular meeting routine.

A special meeting of a body or an organisation could be summoned in case there is a specific matter that needs to be addressed on its own (i.e. outside routine matters, which are discussed at regular meetings). This is usual for elections to specific positions, briefings or other big events.

An emergency meeting of a body or an organisation is called when there is a case of an unforeseen matter that requires immediate attention. In view of the urgency attached to it, an emergency meeting tends to create higher levels of tension in its participants than those observed in people attending other categories of meeting

CHAPTER 15

REPORT WRITING

CHAPTER CONTENT

- Identifying the basic types of report writing
- Understanding the format of reports
- Understanding the basic segments and their relevance in a report
- Identifying different ways of gathering materials for a report

15.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this chapter, you should be able to

- identify different types of report writing;
- demonstrate different styles of writing reports;
- explore different ways of collating materials for report writing;
- exploit formatting techniques in report writing.

15.1 INTRODUCTION

Report writing is the art of recording an event or activity that has taken place through the use of conventional means and methods of writing. The Oxford English Dictionary defines a report as a statement of the results of an investigation or any matter on which definite information is required. It is the documentation of this "statement of...results" that constitutes the main aim of report writing. In this chapter, therefore, different types of report writing are identified while different styles that may be used for the exerciseare examined. Furthermore, different ways of collating materials will be explored before presenting different formatting techniques used in the exercise.

15.2 TYPES OF REPORT

Broadly speaking, reports maybe classified as technical or non-technical. While non-technical report is informal, technical report is very formal. In educational, especially academic circles, it is the latter that comes to mind whenever report writing is mentioned. Nonetheless, there are different types of technical reports covering: laboratory (research or experimentation), hard-core t e c h n i ca l (subject-specific research), industrial (research or experience) or field trip (research or experience). In spite of their variety, all these forms of reports writing share certain features in terms of style and format.

15.2.1 NON-TECHNICAL REPORT

Any literate person writes non-technical report from time to time. When we witness an event, we may be asked to write a report on what we have witnessed. For instance, a lady's handbag is snatched at a bus stop. If the police, in their investigation, request two eye-witnesses to write separate reports on what they saw, it is not impossible that the two reports may not look alike in terms of format and even details. This is essentially due to the fact that a non-technical report is not bound by strict guidelines. The writer isfree to express himself or herself in his or her own way.

(A) Eye-witness Reports

An eye-witness report is one in which an individual is called upon to relate his or her own account of an evidence. In law court and similar establishments where such reportsare called for, one is at liberty to use one's personal style.

(B) Feedback Reports

The feedback report is also non-technical. It is a way of supplying information to an authority or any inquirer. A popular type of the feedback report is one in which a large box is provided within an organisation. All that the feedback reporter needs to do is to feed the box with the quantum of information he or she wishes to divulge. There is no regulated format of presentation.

(C) Anonymous Reports

An anonymous report is one in which the writer seeks to hide his or her identity. As in all other non-technical reports, anonymous report is a personalised account of the information a writer wishes to pass on to his or her reader.

15.2.2 TECHNICAL REPORTS

Technical reports are essentially different from non-technical reports in terms of format. The former are regulated, while the latter are not. Technical reports come in various forms. Virtually any branch of human knowledge can generate a technical report peculiar to its discipline e. g. law report, investigative panel report, administrative panel report, sales report, parliamentary report, committee report, etc. In short, a technical report is characterised by the following features: a laid-down format, formal language, accuracy of account and an elaborate style. Some technical reports are discussed below.

Administrative Panel Report

An administrative panel report is usually initiated by a constituted authority. Whensuch a panel is set up, it is usually given certain terms of reference to guide its operation. When the panel finishes its assignment, it must submit a report. That reportis guided by specific principles as far as its format is concerned.

Information about the setting up of the panel, its member, terms of reference and its *modus operandi,* is contained in the introductory part of the report. The body of the report presents the core of the investigation. Thereafter, a conclusion is arrived at.It is not unusual to make recommendations.

(A) Sales Reports

A sales report is a specialised technical report with the ultimate aim of presenting a picture of a business organisation in terms of the sales of its products. As in all technical reports, a sales report is guided by specifications in terms of format: introduction, body and conclusion (including recommendations where necessary)

(B) Research Reports

A research report is an academic document *per excellence.* This implies that oneneeds several years of schooling in order to be able to handle it successfully. Virtually every higher institution and research centre adopts a format that is suitable for its purpose. Nevertheless, it should be noted that there are general features that are common to all of them.

ILLUSTRATION 15.1

To illustrate a Non-Technical Report, we present a newspaper correspondent's report *(Note the structure and language):*

Obasanjo commissions N24b Ibom power plant

From Taiwo Hassan. Uyo

The nation inched forward towards achieving 10,000 Mega Watts(MW) power generation capacity target by the end of this year, as President Olusegun Obasanjo yesterday in Uyo, Akwa Ibom State capital, commissioned the State's Independent Power Project (IPP), expected to add 191 MW to the national grid.

The plant, which is the first phase of the Ibom Power Project, cost $19.1million (N24.4 billion) and is expected to be connected to the national grid in July, when it will fully come on stream.

Construction on the second phase is billed to take off in 24months time with an installed capacity for 586 MW at an estimated cost of $400 million.

Speaking at the commissioning yesterday in Uyo, President Obasanjo said the coming of the Ibom Power Plant is a dream come true as it would further increase the nation’s power generation capacity.

Besides, the president noted that the power plant would open a window of opportunities for the manufacturing industries to harness their business and boost power supply to the households.

He said: "I have come here to celebrate with you, the governor and people of Akwa Ibom State because this project is worthy of being celebrated. As we can see, we have a dream when looking at the financial involvement risks in this project, so we have cause to dream economically because of the delivery of such a significant power plant. We uphold the dream and the dream has come to reality.

"I must say here that out of the 36 states in the country, your State is one of the very few States that have put more efforts and commitments towards the development of the power sector.

Also, I am particularly delighted that this Ibom Power Plant, when it fully comes on stream, would also add to the national grid in attaining the10,000 MW I have promised that will come at the end of this year."

In his welcome address at the occasion, the State Governor, Obong Victor Attah said that it became clear to his administration, right from its inception, that anun reliable, erratic supply of electricity would impede the desire to stimulate economic growth and build a knowledge-based economy.

According to Attah, the electricity power situation in the State was so poor that it could not open opportunities for both the private and public sector to utilise their economic potentials that would have driven the State's investments forward.

He confirmed that the Ibom Power Project phase one cost over $191million, out of which the state government contributed about $140million, while about $80million was coughed out by the Federal Government, as part of its commitments to ensure that the power plant sees the light of the day.

The Governor said that the cost of the plant is very competitive and below estimates for similar plants elsewhere. "A financial model has been developed to determine the optimal refinancing plan for this project and to evaluate the anticipated returns on capital invested."

(Culled from *The Guardian,* May18, 2007).

15.2.3 TYPES OF BUSINESS REPORT

Business reports are invaluable, no matter the type or size of a business or enterprise. The information they provide can help the management see what is working in the organization and what is not, so that management can make adjustments and improvements. There is a large amount of information which needs to be conveyed in every business and a business report provides just that. Business reports are the formal way to present a piece of information which needs to be communicated in a business. The information may be facts, figures or a detailed analysis of any situation. Businesses make important decisions and plan for the future of the organization, based on these reports and hence the importance of such reports is self-evident. Major decisions like investments and expansions are based entirely on business reports. Thus, business reports form a very important part of every business. There are different types of business reports, based on their need and the situation.

Business reports are actual documents that inform by summarising and analysing particular situations, issues, and facts and then making recommendations to the groups or persons asking for the reports. The goal of these reports is usually one of the following, among others:

- To examine potential and available solutions to an issue, situation, or problem;
- To apply business and management theories to produce different suggestions for improvement;
- To make conclusions about an issue or problem;
- To produce a range of suggestions for future action;
- To show evaluation, reasoning and analytical skills in recognising and considering possible

solutions and outcomes.

There are many types of business reports, depending on the business needs and situations. Some of the most common types of business reports are as follows:

a. **Information report:** This type of report is given when objective information is required. It presents non-biased facts without explaining the reasons and the possible outcomes of a situation. It is the ideal business report for learning things such as the number of employees, the role each of them plays in the organisation or the departments the employees work in.

b. **Analytical report:** This type of business report is usually required when an organization is trying to make an important decision. It analyses the organisation's situation, presenting relevant information, explanations and conclusions. It helps the organisation to make decisions that will move it forward.

c. **Research report:** This is the most comprehensive type of business report required when an organization considers trying something new, such as establishing a new branch, or going into the production of a new product. A team of specialists or researchers is given the task and asked to find all the relevant statistics by making a feasibility study, followed by a detailed analysis of the data collected and arriving at a conclusion.

d. **Explanatory report:** This type of report is required when an organization wants to explain a topic or situation so that everyone can understand it. It is written to explain the research conducted. Along with the table(s) showing the results, the report should include the reason for the research, sample sizes, methodology, etc. After explaining the results, the findings are briefly summarised.

e. **Progress report:** This report shows how things are going at the moment. A progress report is not based on analysis or tons of research. Instead, it is an update for the person who needs it. An example of this could be a weekly report stating the progress made throughout the week on a particular situation in order to know the tasks to work on in the upcoming week.

f. **Fact-Finding Report:** There are numerous situations in an organisation where a finding of afact is required. For example, it can be the breakdown of machinery in the factory premises or rivalry between associates and the manager. The situations require in-depth reasoning for the situation that has arisen. In those cases, the fact-finding report comes in handy and presents facts from a third person's viewpoint. These reports are presented to the top management, which would take appropriate action on the situation at hand.

g. **Performance report:** The management likes to know the performances of each department on a regular basis. Not only that, but it also wants to be informed about the newly opened branch, newly appointed employee or even the performance of existing employees who are due for promotion. All these cases are analyzed by the management for which the performance report is generated. This report is important for the management to arrive at a decision and hence it is prepared by the superior officers of the respective groups.

h. **Standing Committee Report:** A committee which is appointed for a specific reason is called standing. The reason for appointing this committee may be for financial assessment, employee assessment, or departmental assessment. The standing committee is expected to submit adetailed report on whatever assignment is given to it. The report submitted by the committee is known as a standing committee report. In many organisations, the reports of standing committees are submitted at frequent intervals.

i. **Ad-hoc Committee Report:** An Ad-hoc report is also known as a special committee report. As the name suggests, a special committee is appointed to deal with a specific assignment, such as the investigation of the cause of a fire outbreak in the factory, a conflict between two employees, a case of missing laptops in the ICT department, etc. The committee is dissolved as soon as its report is submitted.

j. **Annual Report:** A yearly report, which consists of the yearly processes of the businessgenerated only once a year and is submitted to the corporate heads for studying the business year in detail. Majority of crucial decisions like investments, product portfolio changes, marketing strategies, marketing campaigns etc. are planned on the basis of the Annual report. Pre-decided plans may be modified or changed, based on annual reports.

15.3 FORMAT OF A TECHNICAL REPORT

Style relates to language choice and use. There is no restriction as to the choice of language in which a report should be written; virtually any written language could serve the purpose. However, social and financial considerations sometimes favour widely- used languages. Language use, on the other hand, is more restrictive. The report writer must usestandard language. It should be formal, but not unnecessarily complex. In fact, simple, comprehensible language is highly recommended.

In report writing, there is a standard format, which is universally accepted. The report comes in book form with sections appearing in the following serial order: Title Page, Acknowledgement, Table of Contents, Abstract, Introduction (including Background Information; Literature Review; Theoretical Framework), Methodology, Results or Findings, Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations, References and Appendices.

15.3.1 Title Page

Apart from the title of the report, the title page contains information such as the name of the author (sometimes indicating titles held and institutional address), the sponsor, programme or context within which the report is done and the date (especially the month and year).

15.3.2 Acknowledgements

This is the section that gives the writer an opportunity to thank individuals or bodies that rendered service or assistance during the collection of information and the subsequent production of the report.

15.3.3 Table of Contents

All sections and sub-sections of the report are indicated here including their titles and the pages where they are located. Tables and Figures are entered separately on the list.

15.3.4 Abstract

The abstract page contains a summary of the entire report, highlighting what it set out to do, how it did it, what the major findings or results were and what it could, therefore, conclude and recommend.

ILLUSTRATION15.2

Here is an abstract of a report:

ABSTRACT

This report commissioned by the Federal Government (FG), gives, in its preliminary pages, background information on the circumstances that led to the constitution of an investigative panel into allegations of fraud in theFederal Ministry of Finance. As part of its introductory chapter, the report gives an overview of the Ministry, pointing out the specific departments that were targeted. The interview method was the main instrument of data collection, as explained in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 gives details of the findings of the panel, which include over-centralisation of power, high levels of job dissatisfaction, especially among members of the lower cadre staff, and lack of adequate monitoring. The report, therefore, concludes, in Chapter 4, that there are enough grounds on which to uphold five out of the seven allegations of fraud and, therefore, recommends that the Ministry is due for a complete overhaul of its activities in order to forestalla recurrence of the incidence.

15.3.5 Introduction

The introduction is the section that opens the gate to what the research has to offer. It may include such sub-sections as Background Information, Literature Review, Theoretical Framework, Statement of the Problem, Aims and Objectives, Delimitation of the Study and

Significance of the Study, depending on the nature of the report.

15.3.6 Methodology:

This is the section of the report that describes how the investigation was carried out: the types of instrument used (e.g. questionnaire or interview) sample selection and the method of analysis adopted.

15.3.7 Results or Findings

Results or findings are presented sequentially, sometimes with the aid of tables, graphs, pie charts, bar charts and diagrams.

15.3.8 Discussion

This sub-section may sometimes be merged with 15.3.7 above. The important thing is that results or findings should not just be simply presented- they should be rigorously discussed and analysed.

15.3.9 Conclusion and Recommendations

This section closes the report after giving a summary of what was presented, highlighting the major findings and the conclusions that could be deduced from them. Recommendations as to what still needs to be done by future studies or the possible solutions to matters yet unresolved are stated in this section. In some reports, the conclusion section may be separated from the recommendations section.

15.3.10 References

References are all the written materials alluded to in the body of the report. Details of author's name (surname first), title of the material, place of publication, publishers as well as date of publication (and in case of journal articles, volume and page numbers) are supplied in this section. References are arranged alphabetically, based on authors' surnames. References list may use any of the well-known referencing formats such as American Psychological Association (APA), Turabian Citation, Modern Languages Association (MLA), Internet Citation formats, etc. For example:

The American Psychological Association referencing format has the following features:

i. Book

Author(s); Date; Title of book; Place of publication; Publisher; page(s)

ii Journal or magazine article

Authors (s); Date; Title of journal/magazine; Publisher; Title of article; Volume; page(s)

.

iii. Reference from Website

Author(s); Date; Title; Date of retrieval;
e.g. http:/www.bradley.edu/campusorg/…

It should be noted that whereas a list references includes all materials in thebody of the write-up, the induction of materials not referred to in the text transforms the list into a bibliography. In current practice, a list of references is preferred to a bibliography.

15.3.11
Appendices.

Appendices constitute supplementary information which the writer puts at the disposal of the reader of the report. These may include details of interview questions or questionnaire items used in thestudy or maps and other illustrative materials.

15.3.12 Terms related to report writing

A report is a document that presents information in an organised format for a specificaudience and purpose. Although a report may be delivered orally, generally a report is almost always in a written form. The ultimate aim or goal of a report is to advocate for a course of action. As in correspondence, there are some terms associated withreport writing. Some of these terms are title page, table of contents, executive summary/abstract, introduction, literature review, methodology, findings, conclusion, recommendations, reference list, and appendices.

a. **Title page:** A title page of a report is the first page of the report. It contains the title of the report, the author or authors, and the date.
b. **Table of contents:** Depending on the length of the report, it may or may not have a table of contents. For example, a two-to-three page report need not have a table of contents; but a report running to, for instance ten or more pages, needs to have a table of contents.
c. **Executive summary:** An executive summary or abstract is a brief overview of a report that is designed to give the reader a quick preview of the report's contents. Its purpose is to present the key points of a report in one place. After reading the summary, the reader will understand the main points of the report without needing to read the full report. An executive summary or abstract explains why the report is written, emphasizes conclusions or recommendations and includes only the essential or most significant information to support the conclusions.

   It is usually organised according to the sequence of information presented in the full report, so the order of the full report should be followed. Its length is proportional to that of the full report, but typically, ten to fifteen percent ofthe length of the report or in one or two paragraphs. In writing the executive summary or abstract, the entire report should be reviewed.

d. **Introduction:** The introduction to the report should briefly describe the context and background to the research or investigation, state the problem or issue to be reported on, define the specific objectives and purpose of the report, outline the report's scope, and comment on the limitations of the reportand present any assumptions that are made.

e. **Membership:** This has to do with the number of people appointed to serveon the committee for the report. The number of people varies according to thereport to be rendered. Usually, the Chairman and Secretary are appointed by the group or the person to whom the report would be submitted.

f. **Terms of Reference:** These are the instructions given to a group of people who are asked to consider or investigate a particular subject, outlining what itmust deal with. They define the purpose and structures of a project, meeting, or any collection of people who are appointed and have agreed to work together to accomplish a shared goal.

g. **Methodology:** The method section of a report details how the research/investigation is conducted. Methodology is a step-by-step explanation of the research/investigation process. It should include they participant and the research/investigation methods used, e.g. survey, questionnaire, interview, etc. It should be factual.

h. **Literature review:** A literature review consists of the overview, a summary,and an evaluation of the current state of knowledge about a specific area of research/investigation. It is a comprehensive summary of previous research/investigation on a topic. It surveys scholarly articles, books,journals, and other sources relevant to a particular area of study. It enumerates, describes, summarises, objectively evaluates and clarifies previous studies on the topic. It creates what can be called a 'landscape' for the reader of the report, giving him/her a full understanding of the development in the field. It has four main objectives: it surveys the literature in the areas of study, it synthesises the literature into a summary, it criticallyf analyses the information gathered by identifying gaps in current knowledgeby showing limitations of theories and point of view, and by formulating areas for further study and reviewing the areas of controversy, and it presents the literature in an organized way.

i. **Findings:** Findings is the section where the empirical evidence derived from the study/investigation is reported. It is the principal outcome of a study/investigation: what the study suggests, reveals or indicates.

j. **Conclusion:** The conclusion of a report identifies the major issues relating to the study/investigation and gives interpretation of them, relates specifically to the objectives of the report as set out in the introduction and follows logically from the facts in the findings. The conclusion must be brief.

k. **Recommendations: R**ecommendations point to the future and should be action-oriented, feasible, logically related to the findings and conclusion, brief, and arranged in order of importance.

l. **References:** The references page lists the source of information cited or referred to in a report. It gives the reader details about the sources cited in the body of the report so that they may look for them themselves, if necessary. References are listed at the end of the report. There are various ways of referencing, for example:

- the name-and-year system:
- the alphabet-number system:
- the citation-order system:

The three common referencing styles are:

- American Psychological Association (APA) style, which is used in Education, Psychology and the Sciences.:
- Modern Language Association (MLA) style, which is used in the Humanities
- Chicago/Turabian style which is generally used in Business, History and the Fine Arts.

These will be treated under Bibliography.

m. **Bibliography:** A bibliography is a list of books, articles, speeches, private records, diaries, interviews, laws, letters, websites, and other sources used when researching a topic and writing a paper or report. The bibliography appears at the end of the report. The main purpose of a bibliography entry is to give credit to authors whose works may have been consulted when writing a report. It also makes it easy for areader to find out more about the topic by referring to the materials made use of while the report was being written. Bibliography entries must bewritten in a very specific format, but that format depends on the particular style of writing the writer wishes to follow. A bibliography listis necessary to avoid accusations of plagiarism. The bibliographycontains all works considered relevant to the topic under discussion, whether cited or not.

There are several different styles of bibliographies that a writer encounters: MLA, APA, Chicago, Harvard, and more. As described under references above, each of those styles is often associated with a particular segment ofacademia and research. Of these, the most widely used are APA and MLA styles. They both include similar information, but arranged and formatted differently.

In an entry for a book in an APA-style works-cited list, for example, the date (in parentheses) immediately follows the name of the author (whosesurname is written, followed by the initial(s) of other name(s)), then the title of the book, article or journal, and the publisher's full name is generally provided. For example:

Eyre, E. C. (1977) *Effective Communication Made Simple.* London, H. W.c Allens and Company Ltd.

By contrast, in an MLA-style entry, the author's name appears in full, the title is capitalized, some words in the publisher's name may be abbreviated, the publication date follows the publisher's name, and the medium of publication is recorded. In both styles, the first line of the entry is flush with the left margin, and the second and subsequent lines are indented. For example:

Miller, Katherine. *COMMUNICATION THEORIES, PERSPECTIVES, PROCESSES, AND CONTEXTS* (2nd Ed.). McGraw Hill (2005).

n. **Citations:** In any report or research paper, if the writer draws on the work of other writers, he must document their contributions by citing the sources. Citations, therefore, are the means by which the writer credits other writers when their works are used in the report or research paper. There are different ways of citing the works of others that are used by the writer in his report/research paper. As it has been described under bibliography, citations also make use of APA, MLA, or Chicago (Turabian) style.

American Psychological Association (APA) citation academic paper, proposal or book. The style is often used when a writer quotes a text from another source, paraphrases an author or authors' ideas, or refers to his work, such as a study, original thinking, or even an elegant turn of phrase. When this is cited, the writer cannot simply repeat most of the words from the work towhich he is referring. The writer may have to put the ideas into his own words, or quote the text directly.

There are two parts to citations for APA and other styles: the short-form inline, which directs readers to a full entry at the end of a chapter or book and footnote. An in-line citation, also called the in-text citation, is placed within a line of text. In an in-line citation, the name of the author and the date (in parentheses) of the article, report, book, or study, as in this example:

Kenneth (2002) argued that for a student-centred approach to work, students must maintain "ownership for their goals and activities" (p. 94).

The page number at the end of the in-text citation should be in parenthesesg followed by a period, if it is at the end of a sentence. If there are two authors, list the last name of each, as in this example:

“According to Daramola and Kodjo (2021) ...”

If there are more than two authors, list the last name of the first author followed by the words "et al.," as in this example:

Hezekiah et al. (2012) observed 102 patients over a two-month period (p. 99).

MLA citation style follows the author-page style for in-text citations. In MLA style, page numbers do not usually appear unless the sentence or passage is a direct quote from the original, as is this example:

Romantic poetry is characterized by the "spontaneous overflow of powerfulfeelings." (Wordsworth 263).

It is important to stress that when the writer cites the source of information in the report, he should give a number in parentheses that corresponds to the number of the source in the alphabetical listing in the "References." page(s).

Electronic source citations are similar to citations of published works, except for two issues: the writer needs to include the URL of the source, and a large percentage of online sources do not list authors. After citing the source, thewriter may say “retrieved” and give the date the site was accessed.

o. **Appendix:** The word “appendix” comes from the Latin ***"appendere,"*** meaning "hang upon." An appendix is a collection of supplementary materials, usually appearing at the end of a report, cludes data and supporting documents the writer has used to develop the report. It is information that is too long or detailed to be incorporated into the main body of the report. Appendix information may include tables, figures, charts, letters, memos, maps, drawings, diagrams, photos, surveys, questionnaires, and so on.

The plural form of *appendix* is *appendices*. Where there is more than one appendix, the appendices should be labeled “Appendix A,” “Appendix B,”and so on, so that they can be easily cited in the body of the report. Each appendix should be started on a separate or new page. For the ease of reading of the report, the writer should arrange the appendices in the order they are referred to in the report.

Whether a writer includes an appendix in his report depends on its relevance to the report. Not every report, however, requires an appendix.

15.4 GATHERING INFORMATION FOR A REPORT AND ORGANISING REPORT MATERIALS

The gathering of information for a report is distinct from organising the materials in order to produce the report.

15.4.1 Gathering information for a report

Whether one is a student or a practising professional, report writing is an important skill to master. While the types of reports written vary by field or trade, information gathering is a key first step in the report writing process. The Internet offers users access to a variety of information resources, as do most traditional libraries. With a system for collecting theinformation, the stage is set for tackling the writing stage. The following steps help ingathering information for a report.

a. **Select a topic:** Select a topic that it is not too broad and not too narrow. Test the topic by doing an initial search. If a few references with little information is found, the topic may then be broadened. On the other hand, if an overwhelming amount of information is discovered, the focus should be narrowed down.

b. **Identify potential sources of relevant information:** Identify potential sources of relevant information to narrow the scope of the search.
c. **Write a list:** A list of keywords to use in the report should be written. The keywords help in finding the most relevant sources of information.
d. **Brainstorm questions:** Brainstorm questions are necessary to give the writer the direction for the report. Apart from enabling the writer to write a general outline for the report, they also help in choosing sources that answer the brainstorm questions and fill in the sections of the outline.
e. **Search for sources of information:** Search for sources of information on a free search engine such as Google. The list of keywords should be used to tailor the search.
f. **Search the online catalogue:** Search the online catalogue of the library. The targeted search terms should be used to find books, journals and other reference materials that best match the topic of the report.
g. **Visit the library:** After searching and finding the books, journals and other reference materials online, the library should be visited to pick up the relevant materials. Ensure that they offer the information needed. Use bibliographies or reference works

(A) Information Gathering Tools

Information gathering/collection is a systematic method of collecting and measuring information gathered from different sources in order to provide answers to relevant questions. An accurate evaluation of collected information can help the writer predict future phenomena and trends. Information gathering/ collection can be obtained from either primary and/or secondary sources. Information collected from the primary source is that collected for the first time, while information from secondary source is information that has been previously collected by someone else and subsequently accessed by the current searcher.

There are many different methods of information gathering that have been used to good advantage. Here are a few of them:

a. **Questionnaires, surveys and checklists:** These are used when a lot of information is needed to be collected from people in a non-threatening way. Questionnaires can be web-based or paper-based. The results of these methods of information collection are easy to analyse.

b. **Interviews:** An interview is a qualitative method of information collection whose results are based on intensive engagement with respondents about a particular study.

Usually, interviews are used in order to collect in-depth responses from the professionals being interviewed. Interviews can be structured (formal), semi- structured or unstructured (informal). In essence, an interview method of informationcollection can be conducted through face-to-face meeting with the interviewee(s) or through telephone, or through focus group. This method is used when the writer wantsto fully understand the interviewee's opinions or point of view or to get additional information to that obtained through the questionnaire.

c. **Literature sources:** This involves the collection of information from already published texts available in the public domain. Literature sources can include: textbooks, government or private companies' reports, newspapers, magazines, online published papers and articles. This method of information collection is referred to as secondary information collection. Unlike collection of information from primary sources, this method is inexpensive and not time-consuming.

d. **Observations:** The observation method of information gathering is used by monitoring participants in a specific situation or environment at a given time and day.Basically, the writer of the report observes the behaviour of the surrounding environments or people that are being studied or investigated. This type of study can be designed to be controlled, natural or participant.

Controlled observation is when the writer uses a standardised procedure of observing participants or the environment. Natural observation is when participants are being observed in their natural conditions. Participant observation is where the writer becomes part of the group being studied or investigated.

e. **Documents and records:** This is the process of examining existing documents and records of an organisation for tracking changes over a period of time. Records can be tracked by examining call logs, email logs, databases, minutes of meetings, staff reports, information logs, etc.

Each approach has its own inherent benefits and disadvantages. Information gathering can be from a variety of sources. It is important to stress that it cannot be said that a particular method of information collection is best. How information is collecteddepends on the type of report or the phenomena being studied or investigated. Information collection is a crucial aspect in any level of report writing. If information isinaccurately collected, it will surely impact the findings of the report, thereby leading tofalse or invaluable report.

15.4.2 Organising report materials

In the process of writing a report, organising the materials already collected is very important. It brings coherence and meaning to the report. The information collected is meaningless, unless it is structured. The information gathered can be organized in four steps:

a. **Grouping ideas:** grouping ideas involves making logical links between related ideas.

b. **Eliminating unnecessary ideas:** eliminating unnecessary or unrelated ideas narrows the focus of your message by removing ideas that do not fit the purpose of the report.

c. **Selecting an organising pattern:** selecting an organising pattern involves putting a structure to your ideas by applying a pattern such as a logical or chronological pattern. Logical patterns describe a situation in terms of its logical context. Chronological patterns describe a sequence of events.

d. **Sequencing ideas:** sequencing ideas involves grouping the materials into related or similar areas which bring logic and organisation to the ideas. eliminating unnecessary or unrelated ideas that do not fit the purpose of the report as this helps to avoid unnecessary digressions in the document to be produced; and promote selecting an organizing pattern. The most common patterns are causal, logical, and perspective-based. A causal pattern is used when the writer wants to talk about a cause and its effects, while a logical pattern describes a situation in terms of its logical context and a perspective-based pattern is used when examining an issue/event from two or more perspectives.

e. **Writing an outline:** this is a rough framework that allows the writer to apply logic and sequence to the ideas before writing can begin. The temptation to skip this outline stage should be resisted. Getting the outline of the report makes the writing of the report easier because it gives an overview of the contents of the report. An outlinewill enable the writer to have a sense of which sections to emphasize and which topics to discuss in detail, as well as which supporting evidence to include.

15.5 THE ROLE OF VISUAL AIDS IN REPORT WRITING

Visual aids are items of a visual manner, such as graphs, photographs, video clips. charts, and tables used in addition to spoken/written words. Visual aids are chosen depending on their purpose, for example, they may be used to:

- Summarise information;
- Reduce the amount of spoken words;
- Clarify and show examples;
- Create more impact;
- Emphasise what is being said;
- Make a point memorable;
- Engage the reader and maintain his/her interest and
- Make something easier for the reader to understand.

Visual aids serve a unique role in a presentation, and the specific purpose and desired outcome must be considered before determining when, to what extent, and in what format the visual aids are to be used. They can spark interest, build emotional connections, clarify your words, explain abstract ideas, help draw conclusions, or increase understanding. They can have a profound impact on the reader and the overall message. They can also be an important part of conveying a message effectively since people learn far more through simultaneously seeing and hearing than through hearing or seeing alone. Each visual aid should, however, be relevantto the message, convey an important point, be clearly understandable, and be visible to the reader. Visuals should be used to make concepts easier to understand and to reinforce the message. They should illustrate important points that are otherwise hard to understand.

Visual aids can be a very powerful tool to enhance the impact of a report. Words and images presented in different formats can appeal directly to the reader's imagination, adding power to the spoken word. It is pertinent to note that in selecting which visual aids to use in report writing, attention must be given to their appropriateness. There are two major types of visual aids: statistical and illustrative.

A statistical visual aid helps the reader to visualise relationships between numbers. Examples of this are graphs, charts and tables. An illustrative visual aid describes an idea or a concept. Here, pictures and symbols are used.

When a report is illustrated with visual aids, they help the reader to understand difficult information more easily because they give the reader additional context, different ways to digest complex information, and a more accessible route to comparing data. They provide additional details about the information in the main body of the report. In addition, theypresent the information in a visual form, thus allowing the reader to have two different methods of understanding the information.

Visual elements capture readers' attention and help them to understand the ideas more fully. They are like the illustrations that help tell the story. These visuals help to augment the written ideas and simplify complicated textual descriptions. They help the reader understand a complicated process or visualize trends in the data. Visuals *clarify, illustrate,* and *augment* the written text; but are not a replacement for it. The old adage, "a picture is worth a thousand words" may not always hold true in technical writing, but adding visuals may save the writer a hundred words or so of additional explanation and clarification.

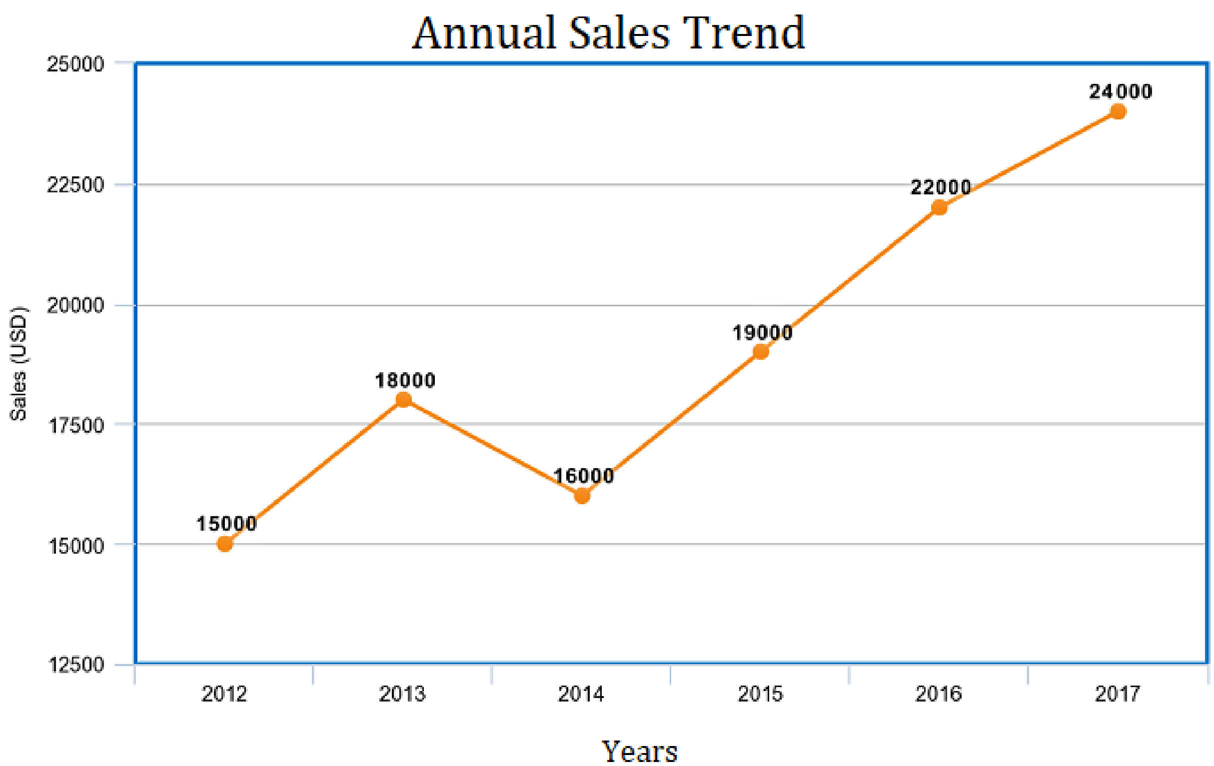
Reports can be enhanced with the aid of graphs, charts, **tables**, **figures**, and **examples**. These are situated in the text as long as they correspond logically to the matter in question, and are discussed accordingly.

15.5.1 Graphs

Graphs can make it easier for people to interpret information. There are many types of graphs that organise data in different ways, and they are commonly used in report writing. It is important to know the different types of graphs to choose from that best suit the information to be conveyed. They focus on raw data and show trends over time. There are different types of graphs and the most common are line, bar, histogram, pictograph, and scatter plot.

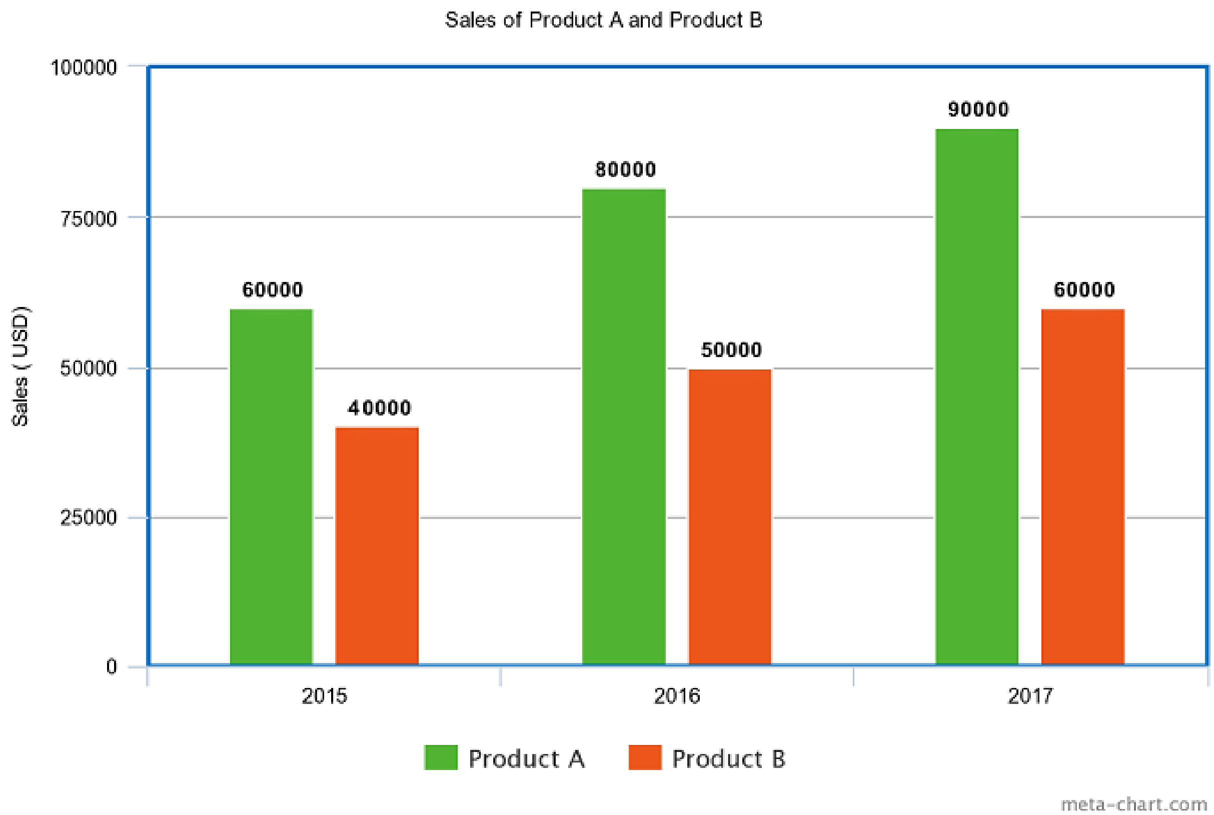
1. Line Graph

A line graph displays data that changes continuously over time. Each line graph consists of points that connect data to show a trend. A line graph has an x-axis and a y-axis. In most cases, time is distributed on the horizontal axis. A line graph is used **to show trends** in, for example, how house prices have increased over time; **to make predictions** based on a data history over time; to **compare** two or more different variables, situations, and information over a given period.



2. Bar graph

A bar graph represents data with rectangular bars. It is among the most popular types of graphs commonly used to compare several categories of data. Each rectangular bar has length and height proportional to the value that it represents. One axis of the bar graph presents the categories being compared while the other axis shows a measured value. A bar graph is used to display data that are grouped into **nominal or ordinal categories, to compare data** among different categories, to show **large data changes** over time, and for visualizing the distribution of data when there are more than three categories.

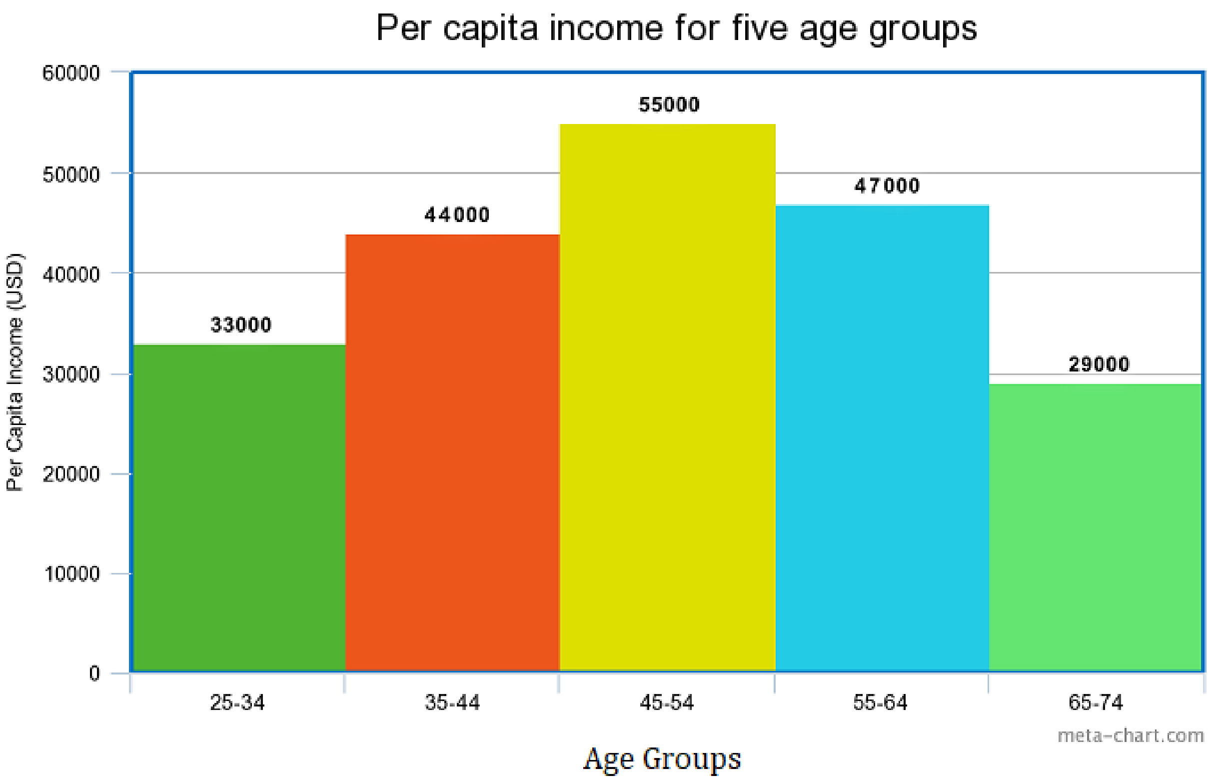


3. Histogram

A histogram is another type of bar graph that illustrates the distribution of numeric data across categories. For example, a histogram might display how many people belong to a certain age range within a population. The height or length of each bar in the histogram shows how many people are in each category.

A histogram shows continuous data in ordered rectangular columns. Usually, there are **no gaps** between the columns. It displays a frequency distribution/shape of a data set. At first glance, a histogram looks like a bar graph. However, there is a key difference between them. A bar graph represents categorical data, whereas a histogram represents continuous data.

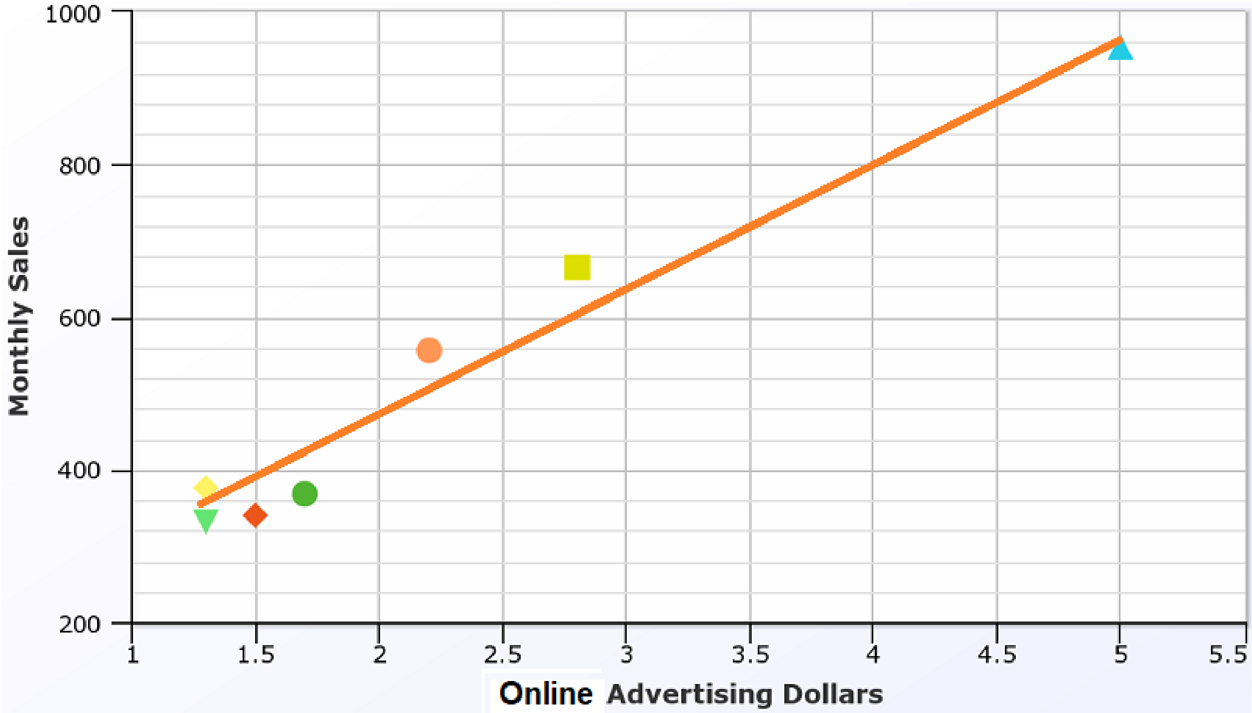
A histogram is used for **data that is continuous,** to represent the shape of the **data's distribution**, to see whether the outputs of two or more processes are different, and tosummarise **large data sets** graphically.



4. Scatter plot

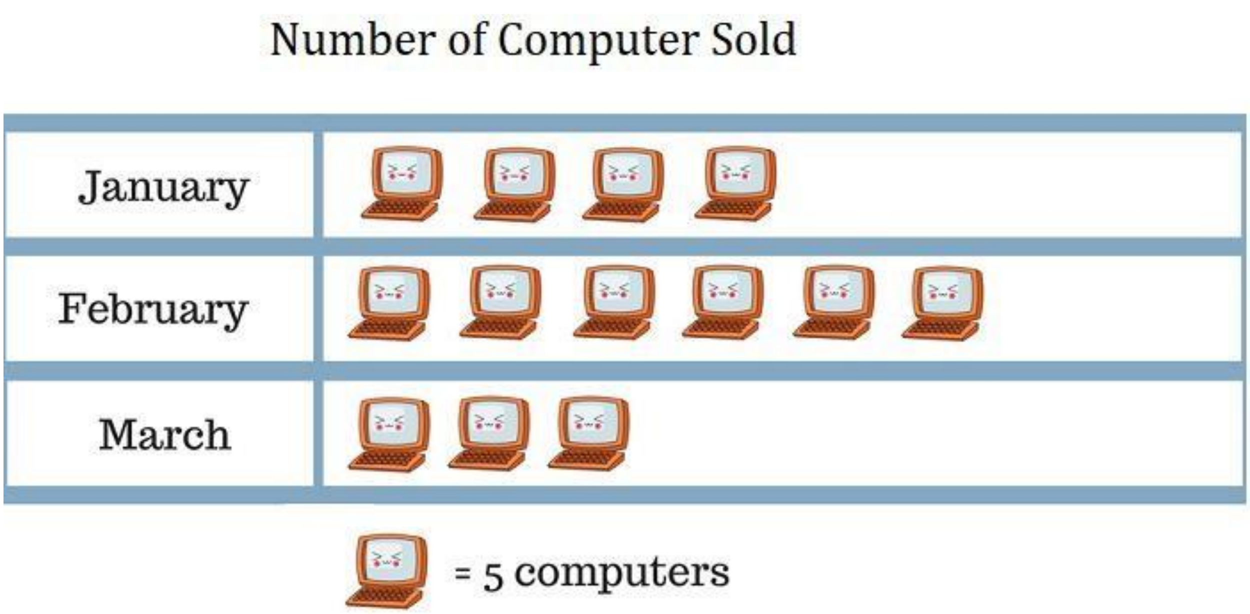
A scatter plot uses dots to depict the relationship between two different variables. Someone might use a scatter plot graph to show the relationship between a person's height and weight, for example. The process involves plotting one variable along the horizontal axis and the other variable along the vertical axis. The resulting scatter plot demonstrates how much one variable affects the other. If there is no correlation, the dots appear in random places on the graph. If there is a strong correlation, the dots are close together and form a line through the graph.

The scatter plot is an X-Y diagram that shows a relationship between two variables. The purpose is to show how much one variable affects another. Usually, when there is a relationship between two variables, the first one is called independent while the secondvariable is called dependent because its values depend on those of the first variable. A scatter plot also helps to predict the behaviour of one variable (dependent) based on the measure of the other variable (independent). A scatter plot is used to find out whether there isa **relationship between two variables**, **to predict** the behaviour of a dependent variable, based on the measure of the independent variable, to identify the potential for problems, and tovisualise the correlation between two large datasets **without regard to time**.



5. Pictograph

The pictograph or a pictogram is one of the more visually appealing types of graphs that display numerical information with the use of icons or picture symbols to represent data sets.It is very easy to read since it is a statistical way of data visualization. A pictogram shows the frequency of data as images or symbols. Each image/symbol may represent one or more units of a given dataset. A pictograph is used **to compare two points** in an emotionally powerful way, when the reader **prefers** and understands better displays that include icons and illustrations.

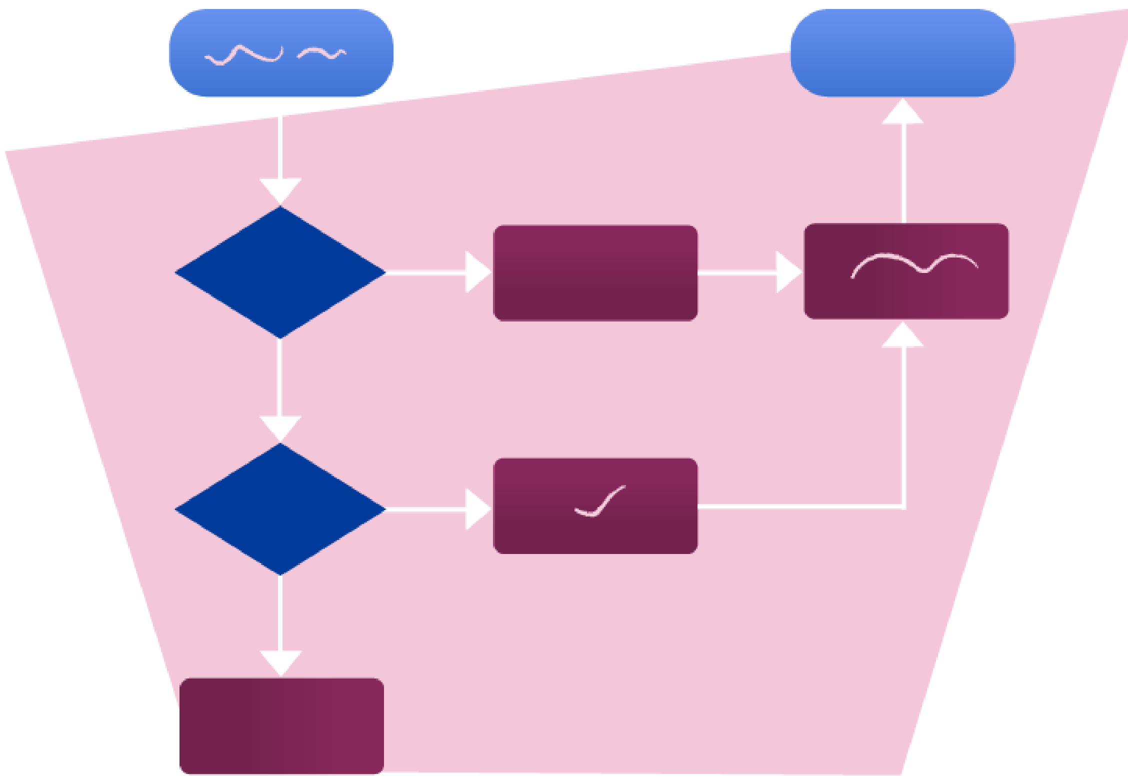


15.5.2 Charts

Charts and graphs are expressions used interchangeably, though they are different visuals. Charts are tables, diagrams or pictures that organize large amounts of data clearly and concisely. Charts are used to interpret current data and make predictions. There are different types of charts and the common ones are flow, pie, venn, gantt, and funnel.

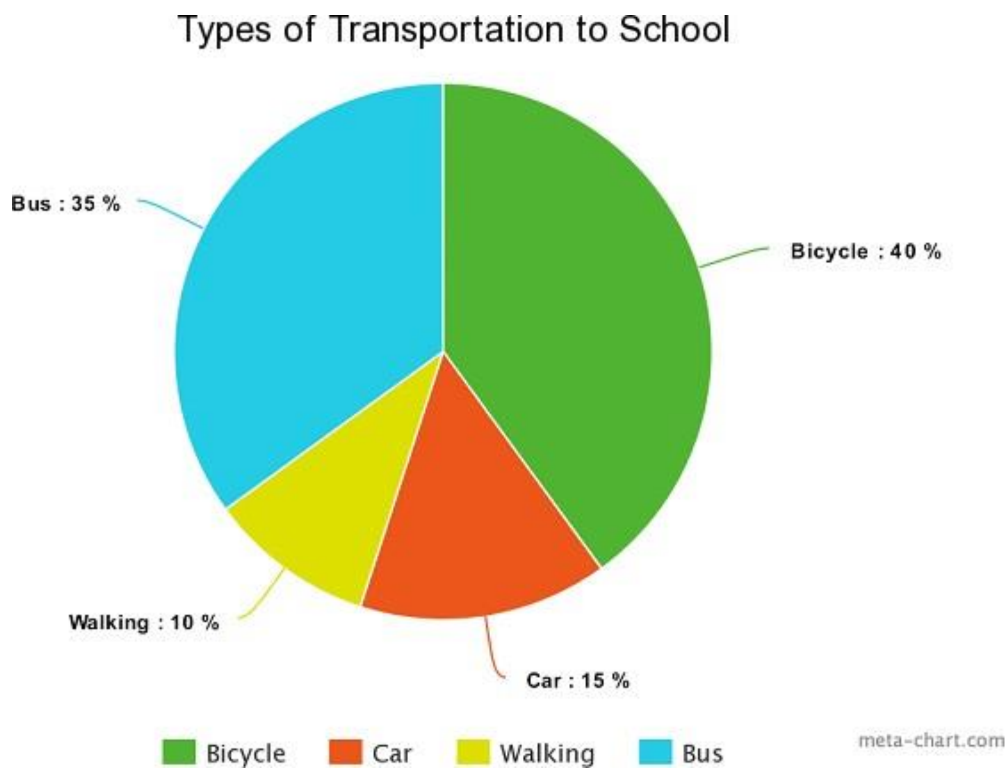
1. Flowchart

A flowchart is used to depict complex situations. It helps to organise the steps, decisions or actions in a process from the beginning to the end. It often includes more than one starting point or endpoint, displaying different paths that can be taken in a process to get from the starting point to the finishing line. It uses special shapes to illustrate different parts of the process, and a legend is given to explain what each shape means.



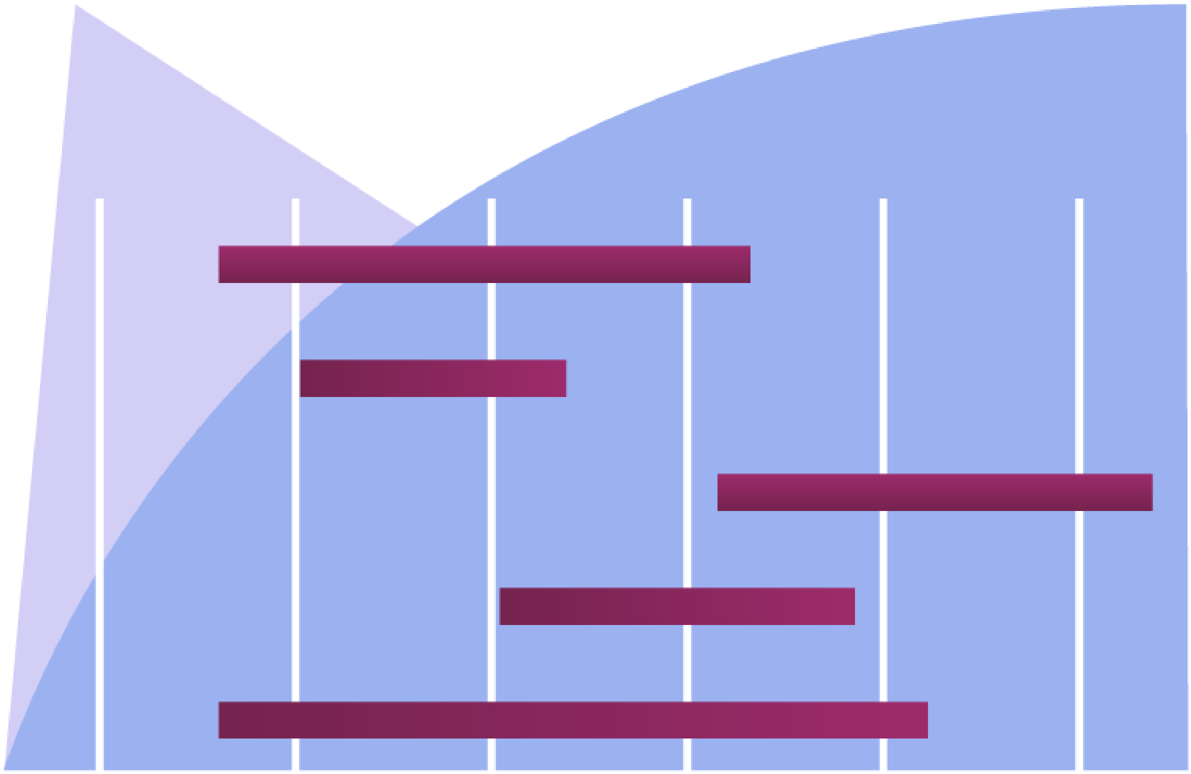
2. Pie chart

A pie chart presents the different parts of a whole. It looks like a circle divided into many pieces, much like a pie cut into slices. The pieces are different sizes, based on how much of the whole they represent. Each piece usually has a label to represent its value compared to the whole.



3. Gantt chart

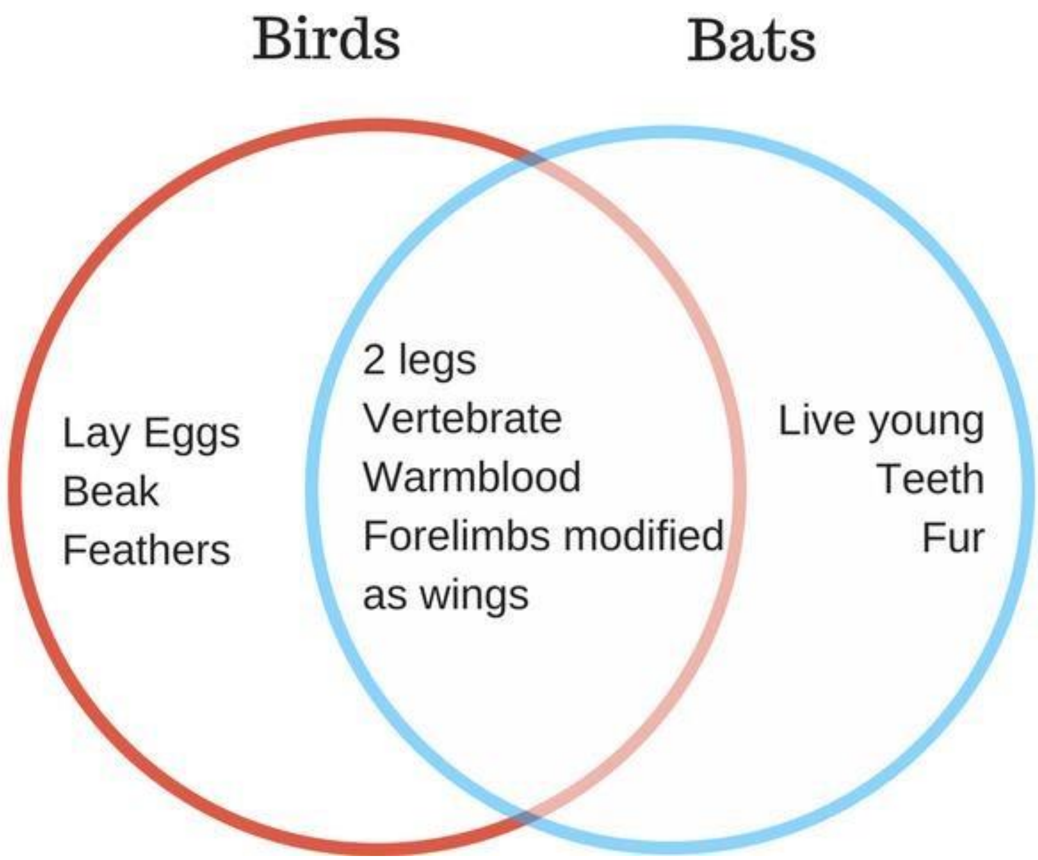
A Gantt chart is used to illustrate project schedules. The horizontal axis represents the timeframe for the project in days, weeks, months or years. The chart displays each project task as a bar on the vertical axis. The length of the bar depends on the start and end date of the task, but sometimes there is also a vertical line for the current date.



4. Venn Chart

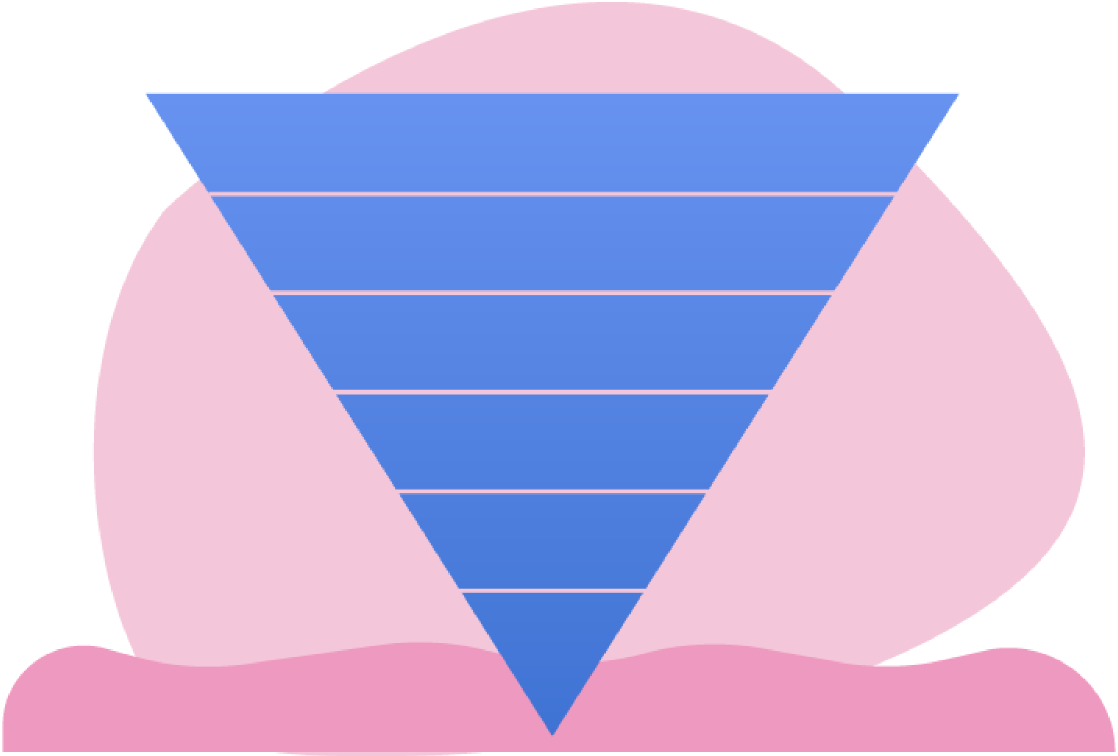
Venn diagram uses overlapping circles to visualize the logical relationships between two or more groups of items. The basic structure of the Venn diagram is usually overlapping circles. The items in the overlapping section have specific common characteristics. Items inthe outer portions of the circles do not have common traits.

Venn Chart is used **to compare and contrast** groups of things, to categorise or group items, to illustrate **logical relationships** from various datasets and to identify all the possible relationships between collections of datasets.



5. Funnel chart

A funnel chart is used to illustrate how values progress through different stages. It is widest at the top and narrowest at the bottom. It is especially helpful when tracking a sales process. It also works well to depict website traffic, including the number of visitors to a site, the pages viewed and downloads made. It is also used to monitor orders in terms of numbers placed, cancelled or delivered.



15.5.3 Tables/Figures

Tables are especially appropriate for communicating numeric information presented in rows and columns. The title of a table is usually written at the top. Where there is more than one table in a report, the table number appears directly in front of the table's title relativeto its placement in the report. For example, Table 1, Table 2, Table 3, etc. It is subsequently referred to by this name. If a table is from a source, that source must be cited and indicated below the table.

A row gives a list of items presented straight across a table. Each row has a row heading placed near the left edge of the table to label the items that are listed horizontally. Row headings vary according to information that is being presented, such as the names of people, places, or things. A column lists items presented vertically. Column headings arelisted on top of the table to label these vertical lists of items.

A table should fit onto a single page, but if it continues to a second page, special mention of this must be made beneath the table as well as at the top of the subsequent page. Columns and rows are labelled precisely, using complete words.

StudentName	Physics	Chemistry	Biology	Total
Janet	80	55	75	210
Kofi	70	65	40	175
Karen	70	52	63	185
Johny	55	53	42	150

Table showing comparative scores of four students in three subjects

15.5.4 Summary

It is important for the writer to choose the right kind of visual to convey the information he wants the reader to understand. If visuals are poorly chosen or poorly designed for the task, they can actually confuse the reader and have negative consequences.

The choice of the type of visual a writer wants to use depends on two major things: the kind of analysis he wants to perform and the type of data he has at his disposal. For example, if he wants to facilitate a comparison, he can use a bar chart, but when he wants to show trends overtime, he may use a line chart. Anyway, the writer has a wide choice of types of visuals. Usedin the right way, they are a powerful weapon to help him make his reports and presentations both professional and clear.

15.6 REPORT PRESENTATION

The final outlook of a report should be given close attention. Margins should bewide enough to give room for possible binding; paragraphing should not be disproportionate; headings should be emboldened or underlined; diagrams, examples and all other illustrations should be numbered, labelled and placed appropriately in the body of the report.

15.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter, report writing is defined as the art of documenting an event or activity

that has taken place through the use of conventional means and methods of writing.Two basic types of reports were identified: technical and non-technical. It has been shown that the former is regulated by a standard format, which is analysed step- by-step. Finally, it is demonstrated that the organisation and layout of a report are crucial elements to its appeal. Report writing, then, must be handled with care.

15.8 END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

15.8.1 MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. Which of the following is **NOT** a type of technical report?

   A. Research report
   B. Scientific report
   C. Committeereport
   D. Spectator's report of a football match
   E. Investigative report of a communal riot

2. ONE of the following is **NOT** a part of a technical report.

   A. Title Page
   B. Table of Contents
   C. Acknowledgement
   D. Invitation
   E. Conclusion

3. The general appeal of a report is **NOT** dependent on **ONE** of the following.

   A. Language choice
   B. Language use
   C. Format
   D. Organization
   E. Launching ceremony

4. Which of the following is **NOT** included in the appendix section of a report?

   A. Conclusion
   B. Maps
   C. Transcripts of interviews
   D. Questionnaire
   E. Graphs

5. The reference section of a report contains the following EXCEPT

   A. Author's names are arranged alphabetically
   B. Titles of cited works are indicated in full
   C. Year of publication for each entry is indicated
   D. Acknowledgement
   E. Names of publishers

15.7.2 SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. The main aim of writing a report is to_____________an event.
2. A report maybe technical or ________________
3. A technical report is__________in nature.
4. Maps and tables that provide additional information in a report are contained in the__________section of the report.
5. The section where the writer of a report thanks those who contributed to the success of the report is known as__________

15.7.3 ESSAY

1. Identify and discuss briefly any FIVE features of a technical report.
2. Discuss briefly THREE types of non-technical report.

15.8 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

15.8.1 SOLUTIONTO MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. D
2. D
3. E
4. A
5. D

15.8.2 SOLUTIONTO SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. record/document
2. non-technical
3. formal
4. appendix
5. acknowledgement

15.8.3 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER ESSAY QUESTIONS

QUESTION 1

In report writing, there is a standard format, which is universally accepted. The report comes in book-form with sections appearing in the following serial order: Title Page, Acknowledgement, Table of Contents, Abstract, Introduction (including Background Information; Literature Review; Theoretical Framework), Methodology, Results or Findings, Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations, References and Appendices.

Title Page

Apart from the title of the report, the title page contains information such as the name of the author(sometimes indicating titles held and institutional address), the sponsor, programme or context within which the report is done and the date (especially the month and year).

Acknowledgement

This is the section that gives the writer an opportunity to thank individuals or bodies that rendered service or assistance during the collection of information and the subsequent write- up of the report.

Table of Contents

All sections and sub-sections of the report are indicated here including their titles and the pages where they are located. Tables and Figures are entered separately on the list.

Abstract

The abstract page contains a summary of the entire report, highlighting what it set out to do, how it did it, what the major findings or results were and what it could, therefore, conclude and recommend.

Introduction

The introduction is the section that opens the gate to what the research has to offer. It may include such sub-sections as: Background Information, Literature Review, Theoretical Framework, Statement of the Problem, Aims and Objectives, Delimitation of the Study and

Significance of the Study, depending on the nature of the report.

Methodology

This is the section of the report that describes how the investigation was carried out: the typesof instrument used (e.g. questionnaire or interview); ·samples election and the method ofanalysis adopted.

Results or Findings

Results or findings are presented sequentially, sometimes with the aid of Tables, Graphs, Pie Charts, Bar Charts and Diagrams.

Discussion

This sub-section may sometimes be merged with "results or findings". The important thing is that results or findings should not just be simply presented - they should be rigorously discussedand analyzed.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This section closes the report after giving a summary of what was presented, highlighting the major findings and the conclusions that could be deduced from them. Recommendations as to what still needs to be done by future studies or the possible solutions to matters yet unresolved are stated in this section. In some reports, the conclusion section may be separated from the recommendations section.

References

References are all the written materials alluded to in the body of the report. Details of author's name (surname first), title of the material, place of publication, publishers as

well as date of publication (and in case of journal articles, volume and page numbers) are supplied in this section. References are arranged alphabetically, based on authors' surnames. Reference list may use any of the well-known referencing formats such as American Psychological Association (APA), Turabian Citation, Modern Language Association (MLA), Internet Citation formats, etc.

It is no longer fashionable to have a Bibliography section (i.e. a list of all materials that may be connected with the subject in question) because there is no evidence that all such materials have been consulted in this case. So, the list of references is considered adequate.

Appendices

Appendices constitute supplementary information which the writer puts at the disposal of the reader of the report. These may include details of interview questions or questionnaire items used in the study or maps and other illustrative materials.

QUESTION 2

There are several types of non-technical reports. These reports are generally short in length, simple, may be given in chronological order and follow no specific format. Three of them are discussed below:

(a) Eye-witness Reports

An eye-witness report is one in which an individual is called upon to relate his or her own account of an event. In the law court and similar establishments where such reports are called for, one is at liberty to use one's personal style.

(b) Feedback Reports

The feedback report is also non-technical. It is a way of supplying information to an authority or any enquirer. A popular type of the feedback report is one in which a large box is provided within an organization. All that the feedback reporter needs to do is to feed the box with the quantum of information he or she wishes to divulge. There is no regulated format of presentation.

(c) Anonymous Reports

An anonymous report is one in which the writer seeks to hide his or her identity. As in all other non-technical reports, an anonymous report is a personalised account of the information a writer wishes to pass on to his or her reader.

CHAPTER SIXTEEN

EMERGING ISSUES IN COMMUNICATION SKILLS

CHAPTER CONTENT

- Understanding how digital communication is used in different facets of modern life
- **Exploring how advertising too has an impact on modern living**
- **The role of the accountant in budgeting and human resource management**
- **Understanding the role and execution of feasibility studies in project management**
- **Identifying the use of tests and assessments in human resource development.**

16.0 Learning objectives

After completing this chapter, candidates should be able to define and explain the following emerging issues in communication skills:

- Digital Communication;
- Advertising and marketing strategies in the accounting profession;
- Writing feasibility studies in the accounting profession;
- Budgeting
- Communication and human resource management; and
- Assessment practice in the accounting profession.

16.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the emerging issues in Communication Skills in the contemporary African business world. Of recent, there has been a great development in the accounting profession in particular and in the business world in general. Modern technology continues to pose challenges globally to the extent that whoever refuses to get along with it, will definitely become side-tracked, no matter how useful the person might be.

The growth of technology has actually influenced various activities in the world. For example, digital communication is gradually taking over verbal and written communication in the business world simply because it is more accessible, productive, effective, and result oriented. It has a great impact on advertising and marketing strategies, especially in the accounting profession. Advertising is better and conveniently made through digital communication. It is less stressful and more productive compared to the traditional ways of marketing which in most cases, calls for face-to- face contact between the marketer and his/her clients.
Furthermore, writing feasibility studies is as important as carrying out advertising and embarking on effective marketing strategies in the accounting profession. The art and skills of writing good feasibility studies are what an accountant should acquire and display very excellently when the need arises.

A good human resources management requires effective communication between the manager and the members of his/her organisation. There should be regular communication flow between him/her and the members of staff of the organisation. This would be effectively discharged through digital communication tools, such as zoom, whatsApp, SMS messages andinstagram, especially when physical contact is not affordable.

16.2 Digital communication

Digital Communication is a process involving data transmission and data reception. Digital communication is the transfer and reception of data in the form of a digital bit-stream or a digitalized analog signal over point-to-point or point-to-multipoint communication channel. Examples of such channels are copper wires, optical fibres, wireless communication using radio spectrum, storage media and computer buses. The data are represented as an electromagnetic signal such as electrical voltage, radio-wave, micro-wave, or infrared signal. Digital communication reflects an organisation's online modernized communication efforts.
Most organizations today use a wide variety of online channels-ranging from their website to mobile chat, including blogs-to connect with current and prospective customers, employees, and other stakeholders. They need digital marketing professionals who have a keen understanding of how to leverage this convergence of technology and messaging to their advantage. Digital communication professionals are responsible for everything from creating online brand assets to building an engaged social media audience. However, digital communication professionals should be mindful about how to put forward these new tools in the right way.

16.2.1 Analog versus digital transmission

Analog transmission is a method of conveying voice, data, image, signal or video information using a continuous signal which varies in amplitude, phase, or some other property in proportion to that of a variable. The messages are either represented by a sequence of pulsesby means of a line code or by a limited set of continuously varying waveforms, using a digital modulation method. The pass-band modulation and corresponding modulation is carried outby modern equipment. In digital signal, both baseband and pass-band signals representing bit- streams are considered as digital transmission. Chronologically, the analog transmission mode preceded the digital. whereas the former was highly limited in terms of information-carrying capacity, the latter, which is characterized by highly sophisticated, interconnected super computers, is the brainchild of modern technology and therefore, seemingly limitless in terms of information-carrying capacity. This is why most nations have had to switch from analog to digital transmission.

Data transmitted may be digital messages originating from a data source, for example, a computer or a keyboard. It may also be an analog signal such as a phone call or video signal, digitized into a bit-stream, for example, using pulse-code modulation or other advanced source coding schemes. This source coding and decoding is carried out by codec equipment.

Digital transmission or modern data transmission traditionally belongs to telecommunications and electrical/electronic engineering. Basic principles of data transmission may also be covered within the computer science or computer engineering topic of data communications, which also includes computer networking applications and communication protocols, forexample, routing, switching and inter-process communication. Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) involves transmission. TCP and other transport layer protocols are covered in computernetworking.

(A) ROUTING:

This refers to a method of finding paths from origins to destinations in a network such as the internet, along which information can be passed

(B) SWITCHING:

This refers to a change from one product or service provider to another.

(C) INTER-NETWORKING APPLICATIONS:

This refers to setting up as a network of networks through the applications provided for that purpose.

(D) DIGITAL COMMUNICATION TOOLS

The digital communication tools are the tools used in communicating digitally. They include email, blog, phone call, messaging, video conferencing, etc.

(i) EMAIL

Email is referred to as electronic mail. It is a method of exchanging messages(mail) between people using electronic devices. Email was thus conceived as the electronic(digital) version of, or counterpart to, mail, at a time when mail meant only physical mail. Email later became a ubiquitous communication medium, to the point that in current use, an email address is often treated as a basic and necessary part of many processes in business, commerce, government, education, entertainment, and other spheres of daily life in most countries. Email is the medium, and each message sent therewith is referred to as an email (mass/ count distinction).

Email operates across computer networks, primarily the Internet, and also local area networks. Nowadays, email systems are based on a store-and-forward model. Email servers accept, forward, deliver, and store messages. Neither the users nor their computers are required to be online simultaneously; but they need to connect, typically to a mail server or a webmail interface to send or receive messages or download them.

- **EMAIL MESSAGE FORMAT**

The basic Internet message format used for email is defined by RFC 5322, with encoding of non-ASCII data and multimedia content attachments defined in RFC 2045 through RFC 2049, collectively called Multipurpose Internet Mail Extension or MIME. The extensions in international email apply only to email. RFC 2822 in 2008, then RFC 2822 in 2001 replaced RFC 822-the standard for Internet email for decades.

Internet email consists of two sections, ‘header’ and ‘body’. These are known as ‘content’. The header is structured into fields such as *From, To, CC, Subject, Date,* and other information about the email. In the process of transporting email messages between systems, SMTP communicates delivery parameters and information using message header fields. The body contains the message, as unstructured text, sometimes containing a signature block at the end. The header is separated from the body by a blank line.

RFC 5322 specifies the syntax of the email header. Each email message has a header, comprising a number of fields. Each field has a name, followed by the separator character and a value.

Each field name begins in the first character of a new line in the header section, and begins with a non-whitespace printable character. It ends with the separator character.

The separator is followed by the field value. The value can continue onto subsequent lines if those lines have space or tab as their first character.

- **HEADER FIELD**

Email header fields can be multi-line, with each line recommended to be no more than 78 characters, although the limit is 998 characters. Header fields contain only US- ASCII characters; although the limit is 998 characters, for encoding characters in other sets, a syntax specified in RFC 2047 may be used. In some examples, the IETF EAI working group defines some standard track extensions, replacing previous experimental extensions so UTF-8 encoded Unicode characters may be used within theheader. In particular, this allows addresses to use non-ASCII characters. Such addresses are supported by Google and Microsoft products, and promoted by some government agents. The message header must include the following fields:
From: The email address, and, optionally, the name of the author(s). Some email clients are changeable through account settings.
The local time and date the message was written. Like the "From" field, many email clients fill in automatically before sending. The recipient's client may display the time in the format and time zone local to them.

(ii) BLOG

A blog is a discussion or informational website published on the World Wide Web consisting of discrete, often informal diary-style text entries. Posts are typically displayed in reverse chronological order, so that the most recent post appears first, at the top of the web page. Blog is used in featuring the writing of multiple authors and it is sometimes professionally edited. Bloggers produce content to post on their blogsand also often build social relations with their readers and other bloggers. There are high-readership blogs which do not allow comments.

Many blogs provide commentary on a particular subject or topic, ranging from philosophy, religion, and arts, to science, politics, and sports. Others function as more personal online diaries or online brand advertising of a particular individual or company. A typical blog combines text, digital images, and links to other blogs, web pages, and other media related to its topic. The ability of readers to leave publicly viewable comments, and interact with other commenters, is an important contribution to the popularity of many blogs. However, blog owners or authors often moderate and filter online comments to remove hate speech or other offensive contents. Most blogs are primarily textual, although some focus on art, photographs, videos, music and audio. In education, blogs can be used as instructional resources; these are referred to as edu-blogs. Micro-blogging is another type of blogging, featuring very short posts.
Blog and blogging are now loosely used for content creation and sharing on social media, especially when the content is in bong-form and one creates and shares contentson a regular basis. So, one could be maintaining a blog on Face-book or blogging on Instagram.

(iii) VIDEO CONFERENCING

Video conferencing is a type of online meeting where two or more people engage in a live audio-visual call. With strong internet connection, the participants can see, hear, and talk to each or one another in real time, no matter where they are in the world.

In business, people typically use video conferencing to communicate and collaborate within and outside an organisation. One just needs to set up the necessary hardware and software to get the most out of the experience.

(a) THE BASIC COMPONENTS OF VIDEO CONFERENCING SYSTEM

- A stable internet connection
- A video display device (laptop, desktop monitor, or television screen) A computer or conference phone
- Other peripherals (webcam, microphone, headset, speaker, etc.) Video conferencing software.

(b) TYPES OF VIDEO CONFERENCING

These include:

(1) Point-to-point conferencing

In point-to-point video conferencing, there are only two participants communicating from different locations at a particular time.

(2) Multipoint conferencing

Multipoint video conferencing involves three or more participants; that is why it is also called ‘group video conferencing’.

(c) BENEFITS OF VIDEO CONFERENCING

Video conferencing is transforming the way organisations communicate and collaborate. The following are the benefits of video conferencing:

(1) IMPROVED PRODUCTIVITY

conferencing software typically comes with screen sharing, file transfer, group chat, and other features which enhance collaboration. None of that is possible with other forms of communication like audio conferencing, SMS or email. When everyone is in sync, they make informed decisions faster and work more efficiently.

(2) HUMANISED CONVERSATIONS

The visual component humanizes the conversation, making video conferencing much more engaging than other forms of communication. It allows one to see body language and facial expressions even without engaging in face-to-face interactions.

(3) SUPERIOR COMMUNICATION

Humans process visual data faster than they do text or audio. Compared to an audio meeting, it is more likely for meeting attendees to understand and retain information more effectively when video is involved. Visuals can also help keep them alert and focused on the discussion.

(4) WELL-STRUCTURED MEETINGS

The start and end time of video conferences are usually predefined. This way, attendees have less time for idle talk and are more likely to stick to the agenda.

(5) TIME AND COST SAVINGS

In most cases, the goals of an in-person meeting can also be accomplished through video conferencing. Job interviews, webinars, and business meetings-allthese can be done without having to spend money on fuel and get to a specific place at a specific time.

(6) REMOTE WORKFORCE SUPPORT

The rise of video conferencing has made the possibility of having a completely remote workforce even more valid. Proof of this is the fact that businesses can now operate without a physical office and hire staff remotely.

16.3 CONCEPT OF ADVERTISING.

Advertising is a form of communication and it is one of the oldest professions in the world. It is perhaps as old as humanity. It is the market instrument which advertisers use to influence the behaviour of consumers at the point of purchase (Sandage,1997). As the communicating element, within the marketing mix, it aims to manipulateconsumers' opinions towards particular products or market, mass media, bill boards, sky writing, etc. It constitutes the medium through which advertising messages are passed on the target audience, while consumers' responses to the messages are monitored through the quality or volume of advertising product (Comanor,1999).

Advertising research has its roots in the behavioural sciences consisting of psychology, sociology and social psychology; hence, its central theme is people. Therefore, the underlying purpose of all advertising is increased awareness of the consumers about the product (Diamond and Oppenhein, 2004).

Advertising can make or mar a product in the market, depending on the advertiser's message and the atmosphere surrounding it. Advertising cannot turn a poor product or services into a good one but can create awareness about old and new products and services and show how various needs and wants can be satisfied. Increasingly, advertising performs some advanced information, about products and services to consumers before they reach the place of purchase. Vance Packard in expressing his fear about the power of advertising charges that: many of us are being influenced and manipulated far more than we realize in the pattern of everyday life.

But consumers do not change suddenly from one product to another. In many cases, they go through several steps before buying a product. In general, they move from awareness of the product or services to awareness of need and then to knowledge, liking, performance, acceptance (conviction), and then to the purchase of product or services . It is estimated that about 80% of the products manufactured in Nigeria have the likelihood of having substitutes. That means that a product, which is established in the market section, needs to retain or sustain its leadership position. This makes it very important for manufacturers to advertise their products. The advertiser, however, makes sure that the value and quality of the product is developed continuously to meet consumers' changing needs and standards. Advertising messages are always regarded as communication designed by the sender to produce certain forms of reaction, behaviour or attitude from the receiver of the message. According to Jefkins (1999):

Advertising presents the most persuasive possible selling message to the right prospects for the products or services at its lowest cost.

The message has to reach the consumers. The consumer is an indispensable individual without whom advertising will be a useless effort because the consumer is still king as regards what he/she does with his/her money. He/ She is free to save his/her money in any way he/she wishes.

Advertising has been publicly condemned and praised. Concerns over the economic, social, moral and ethical issues of advertising have become one of the most economic and social forces in the society. Partly because of advert influence, most people have learnt to want better products and services to better care for their health and improve their living conditions. Advertising as a form of communication must be effective because a bad advert is just like bad medicine – it does not achieve desired results; therefore, in order to perform communication tasks, advertising sets some main goals and these goals, according to *Encyclopedia Britannica* (2000), are as follows:

(a) to reach a definite audience, to a given extent, and during a given period of time.
(b) to produce awareness and knowledge about the products and services.
(c) to point out the qualities of the products or services to the persons the advertisers wish to influence.

In advertising, the advertiser endeavours to achieve a link between the sender and receivers. This link is a form of communication and Fletcher (1998) describes this as bridging the gap between the sender and the receiver. There must be a message as well as a medium, therefore, according to Sandage et al. (1999) Advertising is to be through the mass media of newspapers, magazines, books, leaflets, posters, radio, television and cinema. It must be paid for, obviously in money, not in sweat and energy.

Consequently, advertising messages may be placed either by an individual or group of people. For an advertisement to be effective, it has to consider first its audience: its educational, social, political, and religious background. It has to consider the subject that will appeal to the audience and what should be avoided. (Gumperz, 1982). In addition, alienating an audience by choosing a subject which proves to be too high for the consumer's level of satisfaction or comprehension is not desirable, especially in Nigeria and most underdeveloped countries, where the level of illiteracy is still very high.

Advertising has to consider the occasion and what is fitting for it. It should take into account the type of products or services to be advertised; whether it is luxury goods or consumer goods. The age and sex of the target audience also plays an important role. Language is also one of the important factors that determine the effectiveness of an advertisement on a target audience.

Advertising has its advantages and disadvantages. The greatest advantage of the role of advertising is that it carries the sale message to a very large number of people.

Achieving the quest of relaying the message to a large number of people is referred to as Broadcast Effect, which is the most valuable skill of advertising. Advertising has to be placed where it is most likely to produce the greatest sales for it to be effective. It is evident that advertising means so much to many people: to the advertisers, it means a method of promoting sales; to the media owners, it is a way of making money and to the agencies, it means skill utilization.

16.3.1 TYPES OF ADVERTISEMENT

There are different types of adverts. For instance, Vestegar Schbider(1986) gives a narrow classification, distinguishing between commercial and non-commercial advertisements. Non-commercial advertising is realized when an agency or organization gives information to the public about its places of programmes or policy. Commercial advertisement covers prestige or goodwill advertisements and industrial or trade advertisement. In the former, a name or an image may be advertised, and in the latter, products or services may be advertised.

Adegbija (1982) gives a broader classification of advertisement into six types namely: consumer, retailer, industrial, financial, classified and public services. According to him, consumer adverts aim to appeal to members of the public to purchase goods and services. Retail adverts seek that consumers buy products. In financial adverts, financial institutions incite the public to get their services promoted. Classified adverts,published in special pages of the newspapers/ magazines, and ordered (classified) according to subjects are meant for an exclusive readership, who may be interested in the products or services. Public service adverts are placed by government or its agencies about matters relating to their welfare.

Advertisement of products is determined by the advertiser's goals. The medium of placing adverts is selected by the advertiser. Many times, given that profit making is the overriding issue in the game, the advertiser has the tendency to give priorities to advertising in a linguistic medium that can be accessed by a large minority of potential buyers than giving it in a medium that has restricted coverage.

16.4 MARKETING STRATEGIES IN THE ACCOUNTING PROFESSION.

Marketing is the process of determining customer's wants and needs and then providing customers with goods and services that meet or perhaps exceed their expectations.

When there is something to sell, marketing is involved but it is not anytime that omething is sold that marketing is applied. There is a close relationship between marketing and business. Business exists to meet consumers' needs, serve markets which have gaps to be filled and wants are yearnings to be satisfied. Business expects in return to make profit from its efforts and investment. Marketing, on the other hand, has been defined by Wilson (1980) as:

……. the primary management function that coordinates the activities involved in developing and manufacturing suitable products for specific markets, converting purchasing power into effective demand, and in moving the products to the user in order to attain corporate objectives.

This definition highlights the primacy of marketing along with two contending partners- production and finance. While production has to do with manufacturing, finance tackles the flow of money, marketing completes the cycle of corporate survival by earning revenue from the sales of goods to meet the recurrent and capital needs of the enterprise.

In one sense, marketing begins with which markets to serve and ends with a profitable and satisfying consumer- company relationship. It meets the needs of today and addresses the demands of tomorrow- anticipating change, moving with it, taking advantage of it, and even creating it. Profitability, growth and development of competitive organization depend largely on the firm’s responsiveness to change- economically and socially- occurring at a given period.

In the accounting profession, especially where marketing is involved, the following strategies should be adopted:

a. Discovering, locating and measuring the functional and symbolic needs, attitudes and desires of prospective consumers;
b. Interpreting the necessary information for management to ensure that products and services are improved upon or new ones are developed;
c. Devising and implementing a system which will make the products and services available;
d. Using advertising as a back-up, in forming established and prospective customers about the product’s need-satisfying abilities and converting the desire to actual purchase decision;
e. Ensuring that the product is right, and put at the right place, must have the right promotion with the right price to ensure effective demand;
f. Designing the product to meet the needs of the consumers;
g. Doing product testing;
h. Determining a brand name, designing a package and setting a price;
i. Conducting a research on the product;
j. Selecting a distribution system;
k. Designing a promotional programme; and
l. Building a relationship with customers.

16.5 SALES PROMOTION IN ACCOUNTING BUSINESS

Sales promotion is one of the last steps in the marketing process. It is to promote the product to the consumers. Promotion consists of all the techniques that sellers use to motivate people to buy products or services. They include advertising, personal selling, publicity, and various sales promotion efforts such as coupons, rebates, samples, and cents-off deals, relationship building with customers which include responding to any suggestions they make to improve the product or its marketing.

Rendering post-purchase services which may include exchanging goods that were not satisfactory and making other adjustments to ensure consumers’ satisfaction, including recycling. Public Relations and publicity also effectively promote sales. These are enhanced by listening to the public, developing policies and procedures in the public interest, informing people that you are being responsive to their needs.

16.5.1 PERSONAL SELLING

This is the face-to-face presentation and promotion of products and services. It also involves the search for new prospects and follow-up service after the sale. Effective selling is not simply a matter of persuading others to buy. In fact, it is more accurately described today as helping others to satisfy their wants and needs. There are various needs and wants in the Accounting business which include the need for auditing of the accounts of particular institutions and establishments, fixing taxes for governments and ensuring that tax regulations as regards the payments are complied with, applying Management Accounting to solve some management financial challenges, etc.

(A) STEPS IN THE SELLING PROCESS

The best way to get a feel for personal selling is to go through a selling process with a product and see what is involved. One product that the Accounting Technicians Scheme candidates are familiar with is textbooks. A college textbook salesperson has the job of showing the students the advantages of using a particular book and the instructional aids that accompany it. Let us consider the selling process with a salesperson to see what can be done to make the sale

(B) PROSPECT AND QUALITY

The first step in the selling process is prospecting.
Prospecting involves researching potential buyers and choosing those most likely to buy. That selection is referred to as QUALIFYING. To qualify people means to make sure that they have a need for the product, the authority to buy, and the willingness to listen to a sales message. People who meet these criteria are referred to as PROSPECTS. You find prospects by asking tuition houses whose staff are teachingthe courses that might assign the books that you are selling. It is a good idea to developrapport with the secretaries of the various tuition houses because they can help with thecentre's office hours and other necessary information. Telemarketing is often used to find prospects or 'leads.' Also tuition house members should attend professional meetings where publishers set up display booths and where salespeople can discuss various texts and get information for follow-up calls.

(C) PRE-APPROACH

Before making a sales call, the sales representative must do further research. 50 16.5percent of a sales negotiation outcome is determined before you meet the customer face-to-face. You should learn as much as possible about customers and needs. Beforea textbook can be sold, for instance, you would want to know which texts the Accounting Technician Scheme candidates are now using and some of the subjects they find most important.

(D) APPROACH

"You don't have a second chance to make a good first impression." That is why the approach is very important. When you call on a tuition house member for the first time, your opening comments are important. The idea is to give an impression of friendly professionalism, to create rapport, and to build credibility. The objective of the initial sales call probably will not be to make a sale that day. Rather, the goal may be to set the member at ease. That is you should listen to the member, learn what his or her textbook and other needs are, and create some interest in the textbook you are selling by pointing out key differences between that book and the competition.

(E) MAKE PRESENTATION

In the actual presentation of the text and materials that come with it, the idea is to match the benefits of your value package to the client's needs. The presentation may involve audiovisual aids, such as power-point presentation on the computer. Since you have done your homework and know the prospective wants and needs, the presentationwill be tailored to his or her needs and will therefore be relatively easy to present.Often different offers may be presented based on specific needs of that tuition centre and the students. For example, a study centre staff may be interested in providing students with an expensive subscription to Business Week as part of the total package.

(F) ANSWER OBJECTIONS

A salesperson should anticipate any objections the prospective buyer may raise and determine proper responses. Questions should be viewed as opportunities for creating better relationships, not as a challenge to what you are saying. Customers have legitimate doubts, and salespeople are there to resolve those doubts. If such a dialogue were not necessary, salespeople could easily be replaced by advertising. Salespeople are taught several strategies for overcoming objections.

(G) CLOSE SALE

You have to 'ask for the sale' to finalise the sales process. A salesperson has limited time and cannot spend a very long time with one person by answering questions and objections. Closing techniques include getting a series of little commitments and then asking for the order and showing the client where to sign. Salespersons are taught to remember their 'ABCs'- Always Be Closing. For example, the salesperson might ask, 'Do you want your student to receive the interactive edition of 'The Communication Skills Journal' with your order? If they order the journal, they will get one free'.

(H) FOLLOW UP

The selling process is not over until the order is approved and the customer is happy. The selling relationship often continues for years as the salesperson responds to new requests for information. Selling is a matter of establishing relationships, not just selling goods and services. Thus, follow-up includes handling customer complaints, making sure that the questions are answered, and supplying what the customers want. Often, customer service is as important to the sale as the product itself. Many people want to maintain a semi-constant dialogue with textbook authors and otherstakeholders. Most publishers, therefore, have established Websites for various textbooks where information may be obtained and discussions may take place. The selling process varies somewhat among different goods and services but the general idea is the same. The goal of a salesperson is to help the buyer buy and to make sure that the buyer is satisfied with the sale. Companies nowadays are providing many high-tech aids to help salespeople in that process. Salespeople, for instance, often have laptop computers that are connected to databases. Using those computers, salespeople can track orders, get production information including prices, and search for all kinds of information. Sales force automation, in fact, includes 400-plus software programmes that help salespeople design products, close deals, tap into company intranets, and more. Some salespeople can even conduct virtual tours of the manufacturing plant for customers.

16.5.2 BUSINESS-TO-BUSINESS SELLING

Business-to-business sales people who sell to commercial accounts (wholesalers and retailers), institutional accounts (hospitals and schools), and industrial accounts (manufacturers and service providers) often make more money and have a more challenging experience than those who sell directly to consumers. Businesses tend to sell in larger quantities, and as a result, the salesperson often make a larger commission. Business customers are often easier to find than consumers because the government classifies business customers using Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) codes. Books that list such codes are available in many libraries. Once a salesperson has used SIC codes to find a customer in an industry, he or she can easily find other customers with the same SIC code. Business- to- business people are often referred to as marketing consultants because they help their business customers to become more effective at marketing.

Sales store automation also helps business-to-business. Salespeople using laptop computers, modems, e-mail, fax software, and scanners, salespeople can get specifications by e-mail, get product announcements from the company and then e- mail them to the customers, scan documents and fax them to customers, find information in databases and use that data in sales presentations, and more. With such high-tech backing, salespeople in accounting businesses will definitely become the eyes and the ears of all businesses.

16.5.3 PLACING ORDERS FOR GOODS AND SERVICES IN ACCOUNTING

Human needs are undoubtedly endless as no human being and organisation can haveall they desire at any point in time. Circumstances frequently demand for either an improvement upon what have already been attained, overhauling of any acquirement which has depreciated. Unequivocally, men, organizations and institutions have to move with the time. For this singular reason, ordering for and rendering services are congenital: they are part of being human. Such needs are necessities of life. They could be material, social, psychological, professional, educational, etc.

The accounting profession, being a gregarious profession, which renders services to virtually all sectors of the economy, definitely needs to order for goods and services of other professionals since no profession is all- sufficient. For this reason, there is a need to conceptualise ordering, goods and services in consonance with the Accounting profession.

(A) ORDERING

This is the act of requesting a company to supply goods and services for the needs of customers and consumers. It also refers to acquiring goods and services requested for from a company.

(B) GOODS

These refer to which are produced, then traded, bought or sold, then finally consumed. This implies that somebody must produce a particular good for the consumption and use of others.

(C) SERVICES

This is the official system for providing something, especially something that everyone in a country needs to have. Services are not necessarily material in nature. The term also refers to the official organisation that provides such needs.

(D) ORDERABLE GOODS IN ACCOUNTING

There are innumerable orderable goods in the accounting profession, which include: equipment such as computer sets- laptops, desktops, calculators, and other items such as printers, photocopy machines, printers, staple machines, money counting machines, point of sale(POS) machines, cameras, scanners, etc. Stationery which include books, stencils, pins, pens, markers, vouchers, etc. Office holdings such as land, property, company shares, mortgage, etc.

(E) ORDERABLE OR REQUESTABLE SERVICES

There are both source-able and employable services in the accounting profession. Source-able services are ad-hoc or temporary services different from tenured services. They includehuman- sourcing for security outfit, for security services, training personnel for staff routine and occasional trainings, consultancy services, ad-hoc/corporate staff for conduct of examinations, supervision, question setting, forming marking guides, marking of examination scripts, writing study packs, consortiums for contingent and special services, catering services, auditing services, legal services, medical services, mailing services, banking services, insurance services, medical services, International Relations services, etc.

(F) WAYS OF PLACING ORDERS FOR GOODS AND SERVICES

Orders can be placed for goods and services by contacting the sellers personally, especially, in small-scale businesses. Letters can also be written to order for goods and services. Telephone calls, online goods and services purchase, trade fair and products exhibitions are also good avenues of ordering for goods and services in Accounting
Whichever avenues are explored, the consumer should ensure that his/her requests are clearly, specifically, and explicitly made to avoid confusion and disappointment. For example, if it is a request for goods, the message should contain the type of goods, the quantity, the price, and the discount, the conveyance and the delivery methods and location of delivery, and the warranty, etc.
If the order should be made through a letter, such letter should be written in good and correct English and in the appropriate format. Such letter should be explicit and unambiguous. If phone calls are to be explored, the message should be conveyed and interpreted completely and correctly. The voices of the two parties must be audible and clear.

(G) DIFFERENT SECTIONS OF ACCOUNTING WHERE ORDERING FOR

GOODS AND SERVICES ARE REQUIRED

Essentially, ordering for goods and services is expected in all sections or Departments of the Accounting profession. The sections include Management, Auditing, Bursary, Taxation, Establishment and Training, Staff Welfare, Registry, Human Resources, Pensions, etc.

(H) ELIGIBILITY OF THE SERVICE PERSONNEL

One of the important factors to be considered while ordering for services is whether the personnel is qualified for the job, skilled and experienced, sincere, and dependable. There is also the need to consider whether the charges are reasonable or outrageous. The employer should also be able to decide whether the officer is retainable or dispensable. If the office is retainable, it means that he/she can be engaged when the need arises.

(I) REASONS FOR ENGAGING NON-ACCOUNTING STAFF IN SERVICE

The reasons for engaging non-accounting staff are numerous and they include the following:

1. For career advancement/progression of staff.
2. For training and certification of members.
3. For promotion of staff.
4. For in-service trainings.
5. For human resources and corporate affairs.

(J) CAREER ADVANCEMENT/PROGRESSION

During promotion exercise, the service of a consortium can be employed especially for the evaluation and interview of staff, who are due for promotion. Such staff assessment for promotion is rarely biased and prejudicial. In such promotion exercises merit is accorded a pride of place. Before the service of such consortium is finally engaged, it must have been kept abreast of the promotion criteria, eligibility for promotion and curriculum vitae of each of the promotable staff.

(K) IN-SERVICE TRAININGS AND CERTIFICATION

Some staff apparently may not have had the opportunity of receiving trainings in formal settings such as institutions of higher learning. In-service trainings are very essential for such staff to assist them to grow on the job, enhance their performances and assist them to actualise themselves. In most of the trainings, the services of non- accountants, who are specialists in their careers are employed. Certificates of participation are usually awarded to the trained staff by the training outfits.

16.6 WRITING FEASIBILITY STUDIES IN THE ACCOUNTING PROFESSION

In writing feasibility studies in the accounting profession, attention should be paid to the concept, the importance and the key components of feasibility studies.

16.6.1 THE CONCEPT OF FEASIBILITY STUDIES

Feasibility may be referred to as the act of probing with a view to putting something in practice. It is also defined as the act of embarking on something that is possible and likely to be achieved. Feasibility studies are carried out on proposed projects or programmes.

A feasibility study is also a report that aims at determining the practicality, strengths and weaknesses of a proposed project, an existing system or a corporation as a whole. Feasibility studies are carried out in Accounting when a project or a programme is to be embarked upon. The project can be a short-term or a long-term project. Projects in Accounting include academic projects, capital projects, financial projects, etc. Examples of academic projects include various professional examinations embarked upon by ICAN for the professional and career advancement of its members. These examinations include the ATSWA examination and the professional ICAN examination. For example, before each of the examinations became operational, a lot of planning, projections were made as regards the nature of the programmes, the duration, eligibility of the candidates for the programmes, the duration of the programmes, the number of courses, preparation and availability of syllabi, study packs, mode of tuition and lecturing, mode of examinations, benefits of the programmes for the graduates, etc.

Capital projects include establishing cooperative societies within District levels of the Institute, office and secretariat building projects, business projects such as transport business, rental business, etc. All these projects are capital-intensive, hence, there is a need for the proper planning of each of them. Such planning involves setting an assuring feasibility study. During a feasibility study, risks involved in the project need to be envisaged, caution against the risks also needs to be properly planned for

In order to carry out a good and reliable feasibility study, a team of experienced professionals must be gathered to form a committee to draft the feasibility study guide and such a guide should be made available to all members of the committee in case of any additional input or critique. Such committee members must be committed and selfless. They must also have foresight and be proactive in any plan they have for the project.

Feasibility studies help professionals to do the following:

(i) plan a course of events to complete the project.

(ii) identify the challenges arising as a result of the project.

(iii) list potential solutions to challenges that could arise as a result of the project.

Two distinct components summarise all the factors above: desired values to achieve and the cost required to implement the project.

ILLUSTRATION 16.1

Feasibility Study

Date of Meeting: 14th June, 2022
Title: Events/ Recreation Centre
Report of: Director of Social Services
Report Reference: JW18/3
Summary: To update the Executive on Events/ Recreation Centre Feasibility Study which is being led by City Town Planning Office in partnership with the Lagos State Ministry of Tourism.
Recommendations:
That the Executive:

1. Note the tender arrangements and the timetable for the Feasibility Study.
2. Approve the scope of the Study.

Contact Officer: Rogers Constructions. Ext: 1862

BACKGROUND INFORMATION AND OPTIONS
It was agreed at the Executive Committee of 8th June, 2022 (JWA008/07) that officers should appoint consultants to carry out a Feasibility Study on Events/Recreation Centre for District Society of ICAN. Prior to this work being put out for tender, a brief needs to be prepared in collaboration with Rogers Constructions, who have indicated their support to the Council for the work.
The proposal for Events/ Recreation Centre facility will need to be placed in the context of National Arts Theatre and the master planning underway. The work will be linked closely with the proposed Marvelous University developments and the National Cultural Centre and the work will be undertaken on the Diamond Estate.
1.1 The Feasibility Study

A project team will be established from within existing Council staff, which will be led by the head of Social Affairs and utilize expertise from external consultants as well as using them to provide detailed work in relation to the study.
The development of a major Events/ Recreation Centre for the District Society has been an aspiration for some time. A centre that is attractive and accessible City residents and visitors
Consultations to-date- on Events/Recreation Centre concurs with this vision for the City.
Work was carried out several years ago regarding a proposal for Events/ Recreation Centre based at Diamond Estate.

Following discussions, The Arts Council of Nigeria is prepared to support the work on Feasibility Study with a grant, providing match funding to enable the Council to undertake a major piece ofwork. Their support is both integral and encouraging because of expertise which they can provide to the Council in undertaking such a study but also their access to grants which would be necessary if a facility were to be provided and operated in the City. Their involvement at this is to be applauded because of it is an indication of potential they see in the final outcome of the study whatever that may be. One of the conditions of their support is that we draw up a brief in conjunction with an ‘enabler’ appointed NTP (National Town Planning)
The selected ‘enabler’ is an architect-planner with a particular interest in the conservation, development and regeneration of the historic environment. The ‘enabler will advise on the following issues:

Client team governance issues and establishing the client’s roles and responsibilities’

Establishing the client's vision for their project and assisting them to translate this into a detailed design brief.
Appointing consultants to perform feasibility studies.
Selection and appointment of design teams, including Nigerian procurement procedures.
Working with development partners and/or within a wider master plan project.

1.2 The Scope of the Feasibility Study

In consultation with the Nigerian Town Planning Authority, it has been determined that the most appropriate method of approaching the project will be through separating it in two stages. In is essential that the purpose and need for an Events/Recreation Centre is clearly defined and it meets the requirements of the City and takes account of the significant work being undertaken as part of Rogers Constructions. The two stages are:
Stage 1 is defining the purpose and assessing the needs of Events/Recreation Centre and
Stage 2 is carrying out the Options Appraisal, Business Plan and Outline Design.

Stages 1 and 2 require the preparation of a brief in close consultation with the National Town Planning Office and the appointed 'enabler' from NTPO. The Stage 1 defining the purpose and needs analysis and stage 2 option appraisal, business plan and outline design will need to be carried out by qualified consultants with relevant experience. The work will be put out to tender, following the Council procurement regulations. The tenders when returned will be assessed by the City Council andNTPO 'enabler'. The applications will be shortlisted and interviews held as appropriate.

Stage1

The National Town Planning Office will provide a list of potential consultants, who have the relevant qualifications and experience to undertake Stage I Needs Analysis. This list will be the list used for tendering the work. It is that the stage 1 will cost 200,000000 naira . The work will include:
Establishing the artistic vision, aims and objectives for the Events/ Recreation Centre project.
Fitting the project into strategic context –national, regional, and local. Consultants will be instructed to make use of any provision Nigeria.
Working in close consultation with current and potential stakeholders and partners, including Nigerian Council of Arts and Culture local and regional arts organisation.
Stage 1 will be followed by a two-month consultation period with members and key stakeholders, prior to moving on to stage 2. Consultation will be carried out with relevant educational, leisure and arts organisations,
Stage 2 will need to be prepared and the tendering process followed for continuing with stage 2 of the Feasibility Study The work n required for Stage 2 includes:
Carrying out a thorough examination of the potential sites for Events/Recreation Centre. This could include the conversion of the potential sites for Events/Recreation Centre. This could include the conversion of an existing building or a new build. This stage will include a comprehensive options appraisal.
A decision will be made by the Council on the preferred option.

1.3 Proposed Timetable

The timetable gives a prudent view of the schedule of work to be undertaken. When the work is underway there may be opportunities to accelerate the process.
Brief for Stage 1- the Needs Analysis is prepared-end of June 2022
Stage 1- Tendering process complete- July 2022
Interviews, selection and appointment of consultants-late July /early August
Substantial completion stage- October 2022.

RECOMMENDATIONS
That the Executive:
1. Notes the tender arrangements and the timetable for the Feasibility Study
2. Approves the scope of the Study.

16.6.2 IMPORTANCE OF FEASIBILITY STUDIES

Feasibility studies are important because they encourage professionals to consider all the factors that go into a project or business start-up. These include areas such as background, project summary, description of operations, market research and legal and financial documents.

A well-written feasibility study assists project leaders to gain the approval which they need to complete the project. By analysing each of these areas and preparing a plan of action, professional can have the best chance of creating a successful project which will benefit the corporation or broader society.

16.6.3 KEY COMPONENTS OF A FEASIBILITY STUDY

A feasibility study collects essential company information and encourages investors, company officials or other company employees to support a project. The following are some key components of a feasibility study:

(i) Title page
(ii) Table of contents
(iii) Executive summary
(iv) Market feasibility
(v) Technical feasibility
(vi) Financial feasibility
(vii) Organisational feasibility
(viii) Conclusion
(ix) Recommendations
(x) Appendix and reference pages

(A) TITLE PAGE

The title page is the first part of the feasibility study which is accessible to the readers. As a result, a clear title that provides some insight into the project should be used. The title page should also include the names of the project leader and project members along with their roles or job titles. Also to be considered for inclusion are the date which the project is to commence and estimated date for completion in order toprovide detailed information about the time frame of the project to the readers.

(B) TABLE OF CONTENTS

The table of contents provides the readers easy access to any section within the report. The Table of contents must be written at the end of the report and the writer(s) should ensure that the page numbers coincide with the section titles. Usually, a word processor has a table of contents which makes creating this component quick and efficient.

(C) EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The executive summary should be the first major component of the visibility study. In this section, the following should be included: introduction to the project, its purpose, desired solutions and an overview of the sources used to support the legitimacy of the report.

(D) MARKET FEASIBILITY

The market feasibility portion of the report provides the readers with insightful information about the company statistics, market research and the future outlook for the company. Company's industry should be summarised. The company's history, current practices and trends, along with future projections for the industry as a whole should also be discussed. It is also to discuss how the company fits within the industry. Top competitors, primary source of revenue, sales figures and potential niche areas to be pursued to expand customer base should also be listed.

The market feasibility section helps readers to gain more understanding of the company, what it has to offer and how the feasibility project could benefit its growth.

(E) TECHNICAL FEASIBILITY

The technical feasibility section outlines several operational factors which influence the success of the business upon which the feasibility study is written. It is also used to discuss the company's location, materials needed to create the products or services to be offered, the manufacturing process, quality assurance facilities and necessary transportation to convey the products to retail locations.

The technical section provides the reader with a detailed understanding of how the business should be maintained so that top-tier products and services can further be delivered to the customers' bases. Additionally, this section helps to support the credibility of the financial feasibility section.

(F) FINANCIAL FEASIBILITY

The financial feasibility section is used to outline all aspects of the company's finances to the readers. The following should be included in the financial feasibility:

(i) Information about the investors

(ii) Current revenue

(iii) Assets and liabilities

(iv) Total revenue from the previous year

(v) Cost–benefit evaluation, which supports the business needs.

The financial feasibility section is aimed at convincing the readers to either invest their support or funds or both into the proposed project by showing them the costs required to maintain business operations.

(G) ORGANISATIONAL FEASIBILITY

The organisational section is used to demonstrate the company's legal and ethical practices to the readers. This section should include an outline of general structure of the company such as branch locations or Departments. It is necessary to discuss the human relations procedures that the company adopts to maintain ethical and legal responsibilities towards employees as well as motivational methods usable to instil productivity in the workplace

The organisational feasibility section helps the readers to determine whether the company's current practices complement or support the proposed project.

(H) CONCLUSION

The conclusion is the penultimate section of the report to the recommendation pages. This section is used to summarise each of the previous sections. Conclusion should be ended by highlighting one or more recommendations to motivate further action on the topic. These recommendations can be made in a separate section, especially if they require few sentences as explanation.

(I) RECOMMENDATIONS

In this section, the study puts forward suggestions as to the line of action to be taken, based on the findings of the report.

(J) APPENDIX AND REFERENCE PAGES

An appendix is an optional section but usually beneficial to the readers of the report. This section includes any information which the reader might find useful but which is not directly relevant to the other topics discussed in the report. Notwithstanding,whether or not appendix is included in this section, references should be included.

A reference section can have one or more pages depending on the number of sources needed to create the report. The writer(s) can use company documents, scholarly articles related to the industry or any additional documents written towards the project's completion. Citations which adhere to the style guide used should be done.

16.7 HOW TO WRITE A FEASIBILITY STUDY

The following is a step-by-step guide to writing feasibility studies:

(i) Describing the project
(ii) Outlining the potential solutions resulting from the project
(iii) Listing the criteria for evaluating these solutions
(iv) Stating which solution is most feasible for the project.
(v) Making a concluding statement

16.7.1 DESCRIBING THE PROJECT

The first part of a feasibility study includes a description of the project to be executed. The purpose of the project as well the main components which will result in the success of the project should also be highlighted.

16.7.2 OUTLINING THE POTENTIAL SOLUTIONS RESULTING FROM THE PROJECT

List of rules to assess the solutions should be made. Criteria such as the potential for revenue, increased productivity, better communication across departments, expansion of a product line or customer satisfaction should be considered.

16.7.3 LISTING THE CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING THESE SOLUTIONS

The criteria used for evaluating the proposed solutions should be clearly and logically enumerated. This step would buttress the reliability of the study.

16.7.4 STATING WHICH SOLUTION IS MOST FEASIBLE FOR THE PROJECT

After deliberating with the team, a statement about the solution to guide the project should be made. An explanation about the reason to adopt the solution rather than other options discussed should be included.

16.7.5 MAKING A CONCLUDING STATEMENT

Lastly, the concluding statement usually summarises the main points. It should be started by reiterating the statement earlier made in the project description which defines it and the reason for executing the project. The solution primarily planned to be achieved through the project completion should be restated and the reason for the solution to be given preference over the others and its significance compared to others should be restated.

16.8 THE CONCEPT OF BUDGETING

A budget is a financial proposal that is tied to the execution of a specific project. It outlines the expected project costs in detail and should mirror the project description. A budget is presented as a categorical list of anticipated project costs which represents the researcher's best estimate of the funds needed to support the proposed work. A budget can also be defined as a format attached to a project proposal which should be filled according to the activities and strategies proposed in the project. A budget is therefore a critical component of the project.

A project proposal is developed because there is an understanding and realization that there is a budget to support it. Project needs can be fulfilled only if a budget is available for them. In fact, the budget determines the boundaries of the project. A budget is also one of the final determining factors for a project to receive its funding. If the budget is too high, the donor agency may either ask the preparer to reduce it or in some cases, alsoreject the entire proposal- if it is a highly competitive process. Understanding and developing a proposal is an important exercise of the proposal development process. In other words, a budget is a programme explained in monetary terms.

The reason why a budget is needed is not just to justify the project expenses, but to convince the donors that value will be delivered to whatever money they commit to the project. This is a very important because a project proposal is a lengthy document comprising several different components. For example, there is an introduction part, some background information, an explanation to justify the project, and of course, an exposition of its goals, objectives and strategies. Every donor would want to look into that single page in the proposal before taking a final decision on the desirability or otherwise of the entire project.

ILLUSTRATION 16.2
Sample of a Proposed Budget

ICAN ABEOKUTA DISTRICT SOCIETY SOAP INDUSTRY PROPOSED BUDGET

	PROJECTED N'000	N'000
Retail Sales	6,000	
Online Sales	14,000	
Bank Interest	400	
TOTAL OPERATING INCOME		**20, 400**
Rent	2,000	
Utilities	400	
Insurance	1000	
Salaries	12,000	
Other Expenses	2,000	
TOTAL OPERATING EXPENSES		**17,400**
NET INCOME		**3,000**

16.8.1 QUALITIES OF A GOOD BUDGET

There are qualities which donors look for in a Budget Proposal include the following:

(i) Transparency
(ii) Impact
(iii) Capacity
(iv) Type of Budget
(v) Application Guidelines

(A) TRANSPARENCY

Every donor considers transparency in the proposed budget. It is important that there is transparency in the process of developing and implementing a project. Transparency is all about is about involving stakeholders, sharing ideas and building the project with every real activity connected with the overall goal and objectives.

(B) IMPACT

Impact suggests "effect". Thus, it is necessary because it is through it that mostproposals seek enormous information about the expected results. Usually, big donor agencies dedicate several pages of their proposal format documents to this information. Furthermore, the monitoring and evaluation process included in a proposal facilitates the ability of the authorizing agency to assess the impact the project will have on the long-run.

(C) CAPACITY

Capacity is also another important component of the project proposal. Donor agencies are interested in knowing how the organisation proposing to implement a project is positioned with its skills and capacity. For instance, if the organisation has proposed to implement a project on 'child abuse', the donor agency will have to assess if it has got some expertise in human rights at that level. It must be ascertained that the project has got the right skills to execute such a project.

Capacity also includes the number of experts in the organisation on the subject. In some proposals, information about the staff is also requested so that the donor can be convinced that the project execution is in the right hands.

Donor agencies, while reviewing project proposals, are often in the habit of comparing project proposals. In highly competitive bids, this is very much prevalent. There is the need to know how other organizations have framed their project activities and strategies to achieve the desired goals and what types of resources are being used. The last thing which influences most donors is what type of budget the NGO is proposing within the budget proposal. Some donors would examine the proposal critically to ensure that the budget of the proposal is well within reasonable limits. If the budget is too high (or even too low), the donor may not take an interest in reading the rest of the document.

When a project proposal is being developed, one needs to check the application guidelines to find out if a budget limit has been mentioned. If it is not mentioned, then, it is an essential part of one's activity to collect intelligence about it. The donor agency may be contacted to find out the budget limit. Once the budget limit is ascertained, it is a great eye-opener to developing the proposal.

(D) TYPES OF BUDGET

There are two types of budgets: Activity Budget and Line-Item Budget.

(i) ACTIVITY BUDGET

As the name implies, activity budget covers the costs required for implementing a project activity. For instance, if the project strategy is about training a group ofprofessionals, then, a workshop should be organized as part of the activities. Organising workshops has cost implications. There are costs involved in hiring resource persons, booking a venue where participants would have the workshop, their transportation cost, food, lodging and materials and handouts.

When developing such an activity budget, one needs a breakdown of each and every expense. One should ensure that the unit costs of each expense is listed. For instance, if the workshop would last for one day or three days, each day's expenses of the trainer, participants, etc. should be indicated. Also, the total amount of the activity should be indicated. This would definitely assist the donor to have full clarity of the project activity and its costs.

(ii) A LINE-ITEM BUDGET

A Line-Item budget is quite complicated, compared to an activity budget. A Line-Item budget requires that the budget could be prepared under broad areas. There are different categories of a Line-item budget. One is expected to break the budget into different categories. Major donors such as USAID and the European Union prefer to have their budgets as line items, which can be quite complicated.

(E) WRITING BUDGET PROPOSALS

A project proposal has several components which include project goals, objectives, results, strategies and activities. An ideal way of starting to develop a project budget is to critically look at the project activities. Project development processes require that one should revise, back and forth, the goals, objectives strategies and activities several times. Nevertheless, the complexity of a budget proposal format application, the step towards developing the project, is to first note all the activities and then attach costs to them. This is the easiest and most logical way to develop a budget for a proposal.

(F) USING PROJECT ACTIVITIES TO PEPARE A PROJECT'S BUDGET

As project activities influence the budgeting of the project, it is important to gain greater clarity about them. If the specifications of the project are known, then budgets can be developed more easily and more frequently. For instance, if an NGO is proposing a project about training primary school teachers for capacity building, one ofthe activities to be mentioned under this project is: organizing workshops for the teachers. When you start developing a proposal and look at this activity, you will find yourself a bit confused. But if you are specific by saying exactly what you intend to doby indicating that three workshops are to be organized for a specific number ofprimary school teachers in Lagos State, it will be easier to develop the project budget. One is actually and absolutely sure of the number of workshops one needs to organize and the number of participants and one also has the idea of the location. Costs should quickly be calculated, based on the specifications. The donor agencies will be highly impressed if the activities are visualized with greater clarity and they are mentioned in the proposal. When the list of activities is clear and precise, a great part of the budget work is already accomplished.

(G) OTHER COSTS THAT NEED TO BE MENTIONED IN A PROJECT BUDGET APART FROM ACTIVITY COSTS

Donor agencies emphasize covering activity costs. In fact, some donors can only fund activities. However, for larger project proposals, there will be overheads and staff costs on top of the activities listed. To implement activities, one is required to have human resources, an office and other operational mechanisms. These costs often fall under the line-item budget.

Human resources can include costs towards salaries for project officers, project assistants, accountants or even consultants responsible for implementing the activities. There are operating costs such as rent, telephone, travels which are necessary tosupport the successful execution of the project activities. Costs towards monitoring and evaluation should also be included in the budget. In most project proposal formats, donors require NGOs to submit a monitoring and evaluation plan. This may require extra costs such as hiring an external evaluator or carry out extra research work. The costs associated with such a process can be mentioned in the budget.

Some costs for contingency can be included if the NGO is working in a volatile situation, where most conditions are out of control, such as in a conflict–affected area. In any case, one needs to justify the amount involved. This may require some breakdown to be done, such as costs towards communication during an emergency, etc.

(H) CALCULATING STAFF TIME IN A PROJECT BUDGET

In some project proposal formats, one may come across ‘staff time’ or the number of ‘man-hours’ required in a project. Large donors are very meticulous about these details and require minute calculations for the money they are going to give to organisations, hence, they expect budgets to clearly include every detail. Salaries are a very sensitive part of a project budget, even for the donors. Many funders resist allocating money for salaries and overheads. As they tend to become controversial, it is important for NGOs to be absolutely transparent about this part of the budget. Donors would be happy cover salaries if properly justified.

Overhead costs refer to those expenses which are required by the organisation to run its operations and do not cover any direct expenses of project activities. However, theystill form part of many project budgets.

Overheads can include office rent, telephone expenses, accounting fees, salaries to the organisational staff, repairs, supplies, travel, etc. It should be noted that practically all the features discussed here apply even in the public sector of the economy, i.e. government.

16.9 ASSESSMENT PRACTICES IN THE ACCOUNTING PROFESSION

Assessment practices refer to the ways and means of conducting an effective, valid and reliable evaluation in a given situation. To acquire the ability to operate in such an environment, the assessor must be replete with the knowledge, methods and techniques of conducting valid and reliable assessments. He should be able to exhibit the best practices of assessing people, events and situations without fear, favour and prejudice. For this reason, it isvery essential it is very essential to look at the concepts following intertwined concepts: assessment, tests and testing and measurement and evaluation.

16.9.1 ASSESSMENT

Assessment is a process in which judgement is made about a person or situation. It can also be referred to as a calculation about the cost or value of something such as tax assessment, continuous assessment, etc. It is also the act of assessing an amount (of tax, levy or duty, etc.) assessed. It is an appraisal of evaluation. Assessment involves data collection and the process of organizing the test data collected into interpretable forms on a number of factors. In order to obtain success, a wide variety of instruments, such as tests, questionnaires and observations, are used.

(A) TESTING

Belts (2001) defines a test as an instrument or system procedure for measuring a sample of behaviour. An example is a more formal term used for practical or oral test to appraise learners’ progress, ability or knowledge at the end of the term, or session for school –based assessment. The aim of testing may be to select, classify or diagnose compared with the established norm or standards or simply to check on understanding and learning. Testing is the most widely used technique for assessing learners (Macintosh and Hale, 1976, Akinbode, 2011). Tests constructed by examiners help to appraise all the things that they expect the learners to remember, understand and think about. They also enable a decision to be with regard to those learners who may need individual attention.

(B) MEASUREMENT

Measurement in its broadest sense is essentially the systematic collection and orderly arrangement of information. It implies both the process of collecting and ordering the information and result of this process. It may also refer to a variety of things measured, such as the height of a man, the size of a woman's foot, a volume of gas, or the social adjustment ofa child.

(C) EVALUATION

Evaluation is the systematic process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information to determine the extent to which learners are achieving instructional objectives. It also refers to value judgement about a learner's level of performance, using different assessment instruments (Akinbode, 2011). It enables the teacher to determine how much students have learnt in any given subject at the end of the term or year. It also helps the students and consequently their parents to know how well they are progressing; hence, the parents would beable to facilitate their children's work at home.

Assessment practices involve the ability and skills to adopt tests, measurement and evaluation in judging the performance, aptitude and achievements of the tested.

16.9.2 PURPOSE OF TESTING

Tests may be designed to indicate to both the teacher and the learner areas of strength and areas of weakness. The results of such tests will show what sections of the work should be re- taught or re-studied and where further practice is essential; thus, giving a clear indication whether the learners can go to the next level or not. Tests of this nature are referred to as placement tests.

16.9.3 THE CONCEPT OF TESTING IN THE ACCOUNTING PROFESSION

A test can be referred to as a sample of a candidate's behaviour; consequently, a test in Accounting may be referred to as a sample of a candidate's behaviour with regard to Accounting. In a typical Accounting test, the learner is presented with a set (i.e., sample) of items to be answered or a task to be performed. It is impossible to present the learner with all the items or tasks that we think of.

In defining what an Accounting test is, one needs to clarify two very important concepts; performance and competence in Accounting. There is a clear distinction between performance and competence. Performance is elicited and observed while competence can only be inferred as an underlying ability. Competence has to do with whether a specific Accounting ability is present in the learner, while performance has to do with the strength of that ability.

There are several ways in which the distinction between competence and performance can be exemplified. These have important implications for psychological procedures in Accounting testing. It is possible for somebody for somebody to have an idea or a knowledge of a particular thing, whose name he or she is trying to remember; but the name does not pop up at the precise moment when it is needed. The memory of that person has actually failed at that particular point in time. He or She may remember the name later. This is natural with every human being. Human memory cannot be trusted at all times.

There are at least two implications for the psychological testing from the above example.

1. Reduction of Anxiety/ Non–Accounting Variables: Care should be taken to remove from the testing situation anxiety or any such non-Accounting variables that may interfere with performance to the extent of masking the potential competence of the individual(s) being tested. In any testing situation requiring the individual or the group to speak, a real difficulty lies in distinguishing between testing orality as such and testing ability to be interviewed. The candidate may be nervous, not because of fluencyin English(or any language for that matter), but because of personality factors, or sheerunfamiliarity with the testing situation.

   There are yet other extraneous variables to be taken into account. Those being tested may have to compete with external noise in a typical examination setting. The examiners themselves may be tired. Examiner fatigue has been known to have an adverse effect on interaction in oral tests and consequently on test administration and scoring procedures

2. Adequate Sampling at various levels of Accounting: If competence is to be correctly inferred, there is a need for proper sampling of the different Accounting areas, such as Management, Taxation, Financial, Government, Auditing, etc. This is necessary because skills do not develop at the same rate among learners. For example, a learner may be efficient in Management Accounting and be deficient in Financial Accounting or Auditing.

(A) QUALITIES OF A GOOD TEST

In determining the qualities of an Accounting test, like any other test, two basic concepts which apply generally to evaluation in teaching must be considered. These are concepts of VALIDITY and RELIABILITY.

(i) VALIDITY

An Accounting test, like any other test, is valid when it measures what it sets out to measure.

a) TYPES OF VALIDITY

At least, five types of validity can be distinguished.

- **FACE VALIDITY: The test looks as if it measures what it claims to measure. It is accepted by all as fair and credible.**

- **CONTENT VALIDITY**

  The test is an adequate sample of the contents of the syllabus. One may reason that the ATSWA/ATS Communication Skills Examination has content validity if it covers Introduction to Communication Skills, Language Skills and Grammatical rules, and Practical Application of Communication Skills, etc

  .

- **PREDICTIVE VALIDITY**

If Accounting tests at one educational level predict performance at another level, or in courses or jobs where Accounting ability is essential, we can then say that they have predictive validity.

- **CONCURRENT VALIDITY**
  This is similar to predictive validity in the sense that it refers to performance in another situation as a criterion. The criterion is a test that has been validated. A teacher may want to replace an elaborate rating scale for assessing written composition with a simpler one. He obtains similar results from both scales, and so establishes concurrent or criterion validity for the simpler one (Williams, 1990).

- **CONSTRUCT VALIDITY**
  The test is validated against a theory. It is connected on the basis of what the tester believes to be the nature of ability to be tested. For example, he may have a theory or construct of what reading is, of the factors that make up reading ability. So, he embodies his theory in his reading ability. He tests hypothesis derived from his theory. If these are supported by the results, his reading ability test can be said to have construct validity.

(ii) RELIABILITY

Reliability refers to consistency or stability of measurement. There are two major types of reliability in connection with scoring procedure:

1. Scoring procedure/ rater reliability
2. Internal consistency/ item reliability

a) INTRA-RATER RELIABILITY

A teacher's mark for the same composition exercise may vary in accordance with his physical condition, emotional state, the time of the day, or any other circumstances that might affect his judgement. He may also give a different mark if he were to assess the same composition after an interval of a month or aterm (Williams,1990).

b) INTER-RATER RELIABILITY

If two teachers mark the same composition exercise, the likelihood is that their marks would not tally closely unless they had coordinated their assessment on the basis of some marking scheme.

c) INTERNAL CONSISTENCY/ ITEM RELIABILITY

Another technical consideration in testing is reliability of test items. It is possible to have 100 percent agreement among raters/markers and yet not be able to rely on the goodness of the test in terms of results because the test itemsthemselves are not reliable. There are two points to be considered here:

a. Some items may be too easy or too difficult, and
b. Some items may not discriminate sufficiently between able and less able students (Davies,1986, Williams, 1990).

(B) TYPES OF TESTS/TESTING

Several types of tests are identifiable:

(i) OBJECTIVE TESTS AND SUBJECTIVE TESTING

Objective testing is the type of testing in which the tester or rater can achieve maximum rater reliability while the problem of item reliability remains. In subjective testing, there is definitely a problem of rater reliability. Each of the two approaches to testing has its relative advantages.

The terms 'objective' and 'subjective' refer to marking or scoring. A multiple-choice test can be marked with 100 percent reliability by the teacher, no matterhow many different times or under what different conditions he does themarking. The same result can be achieved by any number of markers.Reliability in marking is guaranteed once the correct choices are agreed upon. One does not think in terms of 100% reliability in marking essay tests. Suchtests are subjective in the sense that the marking may vary from one person toanother. Subjective marking can be done globally by general impression: orpiecemeal, with reference to a marking scheme. No matter how detailed amarking scheme is, the element of subjectivity cannot be ruled out(Williams,1990).

Selection of items for objective test necessarily involves subjective judgement, whether the items are selected by one tester or a group of testers. One cannot guarantee 100% item reliability for ease/ difficulty or discriminative value of items. Subjective testing is appropriate for oral production and written composition because these are problem areas where irrelevant personal biases are likely to creep in. For example, creative writing may be assessed on the basis of whetherthe examiner agrees or not with the idea expressed by the candidate. Handwriting may cause the examiner to add or deduct marks, depending on whether it is neat or not. There is what is known as the 'halo-effect', an error that occurs when a rater's general impression of a person affects his rating of that person on individual traits. Williams (1990) recommends the following procedures if subjective rating is to be relied on:

1. The rating should be confined to characteristics that can be directly observed e.g. management acumen, auditing skills, computer literacy, etc.
2. Points on rating scale should be precisely defined. Descriptions of each characteristic should be given. This is very important when one isdealing with terms such as calculation and computation in Accounting.
3. The number of points on a rating scale schedule should be exactly designated. Fewer points on the scale are needed in assessing performance that permit only crude or broad judgements.
4. The pooled judgement of two or more raters will provide a more reliable estimate of performance, cancelling out the personal biases of individual raters. But this is not possible in classroom circumstances.
5. In tests of Accounting professional skills, more than one topic should be given in order to obtain a more comprehensive sample of the candidate's Accounting ability.

Subjective marking by impression no doubt, takes features such aserrors into consideration. It goes beyond the neutral or negative assessment; giving credit to relevance of content, coherence of thought, clarity and appropriateness of expression.

(ii) CRITERION-REFERENCED AND NORM-REFERENCED TESTS

The purpose of a criterion-referenced test is to know the ability of an individual without reference to the performance of others. The purpose of a criterion-referenced test is to discriminate between individual performances, to spread them out so that they fit some sort of curve. ATS Examination results should be reported in this way; a decision should be made about the percentage of distinctions, credits, passes and failures. The pass and failure marks are norm – referenced grades.

The implications which criterion-referenced and norm-referenced tests have for Accounting have to be based on mastery learning and mastery testing. Mastery learning is concerned with the minimum essentials of the syllabus. These are the skills which must be mastered by each candidate if he/she is to proceed to the next level of instruction.

Mastery testing on the other hand, enables the teacher to determine whether the essential skills have been mastered.

(iii) DISCRETE-POINT AND INTEGRATIVE TESTING

Discrete-point testing is quite literally, testing one item at a time. It may be an aspect of Accounting or Auditing. The word discrete means ‘separate’.

A discrete-point test is referred to as that because of isolated bits of test content, because of the manner of response to the test items, and the way in which the responses are scored.

Integrative testing does not focus on isolated bits of Accounting. It seeks to measure ability to make appropriate responses by harmonising different Accounting skills and knowledge of different aspects of Accounting.

Assessment is a very important aspect of teaching. It is a very useful tool through which an effective teacher can measure the extent of curriculum content coverage, and reliability of his instructional methods. There is a strong connection between teaching and testing and this connection must never be allowed to be broken.

16.9.4 ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS

Assessment instruments can be defined as the tools used in assessing a person or a programme. For decisions to be made on excellence, certain procedures must be followed in selecting the excellent person from other members of the group. Assessment instruments include the following:

1. Tests
2. Interview
3. Annual Performance Evaluation Report.
4. Questionnaire
5. Opinion Polls.
6. Observation

(A) TESTS AS AN INSTRUMENT OF ASSESSMENT

Continuous evaluation implies a process of continuous efforts to assess desirable attainment /change/progress/performance taking place in the learner in accordance with educational objectives.

(B) NEED FOR CONTINUOUS EVALUATION

Evaluation is an important tool in the hands of an assessor to help the assessed to improve their achievement in the scholastic and non-scholastic areas. It is not merely aimed at finding out the progress made by the assessed. It also enables the assessed to improve on his performance on the basis of testing, which points out his limitations.

(C) TECHNIQUES AND TOOLS

Comprehensive evaluation cannot be imagined without continuous evaluation. Both are the two sides of the same coin. Thus, tools and techniques virtually serve the same end: whereas a tool is an instrument, a technique is a procedure.

- **TECHNIQUES**
  - (a) Written examination
  - (b) Oral examination
  - (c) Practical examination
  - (d) Interviews
  - (e) Observation
  - (f) Project techniques

- **TOOLS**

Tools used for tests include:

1. Intelligence tests

2. Teacher-made tests

3. Standardised achievement test

4. Unit tests

5.Terminal tests

6. Annual tests

7. Diagnostic tests.

❖ **TECHNIQUES**

Techniques are the procedures involved in assessment. These include:

(i) INTERVIEW

Interview is another good method of determining achievements, suitability or eligibility of a candidate for a particular responsibility, assignment or position. The interview may be conducted by a panel or an individual, depending on the interest of the organisation or the purpose for which the interview is organized. Questions to ask the interviewee should be relevant to the purpose for which the interview is conducted. The panel of interviewers should be sincere, unbiased and not prejudicial to any interviewee. The interview results shouldbe able to be interpreted as the true test of ability and performance of every interviewee. Best selection should be made of the suitable and eligible candidates especially if the results are highly competitive.

(ii) QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire is another instrument of assessment. Questionnaires are used to obtain data or information on a particular thing before a valid and reliable decision can be made on that particular thing. The questionnaire should be administered to the suitable appropriate target, who should fill it, based on their judgement of the particular issue of investigation. (In terms of technique, there Is a distinction between researcher-administered and respondent-administered questionnaires). Comprehensive instructions as regards how and what to do in the questionnaire should be provided as a guide by the questionnaire designer. There must be a particular number of people to fill the questionnaire, based on a particular selection technique.

When the questionnaire has been completely and correctly filled, it should be collected and analysed with a preferred and chosen statistical method. Having analysed the results, they can be used to make a particular decision on the candidates, especially if the purpose of the research is to select the suitable and eligible staff for a particular position or responsibility.

The use of a questionnaire is a good and reliable research method.

16.9.5 ANNUAL PERFORMANCE EVALUATION REPORT

The practice of using Annual Performance Evaluation Report to assess the performance of employees in some organisations is a statutory issue. In such organizations, the employees are annually evaluated consecutively for a particular number of years before such staff can present themselves for promotion to the next level or cadre. The APER form contains various sections of assessment such as attitudinal, administrative experience, assessment of productivity, career advancement, etc. APER is a cumulative assessment of staff and it guides the management on the suitability for promotion or otherwise of the staff before the final decision can be made on the promotion.

16.9.6 OBSERVATION

Observation is another instrument of assessment. In organizations where observation is used as an assessment instrument, it is better not to allow the observed officers to be aware that they are being observed. If such officers are aware, they can be pretentious and try to impress the Management simply because they are after their promotion and they may not sincerely give their best. It is advisable to keep regular record of the observation in order to give a reliable assessment of the staff being observed. There is no gainsaying that results of observation are subjective depending on the perception of the observer and this is the reason why two different observers may never have equal results on the observed candidates.

16.9.7 EXAMINATION

Examination is a good instrument of assessment. For an examination to be used for assessment, certain factors must be considered. The factors include having objectives for the examination, having a specific number of curriculum contents to be covered within a specific duration, having a suitable marking guide and a reliable grading system, etc. As good as examination is, it does not at times, reflect the true ability of the candidate, bearing in mind that some psychological factors could affect the candidate's performance.

Examinations could be written, oral or even practical. Each examination mode is selected in line with the examiner's motive.

16.9.8 PROJECT

Projects can also be used for assessment in organizations, especially in the technical and mechanical arenas. Certain projects are initiated in organizations to assess the competence, expertise, resourcefulness, and sincerity of some staff. This kind of assessment may require that the officer supplies the bill of quantity, estimates, and assurance on the availability of the materials to be used for the project, as well as the quality of the materials to be used. This kind of assessment is useful for assessing engineers and those who are in the allied professions. Apart from assessing the staff for promotion with the project undertaken, the quality of the project is also assessed. A good and reliable staff, no doubt, is an image of the organisation. Such staff can be nominated to represent the organisation anywhere his services are required.

16.10 SUMMARY

In this chapter, some emerging issues in Communication Skills were discussed. These include digital communication, advertising, assessment practices in the accounting profession, and writing feasibility studies, especially in the accounting profession. All these afore-listed issues are contemporary and are also in line with the best and global practices. Apart from being convenient, cost-effective and highly productive, they enhance business transactions, networking and connectivity across the globe.

One major importance of digital communication, for example, is that its utilization knows no situational bounds; it can be utilised anywhere, evenwithin one's closet with all the necessary communication and digital networks and gadgets.

Furthermore, the knowledge and practice of advertisement, no doubt, would boost the accounting profession and businesses if, when and where relevantly applied. Additionally, to carry out effective and result-oriented advertisement, relevant channels of communication and effective advertising strategies need to be employed.

Moreover, authentic assessment practices are the surest and best method of measuring performance and achievements within organisations. In this chapter, it is recommended that accounting professionals should acquire the various assessment skills to enable them separate 'the wheat from the chaff' when the need arises.

It was also discussed in this chapter that the knowledge of budgeting would enable the accounting professional budget for projects with great dexterity and execute reliable and long-lasting projects with great results. We also discussed the acquisition of skills for writing feasibility studies on any proposed project in the accounting profession.

16.11 END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

16.11.1 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. The following, EXCEPT_____________, are means of advertising.

A Posters
B. Billboards
C. Mass media
D. Communication
E. Memorandum

2. One of the following is NOT a method of assessment

A. Confrontation
B. Test
C. Measurement
D. Evaluation
E. Observation

3. The following, EXCEPT______________, are restricted to being digitally communicated.
A. Email
B. Blog
C. Text messages
D. SMS
E. Reports

4. A report, which aims at determining the practicality, strength and weaknesses of a proposed project is called_______________study.
A. Feasibility
B. Examination
C. Appraisal
D. Documentation
E. Consolidation

5. A financial proposal that reflects the work proposed to be executed is called _________.

A. Budget
B. Auditing
C. Taxation
D. Interaction
E. Canvassing

16.11.2 SHORT ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. An online meeting where two or more people engage in a live audio-visual call is_______.

2. A method of exchanging mails between people using electronic devices is called________.

3. A practice used to determine or evaluate the performance of a person in an organisation is called

4. A proposed budget for a project is a plan for future_______________.

5. A discussion on the World Wide Web, consisting of discrete diary text entries Is called_____

16.11.3 ESSAY

1. (a) Define digital communication.
   (b) Discuss with examples, any four relevance of digital communication to the accounting profession.

2. (a) Define advertising.
   (b) Explain any four areas in which advertising is required in the accounting profession.

16.12 SOLUTIONS TO END OF CHAPTER REVIEW QUESTIONS

16.12.1 SOLUTIONS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS (MCQ)

1. E

2. A

3. E

4. A

5. A

16.12.2 SOLUTIONS TO SHORT ANSWER QUESTIONS (SAQ)

1. Video conferencing
2. Email or electronic mail
3. Assessment/ appraisal

4. Expenditure/ spending
5. Blog

16.12.3 SOLUTIONS TO ESSAY QUESTIONS

QUESTION 1

(a) Digital communication can be defined as data transmission and data reception or, more broadly, data communication. Digital communication is the transfer and reception of data in the form of digital bit stream or a digitized analogue signal over a point-to-point or point-to-multipoint communication channel. Examples of such channels are copper-wires, optical fibres, wireless communication using radio spectrum, storage media and computer buses. The data are represented as electromagnetic signal, such as an electric voltage, radio-wave, microwave, or infrared signal.

Analog transmission is a method of conveying voice, data, image, signal or video information, using a continuous signal which varies in amplitude, phase, or some other property in proportion to that of a variable. The messages are either represented by a sequence of pulsesby means of a line code or by a limited set of continuously varying waveforms, using a digital modulation method. The pass-band modulation and corresponding demodulation is carried out by modern equipment.

Digital signal, both baseband and pass-band signals representing bit-streams are considered as digital transmission. Furthermore, the baseband signal is also considered as digital, and pass-band transmission of digital data is also considered as a form of digital-to-analogue conversion. Data transmitted may be digital messages originating from a data source, for example, a computer or a keyboard. It may also be an analogue signal such as phone call or a video signal, digitized into a bit-stream, for example, using pulse-code modulation or more advancedsource coding schemes. This source coding and decoding processes are carried out by codec equipment.

(i) Flexibility;
(ii) A commitment to lifelong learning;
(iii) A passion for advertising and marketing;
(iv) Empathy;
(v) Curiosity;
(vi) Content Marketing;
(vii) Digital Advertising;
(viii) Data-driven Marketing;
(ix) Search Engine Optimisation;
(x) Social media.

FLEXIBILITY

Digital communication, undoubtedly, makes both the Accounting profession and the Accounting businesses flexible in the sense that both will thrive in digital communication and be highly adaptable. For example, digital communication would enable the professionals to shift quickly from old ideas and methods to the new ones. Flexibility is highly valued in the modern world. Furthermore, hiring managers want employees who can easily acclimatize to changes.

A COMMITMENT TO LIFE-LONG LEARNING

Digital communication is important for staying marketable in and at the forefront of the Accounting profession. It is impossible to predict future changes, but the most successful digital communication professional accountants are those committed to lifelong learning because they are likely to stay ahead of the rapid pace of change.

A PASSION FOR ADVERTISING AND MARKETING

Digital communications are often rooted in the art of persuasion and one of the best ways to persuade the audience is by crafting a strong advertising and marketing narrative.

EMPATHY

Being a strong communicator involves gaining a strong appreciation for one's audience and what drives them. Once one is able to put him/herself in the shoes of other people, whom one is trying to influence, one can establish more meaningful and more effective connections with them.

CURIOSITY

The best accountants are the ones who crave deeper understanding of the people, processes, and channels of communication. These professionals are regarded as being curious and their curiosity always carries them a long way in the accounting profession.

CONTENT MARKETING

Digital communication also promotes and enhances content marketing. Content marketing involves planning, creating, and sharing of compelling content to engage key audiences. Unlike in traditional marketing, it is not promoting a product or service, but being a credible source of information that matters to potential customers.

DIGITAL ADVERTISING

Digital advertising professionals develop and execute strategies to reach highly targeted audiences through an array of online channels, from Google Ad-Words to Instagram.

DATA-DRIVEN MARKETING

Data-driven marketing involves testing various marketing approaches, analysing and interpreting data and measuring the results of marketing campaigns. These are one of the hallmarks of a good and productive accountant.

SEARCH ENGINE OPTIMISATION

Professionals in these roles implement, analyse, and continuously update website content and technical features to increase an organisation's search engine ranking. Any professional accountant who has all these knowledge and skills, no doubt, is an asset to his/her establishment.

SOCIAL MEDIA

Social media professionals are responsible for developing and executing social media marketing campaigns to influence a target audience, which includes the creation and curation of visual and written contents. They also may act as community managers, listening and responding to social mediausers in a way that is in line with the organisation's brand identity.

QUESTION 2

Advertising is a form of communication and it is one of the oldest professions in the world. It is as old as humanity. It is the market instrument which advertisers use to influence the behaviour of consumers at the point of purchase. Language is a very powerful tool in advertising and advertising language is unique in terms of usage and the mass mediaare the agencies of diffusing advertisement messages.

Advertising is also a means by which the consumer accesses the product. In recent times, advertisement is largely staged in the media - print or electronic. This is obviously because through the media, advert messages get across to a vast majority of audiences. Advertisements provide people with information on the availability of particular products, the place of purchase, the nature of products, etc.

In advertising, the advertiser endeavours to achieve a link between the sender and the receivers.This link is a form of communication and it also bridges the gap between the sender and the receiver.

Advertising has been classified into six. Among them are commercial and non-commercial.

Non-commercial advertisement is realized when an agency or organisation gives information to the public about its place, programme or policy. Commercial advertisement, on the other hand, covers prestige or goodwill messages and industrial or trade promotion.

The following include the areas in which advertising is required in the accounting profession:

(1) Advertising of job vacancies;
(2) Advertising for positions or appointments;
(3) Sales promotion;
(4) Advertising for goods and services;
(5) Call for bids for project execution;
(6) Advertising for academic programmes, trainings, and professional examinations.

ADVERTISING OF JOB VACANCIES

Advertising of job vacancies are placed by the Management of an accounting organisation when there is a need to fill any vacant position with the eligible applicants. Such advertisements are made to the members of the public with specific requirements expected from any qualified candidate to be shortlisted for interview at a specific venue, date and time.

ADVERTISING FOR POSITION

Internal and external advertisements are placed by the Management of an organisation when there is a need for a sensitive position to be occupied either by certain members of the organisation or an outsider who is qualified for the position.

ADVERTISING FOR GOODS AND SERVICES

Goods and services are also advertised for in the accounting profession. For example, new products are usually advertised to the members of the public through the social, print, and electronic media. Services required from the members of the public are also advertised through the same media.

SALES PROMOTION

Sales promotions are also made, especially when there is a need to promote the products for better or improved sales. This is done be through sales representatives or the media, especially when there is rebranding of such products for better or increased purchase by the members of the public.

CALL FOR BIDS FOR PROJECT EXECUTION

Bids for particular projects to be embarked upon by an accounting organisation are also advertised to the members of the public through the media. This normally happens when the services of non-accounting professionals are required. For instance, a building project requires the services of quantity surveyors, architects, engineers, to mention but a few. In such a situation, an attempt should be made to seek for qualified and reliable professionals with good antecedents to handle the project through negotiations and bargaining.

ADVERTISING FOR ACADEMIC PROGRAMMES, TRAININGS AND PROFESSIONAL EXAMINATIONS

Academic programmes, trainings, and professional examinations require much advertisement to get suitable candidates (for examination), training personnel (for lectures), and examiners (for the professional examinations), which involve setting of questions, review of the syllabi, etc. All these, in most cases, require the services of other professionals and attempts are always made by the ICAN for instance, to get trustworthy, reliable, and consistent people to handle such assignments.

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